

Molecular study of the small intestine dysbiosis derived from iron deficiency anaemia

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Ana Soriano-Lerma, J Simón Soriano-Suárez, Manuel Garcia-Rodriguez, Maria JM Alferez, Miguel Soriano, Jose A Garcia Salcedo & Inmaculada Lopez-Aliaga

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1 ***Molecular study of the small intestine dysbiosis derived from iron deficiency***
2 ***anaemia***

3 Ana Soriano-Lerma^{1,2,3*}, J Simón Soriano-Suárez^{1,2}, Manuel Garcia-Rodriguez^{1,2}, Maria J M
4 Alferez², Miguel Soriano^{4*}, Jose A Garcia Salcedo^{1,3,5#}, Inmaculada Lopez-Aliaga^{1,2#}

5 ¹GENYO, Centre for Genomics and Oncological Research: Pfizer/University of
6 Granada/Andalusian Regional Government, 18016, Granada, Spain.

7 ²Department of Physiology (Faculty of Pharmacy), Institute of Nutrition and Food Technology
8 "José Mataix", University of Granada, 18071, Granada, Spain.

9 ³Instituto de Investigación Biosanitaria Ibs.GRANADA, Granada, Spain.

10 ⁴Center for Intensive Mediterranean Agrosystems and Agri-Food Biotechnology
11 (CIAIMBITAL), University of Almeria, 04001, Almería, Spain.

12 ⁵Microbiology Unit, University Hospital Virgen de Las Nieves, 18014, Granada, Spain.

13 *Corresponding authors: Dr Ana Soriano-Lerma (anasorler@ugr.es), Dr Miguel Soriano
14 (msoriano@ual.es)

15 # Contributed equally

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17 ABSTRACT

18 Background: Iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) is closely associated with the gut microbiome, as
19 microbial composition influences iron bioavailability. Small intestinal bacterial overgrowth
20 (SIBO), a form of dysbiosis, may interfere with anaemia treatment, yet it has not been
21 investigated as a direct consequence of iron deficiency. This study aimed to characterize the
22 small intestinal dysbiosis linked to IDA and to identify microbial patterns indicative of SIBO.

23 Methods: an animal model of IDA was employed to analyse the microbiome of the small
24 intestine, focusing on community structure and functional properties. Anaemia was confirmed
25 using haematological and biochemical markers. Microbiome profiling was conducted through
26 16S rRNA gene sequencing. In addition, bacterial load was quantified by 16S rRNA qPCR.

27 Results: qPCR confirmed a significantly elevated bacterial load across all three regions of the
28 small intestine during anaemia, reaching levels compatible with SIBO. A progressive increase
29 was observed in alpha diversity from the jejunum to the ileum during IDA. Taxonomic analysis
30 revealed enrichment of fermentative and colonic-associated species, including *Clostridium*,
31 *Escherichia-Shigella* and *Lactobacillus*. Lastly, functional predictions indicated increased
32 activity in pathways related to carbohydrate fermentation and gas production—metabolic
33 signatures typically linked to SIBO.

34 Conclusion: Iron deficiency was found to induce marked taxonomic and functional alterations
35 in the small intestinal microbiome, especially in distal regions, accompanied by an increased
36 bacterial load. These findings support the concept that iron deficiency promotes microbial
37 shifts characteristic of SIBO, suggesting that iron deficiency may act as a predisposing factor
38 in its pathogenesis.

39 *Keywords:* Iron deficiency anaemia, iron deficiency, Small intestine microbiome, SIBO,
40 Microbial functionality

41 List of abbreviations

42	ASV	Amplicon sequence variant
43	GMM	Gut microbial modules
44	IDA	Iron deficiency anaemia
45	Hb	Haemoglobin
46	HCT	Hematocrit
47	KO	KEGG orthologs
48	MCH	Mean corpuscular haemoglobin
49	MCHC	Mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration
50	MCV	Mean corpuscular volume
51	PCoA	Principal coordinate analysis
52	PLT	Platelets
53	qPCR	quantitative PCR
54	RBC	Red blood cells
55	RDW	Red cell distribution width
56	rRNA	ribosomal RNA
57	SCFA	Short chain fatty acids
58	SIBO	Small intestine bacterial overgrowth
59	Sobs	Observed species
60	TIBC	Total iron binding capacity

61 WBC White blood cell

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62 1. Background

63 The World Health Organisation has recognised iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) as the most
64 common nutritional deficiency in the world, with 30% of the population being affected (1).
65 Susceptible subjects for IDA include growing children, the elderly as well as pregnant and non-
66 pregnant women due to its increased demand for iron or its lower intake. Anaemia affects
67 negatively the quality of life, especially because of its frequent relapses, the lack of a therapy
68 with high effectivity and few side effects (1).

69 Studies in patients and animal models have revealed that IDA is associated with low
70 intestinal health in terms of the gut microbiome and the intestinal barrier. Studies in anaemic
71 infants show that the gut microbiome of patients suffering IDA differs from healthy controls,
72 with a predominance of *Proteobacteria* phyla and a decrease in short chain fatty acid (SCFA)-
73 producing bacteria such as *Roseburia*, *Coprococcus* and *Butyricicoccus*. An alteration in the
74 gut microbiome was also found in pre-menopausal women suffering IDA, with a decrease in
75 family *Ruminococcaceae*, order *Clostridiales*, class *Clostridia* and genera *Faecalibacterium*
76 (2). A decrease in *Faecalibacterium* genera was also observed in an independent study
77 including women with IDA (3). Studies in animals have also confirmed this dysbiosis, with
78 families such as *Lachnospiraceae*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Rikenellaceae*, *Prevotellaceae* or
79 *Porphyromonadaceae* decreasing as a consequence of a nutritionally induced iron deficiency.
80 An increase in species of the genera *Clostridia* along with an increased production of SCFA
81 was also noticed in an animal model of IDA, along with impaired intestinal barrier
82 functionality(4,5).

83 However, there is a lack of studies analysing the effect of iron deficiency on the small
84 intestine microbiome, especially due to its difficult accessibility for sample collection. Das et
85 al. described that specific microbial metabolites, namely 1,3-diaminopropane and reuterin,

86 were able to impair iron absorption *in vitro* and *in vivo* through the inhibition of HIF-2 α , a
87 master regulator of iron absorption in the small intestine (6). This study sets the foundation for
88 the consideration of the small intestine microbiome as a mediator of iron absorption and opens
89 up new venues to investigate microbiome-targeting therapies to treat or aid in the recovery of
90 IDA.

91 In this sense, small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (SIBO) gains importance in the context
92 of IDA as changes in the number or composition of the bacterial populations in the small
93 intestine might interfere with iron absorption. SIBO is a newly defined clinical entity and it is
94 the subject of active research in relation to its pathogenic mechanisms, therapeutic and
95 diagnostic tools, as evidenced by the continuous growth in publications (7). Iron malabsorption
96 has been well described as a consequence of SIBO due to host-microbial competition and the
97 damaged intestinal absorption surface(8). However, SIBO has never been studied as a
98 consequence of iron deficiency. In previous studies by our research group, we found an
99 increase in the bacterial load and in gas production in the large intestine triggered by the
100 development of IDA, along with a decreased intestinal motility in the colon and an impaired
101 intestinal barrier function (4). According to these results, we hypothesize that SIBO might
102 develop as a result of iron deficiency. This is of special relevance and needs to be considered
103 in the clinical management of IDA, since the development of SIBO might impair iron
104 absorption and IDA treatment.

105 Taking the afore-mentioned aspects into consideration, the objective of this study is to
106 characterize small intestinal dysbiosis associated with iron deficiency and to identify microbial
107 patterns indicative of SIBO.

108 **2. Methods**

109 *2.1. Animal model, experimental design and diets*

110 Animal housing, care, handling procedures, and experimental protocols were approved by
111 the Ethics Committee of the University of Granada and the local government Junta de
112 Andalucía (ref June 06, 2019/100). These methods were carried out in accordance with the
113 Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki, 2014) (9) and
114 ARRIVE guidelines. Animal experiments were conducted at the Animal Facility of the
115 University of Granada under controlled sanitary and environmental conditions. Twenty weaned
116 male Wistar albino rats with an initial weight of 55 ± 5 g, purchased from Charles River
117 Laboratories (France), were used for the study, with diets and deionized water available *ad*
118 *libitum*. Animals were housed in stainless-steel cages in groups, using ventilated,
119 thermoregulated cages with controlled temperature (23 ± 2 °C), humidity (60 ± 5 %), and a
120 circadian rhythm (12h light; 12h dark).

121 Animal experiments were performed as already described (4,5). Briefly, IDA was
122 experimentally induced over a period of 40 days through an iron deficient diet for the anaemic
123 group (n=9) while a standard diet (AIN-93G diet) was fed to the control group at the same time
124 (n=11). Both the control and the iron-free diet were prepared at the Diet Facility of the
125 University of Granada. The AIN-93G diet was formulated according to the protocol described
126 by Reeves et al. (10), while the iron-deficient diet was obtained by using an iron-free mineral
127 mix instead of the standard one in the AIN-93G formulation.

128 At the end of the experimental period, animals, previously fasted overnight, were
129 anesthetized intraperitoneally with sodium pentobarbital (Sigma Diagnostics, St Louis), and
130 euthanized via exsanguination by cardiac puncture. Samples collected for this study include
131 blood samples obtained by cardiac puncture and small intestine content samples. One aliquot
132 of blood was treated with EDTA to control haematological parameters, and the other one was
133 centrifuged ($1500 \times g$, 4 °C, 15 min) without anticoagulant to separate the serum for subsequent
134 analysis of serum iron, total iron-binding capacity (TIBC), ferritin, and hepcidin. Small

135 intestine content samples were obtained washing each segment (duodenum, jejunum, ileum)
136 with sterile saline solution (0.9% sodium chloride) and collecting the flow through (2 mL).
137 Intestinal samples were immediately frozen at -80°C until further analysis.

138 2.2. *Haematological tests*

139 Key haematological parameters for anaemia estimation includes determination of red
140 blood cell numbers (RBC), haemoglobin levels (Hb), haematocrit (Hct), white blood cell count
141 (WBC), platelets count (PLT) and red cell indices such as mean cellular volume (MCV), mean
142 cellular haemoglobin (MCH), mean cellular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC) and red cell
143 distribution width (RDW). All parameters were analyzed using an automated haematology
144 analyser Mythic 22CT (C2 Diagnostics, France) (4,5).

145 The following indicators of iron status were assessed: serum iron, total iron-binding
146 capacity (TIBC), transferrin saturation, serum ferritin and hepcidin. Serum iron, total iron-
147 binding capacity (TIBC), and transferrin saturation were determined using Sigma Diagnostics
148 Iron and TIBC reagents (Sigma, St Louis, USA). The percentage of transferrin saturation was
149 calculated by dividing the serum iron level by TIBC and multiplying by 100. Serum ferritin
150 and hepcidin were measured by ELISA assay (BioVendor GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany and
151 DRG Instruments GmbH, Marburg, Germany, respectively).

152 2.3. *DNA isolation and high-throughput sequencing*

153 Small intestinal content samples were pelleted by centrifugation at 6000 rcf for 10 min at
154 4°C. The obtained pellet underwent DNA extraction using the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit
155 according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA quality and amount were determined using
156 a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 2000 UV-Vis, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,
157 USA).

158 PCR amplification products of the V1–V3 variable regions of the 16S rRNA gene were
159 obtained as previously described (4,5). Amplicon multiplexing and sequencing was carried out
160 with a dual indexing tag-tailed design using 8nt indexes from the Nextera XT Index Kit v2
161 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Paired-end sequencing of 16S PCR amplicon libraries was
162 performed using the Illumina MiSeq instrument with v3 kit chemistry (300 + 300 bp).
163 Demultiplexing was performed by Illumina BaseSpace software with default settings.

164 2.4. *Quantitative PCR (qPCR)*

165 To quantify the total bacterial load, 16S rRNA gene-targeted qPCR was performed using
166 the QuantStudio 6 High-throughput Realtime PCR system. SYBR Green Master Mix
167 (4309155, Thermo Scientific) was used in a total reaction mixture volume of 10 μ L. The
168 universal bacterial primers were F: 5'-AAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGG-3' and R: 5'-
169 GGGTTGCGCTCGTTRYGG-3'. Primers in a final concentration of 0.5 μ M each and 1 μ L of
170 previously diluted DNA (20ng/ μ L) were added to the PCR master mix, in MicroAmp Fast 96-
171 Well reaction plates. Cycling conditions included 95°C for 10 min and 40 cycles consisting of
172 denaturalization at 95°C for 15 s and annealing-extension at 60°C for 1 min. Negative controls
173 containing no template DNA were subjected to the same procedures. The specificity of the
174 amplified products was determined by analysis of melting curves, which were obtained using
175 QuantStudio 6 default parameters. The number of DNA copies per sample was obtained based
176 on standard curves, for which known concentrations of *Escherichia coli* 16S gene were used.
177 All samples and the standard curve were analysed in technical triplicates. Results were
178 expressed as mean of Number of 16S copies per mL of intestinal content.

179 2.5. *Bioinformatic analysis*

180 Sequences were processed via Mothur software (v 1.48.3, University of Michigan Medical
181 School, Ann Arbor, MI, USA), following the standard Miseq SOP. Chimeric reads were

182 identified and excluded using Chimera UCHIME. Redundant, non-chimeric FASTA files were
183 taxonomically classified using Silva v132 database. Amplicon sequence variants (ASV) were
184 defined with the UNOISE3 algorithm implemented in the pre.cluster command of Mothur
185 pipeline. Relative abundances for each ASV were calculated and lowly abundant ASVs (whose
186 relative abundance was below 0.05%) were filtered out. Coverage was estimated yielding
187 values ranging from 75 to 85%.

188 Microbial functional analysis was carried out using Phylogenetic Investigation of
189 Communities by Reconstruction of Unobserved States version 2 (PICRUSt2) on high-
190 throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing data (11). KEGG orthologs (KO) genes(12) obtained
191 were used to calculate Gut Microbial Modules (GMMs)(13) using the omixer-rpmR package
192 (14).

193 *2.6. Statistical analysis*

194 Statistical analysis of data was performed using R software (version 4.4.3) and GraphPad
195 Prism (version 9.0c).

196 Student t-tests were employed to assess statistical differences in haematological and
197 biochemical parameters between the experimental groups. Statistical differences between
198 experimental groups considering alpha diversity indexes and bacterial load were assessed by
199 the t-test or the Mann-Whitney test depending on the normality of the dataset. Differential
200 abundant analysis for ASVs and GMMs were identified using Microbiome Multivariable
201 Association with Linear Models (MaAsLin) 2 R package (15). Principal coordinate analysis
202 (PcoA) was performed using the PRIMER-E software (PRIMER-E Ltd, Plymouth, United
203 Kingdom).

204 Statistical significances were considered at $p < 0.05$. P-adjusted values to account for
205 False Discovery Rate (FDR) were calculated via MaAsLin2 for ASVs and GMMs statistical
206 analyses.

207 **3. Results**

208 *3.1. Haematological parameters*

209 A routine complete blood count is one of the most basic and commonly used diagnostic
210 tests in clinical practice, primarily assessing the cellular components of blood. It is frequently
211 employed in the diagnosis of IDA.

212 At the end of the 40-day experimental period, RBC, Hb concentration, HCT, MCV, MCH,
213 and MCHC were significantly reduced in the IDA group compared to the normal control group.
214 In contrast, RDW and PLT count were significantly increased in the anaemic group, and the
215 white blood cell count remained unchanged (Supplementary Table1).

216 In relation to indicators of iron status, a significant decrease in serum iron, transferrin
217 saturation, ferritin and hepcidin and an increase of TIBC were observed in the anaemic group
218 compared with the control group. All these findings confirm the successful establishment of
219 IDA in the animal model (Supplementary Table1).

220 *3.2. Iron deficiency anaemia increases the bacterial load in the small intestine*

221 First, to investigate whether there was a bacterial growth pattern consistent with SIBO,
222 bacterial load was assessed across the three segments of the small intestine. Quantitative PCR
223 (qPCR) targeting the 16S ribosomal RNA gene was performed to achieve an accurate
224 quantification of the bacterial content. Results were expressed as the number of 16S rRNA
225 gene copies per mL of intestinal content. An increased number of 16S gene copies across all

226 three segments of the small intestine during anaemia was observed, showing highly significant
227 differences between the control and anemic groups (Figure 1).

228 *3.3. Iron deficiency anaemia triggers taxonomic alterations in the small intestinal microbiome*

229 To broadly assess the effect of iron deficiency on the structure of the small intestinal
230 microbiome, four estimators of alpha diversity indexes were calculated. The number of
231 observed species (sobs), InvSimpson, Shannon and Pielou indexes were estimated for the
232 duodenum, jejunum and ileum and compared between the control and the anaemic group.

233 Changes in alpha diversity indexes were more notable towards the distal regions of the
234 small intestine. No significant differences were found for any index in the duodenum (Figure
235 2A). Sobs and Shannon index also increased in the jejunum during iron deficiency (Figure 2B).
236 All indexes increased in the anaemic group in the ileum, indicating a higher alpha diversity
237 during iron deficiency (Figure 2C).

238 Subsequently, changes in beta diversity were examined using multivariate analyses in each
239 intestinal segment during IDA. Again, changes in the bacterial community between the
240 anaemic and control groups were more notable in the distal regions of the small intestine.
241 Principal coordinate analyses (PCoA) at the ASV level revealed a marked clustering between
242 the anaemic and the control groups in all the intestinal segments, which indicates that microbial
243 communities in the small intestine are altered during iron deficiency. In the duodenal region,
244 samples are segregated along the X axis into experimental groups, which explains 38% of the
245 total sample variation (Figure 3A). A higher percentage of the total sample variation (43% and
246 52%) is explained with the segregation of samples along the X axis into the anaemic and control
247 groups in the jejunal (Figure 3B) and ileal regions (Figure 3C), respectively, which indicates
248 that the microbial dysbiosis derived from iron deficiency tends to increase towards the distal
249 segments of the small intestine.

250 MaAslin 2 was used to identify individual ASVs differing between the control and anaemic
251 group in each intestinal segment. A total of 6 ASVs differed in the duodenum (Supplementary
252 Table 2), 6 in the jejunum (Supplementary Table 3) and 13 in the ileum (Supplementary Table
253 4). Again, a higher number of ASVs differed in distal segments. The top 10 most variable ASVs
254 for each segment were plotted in a heatmap for a clearer visualization (Figure 4).
255 FigureFigureFigure

256 In samples corresponding to the duodenal content (Figure 4A), an increase in the
257 abundance of anaerobic and spore-forming species was observed, particularly those belonging
258 to the genus *Clostridium*. Conversely, an increase in other relevant species due to their role as
259 fermenters, such as *Lactobacillus sp.*, was noticed in the jejunal segment during anaemia
260 (Figure 4B). In this region, an increase of a single species from the genus *Clostridium* was
261 identified within the anaemic group. Similarly, as observed in the duodenal content, there was
262 a pronounced increase in species of the genus *Clostridium* and *Escherichia-Shigella* in the
263 ileum, which are classically found in the colon and large intestine (Figure 4C). Collectively,
264 the data obtained indicate that, across the different sections of the small intestine, the
265 microbiome composition varies significantly between groups, reflecting an increased
266 abundance of fermentative bacteria during iron deficiency.

267 3.4. Iron deficiency anaemia triggers functional alterations in the small intestinal microbiome

268 Due to the observed increased abundance of ASVs belonging to the genera *Clostridium*,
269 *Lactobacillus* and *Escherichia-Shigella*, and the intestinal dysbiosis observed in most small
270 intestinal regions, bacteria functionality was next studied. Functional analysis of the gut
271 microbiome is essential to determine whether the observed dysbiosis exhibits a pattern
272 consistent with SIBO, and whether it aligns with the associated clinical symptoms.

273 Functional analyses were carried out on the microbial communities of all intestinal regions
274 by inferring functional profiles from taxonomic sequencing data. Gut microbial modules
275 (GMMs) differing between the control and anaemic group in all segments were obtained by
276 MaAslin 2. A total of 21, 41, and 27 significantly altered GMMs were identified in the
277 duodenum (Supplementary Table 5), jejunum (Supplementary Table 6), and ileum,
278 respectively (Supplementary Table 7). From these, the GMMs showing a coefficient higher
279 than 1.5 (highly abundant in the anaemic group and likely associated with SIBO) with a
280 maximum of 10, were selected for each segment and graphically represented in Figure 5 to
281 facilitate intersegmental comparison.

282 In the duodenum (Figure 5), increased GMMs in the anaemic group included metabolic
283 pathways related to propionate production, butyrate production, hydrogen metabolism, and
284 catabolic routes of sugars and amino acids such as fucose and glutamate degradation. In the
285 jejunal content (Figure 5), similar to the duodenal segment, GMMs related to sugar and amino
286 acid metabolism were found to be more abundant during IDA. In the ileum (Figure 5), an
287 increased abundance of gas producing pathways such as propionate was noticed, along with an
288 increased metabolism of amino acids and certain carbohydrates, consistent with the patterns
289 detected in other intestinal segments. Supplementary Table 7 also shows hydrogen metabolism
290 is increased in the ileum during IDA.

291 **4. Discussion**

292 IDA is a global public health issue characterized by impaired iron absorption and
293 utilization. Iron bioavailability and metabolism are closely influenced by the composition and
294 function of the gut microbiome. SIBO, a form of dysbiosis, has been proposed as a potential
295 contributing factor to iron deficiency. However, whether iron deficiency can trigger the
296 development of SIBO has not been investigated to date. In the present study, we characterized

297 the small intestinal dysbiosis triggered as a consequence of iron deficiency. The results have
298 shown differences in the small intestinal microbiome between anaemic and control groups,
299 especially in the distal segments of the small intestine, and functional microbial patterns
300 indicative of SIBO have been identified.

301 qPCR results confirmed an increased bacterial load in all the intestinal segments within
302 the small intestine (Figure 1). Currently, there is no universally established threshold of 16S
303 rRNA gene copies/mL for the definitive diagnosis of SIBO. However, several studies,
304 including that by Leite et al. estimate that the physiological bacterial load in the jejunum is
305 approximately 10^8 copies/mL. (16). Considering this threshold, the bacterial load found
306 during iron deficiency in this study would be considered pathological and compatible with
307 SIBO. Possible mechanisms that favour a higher bacterial load in the upper gastrointestinal
308 tract could include impaired gastrointestinal motility, which was observed as an intestinal
309 barrier dysfunction during iron deficiency in the same animal model (4).

310 Alpha diversity in the small intestine is a hallmark of gut health (17,18). The analysis
311 of duodenal content revealed no significant differences between the two groups (Figure 2A).
312 The jejunum showed higher values for sobs and Shannon indexes during iron deficiency
313 (Figure 2B), while all indexes increased in the anaemic group in the ileum (Figure 2C).
314 Changes in alpha diversity are more pronounced towards distal segments, which may reflect
315 abnormal colonization by multiple taxa from an ectopic region like the large intestine.
316 However, recent studies in human subjects have reported opposite findings in patients with
317 SIBO. Bamba et al. observed a significant reduction in alpha diversity, specifically a lower
318 Shannon index (19). Similarly, other human studies, such as that by Shin et al., also reported
319 reduced alpha diversity in individuals with SIBO (20). The present study yielded opposite
320 results regarding differences in diversity indexes, suggesting that the relationship between

321 anaemia and gut dysbiosis may be more complex than initially assumed. The portion of the
322 small intestine analyzed, underlying causes of SIBO, types of diet and medication or chronicity
323 of the disorder in humans may also be important factors. Human studies often use low biomass
324 mucosal samples while animal studies use high biomass luminal samples, which can impact
325 diversity. Moreover, human studies of SIBO often includes different underlying, chronic
326 causes of SIBO while SIBO in animal studies is acute and caused by only one causative agent,
327 which can also bias alpha diversity trends.

328 Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) revealed a progressive shift in microbiome
329 composition along the regions of the small intestine in both control and anaemic groups, being
330 the dysbiosis more intense towards distal segments (Figures 3A, 3B and 3C). In particular, an
331 enrichment of anaerobic and spore-forming bacterial species, notably members of the genus
332 *Clostridium*, was identified in the duodenum (Figure 4A). Similar studies have demonstrated
333 that iron deficiency alters the intestinal microbiome in the colon, increasing the bacterial load
334 and *Clostridium spp* (4). In the jejunum, an increase was also observed in species relevant for
335 their fermentative role, such as *Lactobacillus spp.*, during anaemia (Figure 4B). *Lactobacillus*
336 is known for its ability to ferment undigested carbohydrates, producing primarily lactic acid,
337 but also gases such as hydrogen, methane, and carbon dioxide. This fermentative activity can
338 contribute to gastrointestinal symptoms, including bloating and abdominal distension. While
339 *Lactobacillus spp.* are typically associated with the small and large intestine, their presence has
340 been found significantly increased in the small intestine of patients suffering from SIBO (21).
341 Notably, certain species of *Lactobacillus* genus have been found increased in the small intestine
342 during iron deficiency, producing metabolites that impair iron absorption (6). *Lactobacillus*
343 genus does not require iron to proliferate (22), which might be the reason underlying its
344 increase in the small intestine during iron deficiency.

345 The ileum exhibited a marked increase in species of the genus *Clostridium*, *Lactobacillus*
346 and *Escherichia-Shigella*, which are typically abundant in the colon and large intestine (Figure
347 4C). In general, species within the *Clostridium* genus play a beneficial role in maintaining
348 intestinal health; however, certain species, such as *Clostridium perfringens*, have a detrimental
349 impact in the context of SIBO. *C. perfringens* produces a wide range of toxins that compromise
350 the intestinal barrier and can exacerbate symptoms such as abdominal distension, diarrhea, and
351 malabsorption(23). Several studies have reported an overgrowth of *Clostridium* species in
352 duodenal aspirates from patients with SIBO (20,24).

353 In studies such as the one conducted by Siddique et al. two distinct types of SIBO were
354 identified, one of colonic origin and another of aerodigestive origin (24). In the present study,
355 the anaemic group exhibited an increased abundance of bacterial genera such as *Lactobacillus*,
356 *Escherichia-Shigella* and *Clostridium* throughout the small intestine. These genera were found
357 increased in the large intestine of the same anaemic animals (4,5), which, along with the fact
358 that the dysbiosis is more notable in the distal segments of the small intestine, suggests a
359 possible colonic origin of the overgrowth.

360 The functional dysbiosis observed during anaemia also showed a SIBO pattern. In the
361 duodenum (Figure 5), elevated GMMs in the anaemic group included metabolic pathways
362 related to propionate and butyrate production, hydrogen metabolism, and catabolic routes of
363 sugars and amino acids such as fucose and glutamate degradation, as previously described in
364 the literature, along with traits characteristic of fermentative bacteria (25,26). In the jejunal
365 content (Figure 5), as well as in the duodenal segment, metabolic pathways related to amino
366 acid metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism and gas production were found to be more abundant
367 during IDA. The ileum showed—similarly to other segments of the small intestine—an
368 increased abundance of metabolic pathways related to amino acid and carbohydrate catabolism,
369 along with gas producing pathways such as propionate or hydrogen (Figure 5, Supplementary

370 Table 7). Hydrogen production and sugar fermentation pathways are commonly associated
371 with SIBO, as they are significantly increased in patients with this condition. Indeed, hydrogen
372 breath tests are routinely used clinically to diagnose SIBO. These pathways partly contribute
373 to the abdominal bloating characteristic of SIBO and are linked to increased severity of
374 gastrointestinal symptoms (16).

375 Taken together, this study reveals taxonomic and functional alterations of the small
376 intestine microbiome during IDA that suggest a SIBO pattern, with an increase in the
377 abundance of colonic species such as *Escherichia-Shigella spp.*, *Clostridium spp* and
378 fermentative species such as *Lactobacillus spp*, an increase in sugar and amino acid catabolic
379 pathways as well as gas producing pathways (hydrogen and SCFA), and an increased bacterial
380 load. Future perspectives in this field include an in-depth genomic and metabolomic
381 characterization of SIBO during iron deficiency. The development of SIBO as a consequence
382 of iron deficiency is of special relevance considering SIBO can impair iron absorption and IDA
383 treatment. Therefore, the development of therapeutic strategies that consider SIBO as a
384 component of the pathology are key in the clinical management of IDA.

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480 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

481 M.S. and A.S.L. contributed to project design and conceptualisation. M.I.L.A., A.S.L., M.S. and
482 M.J.M.A. performed the animal study and sample collection. A.S.L. carried out DNA
483 extractions, sequencing, bioinformatic and statistical analyses. M.G.R. performed qPCR
484 experiments. M.I.L.A. and A.S.L. drafted the manuscript. J.A.G.S. and M.S. provided funding.
485 J.S.S.S. contributed to the reviewed version of the manuscript. A.S.L., J.A.G.S., M.S., M.I.L.A.
486 revised the final version of the manuscript.

487 DATA AVAILABILITY

488 Raw data supporting the analyses presented in this study have been uploaded to the SRA
489 (PRJNA1291205)

490 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION**491 Ethics approval**

492 All experimental procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of
493 Granada and the local government Junta de Andalucía (ref June 06, 2019/100) and conducted

494 following the ARRIVE guidelines and European guidelines (Declaration of Helsinki; Directive
495 2010/63/EU).

496 **Competing interests**

497 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

498 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

499 **Figure 1.** Quantification of the bacterial load in all segments of the small intestine in control
500 and anaemic animals by qPCR.(A) Duodenal region (B) Jejunal region (C) Ileal region

501 **Figure 2.** Alpha diversity indexes: observed species (sobs), InvSimpson, Shannon and Pielou
502 in the small intestinal segments of control and anaemic groups. (A) Duodenal region (B) Jejunal
503 region (C) Ileal region

504 **Figure 3.** Principal coordinate analyses (PCoA) at ASV level based on Bray-Curtis distances.
505 Plots for intestinal contents in each segment of the small intestine considering highly abundant
506 bacterial ASVs. Samples are represented by coloured symbols according to the legend. (A)
507 Duodenal region (B) Jejunal region (C) Ileal region

508 **Figure 4.** Heatmap illustrating the relative abundance of the top 10 most variable ASVs in the
509 small intestinal segments from control and anaemic groups. Abundance levels are represented
510 using a yellow-to-red gradient scale (see colour legend). Values have been scaled in the row
511 direction to illustrate differences in microbial ASVs between experimental groups. (A)
512 Duodenal region (B) Jejunal region (C) Ileal region

513 **Figure 5.** Highly increased gut microbial modules (GMMs) (MaAsLin coefficient > 1.5,
514 maximum of 10) in each segment of the small intestine and both experimental groups,
515 represented as \log_2 FC.

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