

1 **Functional Roles of B-Vitamins in the Gut and Gut Microbiome**

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16

17 **Abbreviations:** **Ace2**, angiotensin I converting enzyme (peptidyl-dipeptidase A) 2; **AhR**, aryl
18 hydrocarbon receptor; **DRI**, dietary reference intake; **DSS**, dextran sodium sulfate; **EHEC**,
19 Enterohemorrhagic Escherichia coli; **HGM**, human gut microbiota; **folC2**, folylpolyglutamate synthase
20 type; **IBD**, inflammatory bowel disease; **IF**, intrinsic factor; **MAIT-cell**, mucosal-associated invariant
21 T-Cell; **5-OE-RU**, 5-(2-oxoethylideneamino)-6-D-ribitylaminouracil; **5-OP-RU**, 5-(2-
22 oxopropylideneamino)-6-D-ribitylaminouracil; **PLP**, pyridoxal 5'-phosphate; **RYGB**, Roux-en-Y
23 gastric bypass; **SMCT1**, sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1; **SMVT**, sodium-dependent
24 multivitamin transporter; **TC-R**, transcobalamin receptor; **WT**, wild type.

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 The gut microbiota produce hundreds of bioactive compounds, including B-vitamins, which play
29 significant physiological roles in hosts by supporting the fitness of symbiotic species and suppressing
30 the growth of competitive species. B-vitamins are also essential to the host and certain gut bacterium.
31 Although dietary B-vitamins are mainly absorbed from the small intestine, excess B-vitamins unable
32 to be absorbed in the small intestine are supplied to the distal gut. In addition, B-vitamins are
33 supplied from biosynthesis by distal gut microbiota. B-vitamins in the distal colon may perform
34 many important functions in the body; they act as (1) nutrients for a host and their microbiota, (2)
35 regulators of immune cell activity, (3) mediators of drug efficacy, (4) supporters of survival, or the
36 fitness of certain bacterium, (5) suppressors of colonization by pathogenic bacteria, and (6)
37 modulators of colitis. Insights into basic biophysical principles, including the bioavailability of B-
38 vitamins and their derivatives in the distal gut are still not fully elucidated. Here we briefly review
39 the function of single B-vitamin in the distal gut including their roles in relation to bacteria. The
40 prospect of extending analytical methods to better understand the role of B-vitamins in the gut is also
41 explored.

42

43 **1 Introduction**

44 Recent studies have highlighted the presence of trillions of microbes in the guts of
45 mammals; these bacteria produce several metabolites that play a significant role in the biological
46 processes within the host.^[1-8] Studies of the gut bacterium and specific isolated bacteria, particularly
47 *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* species, show that intestinal bacterium produce 7 of the 8 B-
48 vitamins.^[9-20] B-vitamins are biosynthetic precursors of universally essential cofactors used in
49 numerous metabolic pathways; they are indispensable to the host and gut microbiota alike. With the
50 exception of niacin (vitamin B3), a mammalian host cannot produce B-vitamins *de novo*; there is a
51 strict dependence on an exogenous supply, including from the diet and the gut microbiota (Figure 1).
52 Although it has been thought that B-vitamins are mainly absorbed from the small intestine, there are
53 many B-vitamin transporters expressed in the colon (Table 1).^[21,22] The majority of microbes exist in
54 the large intestine; they can be categorized as B-vitamin-producing bacteria and auxotrophic bacteria.
55 As a result, competition and symbiosis occur between the host and bacteria, as well as among
56 bacteria, especially with respect to the auxotrophic species whose viability is strictly dependent on
57 acquiring one or more B-vitamins. *In silico* analysis showed that 20-30% of the gut microbiota lack
58 the capacity to produce essential B-vitamins.^[23] Since B-vitamin production is under the control of
59 dietary substrates, some gut bacterium may influence food choices of the host.^[24] Moreover, a host
60 with an imbalanced or unfavorable intestinal microbiome, referred to as ‘dysbiosis,’ might have
61 altered B-vitamin metabolism in their gut.

62 To date, a search of PubMed (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed, accessed on February 28, 2020)

63 using the terms 'B-vitamin (B-vitamin, B1, B2, B3, B5, B6, B7, B9, B12, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin,
64 pantothenic acid, pyridoxine, pyridoxal, pyroxamine, biotin, folate, folic acid, or cobalamin)' and
65 'gut microbiota (or gut microbe)' returned over 323 relevant published articles of which almost 27%
66 were reviews. Despite there being some excellent recent reviews on this topic, our understanding of
67 the physiological importance of B-vitamins in the distal colon has only been addressed in some
68 reports.^[25-28] Prior to development of the concept of 'gut microbiota' there had been numerous
69 studies conducted in this field, including studies about bacteria in the hindgut with the potential for
70 growth and vitamin-producing capacity in the host. The importance of gut bacteria as a source of
71 vitamins has been demonstrated further by the observation that germ-free animals require dietary
72 sources of various vitamins that are not required by conventional animals.^[29,30] Rodents can practice
73 coprophagy which may indirectly supply B-vitamins through the small intestine. It is therefore, this
74 behavior only confirms the availability of B-vitamins in the fecal bacterial biomass and leaves open
75 the question of the availability of B-vitamins in the distal gut in the non-coprophagetic host.

76 It is challenging to identify *in vivo* evidence about the functional roles of the B-vitamins in the
77 distal gut from a much larger number of animals, from *C. elegans* to humans. Functional differences
78 could exist between B-vitamins in the proximal gut and distal gut for the host, as well as gut
79 microbiota; however, relatively little is known about functional roles of B-vitamin in distal gut. In
80 this review, we focus on the role gut microbes have on modulating B-vitamin availability and the
81 functional role of B-vitamin in the distal gut.

82 **2 B-Vitamins**

83

84 **2.1 Vitamin B1 (thiamin)**

85 Thiamin can be produced by gut bacteria *in silico* and *in vitro*.^[12,31] It is estimated that gut
86 microbial thiamin synthesis supplies approximately 2.3% of the daily human requirement of vitamin
87 B1 from intracellular concentration of vitamin, weight of bacteria, and composition of the human gut
88 microbiota (Table 1).^[27] Four enzymes implicated in the biosynthesis pathway of thiamin are
89 overrepresented in enterotype 2, which is one of the human gut microbiota compositional clusters
90 enriched by *Prevotella* (Table2).^[32] High-affinity thiamin transporters 1 and 2 which are capable of
91 carrier-mediated absorption of thiamin have been identified in human colonic mucosa and epithelial
92 cell lines.^[33-37] However, there are no data about the actual importance of the supply of thiamin at
93 the distal gut from gut microbiota to host.

94 Thiamin is a biosynthetic precursor of thiamin pyrophosphate which is essential to carbohydrate
95 metabolism and neural function. Recently, Kunisawa et al. reported that vitamin B1 is important for
96 glycolysis-dependent host cells, especially in Peyer's patch cells.^[38] In this regard, a dietary vitamin
97 B1 deficiency may affect host immune responses via the regulation of differentiation and
98 proliferation of immune cells that may in turn influence the gut microbiota. The researchers also
99 showed that feeding mice a vitamin B1-deficient diet causes a vitamin B1 deficiency after only a
100 week. This suggests that the gut microbiota of mammalian hosts is capable of synthesizing only a
101 minimal shortfall of thiamin under general conditions. In contrast, *Acetobacter pomorum*, a thiamin-
102 producing bacteria, can rescue the development of axenic flies in the absence of dietary thiamin

103 (Figure 1, Table 1).^[39] Thiamin is also important to a specific gut bacterium, *Bacteroides*

104 *thetaiotaomicron* *in vitro* (Figure 1, Table 2).^[40] Thiamin biosynthesis and its transport system are

105 critical to the growth of *B. thetaiotaomicron*. These results suggest that thiamin produced in gut

106 microbiota have a specific role in the composition or function of the gut microbiome.

107 **2.2 Vitamin B2 (riboflavin)**

108 Excess dietary riboflavin, as well as riboflavin produced by commensal bacteria, comprise
109 the riboflavin present in the distal gut (Figure 1). In addition to lactic acid bacteria which are well-
110 known for producing riboflavin in the gut, a genomic analysis of 256 species of human gut microbes
111 found more than half (56%) of them conserve a group of genes for *de novo* riboflavin
112 biosynthesis.^[11,27] Mice and humans harbor the functional riboflavin transporter 3 in their large
113 intestine (Table 1).^[41,42] In our previous study, we observed that the riboflavin supplied from gut
114 microbiota played a pivotal role in the host; the gut microbiota was able to provide compensatory
115 riboflavin in the short-term when a dietary riboflavin deficiency was induced in mice (Figure 2, Table
116 1).^[43] The survival of axenic—but not conventional—*Drosophila* was significantly depressed when
117 their diet lacked riboflavin^[44]. Qi B et al. showed the importance of live bacteria being able to
118 provide micronutrients in the gut, such as riboflavin, to *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Table 1).^[45]
119 Riboflavin supplementation increases the usability of heat-killed bacteria as food and promotes
120 intestinal protease activity in *C. elegans*, suggesting that commensal bacteria are a source of
121 riboflavin in *C. elegans*.

122 An effect of riboflavin on the growth of extremely oxygen-sensitive bacteria (e.g.,
123 *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*) as agents of electron transfer has been suggested.^[46,47] Interestingly, *F.*
124 *prausnitzii* do not encode genes involved in riboflavin biosynthesis.^[48] Because oxygen stress is the
125 main aggravator of anaerobic gut microbiota such as *F. prausnitzii* and *Roseburia*, the acquisition of
126 riboflavin modifies the composition of gut microbiota. Indeed, a preliminary study showed that

127 dietary riboflavin supplementation for 14 days increased *F. prausnitzii* and concomitantly reduced *E.*
128 *coli*. in a small group of adult volunteers.^[47]

129 The pyrimidine compounds 5-(2-oxopropylideneamino)-6-D-ribitylaminouracil (5-OP-RU) and
130 5-(2-oxoethylideneamino)-6-D-ribitylaminouracil (5-OE-RU) are highly potent activating ligands of
131 the mucosal-associated invariant T (MAIT)-cell (Tables 1).^[49,50] Both 5-OP-RU and 5-OE-RU are
132 generated from the riboflavin precursor 5-amino-6-D-ribitylaminouracil through the riboflavin
133 producing pathway in various microbes. Taken together, riboflavin produced in the gut microbiota
134 has roles in numerous hosts. These roles include functioning as an essential nutrient; or as a
135 modulator of bacterium fitness in the gut microbiota and immune function in host. (Figure 1).

136

137 **2.3 Vitamin B3 (niacin)**

138 Niacin can be made from tryptophan in mammals as well as from intestinal bacteria^[51–53].

139 Mammalian colonocytes possess a carrier-mediated mechanism for the uptake of niacin^[54].

140 Exogenous expression of the human sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1 in oocytes can

141 transport both nicotinate and its structural analogs, despite substrate selectivity being low (Table

142 1).^[55] Administration of microcapsules containing niacin, which release their contents at the

143 ileocolonic region, increased serum niacin concentration in a dose-dependent manner in human

144 subjects.^[56]

145 Niacin acts as an agonist of cell-surface receptors, niacin receptor 1, which is also known as

146 the hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 2 or G-protein-coupled receptor 109A. Although niacin was not

147 considered a crucial ligand of this receptor, it is expressed in colonic epithelium and its physiological

148 roles have been studied extensively.^[28,57,58] A niacin deficiency results in intestinal inflammation and

149 diarrhea.^[59,60] Niacin also exhibits potent antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties and acts as a

150 modulator of intestinal barrier function and bacterial endotoxin production.^[61–63] Therefore, niacin

151 has a direct impact on gut microbiota. Indeed, both tryptophan and niacin (nicotinic acid and

152 nicotinamide) treatment have been shown to revert the composition of the intestinal microbiota of

153 angiotensin I converting enzyme (peptidyl-dipeptidase A) 2 (Ace2) mutant mice (Table 1)^[64].

154 Furthermore, the intake of a microcapsule of niacin (900 to 3000 mg)—but not nicotinamide (30 to

155 300 mg)—resulted in a significant increase in the population of *Bacteroidetes* (Figure 1, Table2).^[56]

156 Since *Bacteroidetes* are deficient in the enzymes nicotinamidase and nicotinamide

157 phosphoribosyltransferase, and luminal niacin—but not nicotinamide—facilitates growth of the
158 *Bacteroidetes* species in the gut (Table 1).^[53] Collectively, these results suggest that niacin may have
159 a favorable effect on gut microbial composition in humans.

160 **2.4 Vitamin B5 (pantothenic acid)**

161 A genomic analysis of 256 representative organisms of human gut microbiota found that *de*
162 *novo* synthesis of pantothenic acid is limited in *Bacteroidetes* and *Proteobacteria* genomes.^[27]
163 Spearman rank correlations suggest that an increased intake of pantothenic acid was related to an
164 increased relative abundance of *Actinobacteria*, which do not possess the ability to synthesize
165 pantothenate (Table 2).^[27,65] In addition, *Lactobacillus spp.*, *Streptococcus spp.*, and *Enterococcus*
166 *spp.*, members of the pantothenate nonproducing *Firmicutes* phylum, require pantothenic acid for
167 their growth *in vitro* (Figure 1, Table 2).^[66–68] These reports suggest that a symbiosis exists in the
168 distal gut between pantothenic acid-consuming bacteria and pantothenic acid-producing bacteria. A
169 study has shown the absorption of pantothenic acid across the intestinal loop by sodium-dependent
170 multivitamin transporters (SMVT, SLC5A6) as well as biotin; however, direct evidence is lacking
171 with respect to the absorption of pantothenic acid across the colon.^[69–71] Antibiotic-treated mice
172 reportedly exhibit signs of a pantothenic acid deficiency (Figure 1, Table 1).^[72] Open questions
173 remain about whether pantothenic acid in the distal gut could be a nutrient for the host, and if its
174 availability modulates the composition of the gut microbiota and host cell function.

175

176 **2.5 Vitamin B6 (pyridoxine, pyridoxamine, pyridoxal)**

177 Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate (PLP), a common coenzyme form of vitamin B6, can be synthesized
178 *de novo* via two routes.^[27] The majority of *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, and *Proteobacteria*
179 (approximately 50% of the 256 human gut microbiota [HGM] genomes) have at least one *de novo*
180 biosynthetic pathway. Reduced concentrations of vitamin B6 in the colonic content of wild type
181 (WT) mice (0.4 to 0.5 mg/100 g) that have been treated with antibiotics (0.1 to 0.2 mg/100 g) are
182 disruptive to their gut microbiota.^[73] The administration of probiotics (*Bacteroides acidifaciens*) in
183 this context partially restored the amount of vitamin B6 in the colonic content of antibiotic-treated
184 mice. Luminal metabolic analysis and shotgun DNA sequence analysis showed that the metabolic
185 pathway of vitamin B6 is dynamically changed in various conditions.^[74–76] The relative abundance of
186 *Blautia*, *Coprococcus*, and *Roseburia*, which are lower in patients with schizophrenia compared with
187 control patients, was negatively correlated with vitamin B6 metabolism-related genes (Table 2).^[75]
188 When a person resistant to atherosclerosis consumes a cholesterol-enriched diet, microbiome genes
189 for vitamin B6 metabolism increase significantly.^[74] Distal gut bacteria samples from lean
190 individuals appear to be more involved in vitamin B6 synthesis than samples from obese people
191 based on metaproteomics analysis (Table 2).^[76] The maintenance of vitamin B6 biosynthesis in host
192 cells are of great importance for various homeostatic processes in health and disease, including host
193 immune responses (Figure 1).^[77–79] Consistent with these reports, the estimated maximal percentage
194 of the daily reference intake of pyridoxine is the highest (86%) of all the 8 B-vitamins^[27] The carrier
195 of vitamin B6 has yet to be determined, although it has been characterized as an energy- and

196 temperature- (but not Na-) dependent transporter of pyridoxine in young adult mouse colonic
197 epithelial cells.^[80]

198 Two excellent reports have characterized functions of vitamin B6 in the gut microbiota.

199 Scott, et al. showed that microbes integrate nutritional- and drug-cues in *C. elegans* (Table 1).^[81]

200 They found that PLP produced by commensal bacterium acts in concert with ribonucleotide
201 metabolism to facilitate the effects of 5-fluorouracil, a drug used to treat colorectal cancer. Inhibition
202 of bacterial ribonucleotide metabolism drastically antagonizes drug efficacy, while inhibition of
203 deoxyribonucleotide metabolism improves it, an effect also regulated by dietary pyrimidines.^[81]

204 Administration of vitamin B6-producing bacteria (*B. acidifaciens*), attenuates the colonization of
205 *Salmonella. typhimurium* and promotes recovery from gut inflammation in antibiotic-treated mice
206 (Table 1).^[73] It is conceivable that there is an interactive effect of vitamin synthesis and function in
207 the gut microbiota.

208 Mice with a severe vitamin B6 deficiency protected them against dextran sodium sulfate
209 (DSS)-induced colitis.^[82] Another study also investigated the effect of dietary vitamin B6 intake on
210 colonic inflammation in the IL10^{-/-} murine model of IBD.^[83] This study is highly suggestive because
211 both moderate vitamin B6 supplementation and mild depletion significantly attenuated the
212 histological and molecular features of colonic inflammation. Accordingly, approximately 30% of
213 patients with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) show evidence of a vitamin B6 deficiency.^[84]

214 Therefore, vitamin B6 bioavailability in the gut has an indirect role on colonic inflammatory diseases
215 which include gut infection with enteropathogens and IBD. The prime cause of this indirect effect of

216 tryptophan metabolites. Supplementation of tryptophan and its metabolite niacin (nicotinic acid and
217 nicotinamide) can rescue intestinal inflammation in Ace2 knockout mice.^[64] Conversion of
218 pyridoxamine and pyridoxine to PLP—requiring flavin-mononucleotide (derived from vitamin B2)
219 as a coenzyme—is an essential cofactor for two key enzymes used in the synthesis of niacin from
220 tryptophan.^[85] Moreover, the bacterial metabolites implicated include tryptamine, indole, and indole
221 metabolites (i.e., indole-3-aldehyde, indole-3-acetic acid [from some *Lactobacillus*], indole-3-pyruvic
222 acid, indole-3-acrylic acid [from *Peptostreptococcus*], indole-3-lactic acid [from *Bifidobacterium*
223 *longum* subspecies], and indole-3-propionic acid), or the host metabolite kynurenone, that activates
224 the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) as the physiological agonist.^[86–91] Activation of the AhR
225 pathway may ameliorate DSS-induced colitis in mice.^[92] DSS-induced colitis was more severe in
226 AhR knockout mice than in WT mice.^[93] Dietary supplementation with 0.5% tryptophan reduced the
227 severity of DSS-induced colitis and ameliorated symptoms in WT mice but not in AhR knockout
228 mice.^[94] The production and supply of tryptophan metabolites are complexly regulated by the dietary
229 supply of tryptophan or other nutrients, and the composition of the gut microbiota, such that vitamin
230 B6, B2 and/or B3 availability in the colon may play an important role in the production of tryptophan
231 metabolites.

232

233 **2.6 Vitamin B7 (biotin)**

234 A genomic analysis of 256 representative organisms of human gut microbiota found that
235 40% were capable of *de novo* synthesis of the vitamin B7.^[27] Studies have shown that the phylum
236 *Bacteroidetes* (48/51 strains), *Fusobacteria* (13/14 strains), and *Proteobacteria* (29/38 strains)
237 predicts the synthesis of biotin.^[27,95] In contrast, even though *Actinobacteria* genomes lack an
238 essential biotin biosynthesis gene, 19 of 23 (83%) of them contained a biotin transporter, indicating
239 the need for biotin.^[27] This result suggests the potential to control *Actinobacteria*-related diseases via
240 regulating biotin availability in the gut.^[96] Another study showed that four enzymes in the biotin
241 biosynthesis pathway are overexpressed in *Bacteroides* enterotype (Table 2).^[32] Absorption of biotin
242 in both the small and large intestine occurs via a carrier-mediated process that involves the SMVT
243 system encoded by the *SLC5A6* gene.^[70,71,97–100] The colonic absorption rate of biotin measured by
244 [14-C] biotin or the *in vivo* intestinal loop showed that post-ileal biotin absorption was 8 to 12% as
245 efficient as the absorption of biotin after oral dosing in pig.^[101,102] Lipopolysaccharides inhibit
246 colonic biotin uptake via interference with membrane expression of its transporter.^[103] On the other
247 hand, Hayashi et al. revealed that competition for biotin utilization exists between the host and
248 bacteria (Figure 1, Table 1).^[104] *Lactobacillus murinus* consumes and reduces available biotin in the
249 gut and antibiotic-induced dysbiosis promotes alopecia in mice fed a biotin-deficient diet (Table 1
250 and 2).^[104]

251

252 **2.7 Vitamin B9 (folate)**

253 The microflora of the gut, particularly *Bacteroides*, *Bifidobacteria*, *Streptococcus*, and
254 *Lactococcus* spp. can synthesize folate as a common food fermentation product of carbohydrates
255 during the growth.^[15,105–109] A genomic analysis of 256 representative organisms of human gut
256 microbiota estimated that 43% of microbes conserve *de novo* folate synthesis pathway genes^[27].
257 Folate biosynthesized by bacteria can be absorbed by folate transporters in the rat, pig, and human
258 colon.^[110–113] Although there is no clear evidence at this time, two types of folate transporters are
259 considered to work in colon, the human proton-coupled folate transporter (SLC46A1) and the
260 reduced folate carrier (RFC; SLC19a1).^[114–121] The capacity of the large intestine to absorb forms of
261 folate , equivalent to at least 37%, 18%, or nearly 100% of the daily human need, was estimated via
262 *in silico*, pig, and human studies, respectively.^[27,111,113] Folate biosynthesis in gut bacteria and/or
263 transport expression in host are affected by a low-carbohydrate diet, increased protein content,
264 probiotic dietary factors that affect gut microbes (e.g., dietary folate, fiber, oligosaccharide, and/or
265 drug), and prebiotic bacteria supplementation (e.g., *Bifidobacteria*). Based on these influential
266 factors, the composition of gut microbiota and dietary intake interactively modulate the availability
267 of folate from the colon to host (Table 2).^[105,106,116,122,123]

268 Of note, colonic folate also has a role despite that it does not affect plasma folate levels.^[124]
269 Virk B, et al. showed that modulating folate uptake, or the folate cycle in the gut bacteria via *E. coli*,
270 but not in the host (*C. elegans*), affects the lifespan of host. *E. coli* mutants influence the lifespan of
271 worms independently of *E. coli* growth. Metformin retards aging in *C. elegans* by altering folate and

272 methionine metabolism in *E. coli* (Table 1).^[125] As observed in the fly, dysbiosis and the consequent
273 overabundance of a specific bacterial group which does not produce folate, may be an important
274 factor in aging (Table 1).^[126] These results suggest that bacterial folate synthesis influences the
275 lifespan of hosts by acting on microbial physiology without compromising the host's folate status.
276 The targeted mutation of the bifunctional dihydrofolate synthase/folylpolyglutamate synthase type 2
277 (*folC2*) gene, essential to the folate synthesis pathway, reduced immunomodulatory histamine
278 production and the anti-inflammatory effect of *L. reuteri* 6475 in a mouse model of acute colitis
279 (Table 1).^[127] Similarly, a microbial *folC* mutation reduced intestinal folate production, and increased
280 mRNA expression levels of the folate receptor, RFC, in human colonoids.^[128] Cancer cells use folate
281 for growth, so the availability of folate in the distal gut has been associated with the proliferation of
282 colorectal cancers.^[129–133] Luminal folate, or folate-derived metabolites, have a role in the regulation
283 of immune function.^[128,134] The folate-related metabolite 6-formylpterin antagonizes MAIT cell
284 effector function.^[134]

285

286 **2.8 Vitamin B12 (Cobalamin)**

287 The cobalamin biosynthetic pathway is present in 42% (110/256) of the HGM genomes and
288 can be found in all *Fusobacteria*.^[27] In contrast, it is rare in *Actinobacteria* and *Proteobacteria* and
289 half of the *Bacteroidetes* genomes are missing this biosynthetic pathway. A HGM study showed that
290 83% of bacteria (260/313 species) encode cobalamin-dependent enzymes.^[135] Intriguingly, most of
291 these 260 species lack the genes required to synthesize cobalamin.^[135] In another report, 75.9%
292 (410/540) of the bacteria were cobalamin-utilizing organisms and only half of those (209/410)
293 possessed the cobalamin biosynthetic pathway.^[136] These genome-based analyses indicate that those
294 bacteria rely on cobalamin-uptake mechanisms to acquire sufficient levels of it from the surrounding
295 environment. For example, *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* does not encode genes involved in the
296 cobalamin biosynthetic pathway, but rather it has three homologs of the cobalamin transporter,
297 btuB1, btu2B, and btuB3 and a cobalamin binding factor, BtuG2 (Figure 1, Table 1).^[135]

298 Recently, three cobalamin binding proteins (IF, haptocorrin, and transcobalamin) have been
299 shown to mediate cellular cobalamin up-take in adult mammals via three receptors (i.e., IF-cbl
300 R/cubilin, asialoglycoprotein R, and transcobalamin receptor [TC-R]). Cobalamin transport systems
301 have been reviewed in detail elsewhere.^[137–140] However, cobalamin represents only a small portion
302 (1.4%) of the total amount in human feces.^[141] Therefore, it is doubtful whether colonic-derived
303 cobalamin has a role in nutrition of the host.

304 In addition to cobalamin, bacteria can produce a variety of corrinoid derivatives.^[142–144] In
305 the presence of many corrinoids, 7 cobalamin analogs were identified and quantitated in human feces

306 (Figure 1, Table 1) [141]. As if to have the ability to respond to it, human gut microbes likely encode at
307 least 27 distinct corrinoid transporter families. [144,145] Supplementation of 3.94 µg/ml
308 cyanocobalamin increased fecal cobalamin and reduced corrinoid analogs concomitant with a lower
309 abundance of *Bacteroides* in mice (Table 2).^[146] These results suggest that competition and exchanges
310 of cobalamin and its analogs could potentially determine microbial fitness. [143,144,147] The functions of
311 corrinoids have been studied in several reports and were thoroughly reviewed by Degnan, et
312 al.^[145,148,149] Cobalamin and its derivatives determine not only microbial fitness, but also microbial
313 activity, including pathogenicity in the host. The bacterial transcription factor EutR requires ethanol
314 amine, a precursor of cobalamin, and the cobalamin derivative adenosylcobalamin for the
315 transcription of virulence factors needed for infection of the host and dissemination of
316 enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) serotype O157:H7 and *Salmonella*.^[150-153] Cobalamin uptake by
317 the gut commensal bacteria *B. thetaiotaomicron* limits the production of Shiga-Toxin by EHEC.^[154]
318 Cobalamin also acts as an immunomodulator to promote cellular immunity.^[28,155,156] These results
319 indicated that luminal cobalamin and the availability of its analog can modulate the luminal infection.
320

321 **3 Analytical methods**

322 The use of novel and sophisticated methodology will be key to uncovering all the functional
323 roles of B-vitamins and their metabolites in distal colon (Table 3). For example, mass spectrometry
324 will be a powerful tool to find for novel metabolites derived from B-vitamins, as reported in corrinoid
325 derivatives. Isotopic tracing techniques could assess metabolism and uptake of B-vitamins by
326 bacteria and the host in the distal gut. Developing the experimental condition that prevent indirect
327 supply of B-vitamins and its derivatives from fecal bacterial biomass in coprophagic rodents should
328 be also considered.

329

330 **4 Conclusions**

331 In the distal colon, B-vitamins derived from food and the microbiota help to nourish the host
332 (Figure 1). The amounts of B-vitamins will be different depending on the composition of the gut
333 microbiota. Within the intestinal microbiota, some bacteria utilize rather than synthesize B-vitamins
334 which indicates that bacteria compete in the gut. Microbes also produce other metabolites from B-
335 vitamins that have significant roles in biological processes in the host or bacteria. Because the gut
336 microbiota varies among individuals, the amounts of each B-vitamin in the distal colon will be
337 different among the host and the populations of bacteria. Further investigations in this field, including
338 interactive effects of multiple B-vitamins are warranted. Potentially other metabolites, derived from
339 B-vitamins, play significant roles in the regulation of luminal health or dysregulation (Figure 1). Gut
340 microbiota may synthesize specific metabolites that help us to sense whenever a nutrient is
341 undersupplied, and related signaling or signs could influence our food choices.
342

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620 **Author contributions**

621 T.U. wrote the manuscript. T.S., K.M., and A.T. contributed to critical discussions. The manuscript
622 was critically reviewed, revised and given final approval by all co-authors. T.U. is the guarantor of
623 this work.

624

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629

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631

632 **Figure Legends**

633 **Figure 1.** The role gut microbes have on modulating B-vitamin and its derivatives availability and
634 the functional role of those in the distal gut.

635 B-vitamins are synthesized by intestinal microbiota and supply the host and other microbes. When
636 gut microbes metabolize the B-vitamins they are converted into other compounds which have roles
637 both in host cells and in microbes. Biosynthesized B-vitamins, and their metabolic derivatives, are
638 excreted into the feces where they may be reused by animals that are coprophagic.

639 **Figure 2.** Time course of the changes in riboflavin (left) and metabolism (right) in the luminal and
640 host when riboflavin deficient diet ingestion. Luminal metabolic changes rapidly occur than in the
641 host. **Conc**, concentration.

642 Table 1 Importance of B-vitamin in distal gut

| Vitamin | DRI ^a | Colon transporter (official symbol) ^b | Importance of B vitamin in distal gut |
|---|------------------|---|---|
| B1, thiamin | 2.3% | THTR1 (SLC19A2) THTR2 (SLC19A3) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplies <i>D. melanogaster</i> with nutrients*^[39] |
| B2, riboflavin | 2.8% | RFVT3 (SLC52A3) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplies mice with nutrients^[43] Supports survival of <i>D. melanogaster</i>* and <i>C. elegans</i>*^[44,45] Supports electron transfer in oxygen sensitive bacteria^[46,47] Metabolites activate MAIT-cells by derived from a riboflavin precursor^[49,50] |
| B3, niacin | 27% | SMCT1 (SLC5A8), GPR109A (HCAR2) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps growth of Bacteroidetes^[53] |
| B5, pantothenic acid | 0.078% | SMVT (SLC5A6) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nutrient supply for microbes^[66–68] and mice^[72] |
| B6, pyridoxine, pyridoxamine, pyridoxal | 86% | N.D. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Manipulates the therapeutic potential of 5-FU in <i>C. elegans</i>*^[81] Suppresses colonization of pathogenic bacteria in mice^[73] Modulates colitis experimentally in mice^[74–86] |
| B7, biotin | 4.5% | SMVT, (SLC5A6) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplies mice with nutrients^[104] |
| B9, folate | 37% | hPCFT (SLC46A1) Rfc1 (SLC19A1) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Folate metabolism in the gut microbiota modulates host aging and life span^[124,125] Helps the anti-inflammatory function of <i>Lactobacillus reuteri</i>^[127] Folate and folate-derived metabolites regulate immune function^[28,135] |
| B12, cobalamin | 31% | N.D. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides other functional corrinoids^[136,145, 147-149] Cobalamin and cobalamin derived metabolites regulate microbial fitness and pathogenicity^[136,143,147] |

643 a) DRI were estimated in Magnúsdóttir S, et al.^[27] There is a limitation in this estimation of DRI which did not consider the fact that B-vitamins
 644 produced by gut bacteria not only supply the host, but also supply other gut bacteria.

645 b) Mammalian vitamin transporter in the colon was described. N. D.; not determined.

646 * Depends on the differences in organ structure between insects and mammals, the results from *D. melanogaster* and *C. elegans* did not apply
647 directly to mammals.

648 5-FU, 5-fluorouracil; Ace2, angiotensin I converting enzyme (peptidyl-dipeptidase A) 2; DRI, dietary reference intake; HCAR2, hydroxycarboxylic
649 acid receptor 2; hPCFT, human proton-coupled folate transporter; MAIT-cell, mucosal-associated invariant T-Cell; Rfc1, reduced folate carrier;
650 RFVT3, riboflavin transporter; SMCT1, sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1; SMVT, sodium-dependent multivitamin transporter;
651 THTR1, thiamin transporter1; THTR2, thiamin transporter 2.

652 Table 2 Influence of B-vitamins on gut bacteria

653

| Vitamin | Relationship between B-vitamins and gut bacteria |
|---|---|
| B1, thiamin | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Biosynthesis pathway of thiamin were overrepresented in <i>Prevotella</i> enterotype^[32]. Critical for the growth of <i>B. thetaiotaomicron</i> <i>in vitro</i>^[40] |
| B2, riboflavin | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dietary riboflavin supplementation increased <i>F. prausnitzii</i>^[47] Open questions |
| B3, niacin | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A microcapsule of niacin (900 to 3000 mg) resulted in a significant increase in the population of <i>Bacteroidetes</i>^[56] Nicotinamide supplementation with drink improved the composition of the gut microbiota in Ace2^(-/-) mice^[64] |
| B5, pantothenic acid | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased intake of pantothenic acid was related to an increased relative abundance of <i>Actinobacteria</i>^[65] <i>Lactobacillus spp.</i>, <i>Streptococcus spp.</i>, and <i>Enterococcus spp.</i>, required pantothenic acid for their growth <i>in vitro</i>^[66-68]. Open questions |
| B6, pyridoxine, pyridoxamine, pyridoxal | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The relative abundance of <i>Blautia</i>, <i>Coprococcus</i>, and <i>Roseburia</i> was negatively correlated with vitamin B6 metabolism-related genes^[75]. Distal gut bacteria samples from lean individuals appear to be more involved in vitamin B6 synthesis concomitant with lower ratio of <i>Firmicutes/Bacteroides</i>^[76]. |
| B7, biotin | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Biotin biosynthesis pathway are overexpressed in <i>Bacteroides</i> enterotype^[32]. Critical for the growth of <i>Lactobacillus murinus</i>^[104] |
| B9, folate | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Abundance of <i>Bifidobacterium</i> and <i>Lactobacillus</i> was positively associated with folate status^[105]. Increased total aerobic bacteria was related to an increased total amount of folate in the intestinal content^[106]. |
| B12, cobalamin | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplies nutrients for <i>B. thetaiotaomicron</i> <i>in vitro</i>^[135] Supplementation of cyanocobalamin increased fecal cobalamin concomitant with a lower abundance of <i>Bacteroides</i>^[146]. |

Open questions remain whether indicated B-vitamin availability in the distal gut modulates the composition of the gut microbiota.

654

| | |
|---|-----|
| 1. Mass spectrometry (MS): | 656 |
| – MS can distinguish B-vitamins from metabolic derivatives (e.g., cobalamin ⁶⁵⁷ from other corrinoids). | |
| – MS will be instrumental in the search for novel, or as yet untargeted, metabolites from which new biomarkers might be identified to elucidate the environment inside the gut. | |
| 2. Experimental conditions for animal studies: | |
| – Coprophagy should be taken into account as it has the potential to alter fecal metabolites and dietary intake of vitamins to confound study results. | |
| – Housing rodents in metal cages or restrainers can help to avoid this. | |
| 3. Isotopic tracing techniques: | |
| – B-vitamins and their metabolites could be quantitatively profiled using isotopes; B-vitamin transport could be traced to assess their metabolism and uptake by bacteria and the host. | |
| 4. Transporters and receptors: | |
| – The functions of B-vitamin transporters expressed in the large intestine are unclear, particularly in a complex environment such as the mammalian colon. | |
| – Being able to specifically knockout or inhibit a gene within the large intestine could improve our understanding in relation to functionality. | |
| 5. Reconstruction of the condition of the lumen: | |
| – Complicated processes, such as secretion, can utilize B-vitamins or B-vitamin metabolites synthesized by bacteria. | |

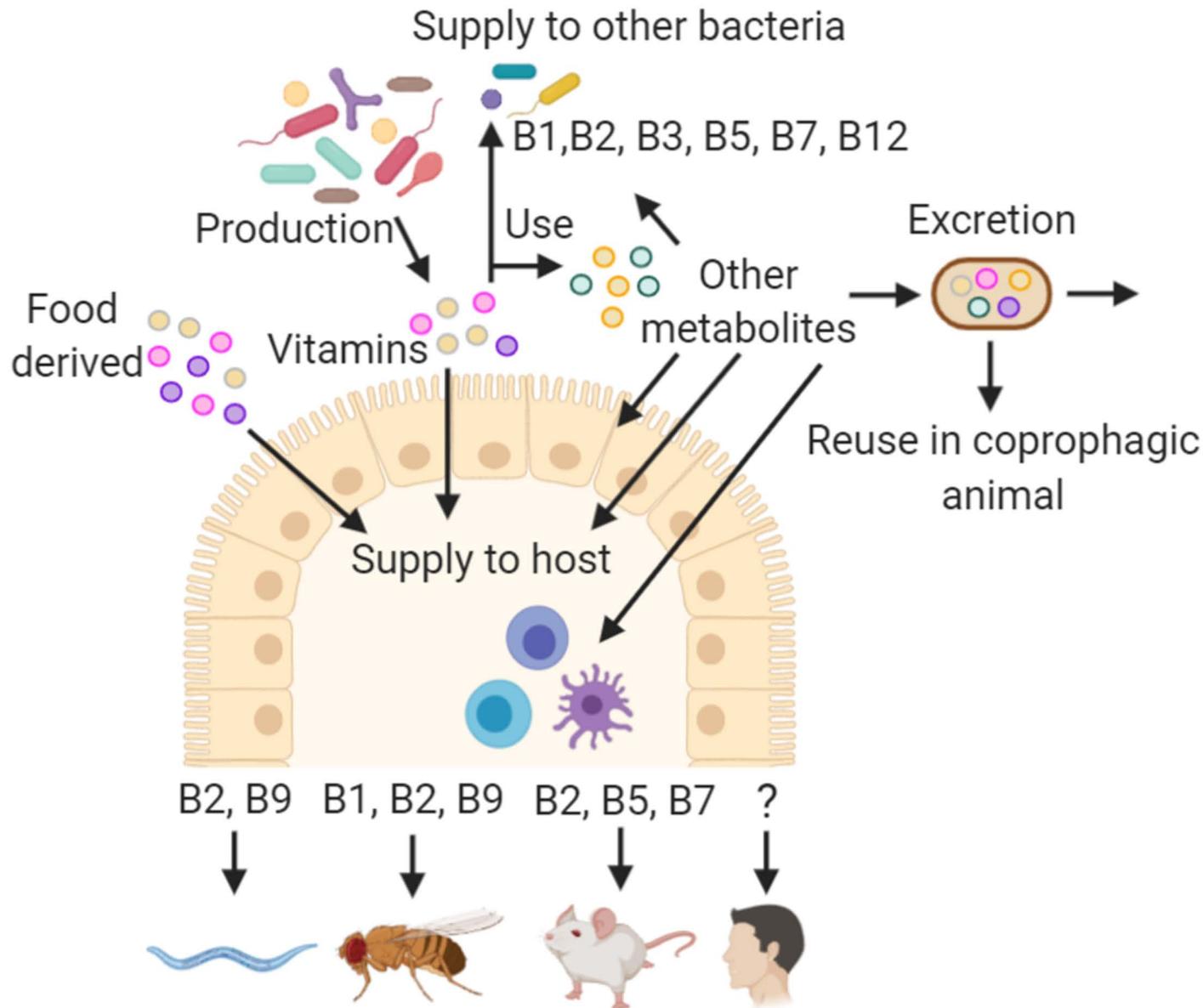


Figure 1

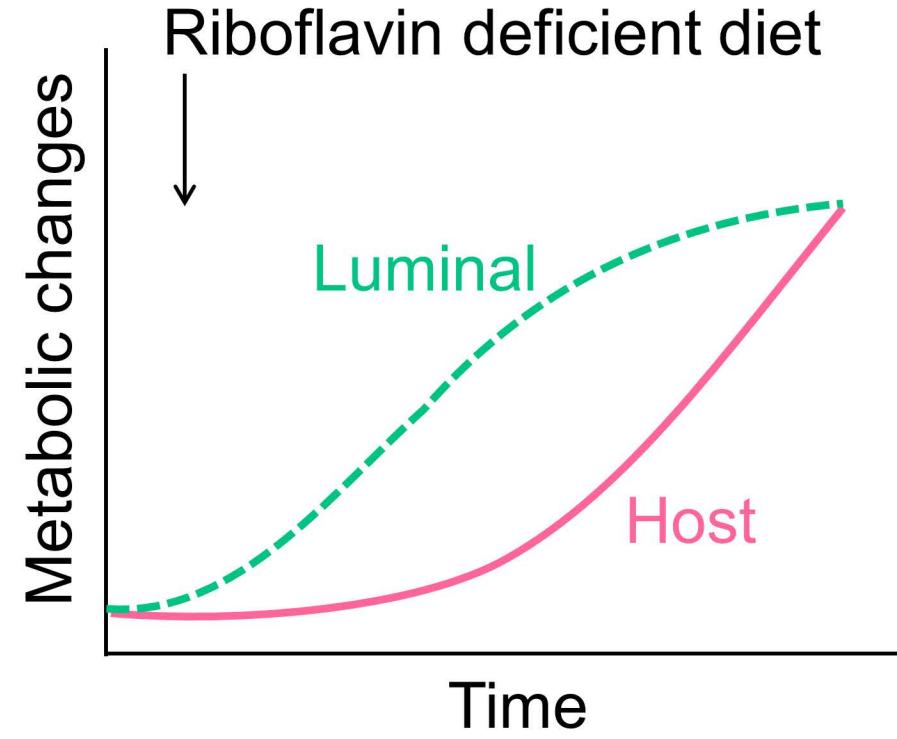
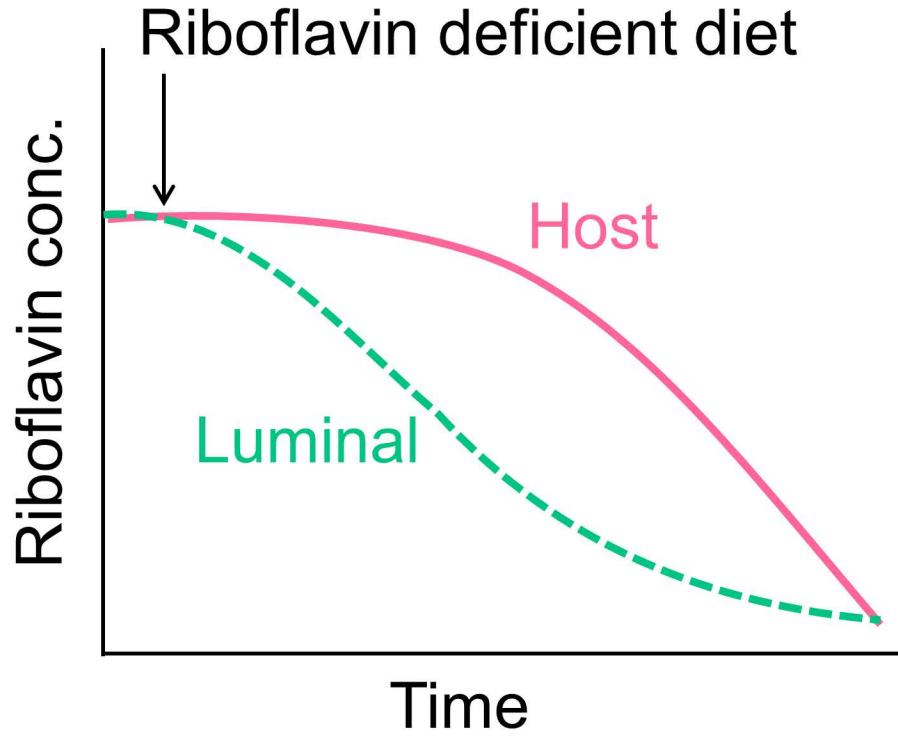
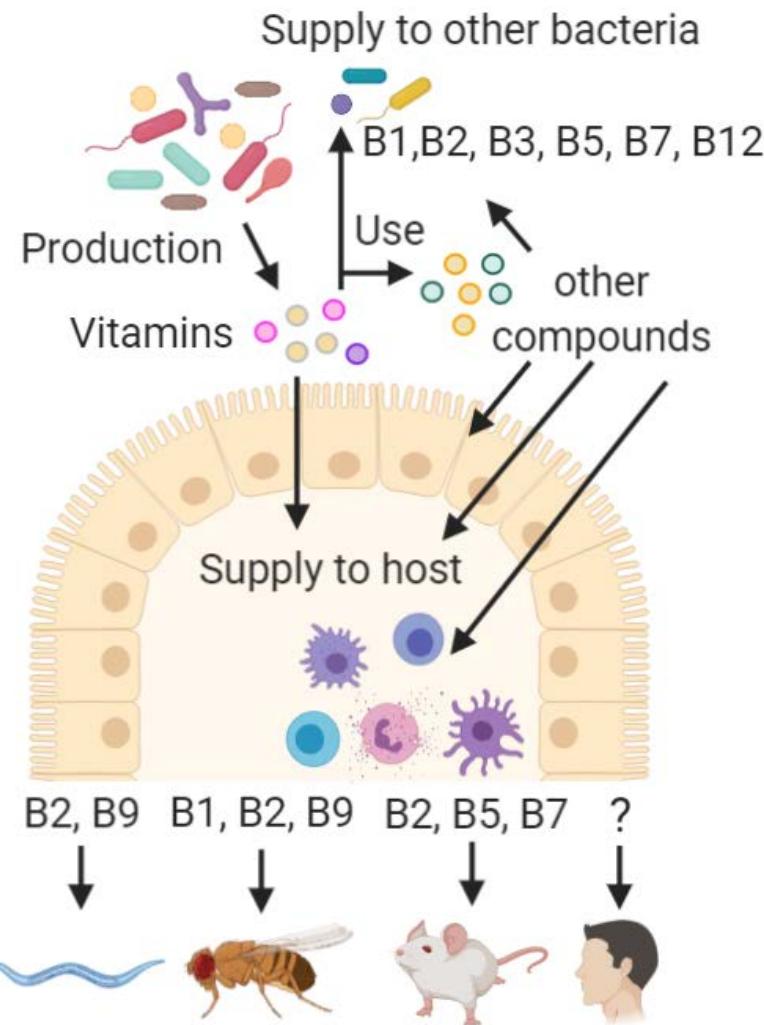


Figure 2



B-vitamins and their metabolic derivatives in the distal colon perform many important functions in the body; they act as (1) nutrients for a host and their microbiota, (2) regulators of immune cell activity and modulators of colitis, (3) mediators of drug efficacy, (4) supporters of survival, or the fitness of certain bacterium, and (5) suppressors of colonization by pathogenic bacteria.