Electron transfer proteins in gut bacteria yield metabolites that circulate in the

host

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It has long been known that proteolytic Clostridia obtain their energy by coupling

oxidative and reductive pathways for amino acid metabolism – the Stickland

reaction[1]. The oxidation of one amino acid is coupled with reduction of another,

yielding energy in the former step and re-achieving redox balance with the latter.

Here, we find that the gut bacterium, *Clostridium sporogenes* metabolizes amino

acids through reductive pathways to produce metabolites that circulate within the

host. Measurements *in vitro* indicate that reductive Stickland pathways are

coupled to ATP formation, revealing their role in energy capture by gut bacteria.

By probing the genetics of *C. sporogenes*, we find that the Rnf complex is

involved in reductive amino acid metabolism. Rnf complex mutants are

attenuated for growth in the mouse gut, demonstrating the importance of energy

capture during reductive metabolism for gut colonization. Our findings reveal that

the production of high-abundance molecules by a commensal bacterium within

the host gut is linked to an energy yielding redox process.

Proteolytic Clostridia are a group of anaerobic bacteria that have the unique ability to

grow with amino acids and peptides as their sole energy source. These microbes

colonize the gastrointestinal tract of mammals where their metabolic end products

accumulate within the gut[2-4] and are absorbed into circulation mediating important

effects on host health[5]. Amino acid metabolites like indolepropionate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, and indoleacetate are drug-like small molecules that bind

host receptors and modulate physiology including intestinal permeability[6,7] and immune

homeostasis[8,9]. Amino acid metabolites also mediate syntrophic metabolic interactions

among microbes within the gut, with aryl and branched chain fatty acids being required

growth factors for several groups of anaerobic gut bacteria[10-12]. Despite their importance

to human health and disease, we know very little about the metabolic processes gut

bacteria employ to produce such molecules.

Amino acid metabolism by Clostridium sporogenes

Here we used the gut bacterium, *Clostridium sporogenes* as a model to probe the

origin of amino acid metabolites produced within the gut and that circulate in the host.

C. sporogenes grows rapidly under anaerobic conditions in a defined medium

containing a mixture of free amino acids and glucose, achieving a doubling time of ~37

minutes (**Extended data Fig. 1a**). After 24 h of growth, most amino acids were depleted

from the medium (**Extended data Fig. 1b**) and a total of fifteen different metabolites

accumulated in culture supernatants (**Extended data Fig. 1c**). Early studies with *C.*

sporogenes revealed that it metabolizes amino acids in pairs, coupling the oxidation of

one with the reduction of another (the Stickland Reaction)[13]. To assess the degree to

which *C. sporogenes* utilizes amino acids as Stickland pairs, we performed a high

throughput growth-based assay. Cells were grown in a basal medium containing ten

essential amino acids (1 mM each) with higher concentrations (25 mM each) of amino

acids or glucose individually or in pairs and growth was monitored

spectrophotometrically. The results from these experiments are presented in **Extended**

data Fig. 2 and summarized in the **Supplementary Text**. Results from these growth-

based assays support the following conclusions: 1) Specific pairs of amino acids

function synergistically to promote the growth of *C. sporogenes* (Stickland metabolism).

2) Reductive pathway substrates including proline and amino acids that converge on

proline (e.g., *trans*-4-hydroxyproline, arginine, citrulline, and ornithine) stimulate growth

yields from glucose. 3) *C. sporogenes* utilizes serine in a manner similar to glucose,

coupling it to reductive pathway substrates to achieve high growth yields. 4) Proline and

trans-4-hydroxyproline both stimulated growth yield with branched chain amino acids

(valine, isoleucine, and leucine), but this required supplemental acetate presumably for

anabolic purposes.

C. sporogenes produces amino acid metabolites that circulate in the host

To evaluate how *C. sporogenes* influences metabolites that circulate within the host,

we colonized germ-free mice with *C. sporogenes* and quantified metabolites in feces,

cecal contents, plasma, and urine using stable isotope dilution liquid chromatography –

mass spectrometry (LC-MS) (**Supplementary Tables 1-4**). Of the 15 metabolites

detected in cultures of *C. sporogenes* (**Extended data Fig. 1c**), 13 were present in the

feces of *C. sporogenes* colonized mice one week after colonization (**Fig. 1a**)

demonstrating that *C. sporogenes* produces these metabolites *in vivo*. In plasma, we

found four metabolites that were elevated in colonized vs. germ-free mice, which

included 5-aminovalerate, phenylpropionate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate, and

indolepropionate (**Fig. 1a**). The remaining nine compounds present in feces, but absent

in plasma are likely either excreted in feces or absorbed and metabolized by the host.

To confirm that these circulating metabolites arise from bacterial metabolism in the gut,

we colonized germ-free mice with *C. sporogenes* and treated separate groups with or

without oral antibiotics (**Fig. 1b**). Following colonization, the four circulating metabolites

achieved mean plasma concentrations ranging from ~3 μM for phenylpropionate to

~100 μM for indolepropionate (**Fig. 1c**). After antibiotic treatment, the plasma levels of

all four metabolites were reduced to undetectable levels (**Fig. 1c**), demonstrating their

dependence on bacterial metabolism in the gut. In urine, we observed similar trends for

5-aminovalerate, phenylpropionate, and 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate, with their levels

rising after colonization and falling after antibiotic treatment; however, indolepropionate

was undetectable in all urine samples (**Supplementary Table 3**). Using a combination

of untargeted metabolomics, tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS), and comparison with

authentic standards, we identified high levels of indolepropionylglycine (IPGly) in the

urine of *C. sporogenes* colonized mice (**Extended data Fig. 3**) that tracked with plasma

levels of indolepropionate (**Fig. 1c**), suggesting that IPGly is the excreted form of

indolepropionate.

Having identified four *C. sporogenes* dependent circulating metabolites in

gnotobiotic mice, we next asked whether these compounds are present in human blood.

To test this, we obtained 99 plasma samples from healthy human blood donors and

quantified metabolites using LC-MS (**Supplementary Table 5**). Of the four metabolites,

indolepropionate was the most prevalent, being detected in the blood of 99% of

individuals (**Fig. 1d**). Consistent with our analysis of gnotobiotic mice (**Fig. 1c**),

indolepropionate concentrations were also the highest, ranging in human plasma from

230 nM to 9.3 μM (**Fig. 1d**). After repeated analyses, one individual was confirmed to

have high plasma indolepropionate levels of 110 μM. Phenylpropionate and 5-

aminovalerate were also detected in the majority of healthy blood donors, whereas 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate levels were lower and present in less than half of individuals

(**Fig. 1d**). Collectively, these findings demonstrate that amino acid metabolism within

the gut yields metabolites that circulate within the host. Of these metabolites,

indolepropionate is the most concentrated in both gnotobiotic mice and in humans, with

rare individuals having high concentrations of circulating indolepropionate.

Circulating metabolites are products of reductive Stickland metabolism

We next sought to understand the metabolic processes that underlie production of

these four circulating metabolites. *C. sporogenes* metabolizes amino acids in pairs,

coupling the oxidation of one with the reduction of another via the Stickland Reaction.

Oxidative pathways are thought to yield ATP via substrate level phosphorylation, and

reductive pathways provide redox balance within the cell (**Fig. 2a**)[1,14]. In this context,

previous studies have indicated that 5-aminovalerate, phenylpropionate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, and indolepropionate are end products of reductive Stickland

metabolism of Pro, Phe, Tyr, and Trp, respectively[6,15].

To test whether these four circulating metabolites arise from metabolism of their

cognate amino acids, we performed stable isotope tracing experiments. *C. sporogenes*

was cultured in a defined medium containing all 20 proteinogenic amino acids (1 mM

each) and glucose (10 mM) where Pro, Phe, Tyr, or Trp were individually substituted by

their deuterium isotopologues (Pro-d7, Phe-d8, Tyr-d4, or Trp-d5) and metabolites were

measured by LC-MS during growth. Under these conditions, cells reached maximal

optical densities of ~0.5 by 16 h. Labeled Pro, Phe, and Tyr were completely consumed

by 24 h, being converted to labeled derivatives (5-aminovalerate-d6,d5;

phenylpropionate-d7,d6,d5; and 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate-d4) with yields ranging

from 65%-109% (**Fig. 2b**). Trp metabolism was comparably slower, but ~93% of Trp

was consumed by 24 h, being converted to indolepropionate-d5 with a yield of 60%

(**Fig. 2b**). Despite pathways existing in *C. sporogenes* for the oxidative metabolism of

Phe, Tyr, and Trp[6,16], under these experimental conditions only reductive products of

these amino acids were detected (**Fig. 2c**). These findings indicate that *C. sporogenes*

cells convert the majority of these amino acids to reduced products, rather than using

them for biosynthetic purposes such as protein synthesis. In cultures where labeled

Phe, Tyr, and Trp were provided, no unlabeled phenylpropionate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, or indolepropionate was detected (**Extended data Fig. 4a-c**)

suggesting that these metabolites arise from catabolism of their cognate amino acids,

not through *de novo* biosynthetic pathways from other precursors. 5-aminovalerate was

an exception, however, with its unlabeled product accumulating in cultures where

labeled Pro was added (**Extended data Fig. 4d**), which we found reflected the capacity

of cells to convert Arg in the medium to proline and 5-aminovalerate (**Extended data**

Fig. 4e)[17].

During Stickland metabolism, the oxidation of one amino acid is coupled to the

reduction of another, resulting in stimulatory effects of amino acid pairs[1]. Next, we

sought to test whether production of the reductive metabolites, 5-aminovalerate,

phenylpropionate, and indolepropionate is stimulated by provision of an oxidative amino

acid partner. Cell suspensions of *C. sporogenes* were incubated with isotopically

labeled amino acids (Pro, Phe, Trp) in the presence or absence of an oxidative

Stickland amino acid (Val) and metabolism was monitored by LC-MS. Whereas cells

incubated with Pro or Val alone showed limited substrate consumption and product

accumulation (**Fig. 2d**), cells incubated with both Pro and Val consumed most of the Pro

and all the Val by 3h, converting Pro to 5-aminovalerate and Val to isobutyrate (**Fig.**

2d). Similar results were seen with the Phe/Val combination (**Fig. 2d**), however the

Trp/Val combination yielded a more subtle pattern, where indolepropionate production

was low (**Fig. 2d**), but significantly higher when Val was added (**Extended data Fig. 5**).

Collectively, these findings demonstrate that 5-aminovalerate, phenylpropionate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, and indolepropionate are reductive pathway products of

coupled Stickland reactions by gut bacteria.

Reductive Stickland metabolism is coupled to ATP formation

During Stickland metabolism of amino acids, oxidative pathways are thought to yield

ATP via substrate level phosphorylation, and reductive pathways provide redox balance

within the cell[1,14]. However, anaerobic bacteria can also use reductive metabolism to

fuel anaerobic respiration, providing an additional mechanism to obtain energy.

Examples include fumarate reduction by *Bacteroides fragilis* (involved in carbohydrate

metabolism)[18], caffeate respiration by *Acetobacterium woodii*[19] and cinnamate reduction

by *C. sporogenes*[20] (involved in metabolism of plant secondary metabolites), and

reductive acetogenesis by *C. ljungahlii*[21]. We reasoned that reductive pathways for

amino acid metabolism via the Stickland reaction might also serve a role in energy

capture for bacteria within the gut. A previous study demonstrated that Pro reduction in

C. sporogenes is linked to vectorial transmembrane proton translocation[22], however

whether this proton gradient is coupled to ATP synthesis is unknown. Furthermore, it is

not known whether additional pathways for reductive amino acid metabolism are

involved in energy capture. Therefore, we analyzed the metabolic gene clusters

encoding reductive amino acid pathways with an eye towards identifying potential

mechanisms for energy capture.

Inspection of the gene clusters encoding reductive amino acid pathways revealed

that each pathway converges on a step involving a multi-subunit electron transfer

protein (**Fig. 3a**). The aryl amino acid reductive gene cluster encodes an acyl-CoA

dehydrogenase with two electron transfer factors (EtfAB) sharing 40-60% amino acid

identity with the butyryl-CoA dehydrogenase-EtfAB (Bcd) complex from *Clostridium*

kluyverii involved in ethanol fermentation[23] (**Fig. 3b**). Bcd catalyzes flavin based

electron bifurcation where the energetically downhill reduction of crotonyl-CoA by NADH

drives the energetically uphill reduction of ferredoxin by NADH[24,25]. In so doing, the cell

has low-potential reduced ferredoxin at its disposal to drive ion translocation through the

Rnf complex with NAD$^+$ as an electron acceptor[26]. The gene cluster for reductive

leucine metabolism, present in *C. sporogenes*[27], also encodes a homolog of the Bcd

complex (**Fig. 3b**). The proline reductive gene cluster encodes a different electron

transfer protein involving the enzyme proline reductase (**Fig. 3c**). However, a link to

energy conservation for proline reductase has not been established. Thus, these

metabolic gene clusters suggest that reductive Stickland pathways may be linked to

ATP synthesis in the cell.

To test this experimentally, we established a whole cell-based ATP assay using

resting late log-phase cell cultures of *C. sporogenes*. Following incubation with

substrate, cells were quenched and permeabilized with DMSO, then ATP levels were

detected by luminescence and normalized to total cellular protein levels. We validated

our assay by analyzing ATP formation from *trans*-cinnamate, a plant derived substrate

previously thought to be involved in reductive phenylalanine metabolism (**Extended**

data Fig. 6, Supplementary Text). Because Phe, Tyr, Trp, and Leu may also be

metabolized down oxidative pathways, we supplied cells with pathway intermediates

(e.g., phenyllactate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)lactate, indolelactate, 2-hydroxyisocaproate)

specific to reductive pathways. When Pro or reductive pathway intermediates for Phe,

Tyr, Trp, or Leu were added to cells, ATP levels rose rapidly, plateaued, and then

returned to resting levels (**Fig. 3e**). Because reductive arylamino acid metabolism (Phe,

Tyr, Trp) operates through a shared pathway, we chose to further explore ATP

formation using Phe metabolism as a representative for this pathway. These analyses

revealed that D-phenyllactate (and not its L-stereoisomer) supported ATP formation

(**Extended data Fig. 7a**), being converted almost quantitatively to the reductive

pathway product, phenylpropionate (**Extended data Fig. 7b**). Metabolic products

(**Extended data Fig. 7c**) of reductive or oxidative pathways failed to elicit ATP

formation (**Extended data Fig. 7d-e**). Genetic disruption of acyl-CoA dehydrogenase

(AcdA) abolished ATP formation from DL-phenyllactate, indicating that this enzyme is

critical for ATP formation during reductive Phe metabolism (**Extended data Fig. 7f**).

Similar results were seen for metabolism of the Tyr and Trp metabolic intermediates

(DL-4-hydroxyphenyllactate and DL-indolelactate), with the *acdA* mutant being deficient

in ATP formation from these substrates (**Extended data Fig. 7g-h**). Pre-treatment of

cells with the protonophore, 3,3′,4′,5-tetrachlorosalicylanilide (TCS) uncoupled DL-

phenyllactate and proline metabolism from ATP formation (**Extended data Fig. 8**),

indicating that a proton gradient is involved in ATP formation. Taken together, these

experiments reveal that pathways for reductive Stickland metabolism are linked to ATP

formation and involve the generation of a proton motive force.

The Rnf complex is important for reductive metabolism and competition within

the gut

Having demonstrated that reductive metabolism is coupled to ATP formation, we

next asked whether the Rnf complex might be an important coupling site. We identified

a gene cluster which encodes the Rnf complex in *C. sporogenes* (**Fig. 4a**) and targeted

genes encoding two separate subunits (*rnfB* and *rnfE*) for disruption (**Fig. 4b**). These

mutants suffered a growth defect when grown in minimal medium containing 10 amino

acids (**Fig. 4c**), yet this phenotype could be suppressed by the addition of glucose to

the culture medium (**Fig. 4c**). These data suggest that the growth phenotype in *rnfB* and

rnfE mutants is characterized by defective amino acid metabolism. Metabolic profiling of

culture supernatants revealed that the *rnfB* mutant was defective in production of the

reductive pathway metabolites 5-aminovalerate, phenylpropionate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, and indolepropionate, suggesting an impairment in reductive

Stickland metabolism (**Fig. 4d, Extended data Fig. 9**). Thus while the Rnf complex

clearly plays a role in amino acid metabolism, it is unclear whether the mutant

phenotype is due solely to diminished ATP formation during reductive metabolism, or a

combined loss of regenerative functions that drive forward oxidative pathways.

Our findings suggest that disruption of the Rnf complex leads to altered amino acid

metabolism *in vitro*. Next, we asked whether energy capture through the Rnf complex is

important for production of reduced metabolites that circulate within the host. To test

this, we colonized gnotobiotic mice with either WT *C. sporogenes* or its *rnfB* mutant and

detected metabolites in cecal contents and plasma by LC-MS. By comparison to WT-

colonized mice, *rnfB*-colonized mice had significantly lower levels of indolepropionate

both in the cecal contents and the plasma (**Fig. 4e**), demonstrating a role for the Rnf

complex in production of microbiota-derived metabolites that circulate within the host.

To test whether energy capture involving the Rnf complex is important for competition

within the mammalian gut, germ-free mice were colonized with a 1:1 mixture of WT and

rnfB mutant cells and the relative proportions of the two strains in feces were

determined by Q-PCR over time. The *rnfB* mutant was rapidly outcompeted by the WT

strain, becoming nearly undetectable in feces by 7 days post colonization (**Fig. 4f**). This

finding was recapitulated in the presence of a more complex stably colonized microbial

community revealing the Rnf complex as a key fitness determinant for *C. sporogenes*

during colonization and persistence in the gastrointestinal tract (**Fig. 4g, Extended data**

Fig. 10). While our results suggest the Rnf complex is important for ATP formation, the

loss of a proton gradient that Rnf presumably creates, could influence additional

physiologic processes such as membrane transport and chemotaxis.

Intriguingly, the Rnf genes were previously identified as *in vivo* fitness determinants

for *Bacteroides* colonization in the mouse gut[28,29] yet were dispensable for growth in

defined medium[28]. This suggests that the Rnf complex, which is encoded by

phylogenetically diverse human gut bacteria (**Extended data Fig. 11**), may serve

distinct physiological roles across taxa.

Conclusion

Our results show that *C. sporogenes* ferments amino acids through coupled

oxidative and reductive pathways (the Stickland reaction), to produce metabolites that

accumulate in the intestinal lumen and that circulate within the host (**Fig. 4h**). In addition

to producing ATP via substrate level phosphorylation, reductive Stickland pathways

provide additional energy likely via electron transport phosphorylation. Acyl-CoA

dehydrogenases (Bcd/AcdA/AcdB) capture this energy via flavin-based electron

bifurcation, where potential energy is carried by reduced ferredoxin which then drives

extracellular proton (or sodium ion) transport via the Rnf complex. Homologs of the

electron transfer proteins described in this study are present in bacteria from 7 unique

Phyla and 38 different families (**Supplementary Table 6**). They are also prevalent

within human fecal metagenomic datasets (**Extended data Fig. 12**), suggesting these

mechanisms for energy capture are widespread within the gut. By reevaluating ATP

economy in the cell (considerations in **Supplementary Table 7**), reductive pathways

can account for ~40% of ATP from Stickland metabolism. This revises our

understanding of how amino acid degrading bacteria capture their energy and provides

fundamental insights into the origin of metabolites that circulate within the human body.

Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. *Clostridium sporogenes* ATCC 15579

was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). It was routinely

cultured in reinforced clostridial medium (RCM) at 37 °C in a Coy type B anaerobic

chamber under an atmosphere of 5% hydrogen, 10% carbon dioxide, and 85% nitrogen.

All media and plasticware were pre-reduced in the anaerobic chamber for at least 24

hours before use. For growth measurements in defined medium, we used a previously

described defined minimal medium referred to as standard amino acid complete

medium (SACC)[15]. The *Escherichia coli* CA434 (HB101/pRK24) conjugation host was

routinely cultured at 30 °C in LB broth supplemented with tetracycline (12 μg mL^{-1}) to

ensure maintenance of the pRK24 plasmid. *E. coli* TG1 was used for routine cloning.

Chloramphenicol (25 μg mL^{-1}) was used for selection of pMTL007C-E2 plasmids in *E.*

coli. Organisms used in the defined community colonization included: *Clostridium*

sporogenes ATCC 15579, *Clostridium scindens* ATCC 35704, *Eubacterium rectale*

ATCC 33656, *Bifidobacterium breve* UCC2003, *Edwardsiella tarda* ATCC 23685,

Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron VPI-5482, and *Bacteroides vulgatus* ATCC 8482.

Plasmid construction and cloning. For specific gene disruptions, we used the

Intron targeting and design tool on the ClosTron website

(http://www.clostron.com/clostron2.php) using the Perutka algorithm. The intron

contained within the pMTL007C-E2 plasmid was retargeted to the specific sites listed in

Supplementary Table 8 and were synthesized by DNA 2.0 (Menlo Park, CA).

Sequencing primers were synthesized by IDT DNA Technologies and are listed in

Supplementary Table 8.

Mutant generation using ClosTron. Intron-retargeted ClosTron plasmid DNA

was introduced into *C. sporogenes* by conjugation as described previously[6].

Transconjugants were selected on RCM agar supplemented with D-cycloserine (250 μg

mL^{-1}) and thiamphenicol (15 μg mL^{-1}), re-streaked for purity, and individual well-

isolated colonies were inoculated into RCM broth (without agar) containing the same

antibiotics. After overnight culture, the cells were diluted 10-fold, then 100 µL was

spread on an RCM agar plate containing erythromycin (5 μg mL^{-1}). These colonies

were picked, re-streaked onto TYG agar plates supplemented with erythromycin and

well-isolated colonies were inoculated into TYG broth supplemented with erythromycin.

Genomic DNA was isolated from candidate clones using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue

Kit from Qiagen with a lysozyme pre-treatment step, and this DNA was used as a

template for PCR using gene-specific primers. Primer sets were designed to produce a

~600-bp product for the wild-type and ~2,800-bp product for the mutant containing the

intron. When verified mutants were streaked onto TYG plates containing thiamphenicol,

no growth was observed, indicating that the pMTL007C-E2 plasmid had been lost.

Monitoring bacteria growth in batch culture and analysis of metabolites in

culture supernatants by GC-MS and LC-MS. To characterize the growth of *C.*

sporogenes with amino acids (**Extended data Fig. 1a**), cells were cultured in SACC

medium supplemented with 23 amino acids including the 20 proteinogenic amino acids

and L-citrulline, L-ornithine, and *trans*-4-hydroxyproline (1 mM each) and glucose (1

mM). Wild-type *C. sporogenes* was streaked from an anaerobic glycerol stock onto

RCM agar plates and incubated for ~24 h at 37 °C. Individual well-isolated colonies

were then inoculated into 5 mL of SACC (23 AA + glucose) medium and cultured for 24

h at 37 °C. Optical densities at 600 nm (OD600 nm) were recorded for cultures, then

cells were subcultured in 5 mL of SACC (23 AA + glucose) at a starting OD of 0.01 in

butyl rubber stoppered anaerobic Balch-type tubes (ChemGlass). Cultures were

incubated outside of the anaerobic chamber in a water bath set to 37 °C, and optical

density measurements were made hourly using a GENESYS 30 spectrophotometer

from Thermo Scientific. Samples (1 mL) were collected at 0 and 24 h, centrifuged at

5,000g for 10 min at 4 °C, then supernatants (500 μL) were collected and stored at -20

°C until analysis by GC-MS or LC-MS.

To characterize the growth phenotype of *rnfB* and *rnfE* mutants (**Fig. 4c**), cells

were cultured as above with the following minor modifications. The medium used was

SACC medium with 10 essential amino acids (1 mM each), with or without glucose (10

mM). Mutant cells were first streaked from anaerobic glycerol stocks onto RCM agar

plates with erythromycin (5 μg mL^{-1}), to confirm they carried the Clostron insertion, and

all subsequent growth was performed without supplemental antibiotics.

Amino acid analysis in culture supernatants (corresponding to **Extended data**

Fig. 1b). Culture supernatant was diluted 80-fold with LC-MS grade water, then 50 μL of

samples or appropriately diluted standards (Sigma AAS18 supplemented with Trp, Asn,

Gln, ornithine, *trans*-4-hydroxyproline, and 5-aminovalerate) were combined with 10 μL

internal standards (L-Arginine:HCl (Guanido-^{15}N2), DL-Valine (D8), L-Methionine

(Methyl-D3), L-Phenylalanine (D8), L-Leucine (D10), and L-Tyrosine (D7), 10 μM each)

in 96-well V-bottom plates from USA scientific. Then 25 μL of 0.1 M sodium tetraborate

and 50 μL of dansyl chloride (25 mM in 100% acetonitrile) were added. The solution

was mixed five times by pipetting, then incubated at room temperature in the dark for 15

min, mixed by pipetting five times, then incubated for an additional 15 min. The reaction

was quenched by the addition of 50 μL 0.5% formic acid, and the plate was centrifuged

at 5,000g for 15 min at room temperature. One hundred and twenty-five microliters were

then transferred to a Multiscreen Solvinert Filter Plate 0.45 μM (Millipore) placed on top

of a 96-well 0.5 mL polypropylene microplate (Agilent) which was then centrifuged at

5,000g for 5 min at room temperature. A cap mat was placed on the plate, and samples

were analyzed by LC-MS using an Agilent 1290 Infinity II UPLC equipped with a Waters

BEH C18 1.7-μm particle size C18 column (2.1 × 100 mm) and detected using an

Agilent 6545XT Q-TOF equipped with a dual jet stream electrospray ionization source

operating under extended dynamic range (EDR 1700 m/z) in positive ionization mode.

Eluent A consisted of 0.1% formic acid (v/v) in water and eluent B consisted of 0.1%

formic acid (v/v) in 100% acetonitrile. Five microliters of samples were injected via

refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and chromatographic separation at 40 °C

was achieved at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min^{-1} using a linear gradient of 5–60% eluent B

over 10.25 min. Eluent B was brought to 95% over 2.25 min, held at 95% for 2.5 min,

brought to 5% over 0.1 min, and the column was then re-equilibrated at 5% eluent B for

2.9 min. Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of 325 °C,

drying gas flow of 10 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 20 psi, sheath gas temperature of

400 °C and flow of 12 L min^{-1}, and capillary voltage of 4000 V. MS1 spectra were

collected in profile mode, and peak assignments in samples were made based on

comparisons of retention times and accurate masses from authentic standards. Amino

acids were quantified by isotope-dilution mass spectrometry using L-Phenylalanine (D8)

as a suitable internal standard for most analytes.

*Aromatic fatty acids and amines by LC-MS (corresponding to **Extended data***

Fig. 1c, Extended data Fig. 6, Fig. 4d). Culture supernatants or appropriately diluted

standards (phenylacetate, phenylpropionate, 4-hydroxyphenylacetate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, indoleacetate, indolepropionate, tryptamine, 5-

aminovalerate) (100 μL) were combined with 450 μL of methanol followed by incubation

at room temperature for 5 min and centrifugation at 13,000g for 5 min at room

temperature. Subsequently, 200 μL of supernatant was transferred to wells of a 96-well

deep block plate and evaporated to dryness using a Biotage Turbovap. Then 200 μL of

resuspension solvent (0.1% formic acid (v/v) in water) containing internal standards

(100 μM *trans*-cinnamic acid (D7) and 50 μM indoleacetic acid (D5)) was added,

compounds were dissolved by vortexing for ~30 s and samples were clarified by

filtration through a Multiscreen Solvinert Filter Plate 0.45 μM (Millipore) placed on top of

a 96-well 0.5 mL polypropylene microplate (Agilent) by centrifugation at 5,000g for 5 min

at room temperature. A cap mat was placed on the plate, and samples were analyzed

by LC-MS using an Agilent 1290 Infinity II UPLC equipped with a Waters BEH C18 1.7-

μm particle size C18 column (2.1 × 100 mm) and detected using an Agilent 6545XT Q-

TOF equipped with a dual jet stream electrospray ionization source operating under

extended dynamic range (EDR 1700 m/z) in negative ionization mode. Eluent A

consisted of 6.5 mM ammonium bicarbonate in water and eluent B consisted of 6.5 mM

ammonium bicarbonate in 100% methanol. Five microliters of samples were injected via

refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and chromatographic separation was

achieved at a flow rate of 0.35 mL min^{-1} using a linear gradient of 0.5–70% eluent B

over 4 min. Eluent B was brought to 98% over 0.5 min, held at 98% for 0.9 min, then

brought to 0.5% over 0.2 min and the column was re-equilibrated at 0.5% eluent B for

3.4 min. Peak assignments in samples were made based on comparisons of retention

times and accurate mass-to-charge ratios from authentic standards analyzed under

identical conditions. Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of

250 °C, drying gas flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas

temperature of 200 °C and flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and nozzle

voltage of 1400 V. MS1 spectra were collected in centroid mode, and peak assignments

in samples were made based on comparisons of retention times and accurate masses

from authentic standards. Aromatic fatty acids were quantified by isotope-dilution mass

spectrometry using *trans*-cinnamic acid (D7) or indoleacetic acid (D5) as internal

standards.

*Short chain fatty acids by GC-MS (corresponding to **Extended data Fig. 1c**).*

Culture supernatants (50 μL) were acidified with 6 M HCl (50 μL), then diluted in LC-MS

grade water (150 μL). Organic acids were then extracted with one volume of diethyl

ether (250 μL). An aliquot (95 μL) of the organic layer was transferred to a new sealed

vial, combined with *N-tert*-butyldimethylsilyl-*N*-methyltrifluoroacetamide (MTBSTFA, 5

μl) and derivatized at room temperature for 48 h. One microliter was then injected onto

an Agilent 7820A gas chromatograph equipped with an Agilent VF-5HT column (30 m x

0.25 mm x 0.1 μm) coupled to an Agilent 5977B mass spectrometer. The inlet was set

to 280 °C, and injection occurred in split mode with a ratio of 10:1. Oven conditions

were as follows: 50 °C for 2 min, ramped to 70 °C at 10 °C min^{-1}, then ramped to 85 °C

at 3 °C min⁻¹, then ramped to 290 °C at 30 °C min⁻¹. The mass spectrometer transfer

line was set to 250 °C, and the quadrupole was set at 150 °C. MS data was collected

under scan mode from 50 – 300 m/z with a 3 min solvent delay.

Wild-type C. sporogenes mono-colonization in gnotobiotic mice and

analysis of metabolites in body fluids (corresponding to Fig. 1a,c, Supplementary

Tables 1-4). Mouse experiments were performed on gnotobiotic Swiss Webster germ-

free mice originally obtained from Taconic Biosciences maintained in aseptic isolators.

Animal experiments were performed following a protocol approved by the Stanford

University Administrative Panel on Laboratory Animal Care. Mice (female, 9 weeks of

age, n = 5 per group, two groups) were colonized with wild-type *C. sporogenes* by oral

gavage (300 μL, ~1 × 10⁸ CFU) and were maintained on standard chow (LabDiet 5k67).

After one week, group 1 mice were maintained on normal drinking water, while group 2

mice were switched to water containing antibiotics (0.5 mg/mL Vancomycin and 1

mg/mL Metronidazole) for another week before euthanization. Blood, urine and feces

were collected at 3 time points: before gavage with bacteria, 1 week and 2 weeks after

colonization. Cecal contents were harvested after euthanization. Blood collected from

the facial vein was mixed with EDTA (~15 mM EDTA, final) and centrifuged at 1,500*g*

for 15 min at 10 °C. Plasma was transferred to a new tube and stored at -80 °C until LC-

MS was performed. Fresh urine, fecal pellets, and cecal contents were collected and

stored at -80 °C until LC-MS was performed.

Sample preparation for metabolite analysis in blood, urine, feces, and cecal

contents. Mice urine samples (2.5 μL) were diluted with 7.5 μL LC-MS water. Blood (10

μL) and diluted urine (10 μL) samples were added to a 96-well V-bottom plate

containing internal standard mixture (tryptamine (D4), indoleacetic acid (D5),

phenylacetic acid (D5), phenylpropionic acid (D9), phenylalanine (D5), hippuric acid

(D2), 0.2 mM each, creatinine (D3), acetic acid ($^{13}C_2$), isovaleric acid (D2), 1 mM each,

10 μL) and 180 μL methanol. The solution was mixed five times by pipetting, then the

plate was centrifuged at 5,000g for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was collected for the

following sample preparations, either derivatization or direct dilution, before subjecting

to LC-MS analysis.

Mice cecal contents and fecal samples (40($\pm$4) mg) were weighed in

microcentrifuge tubes (Fisherbrand cat. # 02-682-558) containing glass beads (Sigma

cat. # G1145, 150-212 μm, 40($\pm$4) mg). LC-MS water (40 μL), internal standard mixture

(tryptamine (D4), indoleacetic acid (D5), phenylacetic acid (D5), phenylpropionic acid

(D9), phenylalanine (D5), 0.2 mM, acetic acid ($^{13}C_2$) and isovaleric acid (D2), 1 mM

each, 80 μL), and methanol (1440 μL) were added to the tubes. The samples were

homogenized with a mixer mill (RETSCH MM400) at 4 °C, 25/s, for 30 min, then

centrifuged at 13,000g for 5 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were collected for the following

sample preparations, either derivatization or direct dilution, before subjecting to LC-MS

analysis.

Derivatization method for short chain fatty acids. Thirty microliters of supernatant

was transferred to a 96-well V-bottom plates and mixed with 15 μL 3-

nitrophenylhydrazine (200 mM in 50% acetonitrile) and 15 μL *N*-(3-

dimethylaminopropyl)-*N'*-ethylcarbodiimide (120 mM in 6% pyridine). The plates were

sealed with a plastic sealing mat (Thermo Fisher Scientific cat. # AB-0566) and

incubated at 40 °C, 900 rpm in a thermomixer for 30 min to derivatize the short chain

fatty acids. Eight microliters of the reaction mixture were quenched with 192 μL 0.02%

formic acid in 10% acetonitrile/water.

Direct dilution method for other metabolites. Thirty microliters of supernatant

were directly transferred to a 96-well V-bottom plates and diluted with LC-MS grade

water (90 μL) for LC-MS analysis.

LC-MS conditions for detection and quantitation of metabolites. The samples

were analyzed using the same instrument and column with the following methods.

(i) Derivatized acetate, propionate, butyrate, isobutyrate, 2-methylbutyrate, isovalerate,

isocaproate, 5-aminovaleric acid, indoleacetate, indolepropionate, phenylacetate,

phenylpropionate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)acetate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate,

hippurate, phenylacetylglycine, phenylpropionylglycine, 4-hydroxyhippurate, (3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propanoyl)glycine, and 4-hydroxyphenylacetylglycine were analyzed

under negative ionization mode. Eluent A consisted of 0.1% formic acid (v/v) in water

and eluent B consisted of 0.1% formic acid (v/v) in 100% methanol. Samples (10 μL)

were injected via refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and separation was

achieved with Waters BEH C18 1.7-μm particle size C18 columns (2.1 × 100 mm) at 50

°C using dual binary pumps with alternating column regeneration. The analytical pump

applied the following gradient at a flow rate of 0.3 mL min^{-1}: 0−11 min, 15% to 65% B,

11−11.1 min, 65% to 15% B, 11.1 min−12 min, 15% B. The regeneration pump applied

the following gradient at a flow rate of 0.2 mL min^{-1}: 0−0.1 min, 15% to 99.9% B, 0.1−6

min, 99.9% B, 6−9 min, 99.9% to 15% B, 9−12 min, 15% B. Electrospray ionization

parameters included a gas temperature of 300 °C, drying gas flow of 6 L min⁻¹,

nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of 300 °C and flow of 11 L min⁻¹,

capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 140 V.

(ii) Underivatized creatinine and tryptamine were analyzed under positive ionization

mode. Eluent A consisted of 0.1% formic acid (v/v) in water and eluent B consisted of

0.1% formic acid (v/v) in 100% methanol. Samples (0.5 µL) were injected via

refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and separation was achieved with Waters

BEH C18 1.7-µm particle size C18 columns (2.1 × 100 mm) at 25 °C using dual binary

pumps with alternating column regeneration. The analytical pump applied the following

gradient at a flow rate of 0.3 mL min⁻¹: 0−4 min, 1% to 70% B, 4−4.01 min, 70% to 1%

B, 4.01−5 min, 1% B. The regeneration pump applied the following gradient at a flow

rate of 0.3 mL min⁻¹: 0−0.1 min, 1% to 98% B, 0.1−3 min, 98% B, 3−3.1 min, 98% to 1%

B, 3.1−5 min, 1% B. Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of

250 °C, drying gas flow of 6 L min⁻¹, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas

temperature of 250 °C and flow of 11 L min⁻¹, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and

fragmentor voltage of 70 V.

Selection of internal standards (ISTD) for LC-MS quantitation were as follows:

isovaleric acid (D2) as ISTD for butyrate, isobutyrate, 2-methylbutyrate, isovalerate, and

isocaproate. Indoleacetic acid (D5) as ISTD for indoleacetate, indolepropionate, 4-

hydroxyhippurate, (3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propanoyl)glycine, and 4-

hydroxyphenylacetylglycine. Phenylacetic acid (D5) as ISTD for phenylacetate.

Phenylpropionic acid (D9) as ISTD for phenylpropionate, 4-OH-phenylpropionate, 4-OH-

phenylacetate, and phenylacetylglycine. Acetic acid ($^{13}C_2$) as ISTD for acetate,

propionate, and 5-aminovaleric acid. Tryptamine (D4) as ISTD for tryptamine. Hippurate

(D2) as ISTD for hippurate.

Analysis of metabolites in human plasma (corresponding to Fig. 1d,

Supplementary Table 5). De-identified human plasma samples were obtained from the

Stanford Blood Center under their IRB-approved research protocol. Thawed samples

were mixed by gentle inversion and aliquots (50 μL) were transferred to a 96-well V-

bottom plate containing internal standard mixture (tryptamine (D4), indoleacetic acid

(D5), phenylacetic acid (D5), phenylpropionic acid (D9), phenylalanine (D5), hippuric

acid (D2), acetic acid ($^{13}C_2$), isovaleric acid (D2), 40 μM each, 5 μL) and acetonitrile:

methanol 3:1 mixture (150 μL). The solution was mixed five times by pipetting, then the

plate was centrifuged at 5,000*g* for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was collected for the

following sample preparations, either derivatization or direct dilution, before being

subjected to LC-MS analysis. Derivatization was performed as the protocol described

above with the following minor adjustment: after reaction completion, sixteen microliters

of the reaction mixture were quenched with 184 μL 0.04% formic acid in 10%

acetonitrile/water. Direct dilution was performed as described above, but with the

following minor adjustment: seventy microliters of supernatant were directly transferred

to a 96-well V-bottom plates and diluted with LC-MS grade water (70 μL) for LC-MS

analysis.

Derivatized acetate, propionate, butyrate, isobutyrate, 2-methylbutyrate,

isovalerate, isocaproate, 5-aminovalerate, indoleacetate, indolepropionate,

phenylacetate, phenylpropionate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)acetate, 3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl)propionate, hippurate, phenylacetylglycine, phenylpropionylglycine, 4-

hydroxyhippurate, (3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propanoyl)glycine, and 4-

hydroxyphenylacetylglycine were analyzed with the same acquisition method as

described above for mouse plasma samples, except that 20 μL of samples were

injected.

Stable isotope amino acid conversion in culture and in cell suspensions

(corresponding to Fig. 2b,d, Extended data Fig. 4 and 5). To monitor consumption of

specific amino acids during growth, we prepared SACC medium containing all 20

proteinogenic amino acids and glucose (10 mM), where individual amino acids (Val, Ile,

Leu, Pro, Phe, Tyr, Trp) were substituted their deuterium labeled isotopologues (Val

(D8), Ile (D10), Leu (D10), Pro (D7), Phe (D8), Tyr (D4), Trp (D5)). Wild-type *C.*

sporogenes were streaked from an anaerobic glycerol stock onto RCM agar plates, and

incubated for ~20 h at 37 °C. Individual well-isolated colonies were inoculated into 4 mL

of SACC containing 20 AA (1 mM each) and glucose (10 mM) and cells were cultured

for 20 h at 37 °C. Cells were diluted to ~0.01 OD_{600nm} into fresh SACC with 19 unlabeled

amino acid plus one stable isotope labeled amino acid (1 mM each) and glucose (10

mM) and cultured for 24 h at 37 °C. At 0 h, 6 h, and 24 h, 200 μL aliquots of culture was

transferred to pre-chilled tubes and was centrifuged at ~13,000*g* speed for 1 min at 4

°C. Supernatant was transferred to a new tube and stored at -80 °C until LC-MS

measurement.

C. sporogenes requires 10 essential amino acids to support its growth,

complicating analysis of its metabolism. To avoid interference from other amino acids,

we used whole cell suspensions to measure single or paired amino acid conversions.

Individual well-isolated colonies of *C. sporogenes* were inoculated into 4 mL of SACC

broth plus 1 mM *trans*-4-hydroxy-L-proline and were cultured for 14 h at 37 °C.

Overnight cultures were diluted to ~0.01 OD_{600nm} into the same medium and incubated

for 4 h at 37 °C until 0.15 ~0.2 OD_{600nm}. Cells were spin down anaerobically at 6,500g

for 8 min at room temperature. Cell pellet was washed by SACC-basal solution (no

amino acid nor carbon source) and resuspended in the same solution. Cell suspension

was mixed with designed amino acid(s) (final 5 mM amino acid and OD_{600nm} =1 of cells

if not specified) and incubate at 37 °C anaerobic incubator. For Val and Pro pair, 5 mM

Val and 10 mM Pro were used to match stoichiometric requirements[15]. At T=0, 30 min,

60 min, and 180 min, assay aliquots (200 μL) were transferred to pre-chilled Eppendorf

tubes. After centrifugation at ~13,000g for 1 min at 4 °C, supernatant (120 μL) was

transferred to a new tube and stored at -80 °C until LC-MS measurements.

Stable isotope-labeled amino acid and metabolite analysis by LC-MS for stable

isotope amino acid conversion in growth culture and in whole cell suspension (Val, Pro).

Culture supernatants (10 μL) were mixed with internal standards (phenylethylamine

(D5), phenylpropionic acid (D9), phenylalanine (D5), alanine (D4) and isovaleric acid

(D2), 5 mM each, 10 μL) and diluted with LC-MS grade water (30 μL) in 96-well V-

bottom plates (USA scientific cat. # 1833-9600). Then 150 μL of acetonitrile/methanol

(3:1 ratio) was added. The solution was mixed five times by pipetting, then the plate was

centrifuged at 5,000g for 10 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was collected for the following

sample preparations, either derivatization or direct dilution, before subjecting to LC-MS

analysis.

Derivatization for short chain fatty acid was performed as the protocol described

above with slight modification: after derivatization, 2 μL of the reaction mixture were

then quenched in a new 96-well V-bottom plate containing 0.02% formic acid in 10%

acetonitrile/water (98 μL) and subjected to LC-MS analysis.

Direct dilution method: five microliters of supernatant were directly transferred to

a 96-well V-bottom plates and diluted with LC-MS grade water (95 μL) for LC-MS

analysis.

The samples were analyzed using an Agilent 6545XT Q-TOF mass spectrometer

equipped with a dual jet stream electrospray ionization source operating under

extended dynamic range (EDR 1700 m/z). Reverse phase separation was performed on

an Agilent 1290 Infinity II LC system equipped with Waters BEH C18 1.7-μm particle

size columns (2.1 × 100 mm) for all reversed phase (RP) separation.

Derivatized short chain fatty acids (acetate (D2 and D3), propionate (D3 and D5),

isobutyrate (D7), butyrate (D7), 2-methyl-butyrate (D9), isovalerate (D9), isocaproate

(D9 and D10)) were analyzed under negative ionization mode. Eluent A consisted of

0.1% formic acid (v/v) in water and eluent B consisted of 0.1% formic acid (v/v) in 100%

acetonitrile. Samples (2 μL) were injected via refrigerated autosampler into mobile

phase and separation was achieved at 40 °C using dual binary pumps with alternating

column regeneration. The analytical pump applied the following gradient at a flow rate of

0.4 mL min^{-1}: 0−3 min, 15% B, 3−10 min, 15% to 40% B, 10−10.1 min, 40% to 15% B,

10.1 min−11 min, 15% B. The regeneration pump applied the following gradient at a

flow rate of 0.2 mL min^{-1}: 0−7 min, 98% B, 7−8 min, 98% to 15% B, 8−11 min, 15% B.

Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of 300 °C, drying gas

flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of 300 °C and

flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 140 V.

Underivatized arginine (D7), serine (D3), *trans*-4-hydroxyproline (D3 and D6),

proline (D7), 5-aminovalerate (D2 and D6), valine (D8), isoleucine (D10), tyrosine (D4),

leucine (D10), phenylalanine (D8), tryptamine (D5), and tryptophan (D5) were analyzed

under positive ionization mode. Eluent A consisted of 0.2% formic acid (v/v) in water

and eluent B consisted of 0.2% formic acid (v/v) in 100% methanol. Samples (0.5 μL)

were injected via refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and separation at 25 °C

was achieved at a flow rate of 0.2 mL min^{-1} using the following gradient: 0−3 min, 1% B,

3−5 min, 1% to 98% B, 5−7 min, 98% B, 7−7.01 min, 98% to 1% B, 7.01−9.7 min, 1%

B. Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of 300 °C, drying gas

flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of 275 °C and

flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 140 V.

Underivatized aromatic metabolites (4-OH-phenylpropionate (D4), 4-OH-

phenylacetate (D4), indolepropionate (D5), indoleacetate (D5), phenylpropionate (D6),

phenylacetate (D7)) were analyzed under negative ionization mode. Eluent A consisted

of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in water and eluent B consisted of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in

100% acetonitrile. Samples (0.5 μL) were injected via refrigerated autosampler into

mobile phase and separation at 40 °C was achieved at a flow rate of 0.3 mL min^{-1} using

the following gradient: 0−4 min, 10% to 60% B, 4−4.5 min, 60% to 98% B, 4.5−6 min,

98% B, 6−6.01 min, 98% to 10% B, 6.01−9 min, 10% B. Electrospray ionization

parameters included a gas temperature of 300 °C, drying gas flow of 6 L min^{-1},

nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of 275 °C and flow of 11 L min^{-1},

capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 140 V.

MS1 spectra were collected in centroid mode, and peak assignments in samples

were made based on comparisons of retention times and accurate masses from

unlabeled standards. Amino acids and metabolites were quantified by isotope-dilution

mass spectrometry using corresponding ISTD. Selection of internal standards for LC-

MS quantitation are as follows: phenylalanine (D5) as ISTD for arginine (D7), valine

(D8), isoleucine (D10), tyrosine (D4), leucine (D10), phenylalanine (D8), tryptamine

(D5), and tryptophan (D5). Alanine (D4) as ISTD for 5-aminovalerate (D2 and D6),

trans-4-hydroxyproline (D3 and D6), proline (D7), and serine (D3). Phenylethylamine

(D5) as ISTD for tryptamine (D5). Phenylpropionic acid (D9) as ISTD for 4-OH-

phenylpropionate (D4), 4-OH-phenylacetate (D4), indolepropionate (D5), indoleacetate

(D5), phenylpropionate (D6), and phenylacetate (D7). Isovaleric acid (D2) as ISTD for

short chain fatty acids.

Analysis of stable isotope-labeled amino acids and metabolites in whole cells

suspension (Phe, Trp, Tyr). Culture supernatants (10 μL) were prepared using the

above method with slight changes. 1) The concentration of internal standards changed

as follows: phenylethylamine (D5), phenylpropionic acid (D9), phenylalanine (D5),

alanine (D4), 0.2 mM each, and isovaleric acid (D2), 1 mM). 2) Aromatic amino acid

metabolites (4-OH-phenylpropionate (D4), 4-OH-phenylacetate (D4), indolepropionate

(D5), indoleacetate (D5), phenylpropionate (D6), and phenylacetate (D7)) were

derivatized using the same method and analyzed together with short chain fatty acids.

No separate analysis of underivatized metabolites under negative ionization mode was

performed. Eluent A consisted of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in water and eluent B consisted

of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in 100% acetonitrile. Samples (1 μL) were injected via

refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and separation was achieved with Waters

BEH C18 1.7-μm particle size C18 columns (2.1 × 100 mm) at 40 °C using dual binary

pumps with alternating column regeneration. The analytical pump applied the following

gradient at a flow rate of 0.4 mL min^{-1}: 0−4 min, 3% to 50% B, 4−4.1 min, 50% to 3% B,

4.1−5 min, 3% B. The regeneration pump applied the following gradient at a flow rate of

0.4 mL min^{-1}: 0−0.1 min, 3% to 98% B, 0.1−2 min, 98% B, 2−2.2 min, 98% to 3% B,

2.2−5 min, 3% B. Electrospray ionization parameters included a gas temperature of 250

°C, drying gas flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of

250 °C and flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 70

V.

Selection of internal standards for LC-MS quantitation was as follows:

phenylalanine (D5) as ISTD for arginine (D7), valine (D8), isoleucine (D10), tyrosine

(D4), leucine (D10), methionine (D8), phenylalanine (D8), tryptamine (D5), and

tryptophan (D5). Alanine (D4) as ISTD for 5-aminovalerate (D2 and D6), *trans*-4-

hydroxyproline (D3 and D6), proline (D7), and serine (D3). Phenylethylamine (D5) as

ISTD for tryptamine (D5). Phenylpropionic acid (D9) as ISTD for 4-OH-phenylpropionate

(D4), 4-OH-phenylacetate (D4), indolepropionate (D5), indoleacetate (D5),

phenylpropionate (D6), and phenylacetate (D7). Isovaleric acid (D2) as ISTD for short

chain fatty acids.

ATP measurements in whole cells and detection of metabolites

(corresponding to Fig. 3d, Extended data Fig. 6 and 7). Wild type *C. sporogenes*

cells were streaked from an anaerobic glycerol stock onto a TYG (3% w/v tryptone, 2%

w/v yeast extract, 0.1% w/v sodium thioglycolate) agar plate and incubated at 37 °C in

an anaerobic chamber from Coy Laboratories under an atmosphere of 5% H_2, 10% CO_2

and 85% N_2. After ~24 h, a well isolated colony was inoculated into 5 mL of TYG broth

and cultured to stationary phase (~24 h). Cells were diluted into 20 mL of TYG broth

(1000-fold dilution) and grown to late-log phase of growth (~16 h). The cells were then

harvested by centrifugation (5,000*g*, 10 min, 4 °C) and washed twice with 20 mL

volumes of pre-reduced phosphate assay buffer (40 mM potassium phosphate, 10 mM

magnesium sulfate, pH 7.0). All centrifugation steps were performed outside of the

anaerobic chamber, and so to ensure anaerobiosis, 50 mL falcon tubes were tightly

capped and care was taken to limit the total amount of time outside of the chamber.

After the final wash step, the cell pellet was re-suspended in 1 ml of phosphate assay

buffer and incubated at room temperature for 45 min to achieve a resting cell

suspension. During this time, 100 μL of cells were seeded into rows of a 96-well

microtiter plate (12 wells per condition being tested). Two hundred microliters of pre-

reduced 2 mM substrate in phosphate assay buffer, or buffer alone was dispensed into

rows of a separate 96-well microplate. At time zero, 100 μL of substrate or buffer was

added to the cells and mixed gently by pipetting. At - 5 min, - 1 min, +30 s, +1 min, +2

min, +5 min, +10 min, +20 min, +30 min, +45 min, +60 min, and +90 min, 10 μL of cells

were taken and immediately mixed with 90 μL of DMSO to quench the reaction and

liberate cellular ATP. The -5 and -1 minute time-points were taken prior to addition of

buffer or substrate, so only 5 μL of cell suspension was harvested, and 5 μL of either

buffer or substrate was added to the cell-DMSO mixtures to bring the total volume to

100 μL. At the end of the assay, a 50 μL aliquot of cell suspension was taken for

subsequent total protein determination. The ATP content from 10 μL aliquots of lysed

cells was then detected using a luminescence-based ATP determination kit from Life

Technologies and ATP levels were calculated by extrapolation from a calibration curve

constructed with known concentrations of ATP. For protein determination, cellular

protein was solubilized in NaOH by combining equal volumes of cells and 0.4 M NaOH

(50 μL, each) and incubating at 99 °C for 10 minutes. The protein content was then

determined using the DC Protein Assay Kit II from BioRad using bovine serum albumin

as a standard. ATP levels were expressed as nmol of ATP per mg of total protein.

To test the effect of 3,3',4',5-tetrachlorosalicylanilide (TCS) on ATP formation,

washed cells first were rested at room temperature anaerobically for 30 min. Then TCS

(diluted from a 100 X stock in ethanol to achieve the desired concentration) was added

and cells were incubated at room temperature for an additional 30 min. Assays were

then performed as described above, and ten microliters of DMSO quenched samples

were used immediately for ATP measurement, with the remaining 90 μL being stored at

-80 °C until LC-MS measurements.

Before LC-MS measurement, DMSO quenched samples (90 μL) were thawed at

room temperature and then centrifuged at 5,000g for 15 min at room temperature.

For quantitation of phenylalanine, phenylethylamine, phenyllactate,

phenylpyruvate, trans-cinnamate, PPA, PPG, and PAA, supernatant (60 μL) was mixed

with internal standard solution (PPA (D9), phenylalanine (D5), phenylethylamine (D5),

PAA (D5), 100 μM each, 6 μL). Twenty-five microliters of the above mixture were diluted

with 75 μL LC-MS grade water. Eluent A consisted of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in water and

eluent B consisted of 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in 100% acetonitrile. Samples (1 μL) were

injected via refrigerated autosampler into mobile phase and separation with a BEH C18

1.7-μm particle size C18 column (2.1 × 100 mm) at 40 °C was achieved at a flow rate of

0.4 mL min^{-1} with the following gradient: 0−1 min, 3% B, 1−4 min, 3% to 60% B, 4−4.1

min, 60% to 99.9% B, 4.1−7 min, 99.9% B, 7−7.1 min, 99.9% to 3% B, 7.1−9 min, 3% B.

Two-time segments were applied for mass spectra acquisition. Segment 1 from 0.5 to

2.65 min was set under positive ionization mode for analysis of phenylalanine and

phenylethylamine. Segment 2 from 2.65 to 5 min was set under negative ionization

mode for analysis of other metabolites. Electrospray ionization parameters included a

gas temperature of 250 °C, drying gas flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi,

sheath gas temperature of 250 °C and flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V,

and fragmentor voltage of 70 V.

For quantitation of proline and 5-aminovalerate, supernatant (60 μL) was mixed

with internal standard (phenylalanine (D5), 100 μM, 6 μL). Twenty-five microliters were

diluted with 50% acetonitrile containing 0.1% acetic acid (75 μL) for quantitation of

proline and 5-aminovalerate. The analytes were measured with hydrophilic interaction

liquid chromatography (HILIC) using a Waters BEH amide 1.7-μm particle size column

(2.1 × 100 mm). Eluent A consisted of 5 mM ammonium acetate, 0.1% acetic acid (v/v)

in water, and eluent B consisted of 5 mM ammonium acetate, 0.1% acetic acid (v/v) in

90% acetonitrile. Samples (2 μL) were injected via refrigerated autosampler into mobile

phase and HILIC separation at 50 °C was achieved at a flow rate of 0.4 mL min^{-1} with

the following gradient: 0−1 min, 80% B, 1−2.5 min, 80% to 40% B, 2.5−3.5 min, 40% B,

3.5−4 min, 40% to 80% B, 4−7 min, 80% B. Mass spectra were acquired under negative

ionization mode with the following parameters: gas temperature of 250 °C, drying gas

flow of 6 L min^{-1}, nebulizer pressure of 30 psi, sheath gas temperature of 250 °C and

flow of 11 L min^{-1}, capillary voltage of 4000 V, and fragmentor voltage of 70 V.

MS1 spectra were collected in centroid mode, and peak assignments in samples

were made based on comparisons of retention times and accurate masses from

standards. Amino acids and metabolites were quantified by isotope-dilution mass

spectrometry using corresponding ISTD. Selection of internal standards for LC-MS

quantitation are as follows: phenylalanine (D5) as ISTD for arginine (D7), valine (D8),

isoleucine (D10), tyrosine (D4), leucine (D10), phenylalanine (D8), tryptamine (D5), and

tryptophan (D5).

Colonization of gnotobiotic mice with wild-type or rnfB mutant C.

sporogenes and analysis of indolepropionate in cecal contents and serum

(corresponding to Fig. 4e). Mouse experiments were performed on gnotobiotic Swiss

Webster germ-free mice (male, 6–10 weeks of age, n = 5 per group) originally obtained

from Taconic Biosciences maintained in aseptic isolators. Animal experiments were

performed following a protocol approved by the Stanford University Administrative Panel

on Laboratory Animal Care. Separate groups of mice were colonized with wild-type or

rnfB mutant *C. sporogenes* by oral gavage (200 μL, ~1 × 10^7 CFU) and housed in

separate flexible film isolators. After 2 weeks, mice were euthanized and blood was

collected by cardiac puncture, placed in serum separator tubes (BD cat. # 365967),

mixed briefly, incubated at room temperature for ~30 min, then serum was obtained by

centrifuging tubes at 10,000g for 10 min at room temperature. Cecal contents were also

collected and along with serum aliquots were stored at -80 °C until analysis.

Indolepropionate was then quantified by LC-MS as described in the section above for

metabolite analysis in body fluids of gnotobiotic mice.

Competition experiments for wild-type and rnfB mutant C. sporogenes in

gnotobiotic mice. Mouse experiments were performed on gnotobiotic Swiss Webster

germ-free mice (male, 6–10 weeks of age, n = 5 per group) originally obtained from

Taconic Biosciences maintained in aseptic isolators. Animal experiments were

performed following a protocol approved by the Stanford University Administrative Panel

on Laboratory Animal Care. For the mono-colonization experiments, mice were

colonized with a 1:1 mixture of wild-type and *rnfB* mutant *C. sporogenes* by oral gavage

(200 μL, ~1 × 10^7 CFU) and were maintained on standard chow (LabDiet 5k67). For the

defined community, mice were first colonized with a mixture consisting of equal volumes

from cultures of *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (~16 h overnight culture), *Bacteroides*

vulgatus (~ 16 h overnight culture), *Edwardsiella tarda* (~ 16 h overnight culture),

Eubacterium rectale (~24 h overnight culture), *Clostridium scindens* (~30 h culture), and

Bifidobacterium breve (~24 h overnight culture). After one week, mice were colonized

with a 1:1 mixture of wild--type or *rnfB* mutant *C. sporogenes* (200 μL, ~1 × 10^7 CFU)

and were maintained on standard chow (LabDiet 5k67). Fresh fecal pellets were

collected and stored at -80 °C until DNA extraction was performed.

DNA isolation and Q-PCR. Relative abundances of the wild-type and *rnfB C.*

sporogenes strains over time following colonization was determined by Q-PCR

(*corresponding to **Fig. 4f,g***). Approximately 10-20 mg of feces was added to individual

tubes of a DNeasy PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (formerly MO BIO) and DNA was

extracted using a Retsch MM400 ball mill according to manufacturer's guidelines. DNA

quantitation was performed with an Invitrogen Quant-iT broad range dsDNA assay kit.

Two primer sets were used, one designed to amplify total *C. sporogenes*, and another

specifically targeted to the erythromycin resistance cassette of the *rnfB* mutant

(**Supplementary Table 8**). To amplify genomic DNA (gDNA), we used the Brilliant III

SYBR kit from Agilent Technologies. Conditions were as follows: 96-well Q-PCR plates,

20 μL reactions, primers at 500 nM each, reference dye included, 5 ng DNA per

reaction. Amplification was performed in duplicate using a Stratagene Mx3000P with

PCR conditions supplied in the Brilliant III SYBR kit. Initial validation plots were

performed using eight serial 4-fold dilutions of gDNA from either WT or *rnfB* mutant *C.*

sporogenes spanning 50 ng to 3 pg per reaction. The cycle threshold vs. log(input DNA)

was plotted and a linear curve fit was applied. Both primers displayed excellent linearity

across this range of DNA concentrations ($R^2 > 0.98$). For fecal DNA samples, the cycle

number at the threshold crossing point was used to calculate the amount of total *C.*

sporogenes DNA or *rnfB* mutant DNA using the standard curves. The competitive index

was calculated according to equation 1 below:

$$\text{eq (1)} \quad CI = \frac{(rnfB\ DNA)}{(Total\ DNA - rnfB\ DNA)}$$

Relative compositions of community members (*corresponding to **Extended data**

Fig. 10) were measured by Q-PCR using PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo

Fisher, A25742), 400 nM primers, 5~15 ng DNA per reaction in 384-well Q-PCR plates

(Applied Biosystems™ Cat. # 4483285) with total 12 μL reaction. Amplification was

performed in triplicate using QuantStudio™ 5 according to SYBR Green user manual

following by melting curve. Primer validation were performed using six serial 10-fold

dilutions of gDNA from each strain, spanning 24 ng to 0.24 pg per reaction. Primer

amplification efficiency were between 92~100%. For fecal DNA samples, the amount of

each strains was calculated using the standard curves. The relative composition was

calculated according to equation 2 below:

eq (2) $\;Relative\;composition\;of\;Strain\;1\;(\%) = \frac{(Strain\;1\;DNA)}{(Total\;DNA)} * 100\%$

Bioinformatics analysis (corresponding to Extended data Fig. 11, 12 and

Supplementary Table 6).

Analysis of Rnf clusters in reference genomes from the human microbiome project.

Reference genomes (GenBank file format) from the NIH Human Microbiome Project

(BioProject ID 43021) were downloaded on June 19th, 2019 which included 2,284

genome sequences. We then used the software tool MultiGeneBlast[30] to search these

reference genomes for homologs of the *C. sporogenes* Rnf gene cluster (*rnfCDGEAB*,

CLOSPO_00568 to CLOSPO_00573) with default settings. The results were manually

curated to identify organisms harboring complete gene clusters. Coding sequences for

the 16S rRNA genes were retrieved for these organisms from the Joint Genome

Institute Integrated Microbial Genomes server. Sequences were uploaded into

Geneious Prime (v2019.1.3) and were aligned using MUSCLE with default settings.

Alignments were trimmed to remove incomplete sequences (<500 bp) and gaps, then

were re-aligned and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbor joining

method. Representative gene clusters were exported from MultiGeneBlast and

visualized in Adobe Illustrator (v25.1).

Analysis of electron transfer proteins in GenBank. To identify homologs of the

electron transfer proteins analyzed in this study, we performed BLASTp searches of the

GenBank database. Query sequences included the butyryl-CoA dehydrogenase (Bcd)

from *C. kluyveri* DSM 555 (GenBank acc. # EDK32509.1), the (aryl)acryloyl-CoA

dehydrogenase (AcdA) from *C. sporogenes* ATCC 15579 (GenBank acc. #

EDU39257.1), the isocaprenoyl-CoA dehydrogenase (AcdB) from *C. sporogenes* ATCC

15579 (GenBank acc. # EDU36591.1), the proline reductase subunit A (PrdA) from *C.*

sticklandii DSM 519 (GenBank acc. # CBH22353.1), and the RnfB protein from *C.*

sporogenes ATCC 15579 (GenBank acc. # EDU37753.1). Our initial analysis of gene

cluster neighborhoods for these homologs using MultiGeneBlast suggested a cutoff of

65% amino acid identify was necessary to identify likely isofunctional homologs for Bcd,

AcdA, AcdB, and PrdA, whereas a less stringent cutoff of 50% amino acid identity was

suitable for RnfB. These query sequences were used in BLASTp searches of the

GenBank database (December 30th, 2020) and homologs with less than 80% coverage

over the length of the proteins were discarded.

Analysis of abundance and prevalence of electron transfer proteins in metagenomics

datasets. To assess the abundance and prevalence of electron transfer proteins (Bcd,

AcdA, AcdB, PrdA, and RnfB) in human fecal metagenomic datasets, we employed the

web-based tool, MetaQuery[31]. Query sequences included the butyryl-CoA

dehydrogenase (Bcd) from *C. kluyveri* DSM 555 (GenBank acc. # EDK32509.1), the

(aryl)acryloyl-CoA dehydrogenase (AcdA) from *C. sporogenes* ATCC 15579 (GenBank

acc. # EDU39257.1), the isocaprenoyl-CoA dehydrogenase (AcdB) from *C. sporogenes*

ATCC 15579 (GenBank acc. # EDU36591.1), the proline reductase subunit A (PrdA)

from *C. sticklandii* DSM 519 (GenBank acc. # CBH22353.1), and the RnfB protein from

C. sporogenes ATCC 15579 (GenBank acc. # EDU37753.1). Owing to limitations in

threshold selections implemented in MetaQuery, we used a slightly lower threshold for

amino acid percent identity of 60% for Bcd, AcdA, AcdB, and PrdA to identify homologs

in metagenomics datasets.

Data availability. The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study

are available within the paper and its Supplementary Information.

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Figure 1. Microbial metabolism within the gut yields metabolites that circulate within the host. A) Fecal and plasma levels of metabolites in germ-free and *C. sporogenes* colonized mice. Data represent means of n = 5 mice. B) Experimental design for detecting metabolites in circulation of gnotobiotic mice before and after antibiotic treatment. C) Quantitation of phenylpropionate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate, indolepropionate, and 5-aminovalerate in plasma of gnotobiotic mice. Abx, antibiotics. D) Quantitation of phenylpropionate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate, indolepropionate, and 5-aminovalerate in plasma of healthy human blood donors (n = 99). Numbers above plots indicate the total number of individuals with detectable metabolite levels. Red dots indicate concentrations within the accurate measurable range of the assay, and gray dots are detected but below the lower limit of quantitation. Concentrations of metabolites detected in mice (A and C) are provided in **Supplementary Tables 1-4** and in humans (D) are provided in **Supplementary Table 5**.

Figure 2. Circulating metabolites are formed from reductive pathways for Stickland metabolism. A) Overview of the Stickland Reaction. Amino acids are metabolized as pairs, with one being oxidized while the other is reduced. The oxidative pathway forms ATP via substrate level phosphorylation and the reductive pathway serves redox balance. B) Stable isotope tracing. *C. sporogenes* was cultured in a synthetic medium containing 20 amino acids where Phe, Tyr, Trp, and Pro were individually substituted by their deuterium isotopologues. Cell-free supernatants (n = 3 per group) were collected at t = 0, 6, 24 h and metabolites were detected by LC-MS. C) End products of Pro, Phe, Tyr, Trp are reductive Stickland metabolites. D) Stable isotope tracing of *C. sporogenes* cell suspensions incubated with oxidative (Val) and reductive (Pro, Phe, Trp) amino acid pairs. 5-AVA, 5-aminovalerate; PPA, phenylpropionate; PAA, phenylacetate; 4-OH-PPA, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate; 4-OH-PAA, 4-hydroxyphenylacetate; IPA, indolepropionate; IAA, indoleacetate; *iso*BA, isobutyrate.

Figure 3. Reductive metabolism is coupled to ATP formation. A) Pathways for
reductive Stickland metabolism catalyze net 2 electron reductions and each converges
on an electron transfer protein. B) Gene clusters for reductive metabolism of Phe, Tyr,
Trp, and Leu share homologs of the electron bifurcating butyryl-CoA dehydrogenase
complex (Bcd) which produces reduced ferredoxin. C) The proline metabolism gene
cluster encodes components of the proline reductase enzymes which is implicated in
proline-dependent extracellular proton transport. D) Reductive metabolism of Phe, Tyr,
Trp, Leu, and Pro are coupled to ATP formation in *C. sporogenes* resting cell
suspensions. For Phe, Tyr, and Trp, intermediates in the reductive pathways (e.g.,
phenyllactate, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)lactate, and indolelactate) were used. For D,
experiments were repeated independently three times and representative data are
shown.

Figure 4. The Rnf complex is important for amino acid metabolism and is a key fitness determinant in vivo. A) The *C. sporogenes* Rnf complex gene cluster. B) Model for the membrane bound Rnf complex which generates a proton or sodium motive force by shuttling electrons from reduced ferredoxin to NAD^+. C) The *rnfB* and *rnfE* mutants suffer a growth defect in amino acid medium that can be restored by addition of glucose. D) The *rnfB* mutant produces less indolepropionate during growth in defined medium with 10 amino acids. E) Mice mono-colonized with the *rnfB* mutant accumulate less indolepropionate in feces and in plasma. F) The *rnfB* mutant exhibits an *in vivo* competition defect in gnotobiotic mice in the context of mono-colonization and G) a more complex defined microbial community. H) Revised model for Stickland metabolism and its contribution to gut bacterial derived metabolites. For C-D, experiments were repeated independently three times and representative data are shown. For E-G, Box and whisker plots show median values, 25th–75th percentiles and range for $n = 5$ biological replicates. IPA, indolepropionate.