

Characteristics of the gut microbiome in patients with prediabetes and type 2 diabetes

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Background Gut microbiome has recently been identified as a new potential risk factor in addition to well-known diabetes risk factors. The aim of this study was to analyze the differences in the composition of gut microbiome in prediabetes(PreDM), type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and non-diabetic controls.

Methods 180 participants were recruited for this study: 60 with T2DM, 60 with PreDM and 60 non-diabetics (control group). Fecal samples were collected from the participants and genomic DNA was extracted. The V3~V4 regions of 16sRNA were sequenced.

Results There were significant differences in the number of bacteria among patients with PreDM and T2DM and the control group. Compared with the control group, Proteobacteria bacteria were significantly higher in the PreDM group ($P=0.006$). On the genus level, Compared with the control group, the relative abundance of Prevotella and Alloprevotella was significantly higher in the T2DM group ($P=0.016$, $P=0.018$), and the relative abundance of Paraprevotella in T2DM and PreDM groups was lower than that in the control group ($P=0.011$, $P=0.045$). Compared with the PreDM group and the control group, the relative abundance of Bacteroides in the T2DM group was significantly lower ($P=0.019$, $P=0.002$).

Conclusions The present study found significant differences in the gut microbiome between PreDM, T2DM and non-diabetic individuals, specifically at the genus level, suggesting that early intervention in PreDM patients could have implications for gut flora transitioning to T2DM. In addition, these results may be valuable for developing strategies to control T2DM by modifying the gut microbiome.

1 **Characteristics of the gut microbiome in patients with** 2 **prediabetes and type 2 diabetes**

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12

13 **Abstract**

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16 in the composition of gut microbiome in prediabetes(PreDM), type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)
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25 higher in the T2DM group ($P=0.016$, $P=0.018$), and the relative abundance of Paraprevotella in
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31 intervention in PreDM patients could have implications for gut flora transitioning to T2DM. In
32 addition, these results may be valuable for developing strategies to control T2DM by modifying
33 the gut microbiome.

34 **Keywords:** Gut Microbiome; Type 2 Diabetes mellitus; Prediabetes.

35

36

37 Introduction

38 Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a metabolic syndrome characterized by insulin dysfunction
39 and abnormal glucose and lipid metabolism that has become one of the world's most common
40 public health problems(Gaike et al. 2020). According to the statistics released by the
41 International Diabetes Federation(Cho et al. 2018), in 2015 the global number of people aged 20-
42 79 years with diabetes was 415 million, a number that will rise to 642 million by 2040.

43 The standardized prevalence of diagnosed and undiagnosed diabetes in the Chinese adult
44 population was estimated to be 10.9% in 2013(Wang et al. 2017). Prediabetes(PreDM) is defined
45 as a condition in which blood glucose levels are higher than normal, but below the threshold for
46 the diagnosis of diabetes(Allin et al. 2018). Individuals with PreDM often present overweight,
47 with insulin resistance, and low levels of inflammation, and they suffer from an increased risk of
48 T2DM and ischemic cardiovascular disease. It is estimated(Wang et al. 2017) that the prevalence
49 of PreDM in China was 35.7% in 2013, and without intervention in the prediabetic population
50 70% will eventually progress to diabetes mellitus, with an annual conversion rate of 5% to
51 10%(Tabak et al. 2012). It is important to intervene proactively in the prediabetic population to
52 interrupt or slow down the progression to T2DM. The gut microbiome has been shown to be an

53 important factor in the development of T2DM, along with genetic, environmental, dietary, and
54 behavioral lifestyle factors(Gaike et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2019).

55 The gut is the largest immune organ in the human body, and the intestinal flora residing in the
56 gut plays a role in maintaining intestinal homeostasis, metabolism and immunity. It is also
57 known as the “second genome”(Lynch & Pedersen 2016). The microbial community in the
58 human body consists of approximately 100 trillion microbial organisms, which have an
59 important influence on human physiological processes(Human Microbiome Project 2012).
60 Healthy adult gut microbiota are dominated by *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes* (>90%) but also
61 include smaller proportions of *Actinobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*, *Fusobacteria* and
62 *Verrucomicrobia*(Hollister et al. 2014; Naseer et al. 2014). Under normal circumstances, the
63 composition and quantity of the gut microbiome is in balance, forming a mutually beneficial
64 symbiotic relationship that is inseparable from the human body, thus maintaining the normal host
65 nutrient conversion, energy metabolism, and immune function. A variety of factors such as
66 genetics, age, diet, and medications can affect the composition of the gut microbiome, and once
67 the structure of the flora is altered or imbalanced it can cause metabolic disorders, leading to the
68 development of many diseases such as T2DM(Festi et al. 2014).

69 The gut microbiome plays an important role in regulating energy metabolism and
70 inflammation, and is closely related to a variety of chronic diseases, such as obesity, T2DM,
71 inflammatory bowel disease, and rheumatoid arthritis(Komaroff 2017; Lynch & Pedersen 2016;
72 Zhang et al. 2015). Some studies have indicated that gut microorganisms directly increase
73 intestinal uptake of monosaccharides and promote hepatic production of triglycerides associated
74 with insulin resistance(Larsen et al. 2010). It has been suggested(Sedighi et al. 2017) that the gut
75 microbiome can increase energy absorption from food, cause chronic low-grade inflammation,
76 regulate fatty acid metabolism, secrete derived peptides and increase the production of metabolic
77 endotoxins (lipopolysaccharides), leading to a chronic low rate of inflammation and insulin
78 resistance. Previous studies have demonstrated that the quantity of *Firmicutes*, *Bifidobacteria*
79 and *Clostridia* was significantly lower in patients with T2DM compared with that in healthy

80 individuals(Karlsson et al. 2013; Sato et al. 2014), whereas the number of *Bacteroidetes* and beta
81 *Proteobacteria* was significantly higher(Qiu et al. 2019). It was shown that the
82 *Bacteroidetes/Firmicutes* ratio in T2DM was positively and significantly correlated with plasma
83 glucose concentration, but appeared to be independent of body weight, confirming that it was
84 associated with reduced glucose tolerance.

85 Although the causal relationship between dysbiosis of the gut microbiome and T2DM is not
86 clear, changes in the intestinal microbiome of patients with T2DM have been
87 confirmed(Lambeth et al. 2015; Sedighi et al. 2017). There are many reports on the intestinal
88 microbiome and T2DM, but the results of the studies differ. T2DM treatment drugs may be one
89 of the influencing factors. Studies have shown that diabetes treatment drugs (such as metformin)
90 may confuse the relationship between intestinal flora dysbiosis and T2DM(Forslund et al. 2015).
91 In addition, it is not known whether there is any change in the gut microbiome of prediabetic
92 patients and how it differs from that of T2DM and non-diabetic individuals. Few previous
93 studies have analyzed three groups of people: those with T2DM, PreDM and non-diabetes.
94 Therefore, this study recruited patients with newly diagnosed diabetes and PreDM to elucidate
95 the characteristics of the intestinal microbiota in patients with preDM and T2DM.

96

97 **Materials & Methods**

98 **Study population**

99 The study was approved by Ethics Committee of the First Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang
100 Medical University(20191113-05).60 patients with newly diagnosed T2DM, 60 with preDM
101 from the first Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University and 60 healthy participants
102 from the Health Management Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University were recruited for this
103 study and signed informed consent. All participants were between 20- and 65-years-old. Healthy
104 participants were defined as having fasting plasma glucose <5.6 mmol/L. Participants with

105 T2DM were required to meet the following inclusion criteria: (i) fasting blood glucose test (FBG)
106 ≥ 7 mmol/L and/or 2-h fasting oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) ≥ 11.1 mmol/L; and (ii) all
107 cases of T2DM were newly diagnosed. PreDM was defined as FBG of 6.1–7.0 mmol/L or HbA_{1c}
108 levels of 6.0%–6.5%. To eliminate the effects of other factors on the gut microbiota, we
109 excluded individuals according to certain criteria: (i) age less than 20 or greater than 60 years; (ii)
110 antibiotic usage within 2 months; (iii) habitual probiotic use; and (iv) acute and chronic
111 gastrointestinal diseases. Information regarding demographics, diet, alcohol and tobacco use was
112 obtained by means of a survey questionnaire. Dietary habits were assessed using a validated
113 Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ). Fecal samples were frozen immediately after collection in
114 a -80°C freezer.

115

116 **DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and 16S rRNA gene sequencing**

117 Total DNA of microorganisms was extracted from all 180 samples using a QIAamp stool DNA
118 minikit (Qiagen, Germany). The procedure was performed according to the instructions. DNA
119 was quantified using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Rockland Company, USA) and
120 stored at -80°C for later use. The extracted genomic DNA was used to construct an amplicon
121 library by amplifying the V3~V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene. PCR was performed using the
122 following conditions: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles with 1 cycle consisting of
123 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s; and a final extension step at 72°C for 7 min.
124 After the reaction, all reaction products were detected by 1.5% agar gel electrophoresis (ethidium
125 bromide staining) to detect the amplified fragment size. A QIAquick GelExtraction Kit
126 (QIAGEN, Germany) was used to recover and purify the target band adhesive. An Illumina
127 Miseq high-throughput sequencing platform (Illumina) was used to sequence the PCR products
128 in the 16S RNA V3~V4 region.

129

130 **Statistical analysis**

131 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 21.0 software and R 3.43. To analyze the
132 differences among the groups, normally distributed variables were assessed with one-way
133 analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the LSD test or Dunnett's test; categorical variables
134 were assessed with the χ^2 test. The relative abundances were compared across the three groups
135 using Kruskal-Wallis rank sum tests followed, if significant, by pair-wise comparison. Alpha
136 diversity was assessed using the Observed Species index, Chao1 index, ACE index, Shannon
137 index, Simpson index and Coverage index. Beta diversity was assessed by principal component
138 analysis (PCA). Two dissimilarity metrics were used: unweighted UniFrac and weighted UniFrac.
139 A P-value <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

140

141 **Result**

142 **Group characteristics**

143 A total of 180 participants were included in this study, with an average age of 48.7 ± 13.4 years.
144 The distribution of age and sex was similar in the T2DM group, the preDM group and the control
145 group. The proportion of participants with high school education or above in the control group
146 was significantly higher than that in the T2DM and preDM groups ($P=0.001$). There were no
147 statistically significant differences in annual income, smoking and drinking between the three
148 groups ($P>0.05$, Table 1). Analysis of the participants' FFQs showed significant differences in
149 the intake frequency of cereal grains, mutton, eggs and products, potatoes and sweet potatoes,
150 milk, and yogurt among participants in the three groups ($P<0.05$). For example, 58.3% and
151 81.7% of the control group, respectively, consumed cereal grains and sweet potatoes more than
152 1–3 times per week; this was higher than in the T2DM group (35.0%, 42.5%), and the difference
153 was significant ($P<0.05$). In the control group, 69.5% and 60.0% of the participants consumed
154 milk and yogurt more than 1–3 times per week, respectively, which was higher than in the
155 T2DM group (43.3%, 26.7%) and the PreDM group (43.3%, 23.3%), with significant differences

156 ($P < 0.05$, Table 2).

157

158 **Composition and diversity of the gut microbiome**

159 In our study, the Observed species, Chao1 and ACE indexes were used to evaluate the richness
160 of the microbiota, and the Shannon index, Simpson index and Coverage index were used to
161 evaluate the microbiota diversity. The results of the alpha diversity analysis showed that there
162 were no significant differences among the three groups, including ACE, Chao1, Coverage,
163 Observed, Shannon and Simpson indexes (Figure 1). The bacterial community composition,
164 assessed by principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based on unweighted UniFrac and weighted
165 UniFrac distances, indicated that individuals in the T2DM group and the other two groups
166 clustered separately, presenting 31.75% and 24.2% of the total variance on the x-axis and y-axis,
167 respectively (Figure 2a, 2b).

168 Among the 180 samples tested, there were 366 different bacterial species, 217 different genera,
169 85 families, 27 classes and 19 phyla. The five most abundant phyla identified were *Bacteroidetes*,
170 *Firmicutes*, *Proteobacteria*, *Actinomycetes*, and *Fusobacteria* (Figure 3). The relative abundance
171 of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes was 43.3% and 45.1%, respectively, in the T2DM group, 44.9%
172 and 41.3% in the preDM group, and 44.5% and 44.7% in the control group. Differences in
173 relative abundance among the three groups are presented in Table 3. Compared with the control
174 group, the abundance of phylum *Proteobacteria* was significantly higher in the preDM group
175 ($P = 0.006$). *Proteobacteria* were also more abundant in the T2DM group compared with the
176 control, though the difference was not significant ($P > 0.05$). Except for *Proteobacteria*, no
177 statistically significant differences were found among the three groups at the phylum level. At
178 the class level, only class *Negativicutes* in the T2DM group was more abundant when compared
179 with the other two groups, among the 27 classes (respectively $P = 0.017$, $P = 0.004$). Ten genera out
180 of 217 were identified to have differences among the three groups. Compared with the control
181 group, the relative abundance of *Prevotella* and *Alloprevotella* was significantly higher in the

182 T2DM group ($P=0.016$, $P=0.018$), while genus *Paraprevotella* from phylum Bacteroidetes was
183 less abundant in the T2DM group and preDM group than in the control group ($P=0.011$,
184 $P=0.045$). *Bacteroides* was found to be significantly lower in the T2DM compared with the
185 preDM and control groups ($P=0.019$, $P=0.002$). *Megasphaera* was more abundant in the T2DM
186 and preDM groups compared with control ($P=0.004$, $P=0.038$). *Lachnospira*, belonging to phylum
187 Firmicutes, was less abundant in the preDM group than in the control group ($P=0.012$). In
188 addition, the relative abundance of *Escherichia/Shigella* and *Haemophilus* was higher,
189 respectively, in the preDM group compared with control ($P=0.029$, $P=0.012$).

190

191 Discussion

192 A total of 180 participants (60 healthy, 60 preDM and 60 T2DM) were recruited in this study.
193 We evaluated the diversity and compositional changes in the gut microbiota of healthy, preDM
194 and T2DM participants. The five most abundant phyla identified were: *Bacteroides*, *Firmicutes*,
195 *Proteobacteria*, *Actinomycetes*, and *Fusobacteria*, which was consistent with previous
196 research (Hollister et al. 2014). Type 2 diabetes may be associated with changes in the balance of
197 gut microbiota, but not with simple changes in the role or diversity of single microbes. Wu et
198 al. (Wu et al. 2010) compared the bacterial diversity of patients with T2DM and non-diabetic
199 individuals, and found that there was no significant difference in bacterial diversity between the
200 two groups, but they noticed a remarkable difference in the numbers of a few bacterial phyla,
201 genera and species. Qin et al. conducted a study on 345 Chinese people and found no difference
202 in microbial diversity between non-diabetic individuals and patients with T2DM; however,
203 differences were found in composition and function, including butyrate-producing bacteria,
204 opportunistic pathogens, and species that may reduce sulfate and degrade mucin (Qin et al. 2012).
205 Our study did not find any difference between T2DM and preDM and the control group in the
206 diversity of the gut microbiome but, when compared with the control group, both T2DM and
207 preDM groups had imbalance of the gut microbiome, and changes at the level of genus and class.

208 The complex interactions between the gut microbiome and gut mucosa may play a key role in
209 the pathogenesis of T2DM, similar to obesity, inflammatory bowel disease and other
210 diseases(Bamola et al. 2017); this may be related to an imbalance of the microbiome that may
211 affect metabolism and cause inflammation. Larsen et al.(Palacios et al. 2017) found that the gut
212 microbiome of patients with T2DM and non-diabetic individuals showed significant differences
213 in the distribution characteristics of *Lactobacillus*, *Bacteroides*, *Clostridium*, *Bifidobacterium*
214 and *Proteobacteria*. In patients with T2DM, Bifidobacteria, *Bacteroidetes*, and *Firmicutes*
215 (*Lactobacillus*) were significantly lower than in the non-diabetic group, but the proportion of
216 Proteobacteria was higher; the reason may be that, in T2DM, glucose metabolic abnormalities
217 and increased glucose metabolites cause an increase in the numbers of pathogenic bacteria in the
218 intestine, thus causing inflammation and insulin resistance. In contrast, however, Mansour
219 Sedighi et al.(Sedighi et al. 2017) found that *Lactobacillus* was significantly more common in
220 patients with T2DM than in healthy controls, and *Bifidobacteria* were significantly lower in
221 T2DM. In our study, compared with the healthy control group, the proportion of *Lactobacillus*
222 was higher in T2DM, but decreased in preDM; the proportion of bifidobacteria was lower in
223 T2DM and preDM, but no significant difference was found.

224 In this study, we did not find any difference in *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes* among the T2DM,
225 preDM and control groups, as also reported by Lambeth et al.(Lambeth et al. 2015). Firmicutes
226 are associated with fat digestion and their increased abundance is known to be associated with
227 obesity. *Bacteroidetes* play a key role in the production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs). It is
228 also believed that *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes* can enhance the absorption of monosaccharides
229 in the gut, thus increasing the production of hepatic triglycerides and leading to insulin
230 resistance(Qin et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2013). However, the results for *Firmicutes* and
231 *Bacteroidetes* in diabetic patients differ. Aftab Ahmad et al.(Ahmad et al. 2019). found a high
232 proportion of *Firmicutes* and a reduced number of *Bacteroidetes* in obese patients with T2DM;
233 *Firmicutes* were enriched in T2DM and *Bacteroidetes* were found in lower numbers, resulting in
234 a high ratio of *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes*(Navab-Moghadam et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2013);

235 however, some other findings are contrary to this(Larsen et al. 2010; Palacios et al. 2017). Some
236 studies have also demonstrated a significant difference in the *Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes*
237 ratio between thin and obese individuals(Heinsen et al. 2016).

238 We found that *Proteobacteria* and *Escherichia/Shigella* were more common in patients with
239 preDM compared with control, and also higher in patients with T2DM, but not significantly. The
240 outer membrane of these bacteria contains lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is a cellular
241 membrane component of gram-negative bacteria and is increased in both obesity and in patients
242 with T2DM(Sun et al. 2010). LPS can cause metabolic endotoxemia, which is associated with
243 oxidative stress, macrophage secreted elements and inflammatory markers that induce insulin
244 resistance(Momin et al. 2016). Previous findings have indicated that the gut microbiome of
245 patients with T2DM is relatively rich in Gram-negative bacteria when compared with healthy
246 individuals, especially *Proteobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes*(Larsen et al. 2010). In this study, we
247 found a significantly higher abundance of the gram-negative bacterium *Haemophilus* in patients
248 with preDM compared with healthy individuals. We also found that the T2DM group had higher
249 levels of *Prevotella*, similar to that found in previous research(Ahmad et al. 2019; Sedighi et al.
250 2017; Zhang et al. 2013). This species is related to elevated levels of proinflammatory cytokines,
251 low grade inflammation, and insulin resistance(Leite et al. 2017). In 2016, Copenhagen
252 University and the Danish University of Science and Technology found that serum levels of
253 branched chain amino acids (BCAAs) were increased in diabetic patients, among 277 healthy
254 people without diabetes and 75 patients with T2DM. *Prevotella copri* and *Bacteroides vulgatus*
255 were identified as the main species driving the association between biosynthesis of BCAAs and
256 insulin resistance; it was found that *Prevotella copri* can induce insulin resistance, aggravate
257 glucose intolerance and augment circulating levels of BCAAs in mice fed *Prevotella* bacteria
258 after 3 weeks(Pedersen et al. 2016). In addition, our study found that family Negativicutes,
259 belonging to phylum *Firmicutes*, and *Megasphaera* were increased in both the preDM and
260 T2DM groups; the genera *Bacteroides* and *Paraprevotella* were reduced in patients with T2DM.

261 There are some potential confounding factors to note when assessing gut microbiota, although
262 attempts were made to minimize confounding variables, as much as possible, by selecting
263 healthy controls and patients of similar age groups and sex. However, we lacked indicators such
264 as height and weight to calculate participants' body mass index (BMI): the known association
265 between BMI, obesity and gut microbiome could have affected the results(Ahmad et al. 2019; Le
266 Chatelier et al. 2013). Diet is a known factor affecting the development of the human intestinal
267 microbiota. High intakes of carbohydrate, fat and protein are associated with increases in
268 *Clostridium* IV and XI and decreases in the genera *Bifidobacterium* and
269 *Lactobacillus*(Yamaguchi et al. 2016). In addition, studies have shown that, compared with a low
270 dietary fiber group, the abundance of *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* was higher in a group
271 consuming high dietary fiber(So et al. 2018). Although the dietary survey of this study did not
272 acquire all types of intake of specific foods and we were unable to estimate the intake of
273 carbohydrate, protein and fat, we compared differences in the frequency of dietary intake and
274 found that, except for a few foods, the intake frequency of most foods was not significantly
275 different in the three groups, especially rice, meat, vegetables and fruits, which have a greater
276 influence on the intestinal microbiome. Therefore, to a certain extent, the participants included
277 had similar dietary habits, and this also partly reduced the influence of diet on our results. This
278 study also found that the intake frequencies of coarse grains, potatoes and sweet potatoes, and
279 yogurt was far higher in the control group than in the T2DM and preDM groups. These foods
280 should be a good choice for patients with diabetes, suggesting that people with type 2 diabetes
281 may still lack knowledge of diabetes treatment through dietary intervention. Moreover,
282 metformin and other drugs have been associated with changes in the gut microbiome, and studies
283 have found that there was an increase in *Firmicutes* and decrease in *Bacteroidetes* in patients
284 taking metformin(Forslund et al. 2015; Napolitano et al. 2014). Although patients with newly
285 diagnosed T2DM and preDM were included in this study, the medication history of the patients
286 was not acquired, and the effect of drugs on the results could not be excluded.

287

288 **Conclusions**

289 In conclusion, this study reported changes in the gut microbiome associated with both preDM
290 and T2DM, especially at the genus level. By studying the relationship between diversity and
291 composition of the gut microbiome and metabolic diseases (such as T2DM), earlier intervention
292 is possible to restore the microbiome to the normal state. PreDM may have an impact on the
293 intestinal microflora in transition to T2DM, which may be altered through changes in lifestyle
294 factors, including dietary habits and physical activity, weight management, and the use of
295 appropriate probiotics and other substances that have a substantial impact on the gut microbiome.

296

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299 and data collection were performed by T. T., C. Z.; Z. Z., L.L. and L.T. analysed and interpreted
300 the data. The original draft of the manuscript was written by Z.Z. and D.J. and T.T. reviewed and
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Table 1 (on next page)

Characteristics of the participants

1 **Table 1** Characteristics of the participants

| Characteristics | T2DM(N=60) | PreDM(N=60) | Control(N=60) | <i>P</i> |
|--------------------------|------------|-------------|---------------|----------|
| Age(years) | 49.4±13.2 | 47.0±14.1 | 48.5±13.3 | 0.609 |
| Men/Women | 31/29 | 30/30 | 29/31 | 0.860 |
| fasting blood-glucose | 9.93±3.55 | 6.43±0.30 | 4.79±0.47 | 0.001 |
| education | | | | |
| Without formal education | 6(10.0) | 4(6.7) | 0(0.0) | 0.001 |
| Primary | 13(21.7) | 9(15.0) | 3(5.0) | |
| Middle school | 11(18.3) | 16(26.7) | 5(8.3) | |
| High school and above | 30(50.0) | 31(51.7) | 52(86.7) | |
| Annual income(yuan) | | | | |
| ≤9,999 | 7(11.7) | 5(8.3) | 3(5.0) | 0.171 |
| 10,000-19,999 | 3(5.0) | 1(1.7) | 0(0.0) | |
| ≥20,000 | 50(83.3) | 54(90.0) | 57(95.0) | |
| Smoke | 17(28.3) | 17(28.8) | 15(25.4) | 0.894 |
| Drink | 8(13.3) | 11(18.3) | 13(21.7) | 0.486 |

2

Table 2 (on next page)

Dietary frequency questionnaires of study participants

1 **Table 2** Dietary frequency questionnaires of study participants

| categories | Dietary frequency n (%) | | | | | | <i>P</i> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------|-------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | control(N=60) | | T2DM(N=60) | | PreDM(N=60) | | |
| | ≥1~3times/week | little or not | ≥1~3times/week | little or not | ≥1~3times/week | little or not | |
| Rice | 56(93.3) | 4(6.7) | 48(80.0) | 12(20.0) | 54(90.0) | 6(10.0) | 0.068 |
| Flour | 57(95.0) | 3(5.0) | 56(93.3) | 4(6.7) | 57(95.0) | 3(5.0) | 0.902 |
| Cereal(corn,sorghum, millet) | 35(58.3) ^b | 25(41.7) | 21(35.0) ^a | 39(65.0) | 22(36.7) ^{a,b} | 38(63.3) | 0.016 |
| Pork | 39(65.0) | 21(35.0) | 34(56.7) | 26(43.3) | 32(53.3) | 28(46.7) | 0.410 |
| Mutton | 48(80.0) ^b | 12(20.0) | 35(58.3) ^a | 25(41.7) | 38(63.3) ^{a,b} | 22(36.7) | 0.030 |
| Beef | 45(75.0) | 15(25.0) | 43(71.7) | 17(28.3) | 34(56.7) | 26(43.3) | 0.073 |
| Fowl | 31(51.7) | 29(48.3) | 23(38.3) | 37(61.7) | 22(36.7) | 38(63.3) | 0.190 |
| Seafood | 21(35.6) | 38(64.4) | 11(18.3) | 49(81.7) | 14(23.7) | 45(76.3) | 0.089 |
| Eggs and their product | 48(80.0) ^b | 12(20.0) | 34(56.7) ^a | 26(43.3) | 41(68.3) ^{a,b} | 19(31.7) | 0.023 |
| Offal | 5(8.3) | 55(91.7) | 4(6.7) | 56(93.3) | 2(3.3) | 58(96.7) | 0.483 |
| Vegetables | 59(98.3) | 1(1.7) | 58(96.7) | 2(3.3) | 59(98.3) | 1(1.7) | 0.786 |
| Fruits | 56(93.3) | 4(6.7) | 52(86.7) | 8(13.3) | 53(88.3) | 7(11.7) | 0.465 |
| Potatoes and sweet potatoes | 49(81.7) ^b | 11(18.3) | 33(42.5) ^a | 27(45.0) | 45(75.0) ^{a,b} | 15(25.0) | 0.004 |
| Beans and their product | 38(63.3) | 22(36.7) | 32(53.3) | 28(46.7) | 35(58.3) | 25(41.7) | 0.539 |
| Milk | 41(69.5) ^b | 19(31.7) | 26(43.3) ^a | 34(56.7) | 26(43.3) ^a | 34(56.7) | 0.007 |
| Yogurt (solid, liquid) | 36(60.0) ^b | 24(40.0) | 16(26.7) ^a | 44(73.3) | 14(23.3) ^a | 46(76.7) | 0.001 |
| Butter tea | 1(1.7) | 59(98.3) | 1(1.7) | 59(98.3) | 2(3.3) | 58(96.7) | 0.786 |
| Milky tea | 14(23.3) | 46(76.7) | 10(16.7) | 50(83.3) | 8(13.3) | 52(86.7) | 0.345 |

2 a,b denotes comparison between subgroups at the 0.05 level after adjustment of p-values (Bonferroni method)

3

4

Table 3 (on next page)

Relative abundance at phylum, class and genus levels in T2DM, preDM and control groups

1 **Table 3** Relative abundance at phylum, class and genus levels in T2DM, preDM and control
 2 groups

| Category | Level | Relative abundance(%) | | | P value | | | |
|------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|-----------|
| | | ND | DM | PDM | ALL | N vs DM | N vs PDM | DM vs PDM |
| Firmicutes | Phylum | 44.7 | 45.1 | 41.3 | 0.87 | 0.8781 | 0.2098 | 0.1239 |
| Negativicutes | Class | 3.37 | 6.50 | 4.01 | 0.0019 | 0.0040 | 0.4635 | 0.0170 |
| Finegoldia | genus | 0.0004 | 0.002 | 0.0005 | 0.0084 | 0.0001 | 0.3592 | 0.0050 |
| Megasphaera | genus | 0.06 | 0.58 | 0.39 | 0.0211 | 0.0040 | 0.0380 | 0.5114 |
| Lachnospira | genus | 0.55 | 0.48 | 0.21 | 0.6564 | 0.6534 | 0.0120 | 0.0949 |
| Lactobacillus | genus | 0.60 | 1.10 | 0.38 | 0.175 | 0.2637 | 0.5345 | 0.0809 |
| Bacteroidetes | Phylum | 44.5 | 43.3 | 44.9 | 0.67 | 0.6883 | 0.9060 | 0.5764 |
| Bacteroides | genus | 32.0 | 22.1 | 29.7 | 0.0014 | 0.0020 | 0.4345 | 0.0190 |
| Paraprevotella | genus | 0.49 | 0.12 | 0.17 | 0.0075 | 0.0110 | 0.0450 | 0.4495 |
| Prevotella | genus | 7.1 | 15.2 | 9.5 | 0.0109 | 0.0160 | 0.3856 | 0.0979 |
| Alloprevotella | genus | 0.12 | 1.06 | 0.26 | 0.0247 | 0.0180 | 0.5124 | 0.0949 |
| Proteobacteria | Phylum | 5.8 | 7.8 | 10.5 | 0.26 | 0.1678 | 0.0060 | 0.2137 |
| Helicobacter | genus | 0.0003 | 0.00004 | 0.00004 | 0.0382 | 0.0063 | 0.0156 | - |
| Escherichia/Shigella | genus | 1.93 | 2.65 | 4.24 | 0.4848 | 0.3436 | 0.0290 | 0.2027 |
| Haemophilus | genus | 0.11 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.1135 | 0.0769 | 0.0120 | 0.9240 |
| Fusobacteria | Phylum | 0.64 | 0.58 | 0.25 | 0.8824 | 0.9500 | 0.4905 | 0.3047 |
| Fusobacterium | genus | 0.33 | 0.54 | 0.25 | 0.5391 | 0.5514 | 0.9730 | 0.4106 |
| Verrucomicrobia | Phylum | 0.38 | 0.37 | 0.38 | 0.98 | 0.9970 | 0.9590 | 0.9550 |
| Actinobacteria | Phylum | 3.6 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 0.25 | 0.3016 | 0.2557 | 0.9630 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------|-----|-----|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Bifidobacterium | genus | 3.1 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 0.1260 | 0.1588 | 0.1878 | 0.9690 |
|-----------------|-------|-----|-----|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|

3

4

Figure 1

Alpha diversity index of the T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group

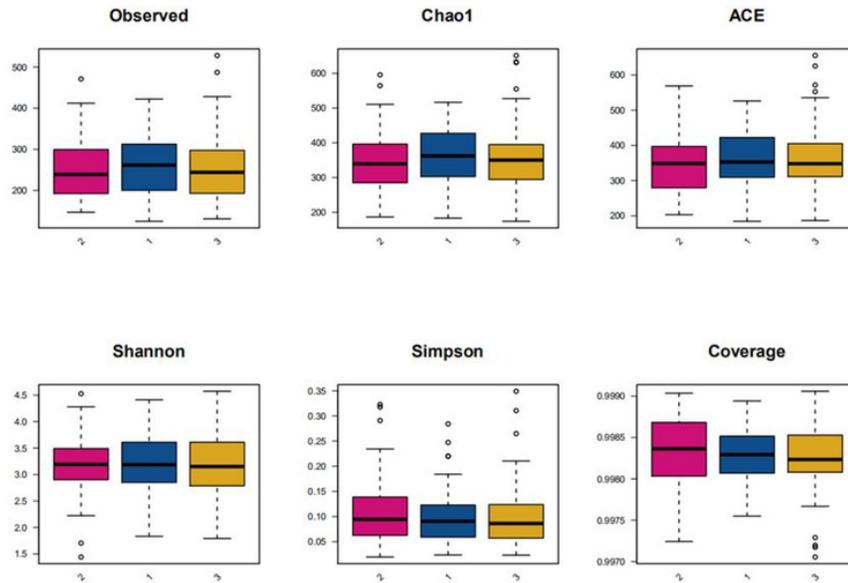


Figure 1. Alpha diversity index of the T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group (1 for T2DM group, 2 for PreDM group and 3 for control group).

Figure 2 (on next page)

PCoA of T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group

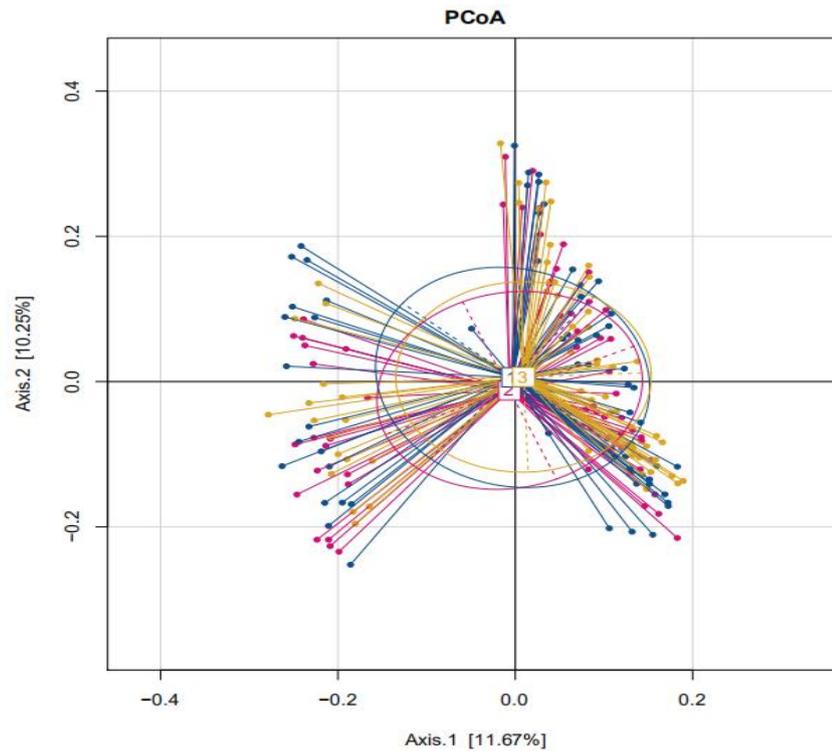


Figure 2.a Unweighted-UniFrac PCoA of T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group (1 for T2DM group, 2 for PreDM group and 3 for control group).

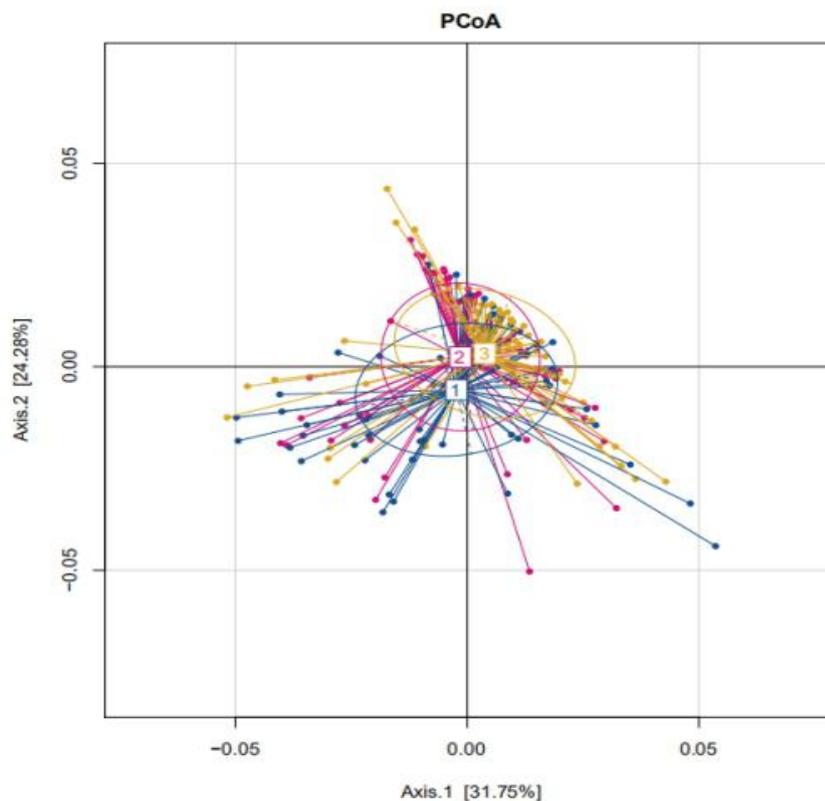


Figure 2. b Weighted-UniFrac PCoA of T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group. (1 for T2DM group, 2 for PreDM group and 3 for control group).

Figure 3

Relative richness (gate level) in T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group

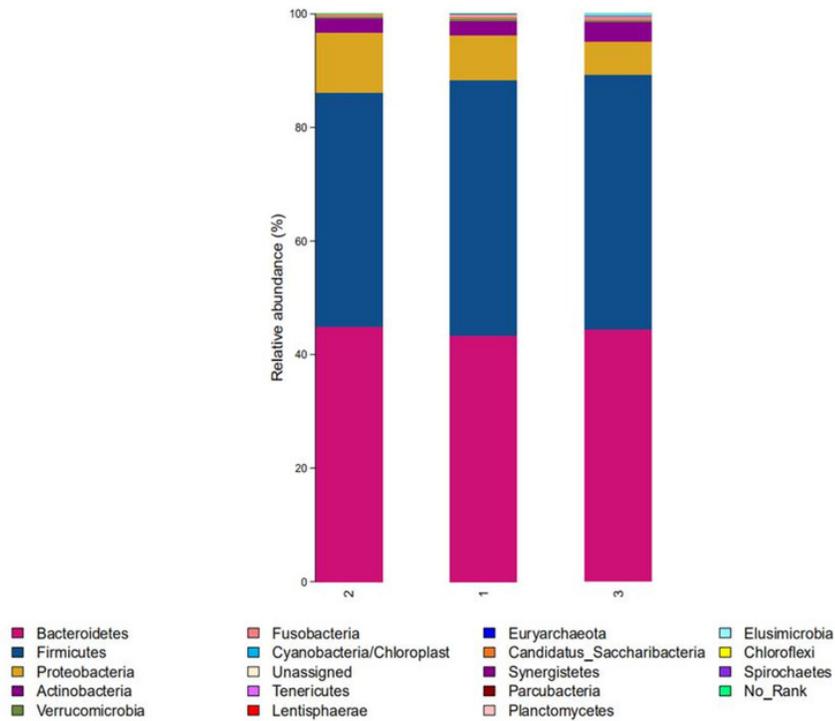


Figure 3. Relative richness (gate level) in T2DM group, PreDM group and non-diabetes group.(1 for Type 2 diabetes group, 2 for prediabetes group and 3 for control group).