Bacterial deamination of residual levodopa medication for Parkinson's disease elicits

inhibitory effect on gut motility

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Abstract

Parkinson's disease is associated with gastrointestinal tract dysfunction, where constipation is reported as the most common gastrointestinal symptom. Aromatic bacterial metabolites are attracting considerable attention due to their implication on gut homeostasis and host's physiology. *Clostridium sporogenes* is a key contributor to the production of these bioactive metabolites in the human gut. Here, we show that *C. sporogenes* effectively deaminate non-proteinogenic aromatic amino acids, such as levodopa, the main treatment in Parkinson's disease, and identify the aromatic aminotransferase responsible for the deamination. The deaminated metabolite from levodopa, 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl) propionic acid, is detected in fecal samples of Parkinson's disease patients on levodopa medication, elicits an inhibitory effect on gut motility. Overall, this study underpins the importance of the metabolic pathways of the gut microbiome involved in drug metabolism not only to preserve drug effectiveness, but also to avoid potential side effects of bacterial breakdown products of the unabsorbed residue of medication.

Introduction

Gut bacteria produce a wide range of small bioactive molecules from different chemical classes, including aromatic amino acids (Donia and Fischbach, 2015). Bacterial products from aromatic amino acid degradation have been shown to play a critical role in intestinal barrier function, immune modulation and gut motility (Bansal et al., 2010; Bhattarai et al., 2018; Schiering et al., 2017; Venkatesh et al., 2014; Yano et al., 2015). In the lower part of the gastrointestinal tract, where oxygen is limited, aromatic amino acid degradation by anaerobic bacteria involves reductive or oxidative deamination (Barker, 1981) resulting in production of aromatic metabolites (Dodd et al., 2017; Elsden et al., 1976; Nierop Groot and De Bont, 1998; Yvon et al., 1997). Among these metabolites is 3-indolepropionic acid (IPA), which is produced from tryptophan deamination by *Clostridium sporogenes* (Hoogerheide and Kocholaty, 1938), via tryptophan transaminase (O'Neil and DeMoss, 1968) and indolelactate dehydrogenase (Jean and DeMoss, 1968). We hypothesized that the non-proteinogenic amino acid and the main treatment of Parkinson's disease (PD), levodopa, could also be deaminated by the gut bacterium *C. sporogenes.* More recently, the enzymes involved in the deamination pathway of the aromatic amino acids tryptophan, phenylalanine and tyrosine were described (Dickert et al., 2000, 2002; Dodd et al., 2017). However, the enzyme involved in the initial transamination step remains unknown.

Recently, small intestinal microbiota have been implicated in the interference with levodopa drug availability (van Kessel et al., 2019; Maini Rekdal et al., 2019). Early *in vivo* studies showed that ~90% of levodopa is transported to the circulatory system (Bianchine et al., 1972; Morgan, 1971; Sasahara et al., 1981), leaving a ~10% non-absorbed fraction of residual levodopa that can act as substrate for other bacterial species associated with the lower, more anaerobic regions of the GI-tract (Goldin et al., 1973). Such bacterial-residual drug interaction might act as bioactive metabolites with an impact on gut homeostasis.

PD is often associated with non-motor symptoms especially of the gastrointestinal (GI) tract. GI-tract dysfunction such as constipation, drooling and swallowing disorders occur frequently in PD patients, especially constipation, which is reported in 80-90% of the PD patients (Fasano et al., 2015). Importantly, chronic idiopathic constipation is associated with small intestinal (SI) motor abnormalities

in the esophagus, stomach, jejunum and ileum (Panagamuwa et al., 1994; Van Der Sijp et al., 1993) and

patients with constipation have a longer SI transit time compared to controls (Van Der Sijp et al., 1993).

Only recently, SI dysfunction in PD was studied observing that the transit time in the SI was significantly

longer in PD patients compared to healthy controls (Dutkiewicz et al., 2015; Knudsen et al., 2017).

Using wireless electromagnetic capsules, the median small intestinal transit time observed was

significantly increased between PD patients (400 min; n=22) and healthy controls (295 min, n=15)

(Knudsen et al., 2017).

This study unravels the aminotransferase responsible for initiating the deamination pathway involved in

the transamination of (among others) levodopa and shows that *C. sporogenes* can effectively deaminate

levodopa to 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl) propionic acid through the same pathway as the other aromatic

amino acids. We show that the deamination product of gut bacterial degradation of the unabsorbed

residues of levodopa in fecal samples from PD patients impacts intestinal motility *ex-vivo*, highlighting

the urgency for further research on the effects of bacterial conversion of the unabsorbed residues of

medication, which might affect the host physiology.

Results

***Clostridium sporogenes* deaminates levodopa**

C. sporogenes is able to deaminate proteinogenic aromatic amino acids (PAAA) through an anaerobic

deamination pathway. We hypothesized that levodopa, a non-proteinogenic amino acid (NPAAA) and

the main treatment in PD might be deaminated through the same pathway. To this end, cultures were

incubated with 100 μMμM levodopa or 5-hydroxytryptophan (another NPAAA and precursor of

serotonin) in combination with PAAAs from the growth medium and followed over time. Analysis of

the samples using High Pressure Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) coupled to an electrochemical

detector (ED) revealed that levodopa is completely converted to a new metabolite, which was identified

by ^{1}H-NMR and LC-MS as 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl) propionic acid, DHPPA (**Figure 1a,**

Supplementary 1a, b). Similarly, 5-HTP was converted into two new unknown peaks (**Figure 1a**),

albeit to a much lesser extent compared to levodopa. Only the first peak could be detected and assigned

by LC-MS as 5-hydroxyindole-3-lactic acid (5HILA) by its predicted exact mass (**Supplementary**

Figure 1c). To further investigate the involvement of the deaminase pathway in levodopa and 5-HTP

deamination, the enzyme responsible for the dehydratase reaction (encoded by the *fldC* gene) was

disrupted using the ClosTron mutagenesis system (**Supplementary Figure 2a**) (Heap et al., 2010). The

resulting strain *C. sporogenes Ll.LtrB-ery^{R}Ω fldC* (CS$^{Ω fldC}$) was incubated with levodopa, revealing that

levodopa was no longer deaminated to DHPPA but to its intermediate product 3-(3,4-

dihydroxyphenyl)lactic acid (DHPLA) (**Figure 1b**). Tryptophan and tyrosine are converted to their

intermediates ILA (indole-3-lactic acid) and 4HPLA (3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)lactic acid), respectively.

Only a slight production of 4HPPA (from tyrosine) is observed after 48 h, potentially because of the

substitution of FldABC by the similar HadABC proteins from the *had*-operon in *C. sporogenes* (Dickert

et al., 2002; Dodd et al., 2017). HPLC-ED analysis of the 5HILA production from 5-HTP by the *fldC*

mutant was hampered by the production of coeluting 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl) lactic acid (4HPLA), a

metabolic intermediate deamination product produced from tyrosine. However, the analysis revealed

that the second unknown peak produced from 5-HTP was no longer produced by CS$^{Ω fldC}$ (**Figure 1b**),

demonstrating that 5-HTP conversion is affected and suggesting that the unknown product is 5-

hydroxyindole-3-propionic acid (5HIPA). Overall, these results show that the deamination pathway

from *C. sporogenes* is not only involved in the deamination of PAAAs but also is important in the

deamination of NPAAAs like 5HTP and levodopa.

Identification of the aromatic aminotransferase responsible for initiation of the deamination

pathway

The aromatic aminotransferase responsible for the transamination of levodopa and the other (N)PAAAs,

is crucial for the initiation of the reductive deamination pathway. However, the gene encoding this

transaminase remains unidentified. To further investigate this critical step in the pathway, all nine class

I/II aminotransferases present encoded by *C. sporogenes* were cloned, purified and screened for their

activity on levodopa and the other (N)PAAAs, revealing a single aminotransferase (EDU38870 encoded

by CLOSPO_01732) to be involved in their transamination (**Figure 2a**). To verify whether other

aminotransferases could substitute for the identified aminotransferase *in vivo*, CLOSPO_01732 was

disrupted (resulting in $CS^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$ (**Supplementary Figure 2a**)) and a targeted metabolomic

analysis of all the (N)PAAA metabolites was performed using HPLC-ED (except metabolites from

phenylalanine, which were quantified using HPLC-UV). Comparing the metabolic profiles from wild

type *C. sporogenes* (CS^{WT}), $CS^{\Omega fldC}$ and $CS^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$ demonstrated that none of the other tested

aminotransferases could take over this transaminase reaction effectively, except for the substrate

phenylalanine (**Figure 2b and Supplementary Table 1**). Disrupting CLOSPO_01732 reduced the

production of phenyl-3-propionic acid (PPA), 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionic acid (4HPPA), IPA, and

DHPPA by 16.4%, 79.0%, 97.2%, 97.7% respectively compared to CS^{WT} within 24 h. Presumably, the

transamination of phenylalanine is substituted by EDU37030 as this aminotransferase also showed

significant phenylalanine-converting activity *in vitro* (**Figure 2a**). Interestingly, $CS^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$

produces significantly higher amounts of tryptamine (4 to 6-fold increase at 24 and 48 h, respectively)

compared to CS^{WT} ($p \leq 0.0001$), reflecting a reduced competition for the same substrate by different

enzymes. Analogous to tryptamine, $CS^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$ produced significantly more serotonin compared to

CS^{WT} at 48 h ($p < 0.0001$) when incubated with 5-HTP (**Figure 2b**, **Supplementary Figure 2c,**

Supplementary Table 1), though to a much lesser extent compared to tryptamine. Notably, disrupting

fldC or *CLOSPO_01732* resulted in only a minor reduction of the exponential growth rate in rich

medium (T_D=55.1±1.2 min and 64.1±1.1 min respectively compared to wild type 44.3±1.2 min)

(**Supplementary Figure 2b**), which does not affect the observed production of the measured

metabolites after 24 or 48 h.

DHPPA elicits an inhibitory effect on the acetylcholine-induced ileal muscle contractions

Because levodopa, compared to 5-HTP, is efficiently deaminated to DHPPA within 24 h by *C.*

sporogenes, we further focused on the deamination product of this drug. DHPPA is a phenolic acid (a

molecule in the class polyphenols) and recent findings demonstrated an association between bacterial-

derived polyphenol metabolites and gut-transit times in humans (Roager et al., 2016). In order to test

whether DHPPA could also affect the gut motility, we suspended ileal rings of wild type C57BL/6 mice

in an *ex-vivo* organ bath system. Our initial results indicated that DHPPA displayed an inhibiting effect

on ileum contractility, therefore we tested whether DHPPA might have an inhibiting effect on

acetylcholine induced contractility in the ileum. Acetylcholine, produced from the excitatory circular muscle motor neurons, is the neurotransmitter directly acting on gut smooth muscle contractility (Costa et al., 2000). After 5 min, induction of an acetylcholinergic twitch by adding 50 µM of acetylcholine, DHPPA (100 µM) specifically inhibited the amplitude (measured as the standard deviation of the mean), but not the frequency of the acetylcholinergic twitch after 15 min (**Figure 3a,b**). When incubation times were binned in intervals of 5 min a significant decrease (up to 60% reduction) in the acetylcholinergic twitch by DHPPA was observed at the 10-15- and 15-20-min interval (**Figure 3c**), showing that DHPPA can inhibit the acetylcholinergic twitch of mouse ileum *ex vivo*.

Higher DHPPA concentrations in fecal samples from PD patients compared to healthy controls

Although levodopa is mainly absorbed in the proximal small intestine, a significant amount reaches the distal part of the intestinal tract (Morgan, 1971), and these levels increase with age (Iwamoto et al., 1987). Thus, we hypothesized that PD patients have considerable amounts of DHPPA in their distal GI-tract if *C. sporogenes* or other bacteria with such a pathway (*Peptostreptococcus anaerobius* or *Clostridium cadaveris* (Dodd et al., 2017)) are present. To this end, we performed a catechol extraction targeted for the quantification of DHPPA on 10 PD patients and 10 age-matched healthy controls (HC). DHPPA concentrations were significantly higher in PD patient's fecal samples compared to HC (**Figure 4**) and results were confirmed by LC-MS (**Supplementary Table 2**). Overall the significantly higher levels of DHPPA detected in the fecal samples of PD patients compared to HC indicate active bacterial metabolism of residual levodopa.

Active levodopa deamination pathway in fecal-suspensions

The higher amounts of DHPPA observed in the fecal samples of PD patients are highly likely to result from levodopa metabolized by the anaerobic bacteria deaminating levodopa through FldBC. In order to test this hypothesis, 10% (w/v) fecal-suspensions from PD and HC were incubated anaerobically with DHPLA, the product of levodopa before dehydration by bacterial FldBC proteins (**Figure 1**). Samples were collected at 0, 20, and 45 h and were analyzed by HPLC-ED. After 20 h, DHPPA was clearly detected in samples from PD7 and HC13 (**Figure 5a**), and was further converted to the downstream

dehydroxylated metabolite of DHPPA, 3-(3-hydroxyphenyl) propionic acid (3HPPA) over time (**Figure 5a**). For other samples, DHPPA detection was hampered by interference of other unknown peaks present in the sample. Therefore the same samples were re-injected using a lower voltage on the ED (0.8 V) making the detection more selective for more readily oxidizable compounds (Nagatsu and Kojima, 1988) such as DHPPA, but making 3HPPA invisible for detection. Using the lower voltage resulted in the detection of DHPPA in 35% of all samples (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Because DHPPA is further converted to 3HPPA *in vitro* (**Supplementary Figure 3**), we quantified the production of 3HPPA in the fecal incubations as measure for deamination. In 60% and 40% of PD and HC respectively, 3HPPA production was observed within 45 h (**Figure 5b, Supplementary Figure 3**).

Eggerthella lenta has been shown to be able to perform *p*-dehydroxylation of the catecholic B-ring from (+)-catechin and (-)-epicatechin (Jin and Hattori, 2012), a moiety resembling DHPPA. To test whether *E. lenta* could produce 3HPPA from the dihydroxylation of DHPPA, *E. lenta* DSM 2243 was grown at various concentrations of arginine, which was previously shown to improve growth densities (Haiser et al., 2013). At low arginine concentrations, *E. lenta* DSM2243 was capable of dehydroxylation of DHPPA to 3HPPA, which was inhibited at higher arginine concentrations (**Figure 5c**).

Taken together, the results show that DHPPA can be produced by the microbiota via anaerobic deamination of levodopa. Moreover, our findings indicate that 3HPPA originates from DHPPA via dehydroxylation potentially by *Eggerthella lenta* and that the aromatic deamination pathway, as measured by the production of 3HPPA, is active in at least 50% of the PD and HC samples.

Discussion and Conclusion

Identifying bacterial pathways and elucidating their potential impact on bacterial drug metabolism is crucial in order, not only, to maximize medication efficacy, but also to recognize and eventually prevent potential side effects that might affect the host's physiology on an individual basis (Haiser et al., 2013; van Kessel et al., 2019; Niehues and Hensel, 2009; Zimmermann et al., 2019). Here we disclosed the reductive anaerobic deamination pathway in *C. sporogenes* by identifying its initiating enzyme, the aromatic aminotransferase, and expanded the pathway's relevance by demonstrating its capacity to

convert two clinically important NPAAAs, levodopa and 5-HTP. We showed that *C. sporogenes* is able

to completely deaminate levodopa to DHPPA and to a much lesser extent 5-HTP (**Figures 1, 2**).

Disrupting the bacterial transaminase encoding gene abolished the production of deaminated products,

and increased the production of neuromodulators such as tryptamine and, to much lesser extent,

serotonin (**Figure 2, Supplementary Figure 2c and Supplementary Table 1**). Tryptamine is a natural

product produced by *C. sporogenes* that has been proposed to modulate gut transit time (Williams et al.,

2014). The application of engineered gut bacteria as a therapeutic strategy to modulate GI-motility or

host physiology has been also proposed recently in two proof-of-concept studies; by heterologous

expression of *Ruminococcus gnavus* tryptophan decarboxylase in *Bacteroides thetaiotamicron*

(Bhattarai et al., 2018) and by modification of the metabolic output of bioactive compounds in an

engineered *fldC* deficient *C. sporogenes* strain (Dodd et al., 2017). However, translation of these studies

into applications is hindered by restrictions on the application of genetically engineered microorganisms

(GMOs) *per se*, and the complexity of introducing these GMOs into an existing gut microbiota

ecosystem. Selective therapeutic blockage of the aminotransferase identified in this study may provide

an attractive alternative solution to modify gut microbiota metabolism.

PD patients encounter increased gut transit time; thus, an additional inhibition of acetylcholine-induced

contraction could result in further slowing down of gut transit rates. The inhibitory effect of DHPPA on

the acetylcholine-induced ileal muscle contractions (**Figure 3**), higher DHPPA levels in fecal samples

of PD patients compared to HC (**Figure 4**), and an active deamination pathway of levodopa during fecal-

incubations of PD patients (**Figure 5**) demonstrate active deamination of levodopa in the distal GI-tract

of PD patients and suggest potential side effects of this bacterial by-product of the unabsorbed residue

of the medication. DHPPA shares similarity with dopamine structure except of the terminal amine group,

which is substituted by a carboxyl group in DHPPA. Dopamine, and dopamine agonists, have been

shown to inhibit methacholine (analog of acetylcholine) induced contraction, which is not mediated via

dopamine receptors, in guinea pig jejunum in similar concentration ranges to DHPPA (EC_{50} relaxation

by dopamine ~290 µM) (Lucchelli et al., 1990), indicating that DHPPA might act on a similar receptor.

Although further research is needed to unravel the underlying mechanism, these results indicate that

DHPPA inhibits the acetylcholine-induced muscle contractions in the ileum with implications on

intestinal motility, often observed in PD patients. Overall, the present study highlights the urgency to

unravel potential effects of gut bacterial processing of (unabsorbed residues of) medication, such as

levodopa.

Figure 1. Levodopa is deaminated by *Clostridium sporogenes*. (A) Full reductive deamination pathway of *C. sporogenes* is depicted next to the HPLC-ED curves from supernatant of a *C. sporogenes* batch culture conversion of levodopa (3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)alanine) or 5HTP (5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan) overtime. At the beginning of growth (timepoint 0 h) 100 μM of levodopa (middle black line) or 5HTP (upper black line) is added to the culture medium, the grey line depicts the control samples. In 24 h, levodopa is completely converted to DHPPA (3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)propionic acid), the deaminated product of levodopa. 5HTP is only converted to a minor extent to 5HILA (5-hydroxyindole-3-lactic acid), as determined by LC-MS and potentially to 5HIPA (5-hydroxyindole-3-propionic acid), as this peak was absent in $CS^{\Omega fldC}$ incubations. Other aromatic amino acids from the medium, tryptophan and tyrosine (which are detectable with ED), are converted to the deaminated

products IPA (indole-3-propionic acid) and 4HPPA (3-(4-hydroxyphenyl) propionic acid). (B)

Disrupted deamination pathway of *C. sporogenes* is depicted, where the dehydratase subunit *fldC* is

mutagenized. Analysis of the supernatant of CS$^{\Omega fldC}$ shows that levodopa is not deaminated to DHPPA

but to its intermediate product DHPLA (3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl) lactic acid) within 24 h. Tryptophan

and tyrosine are converted to their intermediates ILA (indole-3-lactic acid) and 4HPLA (3-(4-

hydroxyphenyl) lactic acid), respectively.

Figure 2. Identification of the aromatic amino transferase initiating the deamination pathway. In order to identify which aminotransferase is responsible for the initial transaminase reaction all class I/II aminotransferase were cloned and purified to test the activity against (N)PAAAs. (A) Transaminase

activity (production of glutamate) for all substrates is depicted. EDU38870 (CLOSPO_01732) seemed

to be involved in all transaminase reactions. EDU37030 showed similar activity as EDU38870, for

phenylalanine. (B) Targeted metabolic quantification of deamination products from CS^{WT}, $CS^{\Omega fldC}$,

$CS^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$ reveals that EDU38870 is involved in the transamination of all for all tested (N)PAAAs.

All quantified deamination products are normalized to their initial substrate concentration and the data

represents 3 independent experiments. Black squares indicate that quantification was not possible

because of an interfering HPLC-ED peak. As no commercial standards are available for 5HILA and

5HIPA, the peaks were quantified assuming a similar ED-detector response as for 5HTP. Corresponding

values are given in Supplementary Table 2. Significance was tested when relevant (see p-values in text)

using 2-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey test.

Figure 3. DHPPA inhibits the acetylcholine induced twitch from mouse ileum. (A) the experimental

setup is depicted, where 5 min after adding 50 µM acetylcholine, 100 µM DHPPA is added. The panel

below indicates how the amplitude is measured (the standard deviation of the mean). (B) a representative

recording trace of 1 min before and after the addition of acetylcholine and DCHA or vehicle is shown.

In (C) the inhibition of DHPPA on acetylcholine induced twitch binned in intervals of 5 minutes shows

a decrease in contractility over time (n=3 biological replicates and experiments were repeated 2-4

times per tissue). ACh, acetylcholine; VH, vehicle (0.05% ethanol). Significance was tested using 1-

way-ANOVA followed by a Tukey's test (p-values: *<0.033 **<0.0021).

Figure 4. DHPPA concentrations are significantly higher in PD patients compared to healthy controls. DHPPA was extracted from stool samples of PD patients (n=10) and age-matched healthy controls (n=10) using activated alumina beads and concentrations were quantified using a standard curve of DHPPA on the HPLC-ED (DC amp, 0.8 V) with 3,4-dihydroxybenzylamine as internal standard. DHPPA concentrations are depicted on the logarithmic y-axis and individual levels are indicated and compared between PD patients (PD) and age-matched healthy controls (HC). The cross-header represents the median (PD, 4.36 µM; HC, 1.37 µM) and the interquartile range (PD, 2.15-37.90 µM; HC, 0.53-3.75 µM).

283 **Figure 5. Active levodopa deamination pathway in fecal-suspensions.** (A) Fecal-suspension

284 incubation of PD7 and HC13 are shown, where DHPPA is produced from DHPLA after 20 h and is

285 further metabolized to 3HPPA after 45 h of incubation. Green bars indicate the retention time of the

standards indicated. (B) 3HPPA was quantified as measure for active deamination in the fecal-suspensions. 3HPPA is produced in 60% of the PD patient's fecal-suspensions and in 40% of the HC's fecal-suspensions. In (c) the dehydroxylation of DHPPA to 3HPPA by *Eggerthella lenta* DSM2243 dependent on the arginine concentration in the medium is shown. On the left y-axis 3HPPA production is indicated, on the right y-axis the optical density (OD) at 600 nm is indicated, and on the x-axis the increasing arginine concentration supplied to the medium before 48 h of incubation with 50 µM of DHPPA.

Supplementary Figure 1. NMR and MS confirmation of levodopa and 5HTP conversion. (A) 1D ^{1}H-NMR of the levodopa isolated product from *C. sporogenes* is compared with the commercially available standard of DHPPA. (B) the LC-ESI-MS in negative mode show the exact same mass and retention time as the commercially available standard of DHPPA. (C) LC-ESI-MS analysis shows the

299   mass of the first peak produced by CS^{WT} from 5-HTP isolated from the HPLC-ED corresponding to the

300   mass of 5HILA (predicted exact mass 221.069-$[H^+]$).

Supplementary Figure 2. Confirmation and growth curves of CS$^{\Omega fldC}$ and CS$^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$, and 5-

HT production. (A) primers targeting the erythromycin cassette in *Ll.LtrB* intron and primers binding

outside the cassette were used to confirm the disruption of the *fldC* and *CLOSPO_01732*. (B) Growth-

curves of CS^{WT}, CS$^{\Omega fldC}$ and CS$^{\Omega CLOSPO\_01732}$ showing minor but significant increase in doubling time in

the first part of the growth curve, indicating that the TA/FldC is potentially important for a metabolic

reaction required for optimal growth. In (C) a minor production of 5-HT (serotonin) is observed in all

strains after 48 h.

t(min)

Supplementary Figure 3. Chromatograms of fecal-incubations from PD patients (n=10) and healthy age-matched controls (n=10). Green bars indicate the location of the standards DHPPA (3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)propionic acid) and 3HPPA (3-(3-hydroxyphenyl)propionic acid), black and grey lines indicate DHPLA (3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)lactic acid) and control samples, respectively. The chromatograms from 14-15 min are from samples analyzed on DC amp = 0.8 V, making the detection

more selective for DHPPA, and chromatograms from 16.5-17.5 min are from the same samples analyzed

on DC amp = 1.0 V, making the detection of 3HPPA possible. In PD samples 5, 6, 7, 10 and HC samples

11, 13, 15 DHPPA production is observed in 20-45 h samples, indicated by the grey arrow. In PD

samples 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10 and HC samples 11, 13, 14, 17, 3HPPA production is observed in 20-45 h

samples, indicated by the black arrow. In samples PD 5, 7, 10 and HC 13, DHPPA is visible at 20 h, and

further converted to 3HPPA visible in the 45 h sample.

323   **Supplementary Table 1.** Values corresponding to Figure 2b

	WT			*ΩfldC*			ΩCLOSPO_01732		
	0 h	**24 h**	**48 h**	**0 h**	**24 h**	**48 h**	**0 h**	**24 h**	**48 h**
Phenylalanine	100.0 ± 17.7	n.d.	n.d.	100.0 ± 15.9	n.d.	n.d.	100.0 ± 4.6	n.d.	n.d.
PLA	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	84.7 ± 13.2	48.4 ± 9.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PPA	n.d.	77.6 ± 3.3	85.6 ± 0.7	n.d.	1.5 ± 0.3	30.7 ± 4.1	n.d.	64.9 ± 3.8	71.6 ± 3.1
Tyrosine	100.0 ± 23.0	0.4 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 1.0	100.0 ± 16.8	25.1 ± 12	4 ± 0.7	100.0 ± 18.1	110.9 ± 15.9	109.3 ± 18.2
4HPLA	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	3.2 ± 0.7	106.9 ± 15.3	75.0 ± 39.8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
4HPPA	1.5 ± 0.3	43.7 ± 5.0	45.6 ± 4.9	n.d.	n.d.	1.9 ± 1.3	n.d.	9.2 ± 0.6	10.2 ± 0.4
Tryptophan	100.0 ± 21.4	19.6 ± 10.0	5.4 ± 4.1	100.0 ± 20.3	47.3 ± 15.3	28.3 ± 9.3	100.0 ± 16.6	70.7 ± 17.5	50.9 ± 13.6
Tryptamine	n.d.	6.7 ± 2.3	7.0 ± 1.9	n.d.	9.6 ± 2.4	23.5 ± 2.6	n.d.	27.8 ± 1.2	40.8 ± 4.4
ILA	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	27.2 ± 1.9	27.0 ± 2.9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IPA	0.6 ± 0.2	21.7 ± 1.3	22.2 ± 1.8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.6 ± 0	0.8 ± 0.1
Levodopa	100.0 ± 36.4	1.0 ± 0.5	0.9 ± 0.4	100.0 ± 32.7	3.4 ± 1.1	2.9 ± 0.9	100.0 ± 23.1	67.5 ± 10.4	50.3 ± 8.5
DHLA	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	172.1 ± 45.2	158.6 ± 38.8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DHPPA	n.d.	89.2 ± 24.1	84.4 ± 23.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2.1 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.6
5HTP	100.0 ± 16.2	86.7 ± 12.6	72.1 ± 12.0	100.0 ± 17.1	96.4 ± 13	88.3 ± 14.2	100.0 ± 15.4	79.7 ± 30.9	91.0 ± 14.8
Serotonin	0.04 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.07	0.04 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.05	0.7 ± 0.11	0.06 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.06	1.07 ± 0.12
"5HILA"	n.d.	6.6 ± 0.4	12.1 ± 0.5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
"5HIPA"	n.d.	1.3 ± 0.3	5.2 ± 1.3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

n.d., not detected; Deamination products are normalized to their initial substrate concentrations (100%) ± values indicate SEM (n=3).

PLA, 3-phenyllactic acid; PPA, 3-phenylpropionic acid; 4HPLA, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)lactic acid; 4HPPA, 3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)propionic acid; ILA, 3-indolelactic acid; IPA, 3-indolepropionic acid; DHLA 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)lactic acid; DHPPA, 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)propionic acid; 5HTP, 5-hydroxytryptophan; 5HILA, 5-hydroxyindole-3-lactic acid; 5IPA, 5-hydroxyindole-3-propionic acid;

Supplementary Table 2. MS confirms that DHPPA is extracted from PD and HC samples using alumina.

Sample	M-H	ppm error	DHPPA quantification alumina extraction (μM)
DHPPA	181.0507	5.1	
P1	181.0509	7.5	118.2
P2	181.0504	4.7	4.9
P3	181.0504	4.7	1.6
P4	181.0505	5.3	3.8
P5	181.0503	4.2	2.3
P6	181.0509	7.3	154.3
P7	ND		1.4
P8	181.0506	5.8	8.2
P9	181.0505	5.3	11.1
P10	181.0504	4.7	2.4
HC11	181.0506	5.8	2.0
HC12	181.0504	4.7	1.4
HC13	ND		0.5
HC14	181.0506	5.8	1.0
HC15	ND		0.2
HC16	ND		3.5
HC17	181.508	6.9	1.4
HC18	ND		0.5
HC19	181.0507	5.1	4.5
HC20	181.0509	7.3	123.5

328 **Supplementary Table 3 Plasmids and primers used in this study**

Plasmid	Description		Reference
pET15b	His-Tag, amp[R]		Novagen
pET28b	His-Tag, kan[R]		Novagen
pSK023	pET15b-EDU36436		This study
pSK024	pET15b- EDU36793		This study
pSK025	pET15b-EDU36848		This study
pSK026	pET15b-EDU37030		This study
pSK027	pET28b-EDU37032		This study
pSK028	pET15b-EDU37374		This study
pSK029	pET15b-EDU38761		This study
pSK030	pET15b-EDU38870		This study
pSK031	pET15b-EDU39385		This study
Accession	**Locus Tag**	**Primers used for cloning (5'-3')**	
EDU36436	CLOSPO_02604	sk173 FW: GCTACG<u>CATATG</u>AAGTTATCTAAAAAAGCAGTAG sk174 RV: ATTATT<u>CTCGAG</u>CTTTCTAACATTTTATCCACCTC	
EDU36793	CLOSPO_02962	sk177 FW: GCGCGC<u>CATATG</u>AAAAATAAATTTTTAGCCTATAAG sk178 RV: AATAAT<u>CTCGAG</u>CCTCTGAAGCCAAGAAATCTG	
EDU36848	CLOSPO_03017	sk179 FW: CGCGCG<u>CATATG</u>AAATATGATTTTGATGAAATC sk180 RV: AATAAT<u>CTCGAG</u>GCATTTCATAAAAACCCTAGC	
EDU37030	CLOSPO_03199	sk181 FW: GGCCGC<u>CATATG</u>AAATTTTCAAAAAGAATATCTGACAT sk182 RV: ACGTAC<u>CTCGAG</u>GGGTAAGTTCTGAAAATAAAGTA	
EDU37032	CLOSPO_03201	sk215 FW: CGCGCG<u>CTAGC</u>GTGTTATTTAATGACAAATTAAGAC sk217 RV: GCGCGC<u>CTCGAG</u>TTTATAATATTTATCTAAAACTTTACCTAATC	
EDU37374	CLOSPO_03543	sk185 FW: GCGCGC<u>CATATG</u>AAGTATAATTTTGACAAAGTAG sk186 RV: GTACAC<u>CTCGAG</u>TCCCTCCCATAATTTCAC	
EDU38761	CLOSPO_01623	sk191 FW: GCAAGC<u>CATATG</u>TTGTTTAAAAAAGGTGGTATTTAT sk192 RV: AAGAAT<u>CTCGAG</u>CTTCACTTTAAAGGGAATTTTC	
EDU38870	CLOSPO_01732	sk193 FW: GCCGGC<u>CATATG</u>ATTTCAAATGAAATGCTTAATC sk194 RV: AGTATA<u>CTCGAG</u>CAGTTAATTAGCGGTTGTCC	
EDU39385	CLOSPO_00463	sk197 FW: GCGCAT<u>CATATG</u>GATTATATGAAAACTCAAGAAG sk198 RV: AGTAAT<u>CTCGAG</u>TCTCAACCTTTAAAGAATGTTAAG	
*restrictions sites are underlined			

Material and Methods

Growth and incubation of *Clostridium sporogenes* and *Eggerthella lenta*

Clostridium sporogenes ATCC15579 was grown in enriched beef broth (EBB) with 2 g/L glucose (van Kessel et al., 2019) and 0.1% Tween 80 (EBB/T) anaerobically (10% H_2, 10% CO_2, 80% N_2) in a Don Whitley Scientific DG250 Workstation (LA Biosystems, Waalwijk, The Netherlands) at 37 °C. *Eggerthella lenta* DSM2243 was grown in modified DSMZ medium 78 (DSMZ 78: Beef extract, 10.0 g/L; Casitone, 30.0 g/L; Yeast extract, 5.0 g/L; K_2HPO_4, 5.0 g/L; Tween 80, 0.1%; Menadione (Vitamin K3), 1 µg/ml; Cysteine, 0.5 g/L; Hemin, 5 mg/L; L-Arginine0.1-1.5%) anaerobically (1.5% H_2, 5% CO_2, balance with N_2) in a Coy Laboratory Anaerobic Chamber (neoLab Migge GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany) at 37 °C in a tube shaker at 500 RPM. Upon use, bacteria were inoculated from -80 °C stored glycerol stocks in the appropriate media and grown for 18-24 h for *C. sporogenes* and 24-40 h for *E. lenta*. Overnight turbid cultures were then diluted 1/50 in an appropriate volume EBB/T or CMM for further experiments with 100 µM levodopa (D9628, Sigma), 5-hydroxytrytophan (H9772, Sigma), 50 µM 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)propionic acid (102601, Sigma) or H_2O as control.

Protein production and purification

Transaminase-encoding genes from *C. sporogenes* (**Supplementary Table 3**) were amplified using Phusion High-fidelity DNA polymerase and primers listed in **Supplementary Table 3**. All amplified genes were cloned in pET15b, except for EDU37032 which was cloned in pET28b (**Supplementary Table 3)**. Plasmids were maintained in *E. coli* DH5α and verified by Sanger sequencing before transformation to *E. coli* BL21 (DE3). Overnight cultures were diluted 1:50 in fresh LB medium with the appropriate antibiotic and grown to OD600 = 0.7–0.8 shaking at 37 °C. Protein translation was induced with 1 mM Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG, 11411446001, Roche Diagnostics) and cultures were incubated overnight at 18 °C. The cells were washed with 1/5th of the volume in 1× ice-cold PBS and stored at −80 °C or directly used for protein isolation. Cell pellets were thawed on ice and resuspended in 1/50th of buffer A (300 mM NaCl; 10 mM imidazole; 50 mM KPO4, pH 8.0) containing 0.2 mg/mL lysozyme (105281, Merck) and 2 µg/mL DNAse (11284932001, Roche

Diagnostics), and incubated for at least 10 min on ice before sonication (10 cycles of 15 s with 30 s

cooling at 8 microns amplitude) using Soniprep-150 plus (Beun de Ronde, Abcoude, The Netherlands).

Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 20,000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C. The 6 × his-tagged proteins

were purified using a nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid (Ni-NTA) agarose matrix (30250, Qiagen). Cell-free

extracts were loaded on 0.5 ml Ni-NTA matrixes and incubated on a roller shaker for 2 h at 4 °C. The

Ni-NTA matrix was washed three times with 1.5 mL buffer B (300 mM NaCl; 20 mM imidazole; 50

mM KPO4, pH 8.0) before elution with buffer C (300 mM NaCl; 250 mM imidazole; 50 mM KPO4,

pH 8.0). Imidazole was removed from purified protein fractions using Amicon Ultra centrifugal filters

(UFC505024, Merck) and washed three times and reconstituted in buffer D (50 mM Tris-HCl; 30 0mM

NaCl; pH 7.5). Protein concentrations were measured spectrophotometrically (Nanodrop 2000, Isogen,

De Meern, The Netherlands) using the predicted extinction coefficient and molecular weight from

ExPASy ProtParam tool (www.web.expasy.org/protparam/).

Transaminase activity test

Purified transaminases were incubated with 1 mM substrate, 2 mM α-ketoglutaric acid, and 0.1 mM

PLP (pyridoxal-5-phosphate, P9255, Sigma, The Netherlands) in buffer D with an enzyme concentration

of 50 nM for tyrosine, tryptophan, or 5-HTP as substrate and an enzyme concentration of 500 nM for

phenylalanine and levodopa as substrate. Enzyme reactions were incubated for 0.5 h at 37 °C, the

reactions were stopped with 0.7% (v/v) perchloric acid (1:1). Transaminase activity was tested using an

L-glutamic acid detection kit (K-GLUT, Megazyme Inc., Wicklow, Ireland), according to the

manufacture's microplate assay procedure with some modifications. The supplied buffer was substituted

for buffer D (described above, to prevent oxidation of the substrates/products). A reaction mix was

prepared mixing 50 µL buffer D; 10 µL quenched sample reaction mixture, 20 µL

NAD$^+$/iodonitrotetrazolium chloride solution, 5 µL diaphorase solution, 5 µL glutamate dehydrogenase

(GIDH) solution and reconstituted to a final volume of 290 µL with H2O. Absorbance at 492 nm was

measured after 10 minutes of incubation using a microplate reader (Synergy HTX spectrophotometer,

BioTek, BioSPX, The Netherlands) and background was subtracted from initial read before addition of

GIDH solution.

Targeted mutagenesis

Gene disruptions in *Clostridum sporogenes* were performed using the ClosTron system (Heap et al., 2007, 2009). This system facilitates targeted mutagenesis using the group-II *Ll.LtrB* intron of *Lactococcus lactis*. Introns targeting *fldC* (CLOSPO_311) or CLOSPO_1732 (encoding for the transaminase) were designed using the ClosTron intron design tool (http://www.clostron.com) and were ordered in pMTL007C-E2 from ATUM (Newark, California, United States) resulting in pMTL007C-E2_Cs-fldC-561a and pMTL007C-E2_Cs-CLOSPO_1732-493s respectively. Plasmids were transferred to *C. sporogenes* by conjugation as described before (Heap et al., 2009) using *E. coli* CA434 (*E. coli* HB101 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, The Netherlands) harboring the broad host IncPß$^+$ conjugational plasmid pRK24 (Williams et al., 1990) as donor strain. *E. coli* CA434 harboring pMTL007C-E2_Cs-fldC-561a or pMTL007C-E2_Cs-CLOSPO_1732-493s was grown in Luria Broth (LB) with 10 µg/mL tetracycline and 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol (to select for pRK24 and PMTL007C-E2 respectively). Cell suspensions of 1 mL of overnight culture were washed once with PBS and the cell pellet was resuspended in 200 µL of *C. sporogenes* overnight cell suspension. The bacterial-mixture was spotted (in drops of 10 µL) on trypticase soy agar (TSA) plates and incubated for 24 h anaerobically at 37 °C. Sequentially, 1 mL of PBS was added to the spotted plates and the donor-recipient mix was scraped of the plate, sequentially the scraped-off suspension was distributed over TSA plates containing 50 µg/mL neomycin (to prevent growth of *E. coli*) and 15 µg/mL chloramphenicol to select for *C. sporogenes* conjugants. Chloramphenicol resistant colonies of *C. sporogenes* were re-streaked on TSA plates containing 50 µg/mL neomycin and 2.5 µg/mL erythromycin (to select for intron insertion) for several times. To makes sure the plasmids was integrated, colonies were checked and selected for their sensitivity towards chloramphenicol and the genomic DNA was verified using PCR (**Supplementary Figure 2a**)

Fecal samples from patients with Parkinson's disease and age-matched healthy controls

Fecal samples from patients diagnosed with PD (n = 10) and age-matched healthy controls (n = 10) were acquired from the Movement Disorder Center at Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, Illinois, USA published previously (Keshavarzian et al., 2015). All study subjects consented to the use of their

samples for research. PD was diagnosed according to the UK Brain Bank Criteria as previously described (Keshavarzian et al., 2015). Study subjects were provided with the supplies and instructions for home feces collection using the BD Gaspak EZ Anaerobe Gas Generating Pouch System with Indicator (Ref 260683; Becton, Dickinson and Company, Sparks, MD) in order to minimize the exposure of the feces to high oxygen ambient atmosphere, which may alter the microbiota. Subjects were asked to have a bowel movement within 24 h of their study visit. Subjects kept the sealed anaerobic fecal bag in a cold environment, before bringing the anaerobic fecal bag to the hospital. Fecal samples were then immediately stored at -80°C until analysis.

Fecal metabolite incubations from PD patients and HC subjects

Stool samples were suspended 1:1 (w/v) in EBB/T and incubated anaerobically (10% H_2, 10% CO_2, 80% N_2) in a Don Whitley Scientific DG250 Workstation (LA Biosystems, Waalwijk, The Netherlands) at 37 °C with 100 µM Sodium 3-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-DL-lactate (39363,Sigma). Samples were taken at 0, 20, and 45 h and analyzed on HPLC-ED as described below.

HPLC-ED/UV analysis and sample preparation

For bacterial cell suspensions, 1 mL of methanol was added to 0.25 mL of cell suspension and stored at -20 °C until further use. For fecal metabolite incubations, 300 µl of methanol was added to 75 µL of fecal suspension and stored at -20°C until further use. Metabolites from stool samples were extracted by suspending the stool 1:1 (w/v) in water, followed by homogenization by vigorously vortexing while keeping samples as cold as possible. Homogenized suspensions were centrifuged at 3500 × *g* for 20 min at 4°C and sequentially 1.6 mL of methanol was added to 0.4 mL of supernatant. From bacterial, fecal incubation or stool samples cells and protein precipitates were removed by centrifugation at 20000 × *g* for 10 min at 4°C. Supernatant was transferred to a new tube and the methanol fraction was evaporated in a Savant speed-vacuum dryer (SPD131, Fisher Scientific, Landsmeer, The Netherlands) at 60°C for 1.5-2 h. The aqueous fraction was reconstituted with 0.7% $HClO_4$ to the appropriate volume. Samples were filtered and injected into the HPLC-ED system (Alliance Separations Module 2695, Waters Chromatography B.V, Etten-Leur, The Netherlands; Dionex ED40 electrochemical detector, Dionex,

Sunnyvale, USA, with a glassy carbon working electrode (DC amperometry at 0.8 or 1.0 V, with

Ag/AgCl as reference electrode)). Samples were analyzed on a C18 column (Kinetex 5μM, C18 100 Å,

250 × 4.6 mm, Phenomenex, Utrecht, The Netherlands) using a gradient of water/methanol with 0.1%

formic acid (0-10 min, 95−80% H_2O; 10-20 min, 80-5% H_2O; 20-23 min 5% H_2O; 23-31 min 95%

H_2O). For the detection of the *C. sporogenes* metabolites and for peak isolation another HPLC-ED

system was used (Jasco AS2059 plus autosampler, Jasco Benelux, Utrecht, The Netherlands; Knauer K-

1001 pump, Separations, H. I. Ambacht, The Netherlands) with the same detector (ED40) and the same

gradient as described above. Phenylalanine metabolites were detected by injecting the same samples in

an HPLC-UV system (Alliance Separations Module 2695, Waters Chromatography B.V, Etten-Leur,

The Netherlands; TSP UV6000LP UV-detector (wavelength: 260 nM) Thermo Scientific, The

Netherlands). Samples for peak isolation were separated on a Vydac Semi-preparative C18 column

(218TP510, 5 μm, 300 Å, 10 mm × 250 mm, VWR International B.V, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) at

3 ml/min using the same gradient as above. Data recording and analysis was performed using

Chromeleon software (version 6.8 SR13).

Catechol extraction from stool for DHPPA quantification

Catechols were extracted from PD patients and HC stool samples using activated alumina powder

(199966, Sigma) as previously described (van Kessel et al., 2019) with a few modifications. A volume

of 200 μl 50% stool suspension (described above) was used with 1 mM DHBA (3,4-

dihydroxybenzylamine hydrobromide, 858781, Sigma) as an internal standard. Samples were adjusted

to pH 8.6 with 800 μL TE buffer (2.5% EDTA; 1.5 M Tris/HCl pH 8.6) and 5–10 mg of alumina was

added. Suspensions were mixed on a roller shaker at room temperature for 20 min and were sequentially

centrifuged for 30 s at 20,000× g and washed three times with 1 mL of H_2O by aspiration. Catechols

were eluted using 0.7% $HClO_4$ and filtered before injection into the HPLC-ED-system as described

above (DC amperometry at 0.8 V). A standard curve was injected to quantify the concentrations of

DHPPA in 50% (w/v) stool samples.

LC-MS

HPLC-MS analysis was performed using an Accella1250 HPLC system coupled with the benchtop ESI-MS Orbitrap Exactive (Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) in negative and positive ion mode. Samples were analyzed on a C18 column (Shim Pack Shimadzu XR-ODS 3×75 mm) using a gradient of water/acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid (0-5 min, 98−90% H_2O; 5-10 min, 90-5% H_2O; 10-13 min 5% H_2O; 13-14 min 98% H_2O). Data analysis was performed using Qual Browser Thermo Xcalibur software (version 2.2 SP1.48).

HPLC-MS analysis of alumina extraction samples was performed using an Waters Acquity Class-I UPLC (Waters Chromatography B.V, Etten-Leur, The Netherlands) system coupled to a MaXis Plus Q-TOF (Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA) on negative ion mode with post-column addition of 3 μl/min ESI Tune Mix (G1969-85000; Agilent Technologies, Middelburg, The Netherlands) for mass calibration. Samples were analyzed on a C18 column (Shim Pack Shimadzu XR-ODS 3×75 mm) using a gradient of water/acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid (0-5 min, 98−90% H_2O; 5-10 min, 90-5% H_2O; 10-13 min 5% H_2O; 13-15 min 2% H_2O; 15-17 min 98% H_2O). Data analysis was performed using Bruker Compass Data Analysis (version 4.2 SR1).

NMR

Samples were exchanged once with 99.9 atom% D2O with intermediate lyophilization, finally dissolved in 650 μL D_2O. One-dimensional ^{1}H NMR was recorded at a probe temperature of 25°C on a Varian Inova 500 spectrometer (NMR Department, University of Groningen). [1]H chemical shifts are expressed in ppm in reference to external acetone (δ [1]H 2.225). 1D 500-MHz ^{1}H NMR spectra were recorded with 5000 Hz spectral width at 16 k complex data points, using a WET1D pulse to suppress the HOD signal. Spectra were processed using MestReNova v9.1 (Mestrelabs Research SL, Santiago de Compostela, Spain).

Organ-bath experiments

Distal ileal samples were harvested from wild type adult (18 weeks) male C57BL/6 mice (n=3) that

were sacrificed for another purpose. Harvested tissue was immediately removed, placed and washed in

0.85% NaCl. Approximately 3 mm rings were cut and were placed in an organ bath (Tissue Bath

Station with SSL63L force transducer, Biopac Systems Inc. Varna, Bulgaria) filled with Krebs–

Henseleit solution (NaCl, 7.02 g/L; KCl, 0.44 g/L; $CaCl_2.2H_2O$, 0.37 g/L; $MgCl_2.6H_2O$, 0.25 g/L;

$NaH_2PO_4.H_2O$ 0.17 g/L; Glucose, 2.06 g/L; $NaHCO_3$, 2.12 g/L) gassed with Carbogen gas mixture (5

% CO_2, balance with O_2) at 37 °C. Ileal rings were equilibrated for at least 45-60 min with

replacement of Krebs–Henseleit solution approximately every 15 min. Sequentially, 50 µM of

acetylcholine (ACh) (Sigma, A2661) was added to induce a stable repetitive muscle twitch response,

and after ~5 min 100 µM of DHPPA (Sigma, 102601) was added for ~15 min before the ileal rings

were washed. This step was repeated 2-4 times per ileal preparation. As control, ACh was added for at

least 20 min with or without 0.05% ethanol (solvent of DHPPA) after 5 min to check for spontaneous

decrease. Data was recorded and analyzed in BioPac Student Lab 4.1 (Build: Feb 12, 2015).

Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its

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S.S.L., S.A.N., H.P., A.K. performed the experiments and S.P.K., S.S.L., H.P., and S.E.A. analyzed the

data. S.P.K. and S.E.A. wrote the original manuscript that was reviewed by S.S.L., S.A.N., H.P., A.K.

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