

Moderate-Intensity Exercise Improves Endothelial Function by Altering Gut Microbiome Composition in Rats Fed a High-Fat Diet

Honggang Yin^{1,2}, Junhao Huang² and Min Hu^{1,3}

¹School of Kinesiology, Shanghai University of Sport, Shanghai, China

²Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Sports and Health Promotion, Scientific Research Center, Guangzhou Sport University, Guangdong, China

³Department of Sports and Health, Guangzhou Sport University, Guangdong, China

Background: Obesity changes gut microbial ecology and is related to endothelial dysfunction. Although the correlation between gut microbial ecology and endothelial dysfunction has been studied in obese persons, the underlying mechanisms by which exercise enhances endothelial function in this group remain unclear. This study investigated whether exercise improves endothelial function and alters gut microbiome composition in rats fed a high-fat diet (HFD).

Methods: Obesity was induced by an HFD for 11 weeks. Whole-body composition and endothelium-dependent relaxation of mesenteric arteries were measured. Blood biochemical tests were performed, and gut microbiomes were characterized by 16S rRNA gene sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq platform.

Results: Exercise training for 8 weeks improved body composition in HFD-fed rats. Furthermore, compared with the untrained/HFD group, aerobic exercise significantly increased acetylcholine-induced, endothelium-dependent relaxation in mesenteric arteries ($P < 0.05$) and circulating vascular endothelial growth factor levels ($P < 0.01$) and decreased circulating C-reactive protein levels ($P < 0.05$). In addition, exercise and HFD resulted in alterations in the composition of the gut microbiome; exercise reduced the relative abundance of Clostridiales and *Romboutsia*. Moreover, 12 species of bacteria, including *Romboutsia*, were significantly associated with parameters of endothelial function in the overall sample.

Conclusions: These results suggest that aerobic exercise enhances endothelial function in HFD-fed rats by altering the composition of the gut microbiota. These findings provide new insights on the application of physical exercise for improving endothelial function in obese persons.

(J Nippon Med Sch 2022; 89: 316–327)

Key words: exercise, obesity, gut microbiota, *Romboutsia*, endothelial function

Introduction

Obesity is a major public health concern and has attracted global attention because of its impact on human health. Obesity can cause cardiovascular disorders such as dyslipidemia, hypertension, and atherosclerosis. Endothelial dysfunction is the starting point of many cardiovascular disorders and a key link in the development of cardiovascular risk factors associated with obesity and metabolic disorders¹. Hemodynamic changes associated with increased systemic inflammation, oxidative stress,

and weight gain may directly cause vascular endothelial injury and dysfunction, a cascade that may represent the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis in obese individuals². Data from many epidemiological studies indicate that exercise has systemic effects and many benefits, such as reducing chronic disease risk factors³. However, the underlying mechanism by which exercise enhances endothelial function in obese individuals remains unclear.

Increasing evidence indicates that obesity is closely related to the host's gut microbiota⁴, which is essential in

Correspondence to Min Hu, School of Kinesiology, Shanghai University of Sport, No. 399 Changhai Road, Yangpu District, Shanghai 200438, China

E-mail: whoomin@aliyun.com

https://doi.org/10.1272/jnms.JNMS.2022_89-307

Journal Website (<https://www.nms.ac.jp/sh/jnms/>)

the pathogenesis of obesity and diabetes and affects key pathways such as energy homeostasis and inflammation⁵. Zhong and colleagues found reduced alpha diversity in the gut of an obese population and altered ecology of the gut microbiota⁶. A high-fat diet (HFD) altered the composition of the gut microbiota by reducing the abundance of beneficial bacteria in the intestines and increasing factors that trigger inflammation⁷. This, in turn, also negatively affected gut microbiota diversity and reduced production of short-chain fatty acids⁸. Gut microbiota implanted from high-fat-induced or *ob/ob* mice produced more body fat components in germ-free mice than in conventional or wild-type mice⁹. Nirmalkar et al. reported a correlation between intestinal flora and markers of endothelial dysfunction in Mexican children and adolescents with obesity¹⁰. A clinical study of 617 middle-aged women revealed that vascular function is closely related to intestinal flora; in addition, 7 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were associated with arterial stiffness¹¹. These studies indicate that the gut microbiota is correlated with obesity status and endothelial function in obese persons.

Previous studies have described the positive effects of exercise on gut microbiota^{12,13}. Exercise increases alpha and beta diversity in the gut microbiota¹⁴⁻²⁰. It also modulates gut microbiota profiles and increases levels of butyrate-producing bacteria and fecal butyrate, which are independent of diet, in murine species and humans¹². However, the effect of exercise on gut microbiota, including prevention of HFD-induced vascular endothelial dysfunction, is unclear. Furthermore, no study has identified the specific taxa involved in the development of endothelial dysfunction. Therefore, this study investigated the associations of gut microbiota, aerobic exercise, and endothelial function. We hypothesized that aerobic exercise would alter the composition of intestinal microbes and improve vascular endothelial function in rats with HFD-induced obesity and that improved vascular endothelial function may be related to exercise-induced changes in the gut microbiota.

Materials and Methods

Animals and Exercise Training Protocol

Four-week-old male Sprague-Dawley rats (weight range: 109.3-144.1 g) were obtained from the Guangdong Medical Laboratory Animal Center (SCXK, 2013-0002) and randomly assigned to a standard diet (SD, $n = 16$) or HFD ($n = 40$) for 11 weeks. Rats were fed in an SPF environment with four rats per cage. The formulas of the SD

and HFD (Product No. D12492) are shown in **Supplementary Table 1** (https://doi.org/10.1272/jnms.JNMS.2022_89-307). Food and water were given *ad libitum*, and the animals were maintained in a facility with a 12-h light-dark cycle, humidity of 60%, and temperature of $23 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$. After HFD feeding for 11 weeks, the animals were randomly divided into an exercise-trained group (HF trained, $n = 8$) or untrained group (HF control, $n = 10$). These animals continued to be fed on HFD. Rats in the SD group were also randomly divided into an exercise-trained group (SD trained, $n = 8$) and untrained group (SD control, $n = 8$) and continued on an SD. Both the HF trained group and SD trained group were subjected to a moderate-intensity exercise training protocol (20 m/min without inclination, 60 min/day, 6 days/week for 8 weeks) on a motor-driven treadmill (Model LE8710TRS, PanLab, Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA, USA)²¹. Change in average 24-h energy intake and body weight during the exercise intervention are shown in **Supplementary Figure 1, 2**, respectively.

All animals ($n = 34$) were euthanized at the end of the study with a solution of 3% sodium pentobarbitone administered intraperitoneally. Body composition was measured, and blood, second-order mesenteric arteries, and cecal samples were collected and stored for later analysis.

Body Composition Measurement

All rats were immobilized in a prone position and then scanned by micro-computed tomography (Model LCT-200, Hitachi, Aloka, Japan). All scans continued for 20 to 25 min, and the data were processed with ultra-high-resolution analysis software. Body composition—including body weight, fat mass, fat-free mass, fat-free mass percentage, and fat mass percentage—was assessed.

Isometric Tension Measurement

Vessel tension measurements were performed as previously described^{22,23}. In brief, the second-order mesenteric arteries were dissected in a Petri dish filled with ice-cold Krebs solution (118 mM NaCl, 4.7 mM KCl, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O, 25.2 mM NaHCO₃, and 11.1 mM glucose; pH 7.4) that was continuously bubbled with 95% oxygen (O₂) and 5% carbon dioxide (CO₂) mixed gas. Vessel segments were cut into pieces approximately 2 mm in length and mounted in a DMT myograph chamber (Model 620M, Danish Myo-Technology, Aarhus, Denmark) containing Krebs solution (pH 7.4) saturated with 95% O₂ plus 5% CO₂ at 37°C. The tensile vascular ring produced an initial passive tension of 3 mN, and changes in vascular tone were recorded

with a Powerlab system. After a 30-min equilibration, the contractile function of the vessel was tested by replacing the Krebs solution with 60 mM K⁺ solution (prepared by substituting NaCl with equimolar KCl). After washout three times and a 20-min equilibration period, the vessels were pre-contracted with 1 μM phenylephrine. When the contraction response reached a plateau, a gradient of acetylcholine (ACh) was cumulatively added to induce relaxation of the rings, to obtain a concentration-response curve for ACh-mediated relaxation.

Biochemical Testing

For serum preparation, blood collected from the abdominal aorta was placed in tubes without anticoagulants. We measured levels of inflammatory factor indicators, including tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and C-reactive protein (CRP), as well as vascular endothelial function biomarkers, namely vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), with enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kits (Cusabio, Biotech. Co., Ltd., Wuhan, China) used in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The optical density of each indicator was read by a microplate reader (EPOCH2, BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA).

Cecal Sample Collection and 16S rRNA Sequencing

Cecal samples were collected and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. DNA was extracted from approximately 100 mg of cecal sample with a QIAamp DNA stool Mini Kit. DNA concentration was determined using an ND-1000 NanoDrop and Qubit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Biological data, such as the abundance and diversity of intestinal microbes, were analyzed for each group by 16S rRNA sequencing based on the Illumina HiSeq platform²⁴. Details of the analysis are described elsewhere²⁵⁻²⁸. Briefly, the raw reading was processed with Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME) software to create an OTU table. Uclust's open reference selection strategy was used to cluster sequences into a single OTU with a default similarity level of 97%, followed by chimeric detection utilizing the UCHIME method. The Ribosomal Database Project Classifier was used to align with the Greengenes Database, using a single representative sequence from each OTU cluster. Alpha diversity was assessed by using QIIME to calculate five indices, i.e., the observed species (Sobs), Chao, Ace, Shannon, and Simpson indices. Metastat analysis, which was used to identify the difference, was evaluated by false discovery rate. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) was used to estimate the effect size of the differentially rich genera. The threshold logarithmic LDA score for the

distinguishing feature was set to 2.5.

Co-Occurrence Analysis

Co-occurrence analysis was conducted by using *out_table.biom* files in the CoNet (Co-occurrence Network Inference) plugin tool²⁹. The resulting co-occurrence networks were generated and analyzed with Cytoscape (v3.6.1) software¹⁰.

Statistical Analysis

The effective concentration that induced 50% of the maximum effect (EC₅₀) was calculated from each concentration-relaxation curve by using the following logistic, curve-fitting equation: $E = MA^p / (A^p + K^p)$, where M is the maximal relaxation, E is the response, K is the EC₅₀ concentration, A is the concentration, and p is the slope parameter³⁰. Analyses were conducted using SPSS 20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Differences between experimental groups were assessed using two-way ANOVA (diet × exercise), and *in vitro* assays were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. Pearson's correlation analysis was performed to measure correlations between two variables, and correlations were screened for $R > 0.8$ and deemed significant at $P < 0.05$. All data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation. Differences with a P-value of <0.05 were considered to be statistically significant. To avoid false positives, the false discovery rate (FDR) (*q*-value) was estimated with the Benjamini-Hochberg method.

Ethics approval

All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the guidelines established by the US National Institutes of Health (NIH Publication No. 8523) and received approval from the Animal Experimentation Ethics Committee of Guangzhou Sport University (NO. 2020DWLL-17).

Results

Changes in Body Composition with Exercise Intervention

Changes in body weight and body composition have been previously described²¹. The results of micro-computed tomography (**Supplementary Table 2**) indicate that body weight, fat mass, and fat mass percentage were significantly higher in the SD control group than in the HF control group (all $P < 0.01$), while fat-free mass percentage was significantly lower in the HF control group ($P < 0.01$). After 8 weeks of aerobic exercise, body weight and fat-free mass were lower in the SD trained group than in the SD control group ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, fat mass ($P < 0.05$), body weight, fat mass percentage, and

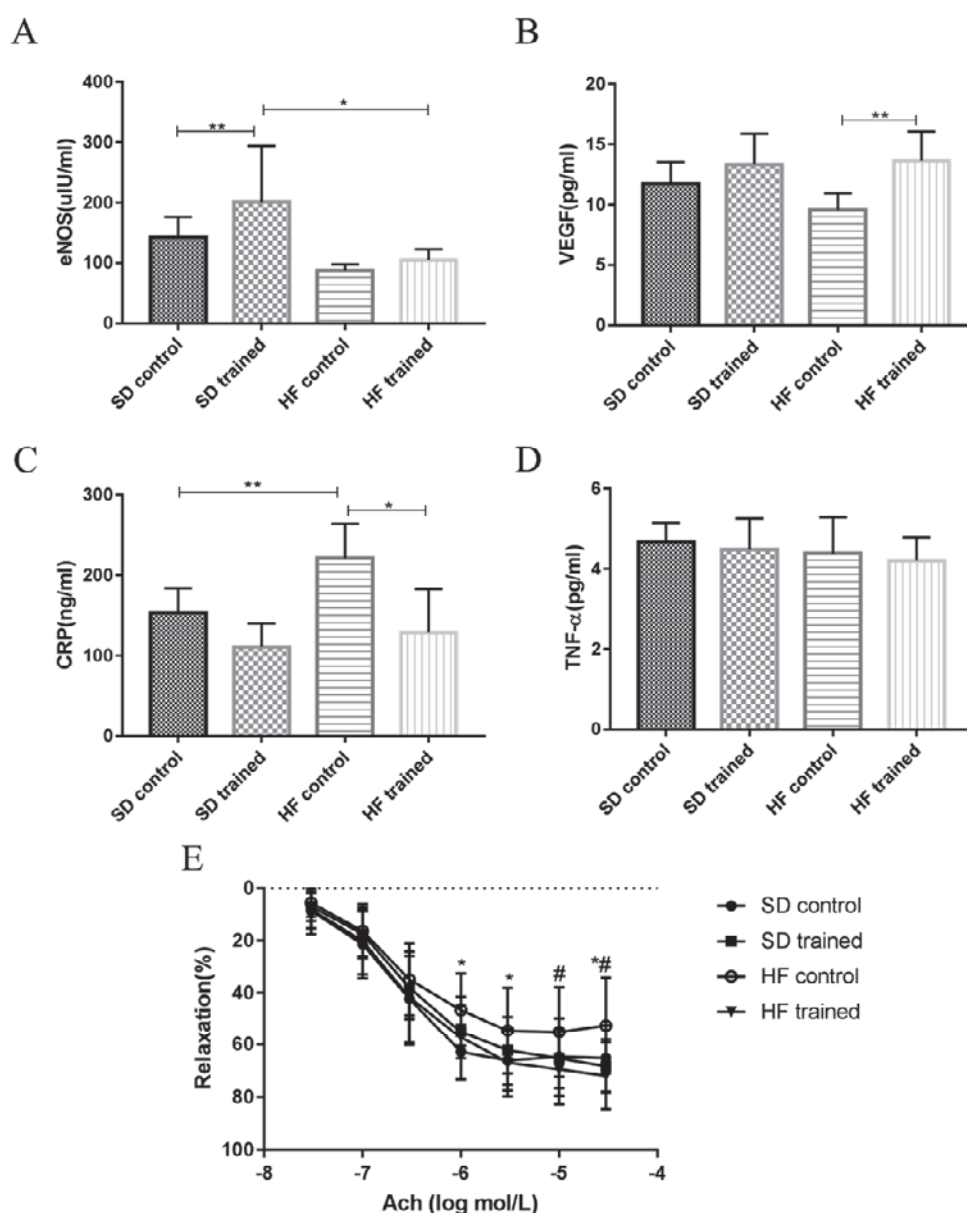


Fig. 1 Effects of the exercise intervention on circulating endothelial function (A and B) and inflammatory (C and D) markers, and acetylcholine (ACh)-induced mesenteric arterial vasodilation (E) in rats fed a high-fat diet.

* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ compared with SD control group; # $P < 0.05$ compared with HF trained group. SD control, $n = 8$; SD trained, $n = 8$; HF control, $n = 8$; HF trained, $n = 6$.

fat-free mass ($P < 0.01$) were significantly lower in the HF trained group than in the HF control group. In contrast, the HF trained group had a higher fat-free mass percentage than the HF control group ($P < 0.01$; **Supplementary Table 2**). These results suggest that the 8-week exercise intervention improved body composition in HFD-fed rats.

Changes in Vascular Endothelial Function and Inflammatory Markers after the Exercise Intervention

To investigate the effects of the exercise intervention on vascular endothelial function, vascular endothelial func-

tion biomarkers and endothelium-dependent relaxation were measured and calculated. As shown in **Figure 1**, circulating eNOS levels were significantly higher in the SD trained group than in the SD control ($P < 0.01$) and the HF trained groups ($P < 0.05$) (**Fig. 1A**). In addition, circulating VEGF levels were significantly higher in the HF trained group than in the HF control group ($P < 0.01$; **Fig. 1B**). Analysis of inflammatory factor indices indicated that CRP levels were significantly higher in the HF control group than in the SD control group ($P < 0.01$), an effect that was abolished by the exercise intervention

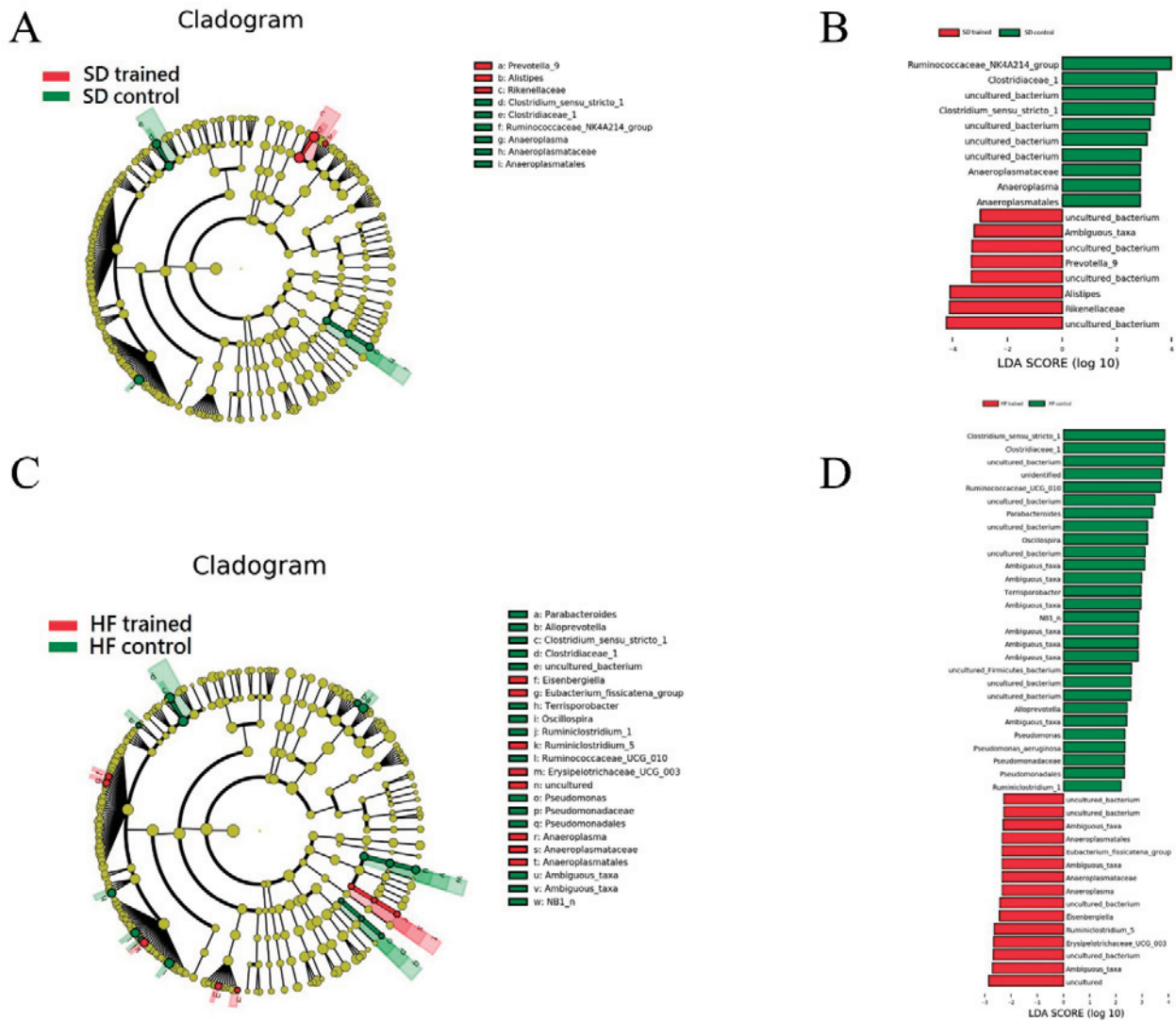


Fig. 2 Cladogram and differential features were selected according to LDA effect size between the exercise-trained and control rats in the standard diet (A, B) and high-fat diet (C, D) groups.

(Fig. 1C). No significant change was detected in circulating TNF- α levels in any group (Fig. 1D). Furthermore, Ach resulted in a dose-dependent relaxation of rat mesenteric arteries. Figure 1E shows that Ach-induced relaxation was greater in the HF control group than in the SD control group, and EC₅₀ exhibited a significant shift to the right (-4.64 ± 0.38 vs. -5.04 ± 0.32 log M; $P < 0.01$), indicating that endothelium-dependent relaxation was diminished in obese rats. However, this attenuation was completely reversed by the exercise intervention (-4.93 ± 0.23 vs. -4.64 ± 0.38 log M, $P < 0.05$).

Changes in Microbiome Composition with the Exercise Intervention

OTU (97% similarity) levels were sequenced and analyzed. Supplementary Figure 3 shows the resulting species accumulation curve. As the sample size gradually increased, there was no significant increase in microbial

species, indicating that the sample size ($n = 29$) was sufficient to capture species diversity.

Alpha diversity was used to assess abundance of intestinal flora with the Wilcoxon rank-sum test. No significant differences were observed among groups (Supplementary Table 3). Beta diversity composition, which was analyzed with the Bray-Curtis and weighted UniFrac methods, exhibited differences in community composition in the SD control group and HF control ($P < 0.05$; Supplementary Figure 4C).

Examination of LDA effect size revealed that the relative abundances of *Prevotella-9*, *Rikenellaceae*, and *Alistipes* were greater in the SD trained group than in the SD control group. In contrast, the relative abundances of *Ruminococcaceae_NK4A214_group*, *Clostridiaceae_1*, *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*, *Anaeroplasmataceae*, *Anaeroplasmatales*, and *Anaeroplasmatales* were higher in the SD control

Table 1 Relative abundance of gut microbiota at the family level (Metastat analysis). To avoid false positives, the false discovery rate (FDR) was calculated using the Benjamini–Hochberg method

Family	SD control	HF control	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
Bacteroidaceae	8.409	22.266	0.002	0.052
Thermoanaerobacteraceae	0.007	0.067	0.001	0.031
Staphylococcaceae	0.005	0.025	0.03	0.192
Down-regulated				
Ruminococcaceae	18.202	12.515	0.04	0.213
Lactobacillaceae	6.156	0.299	0.001	0.031
Clostridiales_vadinBB60_group	0.840	0.073	0.03	0.192
Coriobacteriaceae	0.437	0.060	0.01	0.138
Anaeroplasmataceae	0.149	0.0005	0.03	0.192
Bifidobacteriaceae	0.065	0.005	0.01	0.122
	SD control	SD trained	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
Bacteroidaceae	8.409	13.746	0.02	0.429
Staphylococcaceae	0.005	0.031	0.03	0.429
Down-regulated				
Clostridiaceae_1	0.898	0.223	0.03	0.429
Anaeroplasmataceae	0.149	0.014	0.04	0.503
Bifidobacteriaceae	0.065	0.001	0.009	0.429
	HF control	HF trained	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
Micrococcaceae	0.005	0.012	0.02	0.384
Down-regulated				
Peptostreptococcaceae	2.349	1.161	0.02	0.370
Clostridiaceae_1	1.339	0.080	0.008	0.227

group than in the SD trained group (Fig. 2A and B). *Erysipelotrichaceae_UCG_003*, *Ruminiclostridium_5*, *Eisenbergiella*, and *Anaeroplasma* were significantly more abundant in the HF trained group than in the HF control group (Fig. 2C and D). In addition, the abundance percentages of Staphylococcaceae, Bacteroidaceae, and Thermoanaerobacteraceae, and of the bacterial genera *Lachnospira* and *Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group*, were significantly higher in the HF control group than in the SD control group (Supplementary Fig. 5A and B).

Metastat analysis of differences in microbial community abundance percentages at the family (Table 1) and genus (Table 2) levels revealed that at the family level (Table 1), values for the abundance of Bacteroidaceae, Thermoanaerobacteraceae, and Staphylococcaceae ($P < 0.01$, $P < 0.01$, and $P < 0.05$, respectively) were significantly higher, and that values for the abundance of Ruminococcaceae ($P < 0.05$), Lactobacillaceae ($P < 0.01$), Clostridiales_vadinBB60_group ($P < 0.05$), Coriobacteriaceae ($P < 0.05$), Anaeroplasmataceae ($P < 0.05$) and Bifidobacteriaceae ($P < 0.05$) were significantly lower, in the

HF control group than in the SD control group. However, exercise treatment significantly increased the relative abundance of Bacteroidaceae and Staphylococcaceae (both $P < 0.05$), as compared with the SD control group, and decreased the relative abundance of Clostridiaceae_1, Anaeroplasmataceae, and Bifidobacteriaceae ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively). Moreover, the abundance of Micrococcaceae ($P < 0.05$) was significantly higher, and the abundance of Peptostreptococcaceae and Clostridiaceae_1 ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively) was significantly lower, in the HF trained group than in the HF control group.

At the genus level (Table 2), values for the abundance of *Bacteroides* ($P < 0.01$), *Desulfovibrio* ($P < 0.05$), *Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group* ($P < 0.01$), *Romboutsia* ($P < 0.05$), *Ruminococcus_torques_group* ($P < 0.05$), *Lachnospira* ($P < 0.05$), *Anaerofilum* ($P < 0.05$), *Ruminiclostridium_1* ($P < 0.05$), and *Staphylococcus* ($P < 0.05$) were significantly higher, and values for the abundance of *Lactobacillus* ($P < 0.01$), *Ruminococcaceae_UCG-014* ($P < 0.05$), *Ruminococcaceae_NK4A_214-group* ($P < 0.01$), *Turicibacter* ($P < 0.05$), *Ruminococ-*

Table 2 Relative abundance of gut microbiota at the genus level (Metastat analysis). To avoid false positives, the false discovery rate (FDR) was calculated using the Benjamini–Hochberg method

Genus	SD control	HF control	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
<i>Bacteroides</i>	9.438	25.224	0.001	0.054
<i>Desulfovibrio</i>	4.147	7.574	0.03	0.199
<i>Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group</i>	1.324	5.097	0.008	0.122
<i>Romboutsia</i>	0.401	2.423	0.03	0.184
<i>Ruminococcus_torques_group</i>	0.104	2.139	0.03	0.185
<i>Lachnospira</i>	0.045	0.491	0.02	0.165
<i>Anaerofilum</i>	0.008	0.049	0.03	0.184
<i>Ruminiclostridium_1</i>	0.007	0.027	0.01	0.157
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	0.003	0.018	0.02	0.169
Down-regulated				
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	6.851	0.336	0.0008	0.037
<i>Ruminococcaceae_UCG-014</i>	3.335	1.172	0.01	0.157
<i>Ruminococcaceae_NK4A214_group</i>	3.104	0.655	0.001	0.056
<i>Turicibacter</i>	1.125	0.366	0.04	0.206
<i>Ruminococcaceae_UCG-005</i>	0.844	0.233	0.01	0.157
<i>Marvinbryantia</i>	0.695	0.091	0.02	0.185
<i>Ruminococcus_2</i>	0.298	0.004	0.01	0.157
<i>Anaeroplasma</i>	0.168	0.0005	0.03	0.184
<i>Lachnospiraceae_UCG-006</i>	0.104	0.005	0.02	0.181
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	0.073	0.006	0.01	0.148
<i>Butyricoccus</i>	0.047	0.002	0.03	0.185
<i>Lachnospiraceae_FCS020_group</i>	0.018	0.009	0.04	0.206
<i>Ruminococcaceae_UCG-002</i>	0.018	0.005	0.01	0.157
	SD control	SD trained	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
<i>Bacteroides</i>	9.438	15.295	0.03	0.764
<i>Prevotella_9</i>	0.001	0.004	0.01	0.527
<i>Hydrogenoanaerobacterium</i>	0.0009	0.009	0.009	0.363
Down-regulated				
<i>Ruminococcaceae_NK4A214_group</i>	3.104	0.805	0.004	0.363
<i>Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1</i>	0.776	0.248	0.008	0.363
<i>Anaeroplasma</i>	0.168	0.016	0.04	0.783
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	0.073	0.001	0.008	0.363
	HF control	HF trained	P-value	FDR
Up-regulated				
<i>Ruminiclostridium_5</i>	0.045	0.137	0.04	0.634
<i>Eisenbergiella</i>	0.002	0.018	0.04	0.634
Down-regulated				
<i>Romboutsia</i>	2.423	1.245	0.04	0.634
<i>Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1</i>	1.574	0.086	0.007	0.393
<i>Parabacteroides</i>	1.354	0.796	0.01	0.620
<i>Ruminiclostridium_1</i>	0.027	0.003	0.006	0.393

caceae_UCG-005 ($P < 0.05$), *Marvinbryantia* ($P < 0.05$), *Ruminococcus_2* ($P < 0.05$), *Anaeroplasma* ($P < 0.05$), *Lachnospiraceae_UCG-006* ($P < 0.05$), *Bifidobacterium* ($P < 0.05$), *Butyricoccus* ($P < 0.05$), *Lachnospiraceae_FCS020_group* ($P < 0.05$), and *Ruminococcaceae_UCG-002* ($P < 0.05$) were significantly lower, in the HF control group than in the

SD control group. Compared with values for the SD control group, values for the abundance of *Bacteroides* ($P < 0.05$), *Prevotella_9* ($P < 0.05$), and *Hydrogenoanaerobacterium* ($P < 0.01$) were significantly higher, and values for the abundance of *Ruminococcaceae_NK4A214_group* ($P < 0.01$), *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1* ($P < 0.01$), *Anaeroplasma* ($P <$

Table 3 Correlations of endothelial function indicators and inflammatory markers with relative abundance of bacterial taxa in the overall sample.

Parameter	Microbiota	P-value	r
EC ₅₀	<i>Eubacterium_coprostanoligenes_group</i>	<0.001	0.781
EC ₅₀	<i>Oscillibacter</i>	0.027	0.433
EC ₅₀	<i>Romboutsia</i>	0.014	0.478
VEGF	<i>Anaerostipes</i>	0.048	0.399
VEGF	<i>Coprococcus_2</i>	0.004	0.559
VEGF	<i>Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group</i>	0.026	-0.445
VEGF	<i>Romboutsia</i>	0.022	-0.457
eNOS	<i>Alistipes</i>	0.002	0.594
eNOS	<i>Escherichia-Shigella</i>	0.011	0.511
eNOS	<i>Morganella</i>	0.003	0.575
eNOS	<i>Proteus</i>	0.007	0.534
eNOS	<i>Ruminococcus_2</i>	0.040	0.422
CRP	<i>Escherichia-Shigella</i>	0.006	0.548
CRP	<i>Intestinimonas</i>	0.031	-0.440
CRP	<i>Lachnospiraceae_UCG-010</i>	0.026	0.454
CRP	<i>Morganella</i>	0.0008	0.636
TNF- α	<i>Alloprevotella</i>	0.039	0.415
TNF- α	<i>Lachnospiraceae_UCG-001</i>	0.025	0.446
TNF- α	<i>Papillibacter</i>	0.011	0.497
TNF- α	<i>Ruminiclostridium_6</i>	0.025	0.445

0.05), and *Bifidobacterium* ($P < 0.01$) were significantly lower, after the exercise intervention. Furthermore, compared with values for the HF control group, values for the abundance of *Ruminiclostridium_5* and *Eisenbergiella* (both $P < 0.05$) were significantly higher, and values for the abundance of *Romboutsia* ($P < 0.05$), *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1* ($P < 0.01$), *Parabacteroides* ($P < 0.05$), and *Ruminiclostridium_1* ($P < 0.01$) were significantly lower, after the exercise intervention.

Associations of Gut Microbiota Composition with Vascular Endothelial Function and Inflammatory Markers

Correlation analysis of gut microbiota composition and vascular endothelial function indicated that values for *Oscillibacter* and *Eubacterium_coprostanoligenes_group* abundance were positively correlated with EC₅₀ ($P < 0.05$; **Table 3**). Furthermore, *Romboutsia* abundance was positively correlated with EC₅₀ ($P < 0.05$) but negatively correlated with VEGF ($P < 0.05$). Values for *Anaerostipes* and *Coprococcus_2* were significantly positively correlated with VEGF ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively), whereas the abundance of *Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group* was negatively correlated with VEGF ($P < 0.05$). Values for *Escherichia-Shigella* and *Morganella* were positively correlated with both eNOS and CRP. In addition, values for *Alistipes* ($P < 0.01$), *Proteus* ($P < 0.01$), and *Ruminococcus_2*

($P < 0.05$) were positively correlated with eNOS. There was also a significant positive correlation between the abundance of *Lachnospiraceae_UCG-010* and CRP ($P < 0.05$) and a significant negative correlation between the abundance of *Intestinimonas* and CRP ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, values for the abundance of *Alloprevotella*, *Lachnospiraceae_UCG-001*, *Papillibacter*, and *Ruminiclostridium_6* were positively correlated with TNF- α (all $P < 0.05$). In sum, these results suggest associations of gut microbiota with inflammatory markers and endothelial function.

Interactions between Gut Microbiota and Vascular Endothelial Function

Co-occurrence analysis of interactions between vascular endothelial function and gut microbiota showed that 12 species of bacteria significantly interacted with endothelial function parameters (EC₅₀, VEGF, eNOS) in the overall sample (**Fig. 3A**). Further analyses of the HF control group and HF trained group showed a positive association between the relative abundance of *Romboutsia* and EC₅₀ ($P < 0.05$, $r = 0.7$; **Fig. 3B**).

Discussion

We found that moderate-intensity aerobic exercise increased vascular endothelial function, which was associated with altered gut microbiota composition in rats with HFD-induced obesity. Twelve species of bacteria, includ-

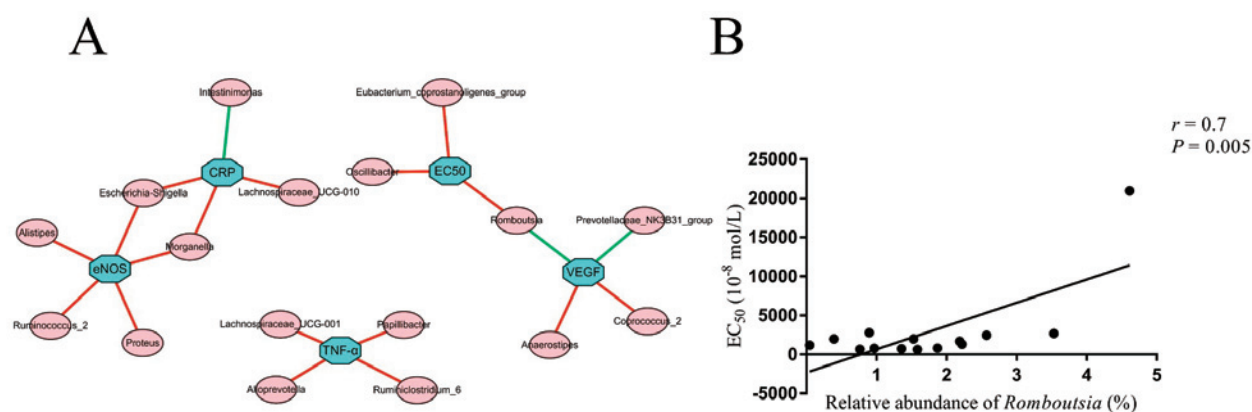


Fig. 3 (A) Analysis of significant co-occurrence between vascular endothelial function or inflammatory markers and gut microbiota in the overall sample. Selected interactions between vascular endothelial function and bacterial communities are illustrated (green lines, negative; red lines, positive). (B) Correlation of EC_{50} with relative abundance of *Romboutsia* in the HFD group. Values are mean \pm SD. $r = 0.7$, $P = 0.005$.

ing *Romboutsia*, were significantly associated with variables related to endothelial function (EC_{50} , VEGF, eNOS) in the overall sample.

Regular exercise is an effective strategy for managing body weight and vascular endothelial function. Here, 8 weeks of aerobic exercise effectively enhanced body composition in HFD-fed rats. Moreover, EC_{50} was lower in the HF trained group than in the HF control group, indicating an improvement in endothelial function after the exercise intervention. Obesity increases oxidative stress and reduces NO bioavailability. eNOS and iNOS are the main effectors of endothelial cells and are essential for NO production, and iNOS expression is strongly correlated with angiogenesis. We previously reported that exercise improved vascular endothelial function by decreasing oxidative stress, increasing expressions of eNOS and VEGF, and ameliorating inflammatory injury in obese animals and humans^{31–33}. In agreement with these studies, our results indicate that exercise increased circulating levels of eNOS and VEGF and reduced CRP concentration in the SD control and HF control groups, respectively, whereas no change in TNF- α level was observed in any group. Obesity likely increases TNF- α ; however, this increase may not be detectable in the circulation but only locally, in arteries. It would have been interesting if TNF- α expression had been measured in arteries.

Intestinal flora status was modified by the diet and exercise intervention. Alpha diversity was somewhat diminished in the HF control group, but the difference was not significant. This difference might have been due to the period assigned for HFD feeding. Moreover, microbiota composition can be influenced by host genetics. Because of the high homology of genes, it might be difficult

to identify significant differences in alpha diversity between the HF control and SD control. Similar results have been reported previously³⁴. Beta diversity of gut flora was decreased in HFD-fed rats. Furthermore, moderate-intensity exercise did not increase alpha or beta diversity in gut microbiota in the present SD trained and HF trained rats. A previous study reported that low-to-moderate exercise did not modulate the gut microbiota in mice fed a HFD³⁵. Interestingly, moderate-intensity treadmill exercise had a minimal impact on change in an obese diet-related gut microbiome³⁶. However, another study found that high-intensity exercise training improved metabolic capacity and diversity of distal gut microbiota in mice with diet-induced obesity¹⁹. Nevertheless, intense exercise increases gastrointestinal epithelial wall permeability and decreases gut mucus thickness, potentially enabling pathogens to enter the bloodstream. This, in turn, may contribute to increased inflammation levels³⁷. Our analysis suggests that exercise intensity is important in modifying the diversity of intestinal microbiota in diet-induced obesity.

The Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio has been used as an indicator of obesity, as evidence indicates that obese individuals have a lower abundance of Bacteroidetes, a higher proportion of Firmicutes, and a higher Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio than non-obese persons^{10,38}. The present HF control group exhibited greater abundance of members of Bacteroidetes phyla, and lesser abundance of members of Firmicutes phyla, as compared with the SD control group (Supplementary Fig. 6). Our present results thus seem to contradict those of previous studies. However, a recent study indicated that Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio may not correlate with a spe-

cific health status and might not be a hallmark of obesity³⁹. Thus, rather than comparing phyla, studies should investigate specific species.

We analyzed the relative abundance of gut flora at the family level and genus level and found that exercise and diet altered the composition of intestinal microbiota. Abundances of the families Bacteroidaceae, Staphylococcaceae, and Thermoanaerobacteraceae and genera *Lachnospira* and *Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group* were significantly higher in obese rats than in control rats. In contrast, abundances of Anaeroplasmataceae, Bifidobacteriaceae, Clostridiales_vadinBB60_group, Coriobacteriaceae, Lactobacillaceae, and Ruminococcaceae bacteria, at the family level, and *Butyricoccus* and *Lactobacillus* bacteria, at the genus level, were lower in mice fed an HFD. The effect of an HFD on the abundance of Ruminococcaceae is consistent with the findings of a previous study⁷.

Exercise did not affect alpha or beta diversity. We speculate that the effect on the microbiome is greater for a dietary intervention than for an exercise intervention. A recent study reported that 8 weeks of exercise training markedly improved insulin sensitivity and body composition in obese humans; however, this was not accompanied by improvements in gut microbiota alpha diversity or change in beta diversity; change in microbiome composition was limited⁴⁰. A systematic review found that exercise is associated with alterations in gut microbial composition, increased abundance of butyrate-producing bacteria, and higher fecal butyrate concentrations, regardless of diet, in rodents and humans¹². Previous studies reported that the relative abundance of the butyrate-producing bacteria Clostridiales was significantly higher in humans and animals with obesity and diabetes^{10,41-45}. Similarly, the present study found that the abundance of *Ruminiclostridium_1* was higher in HFD-fed rats than in control rats. Moreover, exercise training significantly reduced the abundance of *Ruminiclostridium_1*, as well as Clostridiaceae_1 and *Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1*, in the SD control group and HF control group. These results suggest that Clostridiales play a major role in regulating obesity and diabetes by generating gut metabolites and that exercise effectively modulates these bacteria, which have been associated with vascular dysfunction and obesity and diabetes-related metabolic disorders, hence reducing the risk of these conditions.

Researchers recently reported a strong correlation between the gut microbiome and cardiovascular risk factors such as obesity, type 2 diabetes, and hypertension^{5,46,47}. Ruminococcaceae, *Lachnospira*, and *Prevotella* were associ-

ated with cardiac function⁴⁸. Here, we found that values for the abundance of five OTUs in Ruminococcaceae were lower in obese rats. Moreover, *Ruminococcus_2* was positively correlated with eNOS and negatively correlated with body weight, fat-free mass, and fat mass percentage. In contrast, abundance of the *Ruminococcus_gnavus_group* was positively correlated with body weight, fat-free mass, and fat mass percentage. In addition, abundance of the *Prevotellaceae_NK3B31_group* was negatively correlated with VEGF, and abundance of Lachnospiraceae was positively correlated with CRP and TNF- α . These results indicate that Ruminococcaceae, *Prevotella*, and *Lachnospira* are important gut flora in regulating body composition and cardiovascular function in HFD-fed rats.

Previous studies reported a relationship between *Romboutsia* and obesity. The abundance of the genus *Romboutsia* was significantly higher in an obese group and positively correlated with lipid metabolism indicators⁴⁹⁻⁵². The present results indicate that the exercise intervention markedly changed the abundance of intestinal bacterial flora. We observed that the abundance of *Romboutsia* was significantly lower in obese rats after the exercise intervention. Importantly, *Romboutsia* was positively correlated with EC₅₀ and negatively correlated with VEGF. A study using L-NAME to induce hypertension and a disordered eNOS-nitric oxide pathway in treated rats found that the relative abundance of *Romboutsia* significantly increased in L-NAME-treated rats⁵³. Another study, of the intestinal flora of healthy amateur half-marathon runners, showed that long-distance endurance running significantly reduced the abundance of *Romboutsia*⁵⁴. These findings indicate that *Romboutsia* is a potential biomarker that links exercise with vascular endothelial function. We plan to examine the interaction between *Romboutsia* and endothelial function in a future study.

In summary, we observed that exercise-induced changes in intestinal flora composition were correlated with vascular endothelial function in HFD-fed rats. A program of physical exercise might thus be effective in improving gut flora and vascular endothelial function in obese persons.

Data availability: The raw data are available in the Supplemental File. Sequence data are available at the Sequence Read Archive (SRA): PRJNA715059.

Acknowledgements: We greatly appreciate Hefei Novel Gene Technology Services Co. for providing experimental support.

Funding: The National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant numbers 31771315, 31600969, and 31971105) and the Project of Educational Commission of Guangdong Province of China (grant number 2017KTSCX109) supported this study.

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

References

1. Viridis A, Masi S, Colucci R, et al. Microvascular endothelial dysfunction in patients with obesity. *Curr Hypertens Rep* [Internet]. 2019 Apr 4;21(4):32. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30949772>
2. Reho JJ, Rahmouni K. Oxidative and inflammatory signals in obesity-associated vascular abnormalities. *Clin Sci* [Internet]. 2017 Jul 15;131(14):1689–700. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28667067>
3. Fiuza-Luces C, Garatachea N, Berger NA, Lucia A. Exercise is the real polypill. *Physiology* [Internet]. 2013 Sep;28(5):330–58. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23997192>
4. Canfora EE, Meex RCR, Venema K, Blaak EE. Gut microbial metabolites in obesity, NAFLD and T2DM. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* [Internet]. 2019 May;15(5):261–73. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30670819>
5. Baothman OA, Zamzami MA, Taher I, Abubaker J, Abu-Farha M. The role of gut microbiota in the development of obesity and diabetes. *Lipids Health Dis* [Internet]. 2016 Jun 18;15:108. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27317359>
6. Zhong X, Harrington J, Millar S, Perry I, O'Toole P, Phillips C. Gut microbiota associations with metabolic health and obesity status in older adults. *Nutrients*. 2020 Aug;12(8):2364.
7. Daniel H, Gholami AM, Berry D, et al. High-fat diet alters gut microbiota physiology in mice. *ISME J* [Internet]. 2014 Feb;8(2):295–308. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24030595>
8. Wan Y, Wang FL, Yuan JH, et al. Effects of dietary fat on gut microbiota and faecal metabolites, and their relationship with cardiometabolic risk factors—a 6-month randomised controlled-feeding trial. *Gut*. 2019 Aug;68(8):1417–29.
9. Backhed F, Ding H, Wang T, et al. The gut microbiota as an environmental factor that regulates fat storage. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* [Internet]. 2004 Nov 2;101(44):15718–23. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15505215>
10. Nirmalkar K, Murugesan S, Pizano-Zarate ML, et al. Gut microbiota and endothelial dysfunction markers in obese mexican children and adolescents. *Nutrients* [Internet]. 2018 Dec 19;10(12):2009. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30572569>
11. Menni C, Lin C, Cecelja M, et al. Gut microbial diversity is associated with lower arterial stiffness in women. *Eur Heart J* [Internet]. 2018 Jul 1;39(25):2390–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29750272>
12. Mitchell CM, Davy BM, Hulver MW, Neilson AP, Bennett BJ, Davy KP. Does exercise alter gut microbial composition?—a systematic review. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2018 Jan;51(1):160–7.
13. O'Sullivan O, Cronin O, Clarke SF, et al. Exercise and the microbiota. *Gut microbes*. 2015 Mar;6(2):131–6.
14. Jang LG, Choi G, Kim SW, Kim BY, Lee S, Park H. The combination of sport and sport-specific diet is associated with characteristics of gut microbiota: an observational study. *J Int Soc Sports Nutr* [Internet]. 2019 May 3;16(1):21. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31053143>
15. Allen JM, Mailing LJ, Niemi GM, et al. Exercise alters gut microbiota composition and function in lean and obese humans. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* [Internet]. 2018 Apr; 50(4):747–57. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29166320>
16. Clarke SF, Murphy EF, O'Sullivan O, et al. Exercise and associated dietary extremes impact on gut microbial diversity. *Gut* [Internet]. 2014 Dec;63(12):1913–20. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25021423>
17. Evans CC, LePard KJ, Kwak JW, et al. Exercise prevents weight gain and alters the gut microbiota in a mouse model of high fat diet-induced obesity. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2014 Mar;9(3):e92193. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24670791>
18. Keohane DM, Woods T, O'Connor P, et al. Four men in a boat: Ultra-endurance exercise alters the gut microbiome. *J Sci Med Sport* [Internet]. 2019 Apr 18;22(9):1059–64. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31053425>
19. Denou E, Marcinko K, Surette MJ, Steinberg GR, Schertzer JD. High-intensity exercise training increases the diversity and metabolic capacity of the mouse distal gut microbiota during diet-induced obesity. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 2016 Jun;310(11):E982–93.
20. Munukka E, Ahtainen JP, Puigbo P, et al. Six-week endurance exercise alters gut metagenome that is not reflected in systemic metabolism in over-weight women. *Front Microbiol* [Internet]. 2018 Oct;9:2323. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30337914>
21. Liao J, Yin H, Huang J, Hu M. Dysfunction of PVAT in mesenteric artery is restored by aerobic exercise in high-fat diet induced obesity. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol*. 2021 May;48(5):697–703.
22. Huang J, Zhang H, Tan X, Hu M, Shen B. Exercise restores impaired endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor-mediated vasodilation in aged rat aortic arteries via the TRPV4-K_{Ca}2.3 signaling complex. *Clin Interv Aging*. 2019 Sep;14:1579–87.
23. Ye L, Xu M, Hu M, et al. TRPV4 is involved in irisin-induced endothelium-dependent vasodilation. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* [Internet]. 2018 Jan 1;495(1):41–5. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29097199>
24. Fadrosh D, Ma B, Gajer P, et al. An improved dual-indexing approach for multiplexed 16S rRNA gene sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform. *Microbiome*. 2014 Feb;2(1):6.
25. Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J, et al. QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. *Nat Methods* [Internet]. 2010 May;7(5):335–6. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20383131>
26. Schloss PD, Westcott SL, Ryabin T, et al. Introducing mothur: open-source, platform-independent, community-supported software for describing and comparing microbial communities. *Appl Environ Microbiol* [Internet]. 2009 Dec;75(23):7537–41. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19801464>
27. White J, Nagarajan N, Pop M. Statistical methods for detecting differentially abundant features in clinical metagenomic samples. *PLoS Comput Biol*. 2009 Apr;5(4):e1000352.
28. Segata N, Izard J, Waldron L, et al. Metagenomic biomarker discovery and explanation. *Genome Biol*. 2011

- Jun;12(6):R60.
29. Faust K, Raes J. CoNet app: inference of biological association networks using Cytoscape. *F1000Res*. 2016 Jun;5:1519.
 30. Huang JH, He GW, Xue HM, et al. TRPC3 channel contributes to nitric oxide release: significance during normoxia and hypoxia-reoxygenation. *Cardiovasc Res* [Internet]. 2011 Aug 1;91(3):472–82. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21493700>
 31. Ratajczak M, Skrypnik D, Bogdanski P, et al. Effects of endurance and endurance-strength training on endothelial function in women with obesity: a randomized trial. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* [Internet]. 2019 Nov 5;16(21):4291. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31694237>
 32. Tomada I, Tomada N, Almeida H, Neves D. Energy restriction and exercise modulate angiopoietins and vascular endothelial growth factor expression in the cavernous tissue of high-fat diet-fed rats. *Asian J Androl* [Internet]. 2012 Jul;14(4):635–42. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22138901>
 33. Gomes JL, Fernandes T, Soci UP, et al. Obesity downregulates microRNA-126 inducing capillary rarefaction in skeletal muscle: effects of aerobic exercise training. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* [Internet]. 2017;2017:2415246. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28367267>
 34. Mayengbam S, Mickiewicz B, Trotter S, et al. Distinct gut microbiota and serum metabolites in response to weight loss induced by either dairy or exercise in a rodent model of obesity. *J Proteome Res*. 2019 Nov;18(11):3867–75.
 35. Ribeiro FM, Ribeiro CFA, Garcia ACM, et al. Limited effects of low-to-moderate aerobic exercise on the gut microbiota of mice subjected to a high-fat diet. *Nutrients* [Internet]. 2019 Jan 11;11(1):149. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30641996>.
 36. Leigh S, Kaakoush N, Escorihuela R, Westbrook R, Morris M. Treadmill exercise has minimal impact on obesogenic diet-related gut microbiome changes but alters adipose and hypothalamic gene expression in rats. *Nutr Metab*. 2020 Aug;17:71.
 37. Clauss M, Gérard P, Mosca A, Leclerc M. Interplay between exercise and gut microbiome in the context of human health and performance. *Front Nutr*. 2021 Jun;8:637010.
 38. Ley RE, Turnbaugh PJ, Klein S, Gordon JI. Human gut microbiomes associated with obesity. *Nature*. 2006 Dec;444(7122):1022–3.
 39. Magne F, Gotteland M, Gauthier L, et al. The Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio: a relevant marker of gut dysbiosis in obese patients? *Nutrients*. 2020 May;12(5):1474.
 40. Verheggen R, Konstanti P, Smidt H, Hermus A, Thijssen D, Hopman M. Eight-week exercise training in humans with obesity: Marked improvements in insulin sensitivity and modest changes in gut microbiome. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2021 Oct;29(10):1615–24.
 41. Kang SS, Jeraldo PR, Kurti A, et al. Diet and exercise orthogonally alter the gut microbiome and reveal independent associations with anxiety and cognition. *Mol Neurodegener*. 2014 Sep;9:36.
 42. Sharma M, Li Y, Stoll ML, Tollefsbol TO. The epigenetic connection between the gut microbiome in obesity and diabetes. *Front Genet* [Internet]. 2020 Jan;10:1329. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32010189>
 43. Murri M, Leiva I, Gomez-Zumaquero JM, et al. Gut microbiota in children with type 1 diabetes differs from that in healthy children: a case-control study. *BMC Medicine*. 2013 Feb;11:46–58.
 44. Yoshimoto S, Loo TM, Atarashi K, et al. Obesity-induced gut microbial metabolite promotes liver cancer through senescence secretome. *Nature* [Internet]. 2013 Jul 4;499(7456):97–101. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23803760>
 45. Gong S, Ye T, Wang M, et al. Traditional chinese medicine formula Kang Shuai Lao Pian improves obesity, gut dysbiosis, and fecal metabolic disorders in high-fat diet-fed mice. *Frontiers in pharmacology* [Internet]. 2020 Mar;11:297. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32269525>
 46. Wang Z, Zhao Y. Gut microbiota derived metabolites in cardiovascular health and disease. *Protein Cell* [Internet]. 2018 May;9(5):416–31. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29725935>
 47. Versalovic J, Hemarajata P, Devaraj S. The human gut microbiome and body metabolism: Implications for obesity and diabetes. *Clin Chem*. 2013 Apr;59(4):617–28.
 48. Liu Z, Liu HY, Zhou H, et al. Moderate-intensity exercise affects gut microbiome composition and influences cardiac function in myocardial infarction mice. *Front Microbiol* [Internet]. 2017 Sep;8:1687. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28919891>
 49. Vazquez-Moreno M, Perez-Herrera A, Locia-Morales D, et al. Association of gut microbiome with fasting triglycerides, fasting insulin and obesity status in Mexican children. *Pediatr Obes*. 2021 May;16(5):e12748.
 50. Therdtatha P, Song Y, Tanaka M, et al. Gut microbiome of Indonesian adults associated with obesity and type 2 diabetes: A cross-sectional study in an asian city, Yogyakarta. *Microorganisms* [Internet]. 2021 Apr 22;9(5):897. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33922321>
 51. Wei Y, Liang J, Su Y, et al. The associations of the gut microbiome composition and short-chain fatty acid concentrations with body fat distribution in children. *Clin Nutr (Edinburgh, Scotland)*. 2021 May;40(5):3379–90.
 52. Zheng B, Wang T, Wang H, Chen L, Zhou Z. Studies on nutritional intervention of rice starch-oleic acid complex (resistant starch type V) in rats fed by high-fat diet. *Carbohydr Polym*. 2020 Oct;246:116637.
 53. Li B, He X, Lei SS, et al. Hypertensive rats treated chronically with N(omega)-Nitro-L-Arginine Methyl Ester (L-NAME) induced disorder of hepatic fatty acid metabolism and intestinal pathophysiology. *Front Pharmacol* [Internet]. 2019 Jan;10:1677. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32076406>
 54. Zhao X, Zhang Z, Hu B, Huang W, Yuan C, Zou L. Response of gut microbiota to metabolite changes induced by endurance exercise. *Front Microbiol* [Internet]. 2018 Apr;9:765. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29731746>

(Received, July 27, 2021)

(Accepted, October 27, 2021)

Journal of Nippon Medical School has adopted the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>) for this article. The Medical Association of Nippon Medical School remains the copyright holder of all articles. Anyone may download, reuse, copy, reprint, or distribute articles for non-profit purposes under this license, on condition that the authors of the articles are properly credited.