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Microbiome and Metabolome Features of the Cardiometabolic Disease Spectrum

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103 Abstract

104 Previous microbiome and metabolome analyses exploring non-communicable diseases have paid 105 scant attention to major confounders of study outcomes, such as common, pre-and co-morbid 106 conditions or polypharmacy. Here in the context of ischemic heart disease (IHD), we used a 107 study design that recapitulates disease initiation, escalation and response to treatment over time, 108 mirroring a longitudinal study that would otherwise be difficult to perform given the protracted 109 nature of IHD pathogenesis. We recruited 1,241 middle-aged Europeans including healthy 110 individuals, individuals with dysmetabolic morbidities (obesity and type 2 diabetes) but lacking 111 overt IHD diagnosis, and IHD cases at three distinct clinical stages; acute coronary syndrome, 112 chronic IHD and IHD with heart failure, and characterized their phenome, gut metagenome and 113 serum and urine metabolome. We found that about 75% of microbiome and metabolome features 114 that distinguish IHD cases from healthy individuals after adjustment for effects of medication 115 and lifestyle are present in individuals exhibiting dysmetabolism, suggesting that major 116 alterations of the gut microbiome and metabolome may begin long before clinical onset of IHD. 117 We further categorized microbiome and metabolome signatures related to prodromal 118 dysmetabolism, specific to IHD in general or to each of its three subtypes, or related to escalation 119 or de-escalation of IHD. Discriminant analysis based on specific IHD microbiome and 120 metabolome features could better differentiate IHD cases from healthy individuals or 121 metabolically-matched individuals as compared to the conventional risk markers, pointing to a 122 pathophysiological relevance of these features.

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126 Introduction

Epidemiological and genetic studies in humans and experimental studies in animals have shown 127 128 that the pathogenesis of most common chronic non-communicable diseases involves a complex 129 interplay between polygenic susceptibility, aging, sex and a multitude of environmental exposures¹. Intriguingly, the environmental components like diet, physical activity and smoking 130 131 may exert some of their pathogenic impact via modification of the intestinal microbiome². 132 Therefore, a first logical step in exploring a role of the intestinal microbiome as a putative 133 chronic disease co-trigger appears to be conduction of studies integrating epidemiology and 134 various -omics analyses. However, for the reliability of such study outcomes and for the 135 planning of subsequent clinical interventions and mechanistic experiments, disease-specific 136 microbiome and linked metabolome features need to be separated from confounders introduced by pre- and co-morbidities³⁻⁵ and by multifactorial treatment⁶. Commonly prescribed drugs, for 137 example, widely influence the gut microbiome and host metabolome⁷, and can confuse for or 138 even mask genuine disease signatures^{7,8}. Accordingly, a recent report argues for extensive 139 140 adjustments for confounders that influence human gut microbiome to avoid spurious associations and to identify genuine disease-specific variance⁹. 141

The present microbiome and metabolome study is focused on ischemic heart disease (IHD), a leading cause of mortality worldwide¹⁰. Previous reports comparing microbiome and metabolome markers of IHD cases and controls usually failed to adjust for the massive confounding by polypharmacy⁸ and the impact of metabolic abnormalities occurring during a long prodromal phase prior to diagnosis of IHD¹¹⁻¹³. Such common metabolic dysfunctions include overweight and obesity^{3,5}, type 2 diabetes (T2D)⁴, hypertension¹⁴ and dyslipidaemia¹⁵

148 (collectively termed -dysmetabolism" in the present study), all of which have been shown to 149 exhibit both shared and disease-specific aberrations in microbiome and metabolome profiles. Individuals with the metabolic syndrome or overt T2D have vastly increased risk of IHD¹⁶, and 150 asymptomatic T2D is often coincidentally found at IHD diagnosis¹⁷, highlighting these pre-151 152 morbidities to be a clinically relevant baseline for studying overt IHD. Most studies to date have 153 overlooked this aspect by either comparing IHD cases with healthy lean individuals¹¹ or not focusing on IHD per se but on various forms of atherosclerotic organ damage^{12,13,18}. Segregating 154 155 IHD-specific changes in gut microbial and metabolomic features from such potential 156 confounders, thus, remains an utmost priority.

157 In the MetaCardis consortium we designed the present cross-sectional study including healthy 158 individuals, individuals with dysmetabolic morbidities and individuals with IHD at three distinct 159 clinical stages capturing a wide spectrum of gut microbiome and plasma and urine metabolome 160 signatures for cardiometabolic diseases (CMD). With our approach for integrative analysis of the 161 -omics data we adjust for confounding by polypharmacy and the impact of metabolic 162 abnormalities occurring during the prodromal phase prior to diagnosis of IHD. Further, we 163 categorize microbiome and metabolome pathophysiological signatures related to dysmetabolism 164 or to escalation, de-escalation or stabilization of IHD and its subtypes.

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166 **Results**

167 **Study design, in-depth phenotyping and multi-omics profiling.** The study encompassed 372 168 IHD cases including 112 with acute coronary syndrome (ACS), 158 with chronic ischemic heart 169 disease (CIHD) and 102 with ischemic heart disease and heart failure (HF). In addition, we

170 included 275 healthy controls (HC) matched on demographics, age and sex, and 222 untreated 171 metabolically matched controls (UMMC); i.e. individuals with features of the metabolic 172 syndrome and thus at increased risk of IHD but receiving no lipid-lowering or anti-diabetic or 173 anti-hypertensive drugs. Finally, we included 372 controls matched with IHD cases on T2D 174 status and body mass index (BMI), thereafter termed metabolically matched controls (MMC) (Figure 1). We profiled their serum and urine metabolome (1,558 metabolites and lipids), and 175 176 examined their intestinal microbiome considering inter-individual variations in absolute fecal 177 bacterial cell density, a factor potentially reflecting both the disease state and obscuring genuine microbiome involvement¹⁹. Inclusion of MMC and UMMC groups allowed for the 178 179 differentiation of the gut microbial and metabolomic signatures of IHD from the often-180 accompanied metabolic dysfunctions and related drug intake.

181 As expected from inclusion criteria, we found increasing CMD phenotype severity and related 182 drug intake along the implied progression from healthy controls (HC) through treated and 183 untreated metabolically matched controls (MMC and UMMC, respectively) to overt IHD cases 184 (Extended Data Figure 1, and Supplementary Tables 1-3). Despite matching for country, age, 185 sex, body mass index (BMI) and T2D status, cases with IHD remained phenotypically distinct from MMC. They displayed increased visceral fat (p = 0.048), worse glycaemia (HbA1c; p =186 187 0.005 and fasting plasma glucose; p = 0.006), higher plasma concentration of liver enzymes 188 (ASAT, ALAT, GCT; p < 0.001) and increased prevalence and severity of hypertension (p < 0.001) 189 0.001) (Supplementary Tables 1-2). Similarly, IHD cases had decreased heart contractility 190 mirrored in reduced left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) and increased plasma pro-atrial natriuretic peptide (pro-ANP) levels relative to both HC and MMC (p < 0.001), which was 191

192 further altered in the HF subgroup relative to ACS and CIHD (p < 0.001) (Extended Data
193 Figure 1, and Supplementary Table 2).

194 Diet and physical activity variation across study groups. Diet affects microbiome composition and IHD risk². We found that HC individuals reported healthier diets than the IHD 195 196 and MMC groups with higher values of composite metrics such as alternative healthy eating index (aHEI²⁰) (HC versus IHD; p < 0.001), diet diversity score (DDS²¹) (HC versus IHD; p =197 0.001) and dietary approaches to stop hypertension (DASH²²) score (HC versus IHD; p = 0.013), 198 199 and lower overall daily energy intake (HC versus IHD; p = 0.013). HC consumed significantly 200 less of fatty animal-based food and meat and more plant-based food rich in non-digestible 201 polysaccharides (Supplementary Table 4). They further reported higher physical activity levels 202 (Extended Data Figure 1), more often being in manual work and undertaking more frequent 203 moderate to vigorous leisure time activities than IHD or MMC (Supplementary Table 4). Some 204 of the microbiome differences between MMC and IHD as opposed to HC may also reflect a less 205 healthy lifestyle.

206 Microbiome and metabolome changes related to dysmetabolism. Both the taxonomy and 207 functional potential of the gut microbiome as well as the metabolome differed significantly between IHD and HC in accordance with previous reports¹¹⁻¹³. Remarkably, comparing HC to 208 209 MMC revealed even more differential features than comparing HC versus IHD (Figure 2a, and 210 Supplementary Tables 5-8). Moreover, the discriminatory potential of microbiome and 211 metabolome features was significantly higher between IHD and HC than between IHD and 212 MMC (Figure 2b). We recovered most previously published IHD-related gut microbiome 213 findings (Extended Data Figure 2, and Supplementary Tables 15-16), primarily by contrasting

HC and IHD. However, most were already significant in MMC versus HC comparisons, suggesting that previous studies may have erroneously reported dysmetabolism features as *bona fide* IHD features. These might contribute to increased risk of IHD, but our analyses indicate that they are not specific for IHD.

218 At higher microbiome architecture levels, there was a significant shift from the *Bacteroides* 1 219 and Ruminococcus enterotypes towards the low bacterial cell count-associated Bacteroides 2 as disease worsened²³ (Figure 2c). These findings mirror significant loss of microbial gene richness 220 221 (Figure 2d) and absolute gut bacterial cell load (i.e. microbial load) in both MMC and IHD 222 relative to HC. In contrast, no differences were found when IHD were compared with MMC 223 (Supplementary Table 5). Bacterial gene depletion and Bacteroides 2 prevalence were even 224 more exacerbated in UMMC, possibly due to drugs not yet being prescribed and the presence of a more obese phenotype in this group²⁴. Consistently, the total number of gut microbiome and 225 226 metabolome features significantly differential in abundance was higher when HC was compared 227 to UMMC relative to MMC (Extended Data Figure 3).

228 Microbiome and metabolome signatures of IHD. We consider the identification of genuine 229 microbiome and metabolome signatures of IHD, i.e., disease features not better explained as 230 indirect associations via drugs and demographics, a major contribution of our study. Additionally, 231 we further differentiate IHD features from their metabolic morbidities by categorizing them 232 according to their signatures among the various group comparisons across the CMD spectrum, 233 focusing qualitatively on condition specificity and quantitatively on effect size (Figure 3 and 234 Extended Data Figure 4). We identify features as being specific to dysmetabolism (Figure 3a, 235 **b**) or IHD (Figure 3a, c) by exhibiting a significant change only under the respective condition,

i.e. HC versus MMC/UMMC for dysmetabolic features (DMF) or MMC/UMMC versus IHD for 236 237 IHD-specific features (IHDF). Additionally, we identify features based on whether they exhibit a 238 typical shift in effect size in both dysmetabolism and IHD, either maintaining it in the same 239 direction from dysmetabolism to IHD, i.e. escalation features (ESCF) or on the contrary in the 240 opposite direction, i.e. de-escalation features (DSCF) (Figure 3a, d). Specifically, ESCF 241 represents early markers of IHD that continue to increase/decrease during metabolic morbidity 242 (i.e. HC versus MMC/UMMC) to overt IHD (i.e. MMC/UMMC versus IHD) (Figure 4b). In 243 contrast, DSCF exhibit a reverse pattern of shift when considering the effects sizes between HC 244 versus MMC/UMMC and MMC/UMMC versus IHD (Figure 4c). In brief, for features already 245 aberrant in MMC, DSCF represents those being restored towards HC levels in diagnosed and 246 treated IHD, plausibly associated to disease stabilization.

Most significant IHD-associated features were categorized as primarily indicators of general dysmetabolism rather than specific to IHD, whereas next in order of frequency were features specific to IHD, then de-escalation- and escalation features (**Figure 1**, **3**, **Supplementary Figure 1**, and **Supplementary Table 17**). This pattern remained largely valid also when the three IHD subtypes were considered separately (**Supplementary Figure 2**), in line with our observation of a major shift in gut microbiome and metabolome during the dysmetabolic stage prior to IHD diagnosis.

Of 121 species that were markers of dysmetabolism (i.e. DMFs) (**Supplementary Table 17**), an overwhelming majority (85 %) was depleted in IHD, paralleling observations for the ACS cases analyzed in the companion manuscript (Talmor-Barkan et al.). Twenty-three species were IHD specific markers (**Figures 4a, 5**), with a similar trend towards depletion in patients (65%). They

258 included three proteobacteria, Acinetobacter, Turcimonas and Acetobacter, previously reported 259 depleted in IHD (Extended Data Figure2). Among eight species enriched in IHD, two were Betaproteobacteria of the Burkholderiales order. Interestingly, Burkolderia pseudomallei is 260 reported as a possible cause of endocarditis²⁵. A single species, an uncharacterized 261 262 Ruminococcus depleted in IHD, was an IHD escalation marker (Figure 4b); ruminococci 263 include butyrate producers and their depletion might contribute to the reduced production 264 potential of short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) in IHD. Six species were de-escalation markers 265 (Figure 4c); they belonged to Clostridiales order and all but one, *Eubacterium siraeum*, were 266 unclassified at species or even genus taxonomic level. *Eubacterium* was previously reported to 267 be depleted in atherosclerosis (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 17). In contrast, microbiome 268 functions (GMM and KEGG modules) were mostly enriched in IHD (Extended Data Figure 5).

269 In parallel, the metabolome reporting most of IHD-specific markers, showed a marked 270 enrichment with only 50 out of 203 IHD-specific markers (25%) being depleted in IHD relative 271 to HC (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 17). We identified enrichment of a range of IHD-272 specific metabolites, including intermediaries of the choline and carnitine pathways quantified by 273 UPLC-MS/MS, *i.e.* choline, betaine-aldehyde, 4-butyrobetaine, linoleylcarnitine, and 274 trimethylamine (TMA), the precursor of trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO) known to modulate IHD risk²⁶. Other such carnitine metabolites included medium- and long-chain fatty acyl 275 276 carnitines, suggesting an increase in transport into the mitochondria through the carnitine shuttle, 277 typically for β -oxidation. In particular, microbial aromatic acids such as phenylacetate reported 278 to be inversely associated with species-level genome bin (SGB) 4712 in the companion 279 manuscript, Talmor-Barkan et al.) or benzoate follow a similar process producing

phenylacetatylcarnitine or benzoylcarnitine. They undergo conjugation with amino acids to form for instance phenylacetylglutamate or hippurate²⁷, of which both phenylacetylcarnitine and phenylacetylglutamate are IHD-specific markers in our study (**Figure 4a**).

283 Along the same lines, we observed an increase in proinflammatory lipids derived from 284 arachidonic acid (C20:4) starting with arachidonovlcarnitine, 5-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (5-285 HETE) as well as leukotriene B4 and 9- / 13- hydroxyoctadecadienoic acid (9-HODE/13-HODE) which are known mediators of inflammation and atherogenesis^{28,29}. In contrast, fatty acid methyl 286 287 esters including methyl hexadecanoate, methyl linolenate and methyl oleate along with alphatocopherol, known for vasoprotective³⁰ and antioxidant properties³¹, respectively, were among 288 289 the top metabolites whose depletion constitutes markers specific for IHD (Figure 4a). 290 Importantly, similar patterns remained in IHD subtype-specific analyses (Extended Data 291 Figures 6-8, Supplementary Table 17).

292 Most IHD-escalation features represented by the metabolome exhibited an initial depletion upon 293 dysmetabolism, which continued following IHD diagnosis (Figure 4b and Supplementary 294 Table 17). Besides a number of complex phospholipids including sphingomyelins and 295 glycerophospholipids, several carotenoids (e.g. carotene diols and β -cryptoxanthin) and 296 ergothioneine, which are known to improve cardiovascular health exhibited the above depletion 297 pattern whereas glutathione metabolism and markers of oxidative stress (e.g. cystathionine, cys-298 gly oxidized) instead escalated. Ergothioneine, in particular, has been associated with reduced cardiovascular and overall mortality³² and was also identified as a key metabolite exhibiting a 299 300 positive correlation with SGB 4712 (*i.e.* both SGB 4712 and ergothioneine exhibiting depletion) 301 in ACS cases relative to controls in the companion manuscript (Talmor-Barkan et al.).

- 302 Consistently, a reduction in circulating level of ergothioneine was also observed in ACS and HF
- 303 cases relative to healthy controls in the present study (Supplementary Table 17).

304 In contrast, 4-cresol exhibited an enrichment pattern from dysmetabolism to IHD (Figure 4b). 4-305 cresol is a bacterial product of colonic fermentation of phenylalanine and tyrosine and a 306 precursor for uraemic toxin 4-cresylsulfate. Similarly, phenylacetylglutamine, another uraemic 307 toxin derived from microbial phenylacetate and which acts through adrenergic receptors³³ 308 showed an enrichment pattern from dysmetabolism to IHD. It was also shown to be inversely 309 associated with SGB 4712 by Talmor-Barkan et al.). The findings implicate these metabolites as 310 key targets for early intervention. 4-cresol, in particular, has been found in lower concentrations in the blood of vegetarians than of omnivores³⁴, and shown to inhibit colonocyte oxygen 311 consumption³⁵ as well as to be reduced once fat intake is curbed³⁶. In our study this compound 312 313 appeared as a ACS and CIHD escalation feature and it was also one of the top markers specifically enriched in blood of HF cases, likely related to its role in uraemia³⁷ with 314 315 dysregulation of fluid homeostasis being a key feature of HF (Extended Data Figure 7). 316 Interestingly, we also observe in another MetaCardis study that 4-cresol plays a causal role in the 317 gut microbiome-kidney-heart axis in HCs, culminating in increased pro-ANP levels (Chechi et al., in revision). 318

A majority of DSCF (89% and 100% for metabolites and predicted microbiome functions, respectively) exhibited the pattern of initial depletion at the stage of dysmetabolism but an apparent reversal at the stage of treated IHD (**Figure 4c**). For instance, *O*-acetylsalicylate, the active component in aspirin, appeared as an archetypal DSCF putatively due to patient treatment compliance in IHD. Similarly, a number of catecholamine intermediates and end-products,

324 bilirubin products, bile acids and odd-chain lipids with bacterial origin were identified as DSCF. 325 Moreover, TMA production (MC0022) and butyrate production II (MF0089) as gut microbial 326 functional features exhibited a depletion at the dysmetabolism stage but an apparent restoration 327 at the IHD stage (Extended Data Figure 5). Overall, these observations may point towards a 328 responsiveness of both microbiome and metabolome features to long-term multifactorial 329 treatment plausibly contributing to stabilization of IHD. In addition, achieving a stabilized IHD 330 state appeared to involve restoring lost gut microbial cell density (Figure 4c) alongside a 331 capacity to degrade BCAAs and galactose while restoring lost capacity for butyrate and acetate 332 production (Extended Data Figure 5).

Microbiome and metabolome markers of IHD sub-phenotypes. Detailed analysis of ACS,
CIHD and IHD-caused HF groups provided more granularity for relative shifts in microbiome
and metabolome features (Figure 5, Extended Data Figures 6-9, and Supplementary Table
17).

The total number of features typical for each IHD subgroup compared with controls was highest for CIHD followed by HF and ACS. CIHD exhibited the most differential changes in the gut microbiome functional potentials (**Extended Data Figure 9**) whereas ACS exhibited predominantly differential changes in metabolome features (**Figure 5**, **Extended Data Figures 6-9**, and **Supplementary Table 17**).

Most (69%) of the dysmetabolism-linked species found by IHD versus HC comparisons were also present in comparisons of IHD subgroups versus HC, suggesting that the major disruption of the microbiome, which appears to be related to metabolic dysfunction, may persist throughout the various stages of IHD.

346 Strikingly, for the ACS subgroup, besides the 91 dysmetabolism-related species, no other species 347 markers (ACS-specific, ESCF or DSCF- related) were found (Supplementary Table 17). In the 348 same ACS group, the pattern was very different for serum metabolites where only 55% of 349 markers were related to dysmetabolism while 25% were ACS-specific (Supplementary Table 350 17). We thus observed the acute disease phase being characterized by microbiome alterations 351 almost exclusively related to dysmetabolism, presumably accumulating during the long 352 prodromal stage, as well as host metabolome perturbations unrelated to dysmetabolism, 353 presumably beginning only shortly before the ACS event. It is tempting to suggest that the 354 conjunction of the two may be conducive to some of the decompensation observed in ACS.

355 When considering the metabolome markers specific to ACS, eight out of the top 10 metabolites 356 were drug analytes or drug metabolites, related to aspirin, metroprolol and atorvastatin. There 357 was also an increase in proinflammatory metabolites such as 5- and 12-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic 358 acid (HETE), leukotriene B4 and B5, as well as products of microbial-host phenylalanine co-359 metabolism (phenylacetylcarnitine, phenylacetylglutamate, and 2-hydroxyphenylacetate), 360 followed by indoxylsulfate and TMA, which is consistent with the identified overall IHD-361 specific signature. Likewise, some of the ACS-specific depleted metabolites were also less 362 abundant in IHD, including health beneficial metabolites such as alpha-tocopherol, ergothioneine,

363 methyl oleate and methyl hexadecanoate (Extended Data Figure 6, Supplementary Table 17).

In contrast to the findings in ACS, 19 and 31 specific species markers were found, for CIHD and HF, respectively, indicating additional microbiome changes in the chronic phases of IHD. Noticeably, these changes affected genera represented by only a few species: 8/14 depleted and 11/17 enriched species in HF cases, respectively, belonged to genera represented by no more

368 than six species ($p=2.9 \times 10^{-5}$ as estimated by the number of species belonging to different 369 genera found in our study (Extended Data Figures 6-8, and Supplementary Table 17).

370 The majority of the CIHD-specific features was enriched in cases over controls (Extended Data Figures 7 & 9, supplementary Table 17). This was particularly the case for microbiome 371 372 functional potentials for amino acid biosynthesis, including BCAA, (KEGG modules M00019, 373 M00570, M00432), methionine (KEGG module M00017) and lysine (KEGG module M00030) 374 (Extended Data Figure 9). Similarly, enhanced degradation of aromatic amino acids 375 phenylalanine, tyrosine (GMM modules MF0027, MF0026) was reflected by increased 376 abundance of phenylacetate metabolites (phenylacetylcarnitine and phenylacetylglutamate).We 377 also observed increased abundance of methionine and two of its metabolites (N-acetylmethionine 378 sulfoxide, and gamma-glutamylmethionine), which are known to be associated with cardiovascular phenotypes³⁸. Of interest, the gut microbiome-derived L-methionine biosynthesis 379 380 pathway was recently directly associated with atherosclerotic plaque burden and enhanced 381 metabolic risk score for cardiovascular disease¹⁸, whereas L-methionine sulfoxide as a product of protein methionine oxidation may influence thrombosis and vascular function³⁹ (Extended Data 382 Figures 7 & 9, and Supplementary Table 17). In addition, the abundance of multiple UPLC-383 384 MS/MS quantified carnitines including decanoylcarnitine and oleoylcarnitine was elevated in 385 CIHD.

Some metabolite features also exhibited HF-specificity with an enrichment of 4-cresol, 4-cresyl sulfate (also called p-cresol sulfate), 4-cresylglucuronide (also called p-cresol glucuronide), choline and TMA as well as several carnitines (3-methylglutarylcarnitine, suberoylcarnitine (C8), octadecanedioylcarnitine (C18), levulinoylcarnitine, including microbiome-derived carnitines

390 (benzoylcarnitine, phenylacetylcarnitine). In contrast, metabolites such as alpha-tocopherol,
391 ergothioneine and 3-indoleglyoxylic acid exhibited HF-specific depletion (Extended Data
392 Figure 8, Supplementary Table 17). These findings point towards altered fatty acid metabolism,
393 which is known to play a crucial role in HF pathogenesis⁴⁰.

394 Classification of participants into clinical subgroups. Robustness of our microbiome and 395 metabolome signatures was evaluated by comparing the performance of orthogonal partial least 396 squares discriminant analysis (O-PLS-DA) models for classifying ACS (n=112), CIHD (n=158) 397 and HF (n=102) relative to HC (n=275) and MMC (n=372) (Extended Data Figure 10). 398 Classification was based on (i) clinical markers routinely assessed during IHD diagnosis; (ii) 399 deconfounded microbiome and metabolome markers specific for each IHD subtype identified in 400 the current study and (iii) a combination of the two. Models were built by randomly splitting our 401 MetaCardis study population into groups of 70% and 30%, respectively, and using the former for 402 training and latter for testing; the process was iterated 1,000 times to minimize overfitting. The 403 performance of the specific -omics markers on the testing sets yielded area under the curve 404 (AUC) values superior to 0.7 in all cases and was systematically higher than that of clinical 405 markers only, in particular for classification relative to the MMC group. Combination of the two 406 marker types did not improve classification relative to MMC and only marginally improved 407 classification relative to HC (Extended Data Figure 10).

To validate our classification models further, we took advantage of the independent data set from the companion manuscript (Talmor-Barkan et al.), focusing on our ACS subgroup to match the pathology of the Israeli study sample. ACS-specific-metabolomics markers from the two studies were highly correlated (Cliff's Delta values computed relative to HC are shown in **Figure 6a**,

Supplementary Table 18), confirming that similar changes were observed in the two studies 412 413 and validating a large fraction of our ACS-specific metabolome features. Importantly, our 414 markers exhibited strong discriminatory potential when employed in O-PLS-DA models trained 415 in our population and tested in the independent Israeli population (Talmor-Barkan et al.). Models 416 based on our ACS-specific metabolome markers with (model 3, AUROC= 0.87) or without 417 clinical variables (model 2, AUROC: 0.85) performed substantially better than a model based on 418 clinical variables alone (AUROC; 0.764 Figure 6c). Altogether, this independent replication 419 confirmed the robustness of the discriminatory potential of our deconfounded microbiome and 420 metabolome markers in a clinical setting (Figure 6 (metabolome markers) and Extended Data 421 Figure 10 (microbiome and metabolome markers)).

422 **Discussion**

423 We show that a vast majority of the intestinal microbiome and circulating and urine metabolome 424 signatures that were previously reported as characteristic of IHD and which do not reduce to 425 drug treatment effects is in fact present already in individuals with common dysmetabolic 426 phenotypes like obesity and T2D. Our observations further align with the presence of a reduced 427 gut bacterial cell density and changes in the abundance of multiple species and microbial 428 functional potentials. Accounting for bacterial cell density, we identify the low cell count *Bacteroides* 2 enterotype²³ as a biomarker both in individuals with dysmetabolism and in 429 430 individuals diagnosed with IHD. We particularly highlight low gut bacterial cell count as one of 431 the microbiome features linked with IHD, which appears to reverse in treated IHD cases. Interestingly, both the present manuscript and another recent MetaCardis publication⁴¹ suggest 432 433 that statin drugs widely prescribed to CMD cases may help restore gut bacterial cell load. These

434 results are particularly relevant since several statins and their drug metabolites (mostly related to 435 atorvastatin), and β -blockers (metroprolol and its metabolites) are reflected in the here identified 436 specific signatures of IHD and its subtypes.

437 In cases with diagnosed IHD and treatment-induced improvement of vascular, inflammatory and 438 lipid health markers, we found less aberrant microbiome and metabolome profiles when 439 compared with healthy individuals. Still, we found bacterial species specifically altered in IHD cases and most of them were depleted in agreement with findings of the companion manuscript 440 441 (Talmor-Barkan et al.). Similarly, we observed a depletion of IHD-specific metabolites including the fatty acid esters ergothioneine and alpha-tocopherol, known for vasoprotective³⁰ and 442 antioxidant properties³¹, whereas metabolites enriched in IHD cases included intermediates 443 444 related to TMA and compounds derived from tryptophan and phenylalanine metabolism. Finally, 445 4-cresol and phenylacetylglutamine stood out as representatives of ESCF potentially mirroring 446 disease severity.

In IHD subtype analyses, we identified multiple dysmetabolism-related gut microbiome changes in ACS cases, further strengthening our hypothesis that gut microbiome alterations take place in the prodromal stages prior the onset of IHD. In contrast, a substantial fraction of altered host metabolites (45%) in ACS cases was unrelated to dysmetabolism. In addition, we found alterations of the microbiome and metabolome that were specific for CIHD and HF, putatively conditioned by a conjunction of intervention and disease worsening.

453 Of relevance for actionable targets in future preclinical and clinical trials, we confirm reduced 454 microbiome potentials for biosynthesis of SCFAs and increased production of BCAAs⁴² in

455 individuals at increased risk of asymptomatic coronary atherosclerosis prior to IHD diagnosis. In 456 the later phases of IHD pathogenesis, we show an overwhelming role for microbial-host 457 metabolism of aromatic amino acids derived from phenylalanine and tyrosine, i.e. emerging from 458 phenylacetate and cresol co-metabolism. Thus, our findings suggest that beyond diminishing 459 microbial-host production of TMAO, future interventions aiming to delay or prevent IHD might 460 be directed at increasing microbial SCFA biosynthesis but lowering microbial production of 461 aromatic amino acids and BCCAs. Finally, the identified microbiome and metabolome features 462 allowed us to stratify IHD cases from healthy individuals or metabolically matched individuals at 463 levels above that achieved with conventional risk markers pointing to their pathophysiological 464 relevance.

In conclusion, at prodromal dysmetabolic stages and at both early and late clinical manifestations of IHD, multiple deconfounded microbiome and metabolome alterations are present reflecting distinct metabolic pathways. Several of these are modifiable and might be targets for future mechanistic experiments and clinical trials aiming at IHD prevention.

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505 Author contributions

506 OP, SDE and ME-D developed the present project concept and protocol and supervised the 507 project. KC (coordinator), OP, MS, SDE, PB, JR, M-ED, FB and JN conceived the overall 508 objectives and study design of the MetaCardis initiative. MetaCardis cohort recruitment, 509 phenotyping and lifestyle: JA-W, TN, RC, CL, LK, TH, THH, HV, KA and supervised by KC, 510 MS and OP. Data curation: RC, KA, SKF, JA-W, TN. Faecal microbial DNA extraction and 511 shotgun sequencing: NP, ELC, SF. Bacterial cell count measurement: GF, SVS. Serum and urine 512 metabolome profiling: LH, JC, AM, MO. Biochemical analyses: J-PG. Bioinformatics and 513 statistical analyses: SF, SKF, RA, LPC, SS, EP, EB, PA, BJ, KChe. Modelling of microbiome 514 data: KChe, HJ, SKF, SF, GF, SVS. Drug-deconfounding: SKF and MZ-K. The manuscript was 515 drafted by J-AW, RC, SKF, KChe, M.-E.D., S.D.E. and OP. All authors participated in the 516 project development, discussion of results, and revision of article and approved the final version 517 for publication.

518 **Competing Interests Statement**

- 519 F.B. is shareholder in Implexion Pharma AB. K.C. is a consultant for Danone Research, LNC
- 520 therapeutics and CONFO therapeutics for work that is unassociated with the present study. K.C.
- 521 has held a collaborative research contract with Danone Research in the context of MetaCardis
- 522 project. The other authors declare no competing interests.

523 Figure Legends

524 Figure 1. Overview of the study design. Top, the individuals studied are a subset of 1,241 525 individuals from the European MetaCardis cohort, in which participants underwent deep 526 bioclinical phenotyping combined with gut microbiome and serum and urine metabolome 527 profiling. Participants were classified as being healthy controls (HC, n = 275, healthy by self-528 report and no intake of lipid-lowering, anti-diabetic or anti-hypertensive drugs) and a combined 529 group of patients diagnosed with ischemic heart disease (IHD, n = 372, on various drugs). The 530 IHD group included cases with acute coronary syndrome (ACS, n = 112), chronic ischemic heart 531 disease (CIHD, n = 158) and heart failure (HF, n = 102) due to CIHD. Two additional control 532 groups were included: metabolically matched controls without diagnosed IHD (MMC, n = 372, 533 matched on age, body mass index and T2D status of the IHD cases, some of whom were 534 prescribed lipid-lowering, antidiabetic and anti-hypertensive medication but no IHD related 535 drugs) and untreated (non-medicated) metabolically matched non-IHD controls (UMMC, n = 536 222, no intake of lipid-lowering, anti-diabetic, anti-hypertensive or IHD drugs). Bottom, 537 microbiome and metabolome features were segregated into four categories, as indicated. The 538 human icons were adapted from smart.servier.com.

Figure 2. Alterations of gut microbiome and metabolome features along the natural history of ischaemic heart disease. a, Violin plots representing the distribution of significant gut microbiome and metabolome features among various group comparisons before and after data being subjected to the drug-deconfounding pipeline (lower line, lower quartile; medium line, median; upper line, upper quartile). Numbers below each subplot represent total features in the respective group comparison (shown as x-axis) that retained significance (FDR ≤ 0.1)

545 plotted against the Cliff's Delta (y-axis) for each set of features before (uncorrected) or after 546 drug deconfounding (corrected) **b**, Boxplots showing classifier performance comparison using 547 HC or MMC as controls relative to IHD cases, based either on all microbial features (left) or 548 quantified metabolome features (right) as input (center line, median; box limits, upper and lower 549 quartiles; whiskers, 1.5× interquartile range; points, outliers). Two-sided MWU P are included 550 for each comparison. c, Pie chart (right) comparing the percent (shown as numbers) distribution of four enterotypes among various study groups. Table (left) shows the $\text{Chi}^2 P$ for each study 551 group relative to the three control groups i.e., HC, MMC, and UMMC. d, Boxplots (upper) 552 553 comparing gut bacterial gene richness among the indicated study groups (violin, distribution; 554 center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, 1.5× interquartile range; 555 points, outliers). Table (below) shows the two-sided MWU P for each study group relative to the three control groups i.e., HC, MMC, and UMMC. Two-sided MWU and Chi² tests were used for 556 557 assessing the significance of group-wise comparisons in a, b, d and c, respectively, using HC (n = 275), MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222), IHD (n = 372), ACS (n = 112), CIHD (n = 158), HF 558 559 (n = 102) groups. Multiple testing corrections were done using Benjamini-Hochberg method and 560 $FDR \le 0.1$ was considered significant. HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched 561 controls, UMMC unmedicated metabolically matched controls, IHD: ischemic heart disease, 562 ACS: acute coronary syndrome, CIHD: chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to IHD, MGS: 563 metagenomic species, GMM: gut microbial modules, KEGG, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and 564 Genomes, MWU: Mann-Whitney U, FDR: false-discovery rate.

565 Figure 3. Approach used for categorization of microbiome and metabolome features in the 566 cross-sectional study. Gut microbiome and plasma and urine metabolome features that 567 exhibited a statistically significant shift uniquely when either metabolically matched controls

568 (MMC), untreated metabolically matched controls (UMMC) or cases with ischemic heart disease 569 (IHD) were compared to healthy controls (HC) were categorized as dysmetabolism features 570 (DMF; a, b) as these features exhibited significant alterations in association with metabolic 571 syndrome (i.e. obesity, type 2 diabetes) and not IHD per se. In contrast, gut microbiome and 572 plasma and urine metabolome features that exhibited a significant change when either MMC or UMMC subjects were compared with IHD cases were categorized as IHD-specific features 573 574 (IHDF; a, c). In addition, features exhibiting a significant change in IHD cases relative to HC 575 subjects were categorized as IHDF when they exhibited a simultaneous significant shift in IHD 576 cases relative to MMC or UMMC subjects. Next, we considered the natural trajectory of IHD in 577 two stages i.e., HC vs MMC or UMMC (representing the dysmetabolism stage) and MMC or 578 UMMC vs IHD (representing the IHD stage). Features exhibiting a significant change under both 579 dysmetabolic and IHD stages, and in the same direction (representing disease progression), were 580 thus labelled as escalation features (ESCF; a, d), whereas those exhibiting a significant change in 581 the reverse direction (representing disease stabilization) were labelled as de-escalation features 582 (DSCF; a, d). Our approach evaluated every feature across all group comparisons using the 583 criteria of 1) non-confounded status (i.e., feature cannot be confounded by any tested host 584 variables including drug treatment). 2) significance status i.e., feature has to exhibit FDR < 0.1585 for respective group comparison, and 3) a directional alignment status (i.e., direction of change 586 when disease stages are considered) for categorization as either as DMF (b), IHDF (c), ESCF or 587 DSCF (d). Please see Extended Data Figure 4 and the Methods for more details. The arrow size 588 further reflects the number of features identified by each route for respective categorization: 767 589 DMFs, 283 IHDFs and 98 each of ESCFs and DSCFs were identified. Two-sided MWU tests 590 were used for assessing the significance of group-wise comparisons using HC (n = 275), MMC

591 (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222) and IHD (n = 372) groups. Multiple testing corrections were done 592 using Benjamini-Hochberg method and FDR <= 0.1 was considered significant. MWU: Mann-593 Whitney U, FDR: false-discovery rate. The human icons were adapted from smart.servier.com.

594 Figure 4. Microbiome and metabolome features linked with ischaemic heart disease and its 595 dysmetabolic pre-morbidities. Using the categorization scheme described in Figure 3 and 596 Extended Data Figure 4, gut microbiome and metabolome markers were categorized as 597 dysmetabolic features (DMF), IHD-specific features (IHDF), IHD-escalation features (ESCF) or 598 IHD de-escalation features (DSCF), of which IHDF (a), ESCFs (b) and DSCFs (c) are displayed 599 here. In each panel, arrow length show effect sizes (Cliff's Delta) for respective group 600 comparisons. Cliff's Delta for HC vs IHD comparison are displayed for IHDFs (a), whereas 601 Cliff's Delta for both HC vs MMC and MMC vs IHD are displayed for ESCFs (b) and DSCFs 602 (c), with arrow head pointing to the direction of change. Only features exhibiting an absolute 603 effect size > 0.1 are displayed; inclusive of serum metabolites, metagenomic species and 604 microbial density indices (see Supplementary Table 17 for a description of effect sizes and 605 confounding status). Two-sided MWU tests were used for assessing the significance of group-606 wise comparisons using HC (n = 275), MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222) and IHD (n = 372) 607 groups. Multiple testing corrections were done using Benjamini-Hochberg method and FDR <= 608 0.1 was considered significant. IHD: ischemic heart disease, HC: healthy controls, MMC: 609 metabolically matched controls, UMMC: unmedicated metabolically matched controls, MWU: Mann-Whitney U, FDR: false-discovery rate. 610

611 Figure 5. Metabolome and microbiome features altered uniquely in ischaemic heart disease

612 (IHD) and its subtypes. Circle plot shows gut microbial species and serum metabolites that

613 were categorized as being specific to IHD or to its subtypes; ACS, CIHD and HF due to CIHD as

per our categorization scheme shown in **Figure 3** and **Extended Data Figure 4**. Each layer shows effect sizes (Cliff's Delta) for individual features that were either enriched or depleted in cases (IHD or its subtypes) versus healthy controls (see also **Supplementary Table 17** for all features listed as being specific to IHD and its subtypes. Only features exhibiting absolute effect sizes > 0.1 for HC vs IHD are displayed. HC: healthy controls, IHD: ischemic heart disease, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, CIHD: chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to IHD.

620 Figure 6. Validation of markers for acute coronary syndrome (ACS). For the gut microbial 621 and plasma metabolome features common to both MetaCardis and Israeli cohorts, a Spearman 622 correlation analysis (a) was conducted between the effect sizes (Cliff's Delta) for HC vs ACS 623 comparison in each study after recalculating Cliff's Delta's in the Israeli population. Next, ROC 624 curves depicting the classifier performance (AUROC) of five-fold cross-validated O-PLS-DA 625 models based on the overlapped set of ACS biomarkers in three settings are shown for 626 MetaCardis as the training population (b) and Israeli cohort as the test population (c). Model 1 627 included nine clinical ACS risk variables (i.e. age, sex, body mass index, systolic blood pressure, 628 diastolic blood pressure, glycated haemoglobin (factored as > 5.7, 5.7-6.4 and < 6.4 mmol/l) and 629 smoking status), fasting total-cholesterol and HDL-cholesterol (mmol/l). Model 2 included ACS-630 specific biomarkers identified in our study that were also found in Talmor-Barkan et al (118 631 variables) whereas model 3 involved all variables considered for model 1 and 2 (i.e., 127 632 variables). Two-sided MWU tests were used for assessing the significance of group-wise 633 comparisons using HC (n = 275) and ACS (n = 112) in MetaCardis population and HC (n = 473) 634 vs ACS (n = 156) in the Israeli population. Multiple testing corrections were done using 635 Benjamini-Hochberg method and FDR ≤ 0.1 was considered significant. HC: healthy controls, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, O-PLS-DA: orthogonal partial least squares-discriminant 636

- 637 analysis, ROC: Receiver-operating characteristics, AUROC: Area under the ROC curve, MWU:
- 638 Mann-Whitney U, FDR: false-discovery rate.
- 639
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	 37 38 39 40 41 42

747

Online Methods

748 Study design and participants

749 The MetaCardis project included healthy control individuals and individuals at increasing 750 stages of dysmetabolism and ischaemic heart disease (IHD) severity, aged 18–75 years old, and 751 recruited from Denmark, France and Germany between 2013 and 2015. IHD cases were 752 classified into: patients with first case of acute coronary syndrome (<15 days) (ACS), patients 753 with chronic IHD (CIHD) with normal heart function and patients with documented heart 754 failure (HF) and IHD as demonstrated by echocardiography-evaluated left ventricular ejection 755 fraction (LVEF)<45%. Our study encompassed 372 IHD cases (112 ACS, 158 with CIHD and 756 102 with HF caused by CIHD). In addition, 275 healthy controls (HC) matched on 757 demographics, age and sex, and 222 untreated metabolically matched controls (UMMC); i.e. 758 individuals with features of the metabolic syndrome but receiving no lipid-lowering, anti-759 diabetic or anti-hypertensive drugs. Finally, we included 372 controls matched with IHD cases 760 on type 2 diabetes (T2D) status and body mass index (BMI), metabolically matched controls 761 (MMC) thereafter.

Exclusion criteria were known confounders of the gut microbiome; i.e., antibiotic use in the 3 3months prior to inclusion, past history of abdominal cancer+/- radiation therapy, intestinal resection except for appendectomy, inflammatory or infectious diseases including, Hepatitis B and C or human immunodeficiency virus.

Additionally,, patients with a history of organ transplantation, receiving immunosuppressants,

restimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR) < 50 ml/min.1.73/m²), drug or alcohol addiction
were excluded. Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee CPP IIe-de France, the Ethical Committees of the Capital Region of Denmark (H-3-2013-145) and Ethics Committee at the Medical Faculty at the University of Leipzig (047-13-28012013). All study participants provided written informed consent and all clinical investigations were undertaken according to Helsinki Declaration II.

773 **Bioclinical variables**

774 Clinical measurements were made using standardized operating procedures concludedprior 775 patient recruitment. Bioclinical variables include age, sex, BMI, smoking status, dietary intake, 776 physical activity, and drug intake. We obtained habitual dietary information using food-777 frequency questionnaires (FFQ) adapted to cultural habits of each of country of recruitment. Smoking status was obtained from a standardized questionnaire while information on physical 778 779 activity was assessed using the Recent Physical Activity Questionnaire (RPAQ). Drug intake 780 was assessed by either recall or from medication list, and a medical specialist interviewed 781 study participants about adherence to prescribed medication.

T2D was defined as fasting plasma glucose $\geq 7 \text{ mmol/l}$ and/or Hba1c $\geq 6.5\%$ and/or individuals taking any glucose lowering agents; hypertension was defined as systolic blood pressure>140 mmHg and/or diastolic blood pressure>90 mmHg and/or subjects taking antihypertensive drugs. Echocardiography enabled the measure of left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) for diagnosis of HF (LVEF <45%). Renal function was assessed via eGFR calculated using the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) equation⁴³.

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788 Blood was collected in the morning after an overnight fast. Plasma and serum samples were 789 stored at the clinical centres at -80°C until shipment to a central laboratory facility. Fasting 790 plasma glucose, total and HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, creatinine and HbA1c levels were 791 measured using standard enzymatic methods. LDL-cholesterol concentrations were measured 792 enzymatically for German participants or by the Friedwald equation for French and Danish 793 participants. Alanine aminotransferase (ALAT), aspartate aminotransferase (ASAT), and y-794 glutamyltransferase (GGT) were measured by enzyme-coupled kinetic assays. Ultrasensitive 795 C-reactive protein (usCRP) was measured using an Image Automatic Immunoassay System 796 (Beckman Coulter). High-sensitivity IL-6 was measured using the Human IL-6 Ouantikine 797 HSELISA Kit (R&D Systems). IFN-y-induced protein 10 (IP-10) and C-X-C motif chemokine 798 ligand 5 (CXCL5), CCL2, Eotaxin, IL7, MIF, MIP1b, SDF1 and VEGFa were measured using 799 a Luminex assay (ProcartaPlex Mix&Match Human 13-plex; eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA). Plasma pro-ANP was measured using a processing-independent assay⁴⁴. 800

801 Stool sample collection

Stool samples were processed according to International Human Microbiome Standards (IHMS)
guidelines (SOP03V1). Samples were collected by study subjects at home and immediately
stored at -20°C until they were transported on dry ice and frozen 4-24h later at -80°C in plastic
tubes at the biobanks of corresponding recruitment centers.

806 Microbial load measurement by flow cytometry

807 Microbial loads of fecal samples were processed and analyzed as described²³. Briefly, 0.2g

808 frozen (-80°C) aliquots were suspended in physiological solution to a total volume of 100mL

809 (8.5g/L NaCl; VWR), the slurry was diluted 1,000 times and samples were filtered using a 810 sterile syringe filter (pore-size 5µm; Sartorius). Next, 1mL of the microbial cell suspension 811 was stained with 1µL SYBR Green I (1:100 dilution in DMSO; shaded 15min incubation at 37°C; 10,000 concentrate, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The flow cytometry analysis was 812 performed using a C6 Accuri flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) based on Prest et al.⁴⁵. Events 813 814 were monitored using the FL1 533/30nm and FL3 >670nm detectors. Instrument and gating settings were kept identical for all samples (fixed staining/gating strategy⁴⁵) and cell counts 815 816 were converted to microbial loads per gram of faecal material (microbial load index).

817 Stool sample processing and metagenomic analyses

818 Total faecal DNA was extracted following the International Human Microbiome Standards 819 (IHMS) guidelines (SOP-07V2 H). Samples were sequenced in a non-randomized order using 820 ion-proton technology (ThermoFisher Scientific) resulting in 23.3 ± 4.0 million (mean \pm SD) 821 single-end short reads with an on average length of 150 bases. Sequencing was carried out with 822 standardized protocols at a single site (Metagenopolis, Paris) over a period of 18 months. There 823 was no significant bias of the sequencing date for different Metacardis groups (Kruskal Wallis 824 p value of 0.4 for HC, MMC, UMMS & IHD groups). Reads were cleaned using Alien Trimmer $(v0.4.0)^{46}$ in order (i) to remove resilient sequencing adapters and (ii) to trim low-825 826 quality nucleotides at the 3' side using a quality and length cut-off of 20 and 45bp, respectively. 827 Cleaned reads were subsequently filtered from human and other possible food contaminant 828 DNA using human genome RCh37-p10, Bos taurus and Arabidopsis thaliana with an identity 829 score threshold of 97%. Gene abundance profiling was performed using the 9.9 million gene integrated reference catalogue of the human microbiome⁴⁷. Filtered high-quality reads were 830

mapped with an identity threshold of 95% to the 9.9million-gene catalogue using Bowtie2 831 832 (v2.3.4)⁴⁸ included in METEOR v3.2 (https://forgemia.inra.fr/metagenopolis/meteor) software⁴⁹. Gene abundance profiling table was generated by means of a two-step procedure 833 834 using METEORv3.2. First, reads mapped to a unique gene in the catalogue were attributed to 835 their corresponding genes. Second, reads that mapped with the same alignment score to 836 multiple genes in the catalogue were attributed according to the ratio of their unique mapping 837 counts. Gene abundance table was processed for rarefaction and normalization and further analysis using the MetaOMineR (momr, v1.31) R package⁵. To decrease technical bias due to 838 839 different sequencing depth and avoid any artifacts of sample size on low abundance genes, read 840 counts were rarefied. The gene abundance table was rarefied to 10million reads per sample by 841 random sampling of 10million mapped reads without replacement. The resulting rarefied gene 842 abundance table was normalized according to the fragments per kilo base per million mapped 843 reads (FPKM) approach to give the gene abundance profile table.

844 Metagenomic species (MGS) are co-abundant gene groups with more than 500 genes 845 corresponding to microbial species. 1436 MGS were clustered from 1267 human gut microbiome samples used to construct the 9.9 million-gene catalogue⁴⁷. MGS abundances were 846 847 estimated as the mean abundance of the 50 genes defining a robust centroid of the cluster (if 848 more than 10% these genes gave positive signals). Abundances were corrected for bacterial 849 cell count by multiplying by an index factor calculated as the bacterial cell count of the sample 850 divided by the mean value of this bacterial cell count over the dataset as a whole. MGS 851 taxonomical annotation was performed using all genes by sequence similarity using NCBI 852 blast N; a species-level assignment was given if >50% of the genes matched the same reference 853 genome of the NCBI database (November 2016 version) at a threshold of 95% of identity and

90% of gene length coverage. Remaining MGS were assigned to a given taxonomical level from genus to super-kingdom level, if more than 50% of their genes had the same level of assignment. MGS richness (MGS count) was calculated directly from the rarefied MGS abundance matrix. Bacterial gene richness (gene count) was calculated by counting the number of genes detected at least once in a given sample, using the average number of genes counted in 10 independent rarefaction experiments. MGS richness (MGS count) was calculated directly from the rarefied MGS abundance matrix.

861 Customized microbial module analysis

Customized module sets included previously described gut metabolic modules (GMM)⁵⁰ 862 863 covering bacterial and archaeal metabolism specific to the human gut environment with a focus 864 on anaerobic fermentation processes, expanded with a specific set of six modules zooming in on bacterial TMA metabolism⁵¹. Additionally, following a previously published strategy to 865 build manually curated gutspecific metabolic modules^{50,52}, we constructed a novel set of 20 866 867 modules describing microbial phenylpropanoid metabolism (phenylpropanoid metabolism 868 modules, PPM) from shotgun metagenomic data. Abundances of customized modules were 869 derived abundance from the ortholog tables using Omixer-RPMv1.0 (https://github.com/raeslab/omixer-rpm)^{50,53}. The coverage of each metabolic variant encoded 870 871 in a module was calculated as the number of steps for which at least one of the orthologous 872 groups was found in a metagenome, divided by the total number of steps constituting the 873 variant. The coverage of the GMM was defined as equal to the one of the variants with 874 maximum coverage. Module presence/absence was identified with a detection-threshold of 875 more than 66% coverage to provide tolerance to miss-annotations and missing data in

metagenomes. Module abundance was calculated as the median of KEGG orthology (KO)
abundance in the pathway with maximum coverage. Abundances were corrected for bacterial
cell count similarly to MGSs.

879 Metabolic profiling

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We deployed a comprehensive metabolic phenotyping strategy combining in-house analysis by proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H-NMR) spectroscopy, gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and targeted ultra-performance liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) with untargeted UPLC-MS data generated by Metabolon as described in detail below:

¹H Nuclear Magnetic Resonance spectroscopy (¹H-NMR): ¹H-NMR experiments were 885 886 carried out using a Bruker Avance spectrometer (Bruker GmbH) operating at 600MHz as reported⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶. Structural assignment was performed using data from literature, HMDB 887 (http://www.hmdb.ca/), S-Base (Bruker GmbH) and in-house databases⁵⁴. ¹H-NMR spectra 888 889 were pre-processed and exported to Matlab for multivariate statistical analyses using orthogonal partial least square discriminant analysis (O-PLS-DA) as previously reported⁵⁷. 890 Absolute metabolite quantifications were also derived using Bruker's -In Vitro Diagnostics for 891 892 research" (IVDr) quantification algorithms.

893 Gas Chromatography coupled Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) semi-targeted profiling: 894 Serum samples were prepared, analyzed and processed using standard protocols. Briefly, 895 serum samples (100µL) were cleaned up with methanol protein precipitation, evaporated to

dryness, derivatized and injected to an Agilent 7890B-5977B Inert Plus GC-MS system. The

897	chromatograp	hic column was an Agilent ZORBAX DB5- MS (30 m X	250µm	n X 0.25 μ m +
898	10m Duragar	d). The temperature gradient was 37.5min long and the	mass	analyzer was
899	operated in fu	ll scan mode between 50-600m/z. Peaks were annotated with	h the us	se of the Fiehn
900	library (Agiler	nt G1676AA Fiehn GC/MS Metabolomics RTL Library,	User	Guide,
901	Agilent	Technologies,		

902 <u>https://www.agilent.com/cs/library/usermanuals/Public/G1676-90001_Fiehn.pdf</u>). Metabolic

903 features with high reproducibility (CV $\leq 30\%$) and linearity (i.e. dilution signal rho > 0.9 FDR

904 corrected p < 0.05 (1-tailed-Spearman)) were kept in the final dataset resulting in one hundred

905 and two annotated metabolic features.

906 <u>UPLC-MS/MS isotopic quantification of methylamines and carnitines.</u> Ultra-Performance 907 Liquid Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) was employed for the 908 determination of absolute concentrations for trimethylamine (TMA), trimethylamine-*N*-oxide 909 (TMAO), choline, betaine, γ -butyrobetaine, betaine-aldehyde, butyryl-carnitine, isovaleryl-910 carnitine, OH-isovaleryl-carnitine, stearoyl-carnitine, oleoyl-carnitine, linoleoyl-carnitine, 911 myristoyl-carnitine, lauroyl-carnitine and decanoyl-carnitine.

Serum samples (50µL) were prepared as follows: I) samples were spiked with 10µL Internal Standard (IS) solution (${}^{13}C_{3}/{}^{15}N$ -TMA, d₉-TMAO, d₄-choline, d₉-isovaleryl carnitine and d₉betaine in water; 1mg/L, Sigma-Aldrich), II) 30µL of ethyl-2-bromoacetate solution (22.5g/L ethyl-2-bromoacetate, 1.4% NH₄OH in acetonitrile) were added and derivatisation of trimethylamines (TMA and ${}^{13}C_{3}/{}^{15}N$ -TMA) to their ethoxy- analogues was completed after 30minutes at room T°, III) 910µL of protein/lipid precipitation solution (94% acetonitrile/5%water/1% formic acid) was added, samples were centrifuged for 20minutes (4°C,

919 20,000g) and 400µL the supernatants were transferred to UPLC-autosampler 500µL well-plates. 920 Sample injections (5µL, full loop) were performed to a Waters Acquity UPLC-Xevo TQ-S 921 UPLCMS/MS system equipped with an Acquity BEH HILIC (2.1×100mm, 1.7µm) 922 chromatographic column. An isocratic elution was applied with 10mM ammonium formate in 923 95:5 (v/v) acetronitrile:water for 11.5minutes at 500µL/min and 50°C. Positive electrospray 924 (ESI+) was used as ionisation source and mass spectrometer parameters were set as follows: 925 capillary, cone and sources voltages at -700, -18 and 50V, respectively, desolvation 926 temperature at 600°C, desolvation/cone/nebuliser gases were high purity nitrogen at 1000L/hr, 927 150L/hr and 7bar, respectively. Collision gas was high purity argon. Mass spectrometer was 928 operated in a multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. The monitored transitions were the following: for derivatised-TMA, +146à+118/59 m/z (23/27V); for derivatised-¹³C₃/¹⁵N-TMA, 929 930 +150à+63/122 m/z (27/22V); for TMAO, +76à+59/58 m/z (12/13V); for d₉-TMAO, +85à+68/66 931 m/z (18/20 V); for choline, $\pm 104\dot{a} \pm 60/45$ m/z (20/22V); for d₄-choline, $\pm 108\dot{a} \pm 60/45$ m/z 932 (20/22V); for isovaleryl-carnitine, +246à+85/145 m/z (19/19V); for d₉-isovaleryl-carnitine, 933 +255à+85 m/z (19V); for betaine, +118à+59/73 m/z (18/19V); for d₉-betaine, +127à+68 m/z 934 (19V); for γ -butyrobetaine, +146à+87/60 m/z (17/19V); for betaine aldehyde, +103à+60.5/74 935 m/z (12/12V); for butyryl-carnitine, +232à+85/173 m/z (14/12V); for OH-isovaleryl-carnitine, 936 $+262\dot{a}+86/61$ m/z (20/20V); for stearoyl-carnitine, $+428\dot{a}+86/371$ m/z (21/17V); for oleoyl-937 carnitine, $+426\dot{a}+86/61$ m/z (22/22V); for linoleoyl-carnitine, $+424\dot{a}+86/69$ m/z (24/24V); for 938 myristoyl-carnitine, +372.5à+86/61 m/z (24/24V); for lauroyl-carnitine, +344.5à+86/61 m/z 939 (21/21V); for decanoyl-carnitine, +316.5à+86/145 m/z (21/21V). The system was controlled by the MassLynxTM (Waters corporation; Version 4.2) software, also used for the data acquisition 940 941 and analysis.

942 <u>Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography coupled to Mass Spectrometry (UPLC-MS)</u>

<u>untargeted profiling.</u> Serum samples were extracted and profiled by Metabolon (Durham, NC)
using a UPLC-MS based methodology⁵⁸. Annotated metabolites and unknown features
(denoted X-00000) were identified by comparing sample features with ion features in a
reference database of pure chemical standards and previously detected unknowns, followed by
detailed visual inspection and quality control as reported⁵⁹.

For all metabolomic assays, we randomized the sample preparation order across the whole study so that each sample preparation batch included samples from all study groups. For MS untargeted assays, median batch-correction was performed by adjusting batch-wise study sample variable medians according to a scalar derived from adjusting pooled reference sample medians, so that pooled reference sample medians are identical across all batches.

The randomized sample-preparation batches were also tested for association with study groups using univariate statistics (Fisher's Exact or Kruskal-Wallis) and P > 0.05 was observed across all methods (GCMS, Fisher's Exact P = 0.23; UPLCMS targeted, Fisher's exact P = 0.12 and UPLCMS untargeted (Metabolon) Fisher's Exact P = 0.65). In addition, NMR run order exhibited a Kruskal Wallis P = 0.49. To choose a single measurement for the duplicate metabolites observed across platforms, we prioritized measurements based on the analytical quality of the data as following:

1) Targeted quantification using isotopic standards (e.g. UPLC-MS/MS for acylcarnitines andTMA).

45

962 2) Relative abundance with structural ID confirmed by native standards (e.g. Metabolon963 UPLC-MS).

964 3) Relative/absolute or quantification by NMR calibrated against a database/reference dataset
965 (e.g. > NMR quantifications and manually assigned peaks)

966 4) Relative or quantification with metabolite ID check against a standards database (e.g. GC-967 MS)

968 **Drug deconfounding analysis**

The pipeline was used to assess to what extent observed differences between groups of study participants in microbiome, metabolome and bioclinical feature abundance are confounded, in the sense of, being consequences of other (treatment or risk factor) variables different between the groups more so than characteristic of the specific phenotype itself. We employed the *posthoc* filtering approach implemented in the R package metadeconfoundR (v0.1.8 - see https://github.com/TillBirkner/metadeconfoundR or https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4721078) that was devised within the MetaCardis consortium⁸.

The pipeline has two steps. In the first, all associations between -omics features and the set of independent variables (disease status, drug treatment status, and risk markers including age, and smoking status) are determined under nonparametric statistics (Mann-Whitney U test or Spearman tests, adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg method). For each feature significantly (FDR < 0.1) associated with defined phenotype status, it is checked whether it has significant associations with any potential confounder. If not, it is considered

982 trivially unconfounded (NC - Not Confounded). If at least one covariate also has significant 983 association with the feature, then for each such covariate a *post-hoc* test for confounding is 984 applied. This test takes the form of a nested linear model comparisons (likelihood ratio test for 985 P-values), where the dependent variable is the feature (X), and the independent variables are 986 the disease status (A) and the tested covariate (B) versus a model containing only the covariate 987 (B), thus testing whether disease status (A) adds explanatory statistical power beyond the 988 covariate (B). If this holds (likelihood ratio test (LRT) p < 0.05) for all covariates (B), then 989 disease status is confidentially deconfounded (CD) concerning its effect on feature X; it cannot 990 be reduced to any confounding factor. For each covariate (B) where significance is lost, a 991 complementary modelling test is performed of the complementary model pairs - predicting X 992 as a function of (A) and (B) versus a model containing (A) alone, thus testing whether the 993 covariate (B) in turn is equally reducible to (A). If for at least one such covariate (B), (B) has 994 independent effect (LRT p < 0.05) on top of (A), then the feature X is considered confounded 995 by (B). However, if in none of the pairwise tests, the original significance holds, then (A) and 996 (B) are considered so correlated that their relative influence cannot be disentangled. We 997 consider these cases laxly deconfounded (LD), in the sense that for these cases clear 998 confounding influence can neither be concluded nor ruled out. The R package was applied to 999 the present dataset considering medication status either as binary variables or as normalized 1000 dosages.

Our deconfounding pipeline takes into account linear effects related to drug categories. Still,
we were not able to control for every possibly lifestyle confounding factor making a lack of
full confounding adjustment a limitation of our study.

1004 Statistical analyses

1005 Down-sampled microbiome functional profile and taxonomic composition data, metabolite and 1006 quantitative clinical phenotype measurements were assessed between and within groups using 1007 nonparametric tests (Mann-Whitney U test, Spearman test) corrected for multiple testing using 1008 the Benjamini-Hochberg approach. All tests undertaken as part of the univariate biomarker 1009 analyses involved comparing only two groups. The main exception was the comparison between 1010 the three study centers where we applied a Kruskal-Wallis test. Nonparametric directional 1011 standardized effect sizes were likewise taken as the Cliff's Delta and Spearman Rho, respectively. 1012 Classification models were built using multivariate orthogonal partial least squares- discriminant 1013 analysis (O-PLS-DA) using ropls r package. ROC analysis was performed using ROCR package. 1014 To control for influence of covariates associated with disease severity including sex, smoking, 1015 dietary indices and drug treatment a *post-hoc* test approach was adopted as outlined above. R 1016 packages including lmtest, orddom, ropls, ROCR, circlize, ggplot2, PCMCR using R versions 1017 4.0.2 and R studio versions 1.4.1717 and 1.2.5033 were used for various analyses.

1018 Data Availability

Supplementary Information on data availability is linked to the online version of the paper at www.nature.com/nature. Raw shotgun sequencing data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in European Nucleotide Archive with accession codes PRJEB37249, PRJEB38742, PRJEB41311, and PRJEB46098 with public access. Metabolome data have been uploaded to Metabolights and MassIVE with respective accession numbers i.e., serum UPLCMS, serum NMR and urine NMR with accession number MTBLS3429, serum GCMS with accession

number MassIVE MSV000088042, and additional isotopically quantified serum metabolites
using UPLC-MS/MS with accession number MassIVE MSV000088043. Processed
pseudonymized per-subject -omics and metadata are provided in Supplementary Tables 9-13,
and medication profiles are given in Supplementary Table 14.

1029 Code availability

The novel drug-aware univariate biomarker testing pipeline, described in full elsewhere⁸, is 1030 1031 available as an R package (metadeconfoundR; Birkner et al., manuscript in preparation) on 1032 Github (https://github.com/TillBirkner/metadeconfoundR) and also under 1033 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4721078. The latest version (0.1.8) of this package was used to 1034 generate the data shown in this publication. In addition, the scripts using this package to perform 1035 the analysis here presented available under https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5516219.

1036

1037 Extended Data Figure 1. Overview of selected bio-clinical variables of the various groups. 1038 Box plots (above) representing the distribution of key bio-clinical variables in various study 1039 groups (lower line, lower quartile; medium line, median; upper line, upper quartile). Table 1040 (below) shows the two-sided MWU P for respective group comparisons using HC (n = 275), 1041 MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222), IHD (n = 372), ACS (n = 112), CIHD (n = 158), HF (n = 1042 102). IHD: ischemic heart disease patients, HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched 1043 controls, UMMC unmedicated metabolically matched controls, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, 1044 CIHD: chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to CIHD, BMI: body mass index; HbA1c: glycated 1045 haemoglobin, pro-ANP: pro-atrial natriuretic peptide, MWU: Mann-Whitney U.

1046 Extended Data Figure 2. Microbiome findings from the literature. Cuneiform plot shows 1047 literature review of gut microbial taxonomic and predicted functional features reported to be 1048 associated with IHD, while highlighting their individual replication in the present MetaCardis 1049 study group either as a general dysmetabolism biomarker (seen only in case of HC versus 1050 MMC), or as an IHD biomarker (seen also in case of MMC versus IHD) (Supplementary Table 1051 15). The literature review was performed as a keyword search in PubMed (Medline) using combinations of the words --microbiota" and --microbiome" with the word --atterosclerosis", 1052 -cadiovascular disease", -connary artery disease", -sichemic heart disease", -mocardial 1053 1054 infarction", —acte coronary syndrome", —angia pectoris" and —heat failure". Studies^{11,13,60-71} 1055 were identified that met the following criteria: 1) published during the recent 15 years, 2) 1056 reporting data from human studies with at least 15 participants, 3) using culture-independent 1057 methods for microbiota profiling and 4) evaluating the link between human microbiota and 1058 manifestations of impaired heart disease (Supplementary Table 16). Results on functional features were derived from four studies using whole-genome shotgun sequencing^{11,13,69,70} Results 1059 1060 imputed from 16S rRNA gene analyses were not included. Point marker color and size reflect 1061 MetaCardis findings (Cliff's delta), with arrows displaying direction of effects. Literature 1062 findings are shown at a uniform effect size. Markers are shown only for features significantly 1063 different in abundance (FDR < 0.1) and have a bold border if they cannot be reduced to the 1064 confounding influence of any drug or drug combination prescribed to treat dysmetabolism. 1065 While the majority of literature findings are recaptured in our study when comparing HC and 1066 IHD, relatively fewer were found in MMC and IHD comparisons, implying them to be general 1067 markers of dysmetabolism rather than being IHD-only microbiome markers. Two-sided MWU tests were used for assessing the significance of group-wise comparisons using HC (n = 275), 1068

1069 MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222) and IHD (n = 372) groups. Multiple testing corrections were 1070 done using Benjamini-Hochberg method and FDR ≤ 0.1 was considered significant. IHD: 1071 ischemic heart disease patients, HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, 1072 MWU: Mann-Whitney-U tests, FDR: false-discovery rate.

1073 Extended Data Figure 3: Distribution of differential features among various group 1074 comparisons pre- and post- deconfounding. (a) Venn diagrams showing the comparative shift 1075 in the number of gut microbiome and metabolome features that remain differentially abundant 1076 (FDR <0.1) in various group comparisons when healthy individuals (HC) and drug-treated IHD 1077 cases are compared to untreated metabolically matched controls (UMMC) or (b) drug-treated 1078 metabolically matched controls (MMC) without any adjustments for potential confounders 1079 followed by (c) drug-deconfounding. Two-sided MWU tests were used for assessing the 1080 significance of group-wise comparisons using HC (n = 275), MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222) 1081 and IHD (n = 372) groups. Multiple testing corrections were done using Benjamini-Hochberg 1082 method and FDR <= 0.1 was considered significant. IHD: ischemic heart disease patients, 1083 MWU: Mann-Whitney-U tests. FDR: false-discovery rate.

Extended Data Figure 4: Operational classification of microbiome and metabolome
 features from the perspective of IHD pathology (Further details covered in supplementary
 methods section).

1087 A classification tree was constructed based on significance and alignment of effect size and 1088 directionality of microbiome and metabolome features in the various group comparisons leading 1089 to the identification of:

Features that reflect metabolic dysregulation in the individual but are not associated with
 diagnosed IHD: dysmetabolism features (DMF).

- 1092 2) Features that are significantly associated with IHD but are also significantly altered in
 1093 metabolically dysregulated individuals in the same direction; we suggest that these
 1094 features are early markers of IHD pathogenesis in individuals with metabolic
 1095 dysregulation: IHD escalation features (ESCF).
- 1096 3) Features that are significantly associated with IHD but are also significantly altered in 1097 metabolically dysregulated individuals in the reverse direction; we suggest that these 1098 features are early markers of IHD seen in metabolically dysregulated individuals. 1099 However, they exhibit reversibility. This may plausibly be due to 1) long-term drug-1100 treatment and improvement in overall lifestyle of the IHD individuals, 2) a compensatory 1101 response to the initiation of disease or 3) a trajectory-associated differential response to 1102 disease development. We propose that some of these features contribute to the 1103 stabilization of IHD and dysmetabolism and we coin those IHD de-escalation features 1104 (DSCF).

1105 4) **IHD-specific features (IHDF)** that achieve a significant shift only under IHD diagnoses. 1106 Two-sided MWU tests were used for assessing the significance of group-wise comparisons 1107 using HC (n = 275), MMC (n = 372), UMMC (n = 222), IHD (n = 372), ACS (n = 112), CIHD (n = 158), HF (n = 102) groups. Multiple testing corrections were done using 1108 1109 Benjamini-Hochberg method and FDR ≤ 0.1 was considered significant. HC: healthy 1110 controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, UMMC unmedicated metabolically 1111 matched controls, IHD: ischemic heart disease, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, CIHD: 1112 chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to IHD, MWU: Mann-Whitney U, FDR: false-discovery 1113 rate.

Extended Data Figure 5: Gut microbial functional features categorization. Gut microbial functional features (GMM and KEGG modules) categorized as escalation-, de-escalation-, and IHD-specific biomarkers when features classification scheme (as shown in Figure 3, Extended Data Figure 4 and described in supplementary methods) was applied to various group comparisons involving HC, MMC and IHD subjects. HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, IHD: ischemic heart disease.

1120 Extended Data Figure 6: Features categorization for ACS subgroup. Microbiome and 1121 metabolome features categorized as escalation-, de-escalation-, and ACS-specific biomarkers 1122 when features classification scheme (as shown in Figure 3, Extended Data Figure 4 and 1123 described in supplementary methods) was applied to various group comparisons involving HC, 1124 MMC and ACS groups. HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, ESCF: escalation features, DSCF: De-escalation features. Gut 1125 1126 microbiome features included taxonomic (prefix: Taxon) and microbiome density indices, 1127 whereas metabolome features included serum and urinary metabolites. Only features exhibiting 1128 absolute effect size > 0.1 are displayed whereas the full list is given in **Supplementary Table** 1129 17).

Extended Data Figure 7: Features categorization for CIHD subgroup. Microbiome and metabolome features categorized as escalation-, de-escalation- and CIHD-specific biomarkers when features classification scheme (as shown in Figure 3, Extended Data Figure 4 and described in supplementary methods) was applied to various group comparisons involving HC, MMC and CIHD groups. HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, CIHD: chronic IHD. ESCF: escalation features, DSCF: De-escalation features. Gut microbiome features

included both taxonomic (prefix: Taxon) and microbiome density indices, whereas metabolome
features included serum and urinary metabolites. Only features exhibiting absolute effect size >
0.1 are displayed whereas the full list is given in **Supplementary Table 17**).

1139 Extended Data Figure 8: Features categorization for HF subgroup. Microbiome and 1140 metabolome features categorized as escalation-, de-escalation- and HF-specific biomarkers when 1141 features classification scheme (as shown in Figure 3, Extended Data Figure 4 and described in 1142 supplementary methods) was applied to various group comparisons involving HC, MMC and HF 1143 groups. HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, HF: heart failure due to 1144 CIHD. ESCF: escalation features, DSCF: De-escalation features. Gut microbiome features 1145 included both taxonomic (prefix: Taxon) and microbiome density indices, whereas metabolome 1146 features included serum and urinary metabolites. Only features exhibiting absolute effect size > 1147 0.1 are displayed whereas the full list is given in **Supplementary Table 17**).

1148 Extended Data Figure 9: Gut microbial functional features categorization for IHD 1149 subgroups. Microbial functional features (GMM and KEG modules) categorized as escalation-, 1150 de-escalation- and subtype-specific biomarkers when features classification scheme (as shown in 1151 Figure 3, Extended Data Figure 4 and described in supplementary methods) was applied to 1152 various group comparisons involving HC, MMC and IHD subgroups (i.e., ACS, CIHD and HF). 1153 HC: healthy controls, MMC: metabolically matched controls, ACS: acute coronary syndrome, 1154 CIHD: chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to CIHD. Only features exhibiting absolute effect size > 1155 0.1 are displayed whereas the full list is given in **Supplementary Table 17**).

1156 **Extended Data Figure 10. Discriminatory potential IHD subtype-specific features.** Here, we 1157 compared clinical variables assessed for risk prediction in the companion manuscript (Model 1)

1158 (Talmor-Barkan et al.) with our IHD subgroup-specific gut microbiome and metabolomic 1159 features (Model 2) and a combination of the two (Model 3) for their discriminatory potentials 1160 using orthogonal partial least squares- discriminant analysis (O-PLS-DA; ropls r package). Model 1 included ten variables (i.e. age, sex, body mass index, waist circumference, hip 1161 1162 circumference, waist to hip ratio, systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, glycated 1163 haemoglobin (factored as > 5.7, 5.7-6.4 and < 6.4 mmol/l) and smoking status). Model 2 1164 included each IHD subgroup-specific metagenomic species and fasting serum metabolites. 1165 Model 3 involved a combination of model 1 and 2 variables. OPLS-DA models were trained on 1166 70% of the subgroup specific population and then tested in 30% of the remaining subgroup 1167 population using 1000 iterations of random sampling (bootstrapping). Boxplots represent the 1168 distribution (center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, 1.5× interguartile range; points, outliers) of area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) 1169 1170 curves derived from 1000 bootstraps based on these models in the training set (A) and test set (B) 1171 using both healthy controls (HC, n = 275) and metabolically matched controls (MMC, n = 372) 1172 relative to the IHD subtype cases (ACS, n = 112, CIHD n = 158 and HF n = 102). Models were 1173 compared using Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn's pairwise multiple comparisons post hoc testing with Bonferroni correction. Dunn's test P are shown for each comparison HC: healthy controls, 1174 1175 MMC: metabolically matched controls, IHD: ischemic heart disease. ACS: acute coronary 1176 syndrome, CIHD: chronic IHD, HF: heart failure due to CIHD.

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1249		



Based on the statistical significance and directional congruence among various group comparisons (applied to features with non-confounded status)

Analytical framework













1.0

Model 1: Clinical variables alone

0.0

Model 2: ACS-specific biomarkers

Model 3: Clinical variables with ACS-specific biomarkers



Ubiguinone biosynthesis, prokaryotes, chorismate => ubiguinone (M00117)			unclassified Sutterellaceae
Tryptophan metabolism, tryptophan => kynurenine => 2-aminomuconate (M00038)		* *	unclassified Rhodospirillaceae
Thiamine biosynthesis, AIR => thiamine-P/thiamine-2P (M00127)			unclassified Firmicutes
Tetrahydrofolate biosynthesis, GTP => THF (M00126)		-	unclassified Eggerthellaceae
Riboflavin biosynthesis, GTP => riboflavin/FMN/FAD (M00125)			unclassified Desulfovibrionaceae
Pyridoxal biosynthesis, erythrose-4P => pyridoxal-5P (M00124)			unclassified Burkholderiales
Putative glutamine transport system (M00228)			unclassified Alphaproteobacteria
PTS system, trehalose-specific II component (M00270)		-	Tyzzerella
PTS system, sucrose-specific II component (M00269)			Turicimonas
PTS system, sorbose-specific II component (M00278)			Triacylglycerol biosynthesis (M00089)
PTS system, N-acetylmuramic acid-specific II component (M00303)			Sutterella
PTS system, N-acetylglucosamine-specific II component (M00267)		-	Subdoligranulum
PTS system, N-acetylgalactosamine-specific II component (M00277)		-	Ruthenibacterium
PTS system, mannose-specific II component (M00276)		* *	Parasutterella
PTS system, mannitol-specific II component (M00274)			Paraprevotella
PTS system, maltose and glucose-specific II component (M00266)		-	Negativibacillus
PTS system, lactose-specific II component (M00281)			Methanobrevibacter
PTS system, glucose-specific II component (M00265)			Megamonas
PTS system, glucitol/sorbitol-specific II component (M00280)		🔺 🎽	Lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis, inner core => outer core => O-antigen (M00080)
PTS system, galactosamine-specific II component (M00287)			Lactococcus
PTS system, galactitol-specific II component (M00279)		$\dot{\nabla}$	Lactobacillus
PTS system, fructose-specific II component (M00304)		- T 🔺	Lachnospira
PTS system, fructose-specific II component (M00273)		-	Klebsiella
PTS system, cellobiose-specific II component (M00275)			Hafnia
PTS system, beta-glucosides-specific II component (M00271)		-	Haemophilus
PTS system, ascorbate-specific II component (M00283)			Gemmiger
PTS system, arbutin-like II component (M00268)			Escherichia
PTS system, arbutin-, cellobiose-, and salicin-specific II component (M00272)			Erysipelatoclostridium
Peptides/nickel transport system (M00239)		-	Enterococcus
Pantothenate biosynthesis, valine/L-aspartate => pantothenate (M00119)			Enterobacter
Octopine/nopaline transport system (M00231)		-	- Eggerthella
NAD biosynthesis, aspartate => NAD (M00115)			Duodenibacillus
N-Acetylglucosamine transport system (M00205)		V V	Coprobacillus
Menaquinone biosynthesis, chorismate => menaquinone (l	M00116)	+ +	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Collinsella
Lysine/arginine/ornithine transport system (M00225)		· 🔺 🛛 🔻	CMP-KDO biosynthesis (M00063)
Histidine transport system (M00226)			Cloacibacillus
Heme biosynthesis, glutamate => protoheme/siroheme (M00121)			Citrobacter
Glycine betaine/proline transport system (M00208)			Catenibacterium
Glutamine transport system (M00227)	* *	The second secon	Bilophila
Dipeptide transport system (M00324)			Bitidobacterium
D-Methionine transport system (M00238)	-		Betaine biosynthesis, choline => betaine (M00555)
Cystine transport system (M00234)		1 7	beta-Oxidation, acyl-CoA synthesis (M00086)
Coenzyme A biosynthesis, pantothenate => CoA (NIUU120)	-	111	beta-Oxidation (MU0087)
Cobalamin biosynthesis, cobinamide => cobalamin (i	IVIUU122)	1	<u> </u>	beta-Carotene biosynthesis, GGAP => beta-carotene (M00097)
C1-unit interconversion, prokaryotes (W00140)		VI	Azospirilium
CI-unit Interconversion, eukaryotes (I	N00141)			Anaerotruncus
Branched-chain amino acid transport system (i Rightin biggynthesig, pimeloyl, ACR/CoA, schietin (i	N001237)			Anaerostipes
BIOUIT DIOSYTUTESIS, PITTEIOYI-ACP/COA => DIOUIT (I	M00220)			Achielopacier
Arginine transport system (100229)		\mathbf{v}	Acelobaciei
		⊢ ≤ Li		
		27 IC	27 AC	
		15 J	37 37	
		s 2 vs	vs 2	
		E /s	E /s	
		다 프	다 프	
		72	72	
		72	72	



Group comparisons using healthy controls, drug-naive metabolically-matched controls and drug-treated IHD cases (no deconfounding)

Group comparisons using healthy controls, drug-treated metabolically-matched controls and IHD cases (no deconfounding) Group comparisons using healthy controls, drug-treated metabolically-matched controls and IHD cases (with deconfounding)



* in all cases, directional alignment has been reported using HC vs MMC and MMC vs IHD/HC vs IHD in order to be consistent with Figure 3. HC vs UMMC, UMMC vs IHD always exhibited directional alignment with HC vs MMC and MMC vs IHD, respectively, for our escalation and de-escalation markers.





Effect size (Cliff's Delta)

1.0




CIHD specific features

CIHD escalation features

Feature type

Metager

ic features



HF specific features

ACS de-escalation features

Group comparison HC vs MMC

MMC vs ACS

0.5

Training set



Subgroup-specific metagenomic species and metabolites

Model3 Clinical variables with subgroup-specific metagenomic species and metabolites