Supplemental Materials and Methods

Study Diets

Study diets were composed of 0.8 g/kg high biologic value protein (current Dietary Reference Intake [DRI]), 30% of energy from fat, and the remaining energy from carbohydrate. Total food intake was adjusted to be isocaloric and to provide adequate intakes of macro- and micronutrients (supplemental table 2). All diets met or exceeded the Estimated Average Requirement for methionine plus cysteine and the DRI for vitamins B-12, B-6, and folic acid. A multivitamin supplement (Kirkland Brand Multi-vitamin Multi-mineral) provided vitamins A, D, B-12, and C and thiamine, niacin, and riboflavin at or above the DRI. Subjects were also given a calcium and magnesium supplement. Subjects' weights remained relatively stable, as caloric intake was adjusted for each subject over the course of the study to maintain subject weight (supplemental table 9). In addition to changes in choline levels, all depletion diets included a soy shake containing Benefiber and, thereby, differed from the study diets at other time points. Description of and micronutrient levels of all diets are extensively detailed in Busby et al.¹

ARISA Analysis Methods

Using extracted DNA, the intergenic region between the 16S rRNA and the 23S rRNA genes was PCR amplified for each of two technical replicates using universal bacterial primers 1406F-FAM (FAM+TGY ACA CAC CGC CCG T) and 125R (GGG TTB CCC CAT TCR G). Reactions were set up using 50ng of template DNA according to a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer. Thermalcycling conditions were as follows: an initial denaturation step at 94° C for 2 minutes, followed by 35 cycles of 94^oC for 25 seconds; 56.5C for 30 seconds; 72^oC for 60 seconds. An extension was carried out at 72^oC for 5 minutes. Samples were loaded on an Applied Biosystems 3130 genetic analyzer. Applied Biosystems GeneScan™ 1200 LIZ® size standard was used to determine sizing up to 1200 nucleotides. The labeled fragments were separated by size on an Applied Biosystems 3130 sequencer, resulting in an electropherogram where each signal peak represented a different bacterial signature (supplemental figure 1). The electropherogram from each replicate was analyzed using custom JAVA software (unpublished) that establishes a base-pair scale, calls the data peaks from the spectra, assigns base pair sizes to each

peak and provides summaries of the peak call assignments. Peak calls were validated using Applied Biosystems 3130 analysis software. Resulting data vectors from all samples were compared using hierarchical clustering with custom JAVA code (available upon request).

Sequencing Analysis Methods

The V1-V2 variable regions of the 16S rRNA gene were targeted using the 454 Life Sciences primer B with a "TC" linker and bacterial 27F primer (5'-

GCCTTGCCAGCCCGCTCAGTCAGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and 454 Life Sciences primer A with a "CA" linker, 12 mer barcode and bacterial primer 338R (5'-

GCCTCCCTCGCGCCATCAGNNNNNNNNNNNNCATGCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT-3') where the N's represent barcodes used to identify each sample. 2 PCRs were set up with Platinum Taq DNA polymerase (Invitrogen) according to the included protocol with 100ng of bacterial genomic DNA as a template. Each reaction was quantitated by PicoGreen on a NanoDrop ND-3300 fluorospectrometer. Samples were pooled in equimolar amounts and concentrated in a vacuum centrifuge before being submitted to the Environmental Genomics Core Facility at the University of South Carolina for 454-FLX sequencing.

 Over 200,000 sequences were obtained from the 454-FLX process and were end-trimmed based on the Lucy algorithm at a cut-off of 0.002 corresponding to a quality score of 27. 3 Sequences had to meet the following criteria⁴ to be included in the final dataset: (1) no Ns in the trimmed sequence, (2) an exact match to the 5' primer, (3) Lucy's identified region of poor quality at the 0.002 threshold did not extend beyond the 5' primer. The 5' primer (including the barcode) was trimmed from the sequences before analysis. Any sequences that did not meet a length requirement from 180 to 280 bases after trimming were discarded. The 194,781 trimmed, quality-controlled sequences (supplemental table 4) were evaluated for human contamination by using BLASTn⁵ searches against the E. coli (J01695) 16S rRNA gene. All but 60 of our sequences matched the E. coli 16S rRNA gene with an e-score threshold of 0.04. For the 60 sequences that did not meet this threshold, a BLASTn search was performed against the entire bacterial 16S rRNA Ribosomal Database Project (RDP)⁶ database. Every one of these sequenced matched this database with an e-value of 2.00E-90 or smaller. Taken together, these results

indicate that our quality-controlled, trimmed sequences had little to no human contamination. Rarefaction curves illustrate that the resulting sequences provided sufficient sequence depth in all subjects and in 74 of the 79 samples originally collected (supplemental figures 2-3).

Statistical Methods

The standardized logged sequence abundance was used in statistical analysis of all sequence counts, using the following calculation:

LOG10 ((Frequency # sequences in sample)*Average # of sequences per sample $+1$) As an example, consider a dataset in which there was an average of 2,500 sequences per sample assigned to phylum at a 50% confidence level. For one sample within this dataset, 1,000 sequences were assigned to phylum and, of those, 300 were assigned to the taxon Firmicutes. The transformation would be:

Log10 (($300 / 1000$) * 2500 + 1) = 2.8756

Using this measure, the logged sequence proportion corrects for different samples having different total numbers of sequences.

For hierarchical clustering of OTUs, we estimated the probability of obtaining the perfect clustering of samples by subject that we observed by sequencing by calculating how many different ways there are to achieve perfect clustering and dividing this value by the total number of ways the samples could be clustered. For the purposes of this calculation, we consider the hierarchical cluster as arranging the samples in an unweighted tree and the results of the cluster as an ordered set of our 74 samples represented by the 74 most derived nodes of the tree. In a tree with perfect clustering by subject, there are x_i! possible arrangements of samples for each subject, where x_i is the number of samples for subject i (supplemental table 4). Since there are 15 ways of arranging our subjects while maintaining perfect clusters, the total number of unweighted trees that we could have observed that would have contained perfect clustering by patient is given by:

$$
15!\prod_{i=1}^{i=15} X_i\ (1)
$$

 Since there are 74 samples, there are 74! possible arrangements of all of our samples. Dividing equation (1) by 74! yields a value of 6.78 e^{-65} . We conclude that we can reject a null hypothesis that we could have observed perfect clustering of our patients by chance with a p-value of essentially zero. For all taxonomic statistical testing, we report results at the most inclusive taxonomic level for which effects were identified. From a practical perspective, we were able to determine that statistical testing at fine levels of detail was unlikely to be productive. In many cases, a particular family or genus would only be present in a small subset of our subjects, sometimes only in one subject, which reduced sample size and, therefore, the power of any statistical analysis, to the point where achieving significance was improbable. We were also aware of the problem created by multiple comparisons and wanted to approach our dataset with that issue in mind. To manage power and to provide some control for multiple comparisons, we chose to conduct statistical testing at the highest taxonomic level present in at least half of our subjects. While we recognized that the range of bacterial types within a group as large as class would likely also represent a range of functional types, our observed correlations between physiological changes and bacterial abundance suggested that that function in the bacterial group was consistent enough to support the host physiology link.

For paired t-tests comparing time points, samples missing one or more time points (subjects 29, 04) were excluded from the analysis. To manage the number of comparisons for which we had to correct, we removed from statistical analysis any taxon which did not have a presence in at least 50% of our subjects (9 categories for the taxonomic class level), a criterion which reduced the possibility of spurious observations that might result from low sample sizes.

To correct for multiple comparisons in statistical testing, we used the Benjamini and Hochberg algorithm⁷ to adjust each p-value. The adjusted p-values for a statistical test run over a set of taxa (ordered in ascending rank by p-value) is given by $N * p(k)/k$ where N is the number of taxa for which a null hypothesis is evaluated by the test statistic, $p(k)$ is the p-value produced by the test statistic and k is the rank of the taxa within the p-value ranked list. (Note that, for the top hit with the smallest p-value, the adjusted p-value is identical to Bonferroni correction). The adjusted p-value can then be evaluated against a threshold false discovery rate. For example, an adjusted p-value of 0.05 indicates that a result could be considered significant if a commonly-selected 5% FDR threshold was chosen. We note that

our adjusted p-values can be greater than 1 and hence cannot be strictly considered as classical pvalues.

 In our PCA models of the relationships between bacterial abundance, host genotype and liver fat changes, we recognized the potential problem of model over-fitting. Because we selected the two taxa having the highest R^2 s of the nine regressions we performed (one for each class found in at least 8 of our patients), we would expect that the first component of the PCA could be well matched to the LF:SF ratio % change. We recognize that the reported p-value from the linear regression in Figure 5C is, therefore, likely to be anticonservative. To correct for model over-fitting, we developed a permutation procedure which randomly reassigned the taxa associated with each subject, then performed regressions between the permuted taxa and the LF:SF % change. (For example, in a permutation the taxa that were associated with subject 04, could be assigned to patient 28; for 15 subjects, the number of possible permutations for this procedure is 15! or 1.31E+12.) We then selected the two taxa that had regressions with the highest R² values for each permutation and used those taxa in a PCA. We then computed the R² of the first component of that PCA against the LF:SF ratio % change. We ran the permutation procedure one million times. The "permuted p-value" reported from this process is the fraction of times that we observed an R² with a value greater than or equal to the R² we observed in the unpermuted data. To correct for over-fitting in our model in Figure 5D, we performed a similar set of one million permutations to those described for Figure 5C. We maintained the correct SNP genotype assignment for each subject while reassigning taxa to different subjects, as before. The reported permutation based p-value, therefore, tests the null hypothesis that, given the established relationship between the *PEMT* SNP and fatty liver, inclusion of microbiome composition adds no power to the model. All permutations were conducted using custom JAVA software (source code available on request).

Supplemental References

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Supplemental Tables

Supplemental Table 1

Type, HET = Heterozygous, HO = Homozygous.

	Breakfast			Lunch		
Nutrients*	Baseline	Depletion	Repletion	Baseline	Depletion	Repletion
Choline (mg)	129.10	13.14	243.69	150.45	10.54	152.60
Energy (kcal)	484.29	474.29	377.72	700.47	657.64	640.33
Pro(g)	7.12	13.79	9.70	16.45	15.16	18.66
Fat (g)	18.64	15.65	11.14	24.05	21.70	27.17
Carb (g)	72.65	72.82	59.35	103.58	104.63	78.70
Folate (mcg)	72.24	20.01	100.30	157.28	4.80	158.08
Vitamin B-12 (mcg)	0.00	0.00	0.64	0.17	0.17	0.24
Met (g)	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.32	0.13	0.37
Cys(g)	0.07	0.00	0.06	0.20	0.03	0.22
Na (mg)	546.49	266.38	530.36	2560.95	191.20	2709.85
Water (g)	29.78	244.72	308.24	215.45	116.45	219.36
Fiber - total dietary (g)	3.25	2.38	1.18	1.62	1.44	1.62
Ca (mg)	29.83	12.61	43.15	187.40	147.95	242.60
P (mg)	293.67	117.47	263.99	389.20	111.20	440.50
K(mg)	283.45	743.51	274.11	275.14	652.16	291.54
Fe (mg)	2.79	1.24	2.54	5.71	0.28	5.72
Zn (mg)	1.05	0.85	0.85	1.81	0.66	2.09
Mg (mg)	80.79	74.90	21.86	35.49	9.20	38.19
Cu (mg)	0.14	0.12	0.12	0.37	0.04	0.37
Mn (mg)	1.30	1.61	0.78	0.57	0.09	0.57
Se (mcg)	18.69	8.68	25.81	36.22	3.23	37.66
Vit C (mg)	0.02	0.02	0.27	0.02	25.44	0.02
Thiamin (mg)	0.37	0.14	0.27	0.49	0.02	0.50
Riboflavin (mg)	0.24	0.07	0.45	0.56	0.11	0.59
Niacin (mg)	2.64	0.21	1.92	5.42	0.24	5.43
Pantothenic acid (mg)	0.36	0.20	0.99	0.83	0.20	0.88
Vit B-6 (mg)	0.05	0.03	0.10	0.06	0.05	0.07
Vit A (IU) (IU)	764.76	382.20	436.15	2237.49	617.10	2333.59
Vit E (mg ATE)	2.43	1.11	0.76	1.32	1.11	1.32
Vit D (IU)	0.00	0.00	17.27	0.00	2.40	0.00
Cholesterol (mg)	0.00	0.00	211.50	46.16	21.00	55.56
Vitamin K (mcg)	12.32	6.51	3.26	8.39	6.11	8.66
Protein (%)	5.85	11.32	10.30	9.45	8.99	11.78
Fat $(\%)$	34.45	28.90	26.64	31.07	28.96	38.57
Carbohydrate (%)	59.70	59.77	63.06	59.48	62.06	49.65
Alcohol (%)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Supplemental Table 2: Nutrient Content in Sample Baseline, Depletion and Repletion Diets

*Nutrient values do not include supplements provided to subjects (supplemental methods, study diets)

Supplemental Table 2 (cont.)

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Table 3. Components of the B1 to D2 Liver Fat to Spleen Fat (LF:SF) ratio percent

change. For each subject, MRI measurements of liver fat values, spleen fat values and the ratio of liver fat to spleen fat are provided for Baseline and Depletion time points. The percentage change in the LF:SF ratio from B1 to D2 is also calculated.

Supplemental Table 4

tag, no low quality sequence beyond 5' primer. Sequences

that passed quality standards and that had a length 180 nt to

280 nt, after quality trimming, were retained.

Supplemental Table 5

(n=9) and shows that only Gammaproteobacteria B1 abundance shows a

significant linear correlation to liver fat change at a false discovery rate of 0.05.

Supplemental Table 6

Table 6. P-values based on Unifrac analysis of samples within subject. The pvalue represents the probability that a sample has more unique phylogenetic branch lengths that would be expected by chance. Low values indicate that the sample is different from the other patient samples. Asterisks designate missing samples. Noteworthy are the B1 samples from patients 28, 30, 33 and 34, where baseline samples are distinct.

Supplemental Table 7

Supplemental Table 8: Multivariate Regression Effect Testing

Supplemental Table 9: Weight of Each Subject at Baseline (B1), Depletion (D2) and Repletion (R) Time Points

Supplemental Figures

Supplemental Figure 1. Example of Automated Ribosomal Intergenic Spacer Analysis. An ARISA experiment showing changes in the microbial community during the initial baseline stage, when subjects have entered the hospital are placed on a controlled diet and a choline depletion stage when subjects are placed on a low-choline diet.

Rarefaction curve for all usable sequences

Supplemental Figure 2. Rarefaction curve for all samples. Rarefaction curve shows that sampling saturates the sequence space. The red arrows indicate the numbers of OTUs at which 93% (566 OTUs) and 95% (843 OTUs) of total sequences are under the curve.

Supplemental Figure 3. Rarefaction curves by patient across samples. Curves illustrate the differing levels of saturation.