Drosophila Undigested Metabolite Profiling reveals age related loss of intestinal amino

acid transport regulates longevity

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Abstract

Age-related decline results in changes to the architecture of the intestinal epithelium and a

loss of barrier function, accompanied by elevated stress and immune signalling and

alterations to the intestinal microbial population. Interventions that prevent these

phenotypes support longevity across several model organisms. Despite this we do not yet

know whether age-related intestinal decline impacts nutrient management, a key function

of the intestinal epithelium. Addressing this question is critical given that nutritional

interventions hold significant promise in the development of anti-ageing therapies.

In this study we have developed *Drosophila* Undigested Metabolite Profiling

(D.U.M.P.) to assess the impact of intestinal ageing on nutrient absorption/excretion

balance. We demonstrate that ageing results in a significant increase in amino acid load in

the intestinal lumen that shortens lifespan. While the microbiota contributes significantly to

intestinal amino acid load, age-related increases remain in sterile flies and are associated

with reduced expression of a subset of amino acid transporters. Knockdown of the amino

acid transporter *slimfast* in the intestinal epithelium extends lifespan and confers improved

microbial control in aged flies.

Our findings demonstrate that age-related intestinal decline may alter the capacity

of the epithelium to take up nutrients, resulting in local changes to the nutritional

environment that have consequences for health. We emphasise that diet is not the sole

determinant of the intestinal nutritional environment, and that the status of the intestinal

epithelium and its capacity for nutrient uptake is a key mediator in the response to dietary

interventions. Therefore, further understanding the impact of intestinal ageing on nutrient

management will be critical to the rational design of nutritional therapies.

Introduction

The ageing intestine has been the subject of intensive study in recent years with significant advances in our understanding of the molecular mechanisms that underpin intestinal homeostasis. Ageing results in a loss of intestinal epithelial homeostasis characterised by changes in architecture, cellular composition, and regenerative potential of the stem cells[1–5]. In addition, immune activation and intestinal permeability / barrier dysfunction increase and there are shifts in the size and taxonomic composition of the commensal microbiota[6–15]. These phenotypes are interrelated such that interventions that target one will impact other aspects of intestinal homeostasis. Moreover, preventing a loss of intestinal homeostasis with age delays age-related decline in the organism as a whole[3,6–8,14,16–21]. Collectively, these studies have established the importance of intestinal homeostasis as a cornerstone of healthy ageing.

Alongside these studies of intestinal cell biology, physiology and microbiota we have seen growing evidence of the role of nutrition in maintaining health throughout the life course. The signalling network that regulates metabolism and growth is well accepted to influence lifelong health. This network responds to nutritional cues, and dietary nutrients and feeding patterns can themselves regulate ageing (reviewed in Longo and Anderson, 2022[22]). It is clear from this body of work that interactions between nutritional cues and longevity-associated signalling pathways are complex and context dependent. Genetics, sex, existing health status and age of onset all influence the ability of dietary interventions to extend lifespan and improve health (reviewed in Longo and Anderson, 2022[22]). Despite the challenge posed by this complexity, personalised nutrition has the potential to optimise individual health and longevity.

One key outcome of the intensive study of nutritional regulation of ageing is an appreciation that nutritional needs change significantly with age[23] as does the ability of established nutritional interventions to extend longevity[22]. Taking this together with our knowledge of age-related intestinal decline it is surprising that few studies have addressed the impact of intestinal decline on nutrient management, a key function of the intestinal epithelium. In this regard, older animal studies suggest a reduction in transport of a range of nutrients with age[24–26]. More recently, it has been postulated that age-related defects in membrane trafficking drive loss of intestinal barrier function and might also disrupt nutrient

absorption, thus underlying age-related changes in metabolic status[27]. An assumption that

nutrient absorption is reduced with age pervades online sources of nutritional advice, and

while these claims are not unfounded it has not yet been established that a loss of nutrient

absorption is a general feature of ageing or whether such a loss impacts all nutrient types.

More importantly, the mechanisms underlying such a loss, the consequences for intestinal

physiology and ageing, and the impact on the effectiveness of nutritional interventions have

not been explored.

A recent article summarizing the discussions that took place at an NIH workshop on

diet and healthspan put forward a list of questions that will need to be considered priorities

in future research, among them the question: "Do nutrient transport and uptake change

with age?"[28]. However, exploring this is challenging because to date, tools enabling deeper

investigation of age-related changes in intestinal nutrient management have been limited.

We aim to address this in *Drosophila melanogaster*, a short-lived and genetically tractable

model system that has been extensively used in studies of the ageing intestine. We present

a novel assay that combines a chemically defined diet with metabolic profiling of faecal

nutrient content to assess changes in nutrient uptake/excretion balance with age. Using this

assay, we demonstrate that amino acid uptake is reduced in aged flies, and this is associated

with reduced expression of a subset of amino acid transporters in the midgut epithelium.

Further, a diet mimicking the intestinal amino acid load of aged flies is detrimental to the

health of young flies. These data suggest that age-related decline may drive changes in

nutrient absorption capacity with further consequences for health. Therefore, our findings

have significant implications for the rational design of nutritional interventions that aim to

delay age-related decline.

Results

Drosophila Undigested Metabolite Profiling (D.U.M.P)

To measure changes in nutrient absorption/excretion balance we adopted a strategy of

comparing nutritional input and output by combining a chemically defined *Drosophila*

media[29,30] with mass spectrometry profiling of faecal nutrient content. We included a non-

absorbable food dye in the media to calculate the quantity of food ingested for each faecal

sample by measuring its dye content. This enabled direct comparison between nutrient

intake and output.

Supplemental figure 1. Defined media does not impact lifespan. (A) Lifespan of Canton-S female flies fed during adulthood on cornmeal or defined media. N > 200 per condition at day 1 (B) Images displaying the characteristic smurf phenotype. (C-D) Proportion of smurf flies within the total population taken at the ages shown for (C) cornmeal and (D) defined

media. N > 200 per condition at day 1 (E) Lifespan of axenic, re-associated and

conventionally reared flies fed during adulthood on defined media. N > 450 Canton-S

females per condition at day 1. Asterisks denote the result of binomial tests, where *

p<0.05. (F) Percent recovery; the sum of percent abundance (PAU)/mass of all amino acids

or cholesterol per wash, as a percentage of the sum of PAU/mass of all amino acids or

cholesterol for all washes. No cholesterol was detected following wash 5.

First, we needed to establish that the defined diet supported the adult stage of our

wild-type Canton-S flies as expected under our laboratory conditions. Given the previously

reported developmental delay of flies reared on the defined diet[29], we reared flies on our

standard cornmeal diet, transferring them to the defined diet in early adulthood. Diet is an

important determinant of lifespan and age-related health and so we assessed the lifespan of

our flies on the defined diet compared to our standard cornmeal diet. We found the change

in diet did not alter the lifespan (Fig. S1A). We also found that flies on the defined diet

continued to show an age-related increase in intestinal permeability (Fig. S1B-D) as

measured by the Smurf assay[10,31]. Finally, we assessed the ability of the defined diet to

support lifespan of axenic flies. We found axenic conditions resulted in lifespan extension

(Fig. S1E), demonstrating that the nutritional requirements of adult female flies are fully met

by the diet alone and do not need to be supplemented by the microbiota. In fact, the

presence of the microbiota is detrimental with regards to lifespan in Canton-S females

under our laboratory conditions.

Having confirmed the defined diet did not impact lifespan we developed a faecal

collection protocol (Fig. 1A). Inclusion of FD&C blue no. 1 in the media enabled us to score

"Smurf" flies that had lost intestinal barrier function and exclude them from the assay as the

concentration of dye in the fecal matter is no longer representative of food intake [10,31]. In

the remaining flies the concentration of blue no. 1 in each faecal sample then provides a

proxy for food consumed. Normalisation of mass spectroscopy data to dye concentration

controls for differences in food intake or the quantity of faecal matter collected.

For the purposes of this study, we quantified amino acids only from our final samples

(see below); however, we provide details of sample preparation designed to enable

Figure 1. Schematic of Drosophila Undigested Metabolite Profiling assay. (A) Sample

collection for the DUMP assay; 1a| Flies placed on blue food for 24h. 1b| Collection vials

prepared. 2| 60 non-smurf flies transferred to collection tubes. 3| Flies incubated at 25°C

for up to 5 hours, then anaesthetised and removed with food. 4| All collection vials washed

within falcon tubes with the same 1.5mL H_2O to produce a concentrated sample. Wash step is repeated to give a second sample 5| water samples transferred to microfuge tubes and stored at -80°C. 6| collection vials washed in 5mL 1:1 DCM:MeOH to collect non-polar fraction. 7| DCM:MeOH sample collected in glass-storage tube. Sample stored upright at -80°C. (B) Sample processing for the DUMP assay; the two water washes are combined and 1-2 µL removed for quantification of blue dye. The remainder is split three ways for 1. Cholesterol, 2. Amino acid, and 3. Sugar analysis. DCM is added to the water fraction to extract cholesterol. The DCM layer is added to the DCM:MeOH wash sample and dried under a stream of N_2 before resuspension 1:1 IPA:MeCN. The amino acid and sugar samples were lyophilised, then resuspended in 0.1N HCl or 72:28 $MeCN:H_2O$ + 0.1% NH_4OH respectively, prior to LC-MS/MS analysis. Full details of each step are given in the materials and methods section.

measurement of amino acids, sugars and cholesterol from each faecal collection (Fig. 1B). Faecal collection involved washing faecal matter from the sides of the collection vials. Initial tests showed that two water washes were sufficient to collect 80% of amino acids and almost 50% of cholesterol (Supp. Fig. 1F). Given the time required for each wash and the diminishing returns from each additional wash, we used two water washes going forward. An additional wash with DCM:MeOH enabled collection of the remaining cholesterol (Supp. Fig. 1F), and presumably aids in collection of non-polar molecules more generally. We also found the DCM:MeOH wash to contain some amino acids, including cysteine which was not detected in the water washes. Together our faecal collection and analysis protocols result in samples that can be used to measure a wide range of nutrients and metabolites. This protocol can also be adapted for untargeted metabolomics approaches.

Faecal amino acid levels increase with age

Given the importance of dietary protein levels in lifespan determination[32] and previous reports of reduced amino acid transport with age[24], we next applied the D.U.M.P. assay to assess changes in amino acid absorption/excretion balance with age. We found a consistent trend toward increased amino acid concentrations in faecal matter from aged flies, although not every amino acid showed a statistically significant change (Fig. 2A).

Figure 2: Drosophila Undigested Metabolite Profiling uncovers changes in nutrient egestion with age. (A) Relative concentration of amino acids in the faecal deposits of 10-day (9-11 day) and 40-day (39-44 day) flies, normalised to the concentration of blue food dye. (B-C) Principal component analysis for the overall structure of amino acid data from (B) conventional and (C) axenic samples plotted with respect to the first and second principal components. (D) Relative concentration in the faecal deposits of 10-day (9-11 day), 40-day

(38-40 day), and 54-day (52-54 day) axenic flies, normalised to the concentration of blue

food dye. Each sample pooled from >300 mated female Canton S flies. N = 3 biological

replicate samples for the conventional dataset and N = 5 for the axenic data. Bar graph

shows mean ± SEM. Asterisks denote the results of 2-tailed unpaired T-test (normally-

distributed data) or Mann-Whitney test (not-normally distributed data; (A) Trp and Try, (D)

Arg, Glu, Met, Phe, Ser and Val), where * P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001. For the axenic data

tests compared 10- and 54-day samples.

We reasoned the previously reported age-related increases in microbial load in the

fly intestine[6,7,10,14] may drive this age-related increase in faecal amino acid concentrations.

To test the microbial contribution to age related changes, we repeated the D.U.M.P. assay in

a cohort of axenic flies. Given the lifespan extension seen in axenic flies we included a later

life faecal collection. To characterise the structure of the data we performed a principal

component analysis (PCA) on the conventional and axenic datasets. Plotting the data in

respect to the first and second principal components, which explain the most variance,

showed clustering by age in the conventional dataset (Fig. 2B). In the axenic dataset there

was no separation between the 10 and 40-day faecal samples, indicating a high degree of

similarity between these samples. However, the sample collected at 52-days shows

separation from the 10 and 40-day samples (Fig. 2C). This is consistent with the fact that the

axenic lifespan shows no increase in mortality at the 40-day timepoint, while the

conventional lifespan is at 75% survival at 40 days (Supp. Fig. 1E). The axenic lifespan drops

rapidly from 80% to 50% survival between days 50 and 53 (Supp. Fig. 1E), suggesting the 52-

day timepoint is a closer match to the 40-day conventional sample with regards to biological

age. For this reason, the 52-day sample was used for further analysis.

To determine the contribution of epithelial ageing to the changing faecal amino acid

profile in the absence of the microbiota we compared our axenic samples across the age

range. As suggested by our PCA analysis (Fig. 2C), a trend toward increased amino acid

concentrations in the faecal matter of aged flies remained in the axenic cohort, although

this was statistically significant for fewer amino acids than in the conventional dataset (Fig.

2D). The amino acids that showed statistically significant changes upon ageing were

different between the conventional and axenic datasets, demonstrating the contribution of

the microbiota. Nevertheless, age-related changes in the intestinal epithelium are sufficient

to result in changes in the faecal amino acid profile with age and in general contribute to an

increased amino acid load in aged fly faeces.

Supplemental figure 2: Microbial contribution with age shifts faecal amino acid profile.

(A) Concentration of faecal amino acids, normalised to the concentration of blue food dye,

contributed by the microbiota in young and old flies. The microbial contribution was

calculated for each amino acid at the young timepoint by; Conventional concentration (9-11

days) – axenic concentration (9-11 days), and at the old timepoint by; Conventional

concentration (38-40 days) – axenic concentration (52-54 days), using the concentration of

amino acid normalised to blue dye for each sample. For each amino acid, at each time point,

the calculation was carried out between every conventional and every axenic measurement.

(B-D) Amino acids ordered by level of microbial contribution in (B) young and (C) old flies,

and by (D) availability within the food. Blue amino acid labels denote essential amino acids.

Bar graph shows mean ± SEM. Asterisks denote the results of a 2-way Anova, where *

$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$, ****$P<0.0001$

Although changes in faecal amino acid profile are observed in axenic flies a detailed

analysis of individual amino acid changes reveals important contributions from the

microbiota. Overall, the level of each amino acid is lower in axenic fecal matter compared to

conventional (Fig. 2A and D). To further assess this, we calculated the amino acid

concentration contributed by the microbiota in young (10-day conventional – 10-day axenic)

and old (40-day conventional – 52-day axenic) flies. This calculation was performed by

comparing every conventional value to every axenic value, for each amino acid. This analysis

confirmed that the microbiota is an important contributor to the faecal amino acid profile in

both young and old flies (Supp. Fig. 2A). To visualise age-related changes in microbial

contribution we ordered the amino acids by microbial contribution. Several changes in

graph position are seen between young (Supp. Fig. 2B) and old (Supp. Fig. 2C) flies,

confirming that changes in the microbial population contribute to age-related changes in

the faecal amino acid profile. In addition, the order of amino acids in both young and old

samples are different from that in the media (Supp. Fig. 2D), confirming the overall

contribution of the microbiota to the faecal amino acid pool.

Recapitulating aged amino acid load shortens lifespan

Given the elevation of amino acid levels in the aged intestinal lumen we next assessed

whether these changes altered lifespan. We used the D.U.M.P data to design a diet that

mimics the amino acid changes that occur with age in conventionally reared flies. The amino

acid concentrations in this diet, called Aged Amino Acid (AA) media, were determined by

adding the difference in mean concentration between the 10- and 40-day conventional

faecal samples to the concentration in the original defined media. Amino acid

concentrations in the Aged AA media ranged from 1.15 to 5.18 times the concentrations in

the standard defined diet. The average increase in concentration was 2.15 times that of the

standard diet, equivalent to dietary protein levels that have previously been shown to

reduce *Drosophila* lifespan[33].

Figure 3: Aged AA media reduced lifespan independent of microbial status.

(A) Lifespan of conventionally colonised flies on defined media or Aged AA media. Dashed

black line denotes the median survival, n > 240 flies per condition at day 1. (B) Lifespan of

axenic flies on defined media or Aged AA media, n > 240 flies per condition at day 1. (C)

Internal bacterial load of young (10 day), old (38 day) and old smurf (38 days with intestinal

barrier dysfunction) flies measured using universal primers for the 16s rRNA gene,

normalised to actin. Data from at least 5 flies/sample, with a minimum of 6 samples. Box

plots show the 25-75th percentiles and the median with the whiskers extending from min-

max. (D) 48-hour food consumption (μL) of 9-10 groups of 10 flies fed liquid defined media

or Aged AA media (omitting cholesterol). Bars show mean and standard error. No significant

difference by unpaired t-test. All experiments were performed on mated Canton-S female

flies.

We found that exposure to the Aged AA media from young adult life significantly and

reproducibly reduced lifespan (Fig. 3A, supp. Fig. 3A). This result was also observed in a

cohort of axenic flies, suggesting it is independent of the microbiota (Fig. 3B). Consistent

with this observation we found no significant impact of diet on internal bacterial load (Fig.

3C). In addition, a capillary feeding assay[34], showed no significant difference in food intake

between the standard and Aged AA media (Fig. 3D). These data are consistent with the

known lifespan impact of a high protein diet[32] and suggest that increased intestinal amino

acid load may contribute to age-related decline.

Defined media: median survival = 42 Days
Aged AA: median survival = 39 Days

Supplemental Figure 3: Aged AA media reduced lifespan

An independent replicate lifespan of conventionally colonised mated Canton-S females on

defined media or Aged AA media. Dashed black line denotes the median survival, n > 240

flies per condition at day 1.

Expression of intestinal amino acid transporters changes with age

We next sought to understand why epithelial ageing results in increased faecal amino acid

levels in the absence of the microbiota. We reasoned that this may reflect reduced amino

acid transport across the intestinal epithelium with age, as previously reported for several

animal species[24]. As a proxy measure of transport capacity, we assessed the expression

levels of a panel of amino acid transporters in young and old intestinal tissue.

First, we generated a list of validated and predicted Drosophila amino acid

transporters; this list contained 48 genes, 21 of which were unnamed. To select for genes

expressed in the gut, we used the online databases Flygut-*seq*[35] and FlyAtlas 2[36]. Genes

which showed homology to human intestinal amino acid transporters were also identified

using DIOPT Ortholog Finder and included[37,38]. This generated a final list of 18 genes

spanning 8 solute carrier families (Supp. Table 1). Of these we were able to validate

quantitative PCR (qPCR) primers for 13 transporters, representing six solute carrier (SLC)

families (Supp. Table 1). The validated primers were were used to quantify expression in

young (10 day) and old (45 day) Canton-S female intestinal samples (Fig 4, supp. Fig 4).

Supplemental Table 1: Final list of genes with validated or predicted amino acid transporter

function and predicted intestinal expression. Top human orthologs and weighted DIOPT

score determined from https://www.flyrnai.org/cgi-bin/DRSC_orthologs.pl. The genes in

grey font were not taken forward due to poor qPCR primers. *All top orthologs, sharing the

same weighted DIOPT score.

Drosophila Gene	Annotation Symbol	Homologous human Solute carrier family	Top Human ortholog	Weighted DIOPT score
Eaat1	CG3747	SLC1	SLC1A3	9.85
CD98hc	CG2791	SLC3	SLC3A2	5.82
CG1698	CG1698	SLC6	SLC6A16	3.94
Naat1	CG3252	SLC6	SLC6A16	3.94
CG13796	CG13796	SLC6	SLC6A14	3.94
Slimfast	CG11128	SLC7	SLC7A1	12.84
CG5535	CG5535	SLC7	SLC7A1	10.92
CG7255	CG7255	SLC7	SLC7A2	8.75
Minidiscs	CG3297	SLC7	SLC7A7	8.88
Sobremesa	CG9413	SLC7	SLC7A9	13.75
Kazachoc	CG5594	SLC12	SLC12A4	14.75
dmGlut	CG5305	SLC17	SLC17A3	5.89
CG43693	CG43693	SLC36	SLC36A1	9.9
Pathetic	CG3234	SLC36	SLC36A1-4*	5.92
CG8785	CG8785	SLC36	SLC36A4	7.87
CG1139	CG1139	SLC36	SLC36A1-4*	6.85
CG30394	CG30394	SLC38	SLC38A10	10.73

Conventional

Figure 4: Age-related changes in amino acid transporter expression. (A-F) Transporter

levels measured in dissected midguts from conventionally reared Canton-S females at 10

and 45 days of age. Normalised to the expression of rp49. N = 5 guts per sample, 8-10

samples at day 10, and 5-6 samples at day 45. (A) *CG43693*, (B) *Pathetic (path)*, (C)

sobremesa (sbm), (D) *Excitatory amino acid transporter 1 (Eaat1)*, (E) *dietary and metabolic*

glutamate transporter (dmGlut), (F) *Slimfast (Slif)*. (G-L) Transporter levels measured in

dissected midguts from axenic Canton-S females at 16 and 47 days of age. Normalised to the

expression of rp49. N = 5 guts per sample, 5-6 samples at each timepoint. (G) *CG43693*, (H)

Pathetic (path), (I) *sobremesa (sbm)*, (J) *Excitatory amino acid transporter 1 (Eaat1)*, (K)

dietary and metabolic glutamate transporter (dmGlut), (L) *Slimfast (Slif)*. Box plots show the

25-75th percentiles and the median with the whiskers extending from min-max. Asterisks

denote the results of 2-tailed unpaired T-test (normally-distributed data) or Mann-Whitney

test (not-normally distributed data as calculated by the Shapiro-Wilk test; *path* and *Eaat1*

from conventionally reared flies (B,D)), where ns – not significant, * P<0.05, **P<0.01.

We found six transporter genes across 4 SLC families that showed statistically

significant changes with age: sbm, Eaat1, dmGlut and slif showed significant

downregulation, while CG43693 and path were upregulated (Fig 4). The amino acid

substrates for CG43693 (Fig. 4A) and Sombremesa (sbm) (Fig. 4C) are unknown, and

Pathetic (Path) (Fig. 4B) has been suggested to act primarily as a transceptor due to its low

transport capacity[39]. However, several amino acid transporters showed decreased

expression levels in aged intestines consistent with the D.U.M.P data.

Excitatory amino acid transporter 1 (Eaat1) (Fig. 4D) transports L-glutamate with

highest affinity, although L- and D- aspartate are also substrates, and there is evidence to

indicate a functional role in the intestine[40]. A second glutamate transporter, dietary and

metabolic glutamate transporter (dmGlut), also showed reduced expression with age (Fig.

4E). Both glutamate and aspartate show a trend toward increased levels in faecal samples

from old conventionally reared and axenic flies. This increase is statistically significant for

aspartate in axenic samples, suggesting the underlying cause is independent of the

microbiota.

Slimfast (slif) (Fig. 4F) transports L-arginine[41] and could be inferred to also transport

lysine due to its homology to the cationic amino acid transporter family, although this has

not been tested to our knowledge. A statistically significant increase in arginine and lysine

levels is seen in faecal samples from old axenic flies and for arginine in faecal samples from

old conventionally reared flies.

We further confirmed that the changes in expression reported for *path, sbm, Eaat1,*

dmGlut and *slif* were retained in axenic flies (Fig. 4H-K). CG43693 showed a trend toward

increased expression in old axenic flies, but this did not reach statistical significance. Overall,

this suggests the recorded changes in transporter expression are independent of the

microbiota. Taken together these data support a model whereby age-related changes in the

expression levels of amino acid transporters result in reduced transport across aged

intestinal epithelia and contribute to increased luminal amino acid levels.

Supplemental Figure 4: Some amino acid transporters do not show changes in expression

with age. Transporter levels measured in dissected midguts from conventionally reared

Canton-S females at 10 and 45 days of age. Normalised to the expression of rp49. N = 5 guts

per sample, 8-10 samples at day 10, and 5-6 samples at day 45. (A) *kazachoch (kcc),* (B)

CG1698, (C) *Nutrient amino acid transporter 1 (Naat1),* (D) *CG8785,* (E) *minidiscs (mnd),* (F)

CG7255, and (G) *CG5535.* Box plots show the 25-75th percentiles and the median with the

whiskers extending from min-max.

Intestinal slimfast expression level regulates lifespan

We next sought to understand the physiological impact of reduced amino acid transporter

expression during ageing. We focused on slimfast due to the availability of genetic tools and

the significantly increased faecal concentration of its substrates with age.

RU0: median survival = 63 days
RU25: median survival = 67 days

Figure 5: Intestinal *slimfast* levels regulate lifespan.

(A) Lifespan of *TIGS > UAS-Slif^anti* females on defined media with ethanol (RU0; black), or

25uM RU-486 (RU25; blue) throughout adult life. Dashed black line denotes the median

survival. (B) 48-hour food consumption (uL) of 6 groups of 10 *TIGS > UAS-Slif^anti* females fed

liquid defined media (omitting cholesterol) for 48 hours, following 72h induction of

knockdown (RU25) or control (RU0) treatment. (C) Internal bacterial load of 15 and 45 day

old, and 45-day old Smurf (45S) *TIGS > UAS-Slif^anti* females, with and without induction of

intestinal *Slif* knockdown. Conventionally colonised mated females are used throughout. Bar

graphs show mean and standard error. No significant difference by unpaired t-test. Box

 plots show the 25-75th percentiles and the median with the whiskers extending from min-

max. Two-way Anova with Tukey's multiple comparisons P-values are shown below key in

panel C.

Supplemental Figure 5: Intestinal *slimfast* levels regulate lifespan.

(A) Replicate lifespan of conventionally colonised mated *TIGS > UAS-slif*[anti] females on

defined media with ethanol (RU0; black), or 25uM Ru-486 (RU25; blue) throughout adult

life. Dashed black line denotes the median survival. (B-E) Replicate lifespans of

conventionally colonised mated *TIGS > UAS-slif* females on defined media with ethanol

(RU0; black), 25uM Ru-486 throughout adult life (RU25; dark blue) or from day 35 (RU25

late, pale blue). Dashed black line denotes the median survival. (F) Internal bacterial load of

16 and 58 day old, and 58-day old Smurf flies (58S) mated female *TIGS > UAS-slif* females,

with induction of intestinal *slif* overexpression throughout adult lifespan (RU25) or from day

35 (Late RU25) and ethanol treated controls (RU0). Box plots show the 25-75th percentiles

and the median with the whiskers extending from min-max. Two-way Anova with Tukey's

multiple comparisons P-values are shown below graph in panel F.

To determine whether the age-related loss of *slif* expression is functionally relevant,

we knocked down *slimfast* expression specifically in intestinal tissue from early adulthood.

We used the *slif-antisense* line (*slif*[anti])[41] and the TIGS driver, a drug inducible geneswitch

Gal4[42,43], enabling us to restrict knockdown to the adult stage. We observed a significant

and reproducible lifespan extension in drug induced females compared to vehicle controls

(Fig. 5A and Supp. Fig 5A). Given that slimfast has been previously shown to regulate

feeding[44,45] and that reduced food intake itself can regulate lifespan we performed a

capillary feeding assay[34]. We found no observable difference in the volume of food

consumed (Fig. 5B). Considering that reduced intestinal *slif* may alter luminal nutrient

availability,

subsequently altering the intestinal microbiota, we measured bacterial load using qPCR of

the bacterial 16S gene. Interestingly, we observed reduced bacterial load in old *slif*[anti]

females (Fig. 5C), both prior to and following loss of intestinal barrier function. In contrast,

overexpression of *slif* in the intestine for the full adult lifespan or during later adult life had

no consistent impact on lifespan and did not change intestinal bacterial load (Supp. Fig. 5B-

F). These data suggest loss of intestinal *slif* expression in later life may be protective and

may confer improved control of the intestinal microbiota in the aged intestine.

Discussion

In this study we have developed a powerful new assay that enables us to investigate the

relationship between intestinal homeostasis and nutrient management in a genetically

tractable model system. We have used the D.U.M.P assay to demonstrate an increase in

amino acid levels in the faecal matter, and by proxy the intestinal lumen, of aged flies. It is

important to note that our targeted mass spectrometry approach measures only free amino

acids. Free amino acids in the faeces will include those remaining unabsorbed from the diet,

as well as those contributed by secretion from microbial or fly cells, and those released from

microbial or fly proteins by digestion. Comparison between the faecal content of

conventional and axenically reared flies has demonstrated the significant contribution of the

intestinal microbiota to the luminal amino acid pool. It also demonstrates the significant

changes in this contribution that result from age-related shifts in the microbial population.

How changes to microbial load and taxonomic representation in the aged intestinal

microbiota impacts the local nutritional environment and reciprocally how the local

nutritional environment impacts the microbiota warrant further investigation.

In addition to the microbial contribution, secreted proteins and shed fly cells may

contribute to the nutrient pool. Elevated immune responses in the aged intestine could

raise both the levels of secreted proteins (including antimicrobial peptides and other

immune responsive proteins) and intestinal cell death and shedding[6,7,46,47]. Our current data

cannot distinguish between amino acids remaining unabsorbed from the diet and those

contributed from secreted fly proteins or shed intestinal cells. However, it will be important

to address the relative contributions of these amino acid sources in future studies. Reduced

expression levels of a subset of amino acid transporters in the aged intestine suggests that

reduced amino acid transport into epithelial cells also contributes to elevated luminal levels

in aged animals. While past studies have focused on the importance of dietary protein levels

to healthy ageing (reviewed in Babygirija and Lamming, 2021[32]), our data highlight

additional sources of elevated amino acid exposure in the aged intestine. Could reductions

in dietary protein levels be effective in improving health because they counter natural

increases in amino acid exposure that result from age-related intestinal decline?

As we would expect from previous studies[32], increasing dietary amino acid levels

shortens lifespan. It is important to note that when feeding additional amino acids to young

flies we assume an increased uptake of amino acids by the intestine, and therefore elevated

amino acid levels in intestinal cells and other tissues. However, reduced transport of some

amino acids by the aged intestine would mean that in older individuals elevating dietary

amino acid levels may not result in elevated levels of all amino acids in the intestinal cells or

other tissues, with potential consequences for metabolic status. Therefore, it is important to

distinguish between the impacts of distinct amino acid pools, those that remain in the gut

lumen and those that undergo transport into the organism. This is evidenced in our data,

given that knockdown of *slimfast* can be expected to raise luminal levels of the amino acids

that it transports but, contrary to the impact of increased dietary amino acids, extends

lifespan.

There is some evidence that increased levels of *slimfast* substrates may be beneficial

to gut health. Arginine has been shown to improve intestinal immunity phenotypes in mice,

through modulation of the microbiota[48]. Increasing arginine levels also increases the

diversity of murine microbiota[49,50] improving the phenotypes of a colitis model[49]. The

benefits can also be passed on through faecal transplantation, whereas antibiotic treatment

prevents the improved colitis phenotypes[49,51]. Supplementation of lysine in lambs has also

been shown to protect intestinal mucosa and integrity, enhance innate immune responses,

and alter microbial composition[52]. It is unknown whether the benefits of supplementing

with these amino acids requires their uptake by intestinal cells, or whether elevated levels in

the gut lumen is sufficient. The impact of elevated levels of *slimfast* substrates on the

microbiota may be reflected in the improved microbial control that we record following

slimfast knockdown.

In addition to impacts on the microbiota, some amino acids may have specific roles

in maintaining health of the intestinal epithelium. For example, increased glutamate

concentration has been shown to stimulate intestinal stem cell (ISC) proliferation in

Drosophila[40] and in mice[53]. Interestingly, whether proliferation was impaired or stimulated

depended on glutamate concentration[40]. L-arginine has also been shown to stimulate ISC

expansion in mice[54]. Elevated activity of the amino acid sensing Target of Rapamycin (TOR)

pathway, an established regulator of longevity, as a result of elevated amino acid levels may

also have a role in intestinal decline. Recently, it has been demonstrated that TOR inhibition

delays age-related intestinal decline[4,55–58] with genetic interventions targeted to intestinal

stem cells sufficient to preserve homeostasis[4,58]. Evidence is also emerging that elevated

TOR activation in intestinal cells may be a feature of natural ageing[4,59]. The impact of

reduced *slimfast* levels on larval growth is mediated by reduced TOR activity[41], and we

suggest that reduced *slimfast* levels in the gut may protect against elevated luminal amino

acid levels via reduced TOR activity.

Substrates of *slimfast* also have roles beyond the gut. Reduced levels of arginine and

lysine are associated with ageing skeletal muscle[60], while arginine and lysine have been

shown to have a positive association with lifespan in a study of fibroblasts taken from a

range of primate, avian and rodent species[61]. Lysine also decreases with age in *C. elegans*[62–

[64]. and supplementation of arginine or lysine increases the lifespan[65]. High lysine levels have

also been linked to longevity in humans[66]. Despite the evidence for the beneficial effects of

arginine in the gut, arginine supplementation has been shown to increase the secretion of

IGF-1[67] and growth hormone[68], both of which have pro-ageing functions in mice[69–71]. It also

stimulates activity of the TOR pathway[72]. Increased arginine levels have been found in aged

Drosophila[73] and supplementation of 20mM arginine to the diet of Drosophila leads to a

lifespan reduction, and reduced fecundity[74]. These apparent contradictions again suggest

pleiotropic roles for individual amino acids acting in metabolism and as signalling molecules

systemically and within individual tissues.

Moving forward it will be important to deepen our understanding of the impact of

intestinal ageing on the epithelium's ability to take up nutrients, the resulting changes to

the local nutrient environment and the apparent pleiotropic roles of individual nutrients.

Such understanding will be critical in the development of rationally designed nutritional

therapies. For example, despite the evidence to suggest a detrimental effect of high-protein

diets, there are currently calls to increase the daily recommended protein intake for elderly

persons to prevent or reduce age-related muscle loss and sarcopenia[75]. Aged muscle cells

are believed to be resistant to stimuli such that elderly individuals must consume higher

amounts of protein to stimulate muscle growth[76–78]. However, our data suggest reduced

amino acid uptake by the intestine may be an additional mechanism underlying reduced

muscle mass in the elderly. Perhaps higher quantities of protein must be consumed because

a lower proportion is absorbed and bioavailable to the muscles. Raising protein levels in the

intestinal lumen may counter reduced amino acid transport ability but may also hasten

intestinal decline.

In conclusion, our findings demonstrate that age-related decline impacts nutrient

management by the intestinal epithelium, which profoundly changes the local nutritional

environment with consequences for age-related health. While we have focused on one class

of nutrient and on the impact of intestinal ageing, the D.U.M.P. assay has much broader

applicability. In combination with the genetic tools available in Drosophila and the

tractability of the Drosophila microbiota, the D.U.M.P. assay will enable researchers in this

field to assess the impact of a wide range of perturbations on the gut nutrient pool. For

example, how does nutrient availability change during infection or following a loss of

cellular homeostasis and subsequent regeneration? What role does nutritional availability

play in these processes? In what ways do specific microbes contribute to the nutrient pool, and how does this change following perturbation of the microbial community? How do changes in the expression of nutrient transporters impact the nutrient pool, in what circumstances beyond aging do these changes occur, and what are the consequences for intestinal physiology, microbial balance and organismal health? Given that the local nutritional environment is not simply determined by the diet, such studies are an essential complement to efforts to understand the impact of the levels of specific nutrients on intestinal homeostasis, metabolic status, and organismal health.

Materials and Methods

Fly stocks

This work used the wild-type Canton-S strain (gift of Linda Partridge), TIGS-2-GeneSwitch driver line[79] (gift of David Walker), UAS-slif[anti] (BDSC #52655) and UAS-slif (BDSC #52661).

Fly culture

Flies were maintained in either vials or bottles in incubators with 65% humidity and a 12-hour light/dark cycle, at either 18°C or 25ºC. Stocks were maintained on cornmeal medium comprised of 1 % agar (SLS, FLY1020), 3% dried inactivated yeast (Genesee Scientific, 62-106), 1.9 % sucrose (Duchefa Biochemie, S0809), 3.8 % dextrose (Melford, G32040) and 9.1 % cornmeal (SLS, FLY1110), all given in wt/vol, and water at 90% of the final volume. Preservatives; 10 % Nipagin (SLS, FLY1136) in ethanol and an acid mixture comprised of 4.15 % phosphoric acid (VWR, 20624.262) and 41.8 % propionic acid (Sigma, P5561) in water, previously described by Lewis, 1960[80], were added following boiling.

Defined media

The standard defined medium was prepared as in Piper *et al*. 2014[29] using the suggested addition of 50 % more vitamin solution and the exome matched amino acid concentrations 'FLYAA' reported in Piper *et al.* 2017[30]. Contrary to the published method, buffer A containing the metal ion solutions, low solubility amino acids, cholesterol, MilliQ water and acetate buffer was brought to a boil in the microwave, not autoclaved at 121 ° C for 15 minutes, except in the preparation of sterile medium for axenic flies. The remaining

ingredients of essential and non-essential amino acid solutions, cysteine and glutamic acid

solutions, vitamin solution, lipid-related metabolite solution, folate, 10 % nipagin in ethanol,

and propionic acid were added once buffer A was cooled to 65 ° C, and thoroughly

incorporated. Aged AA media was prepared in the same way, but both the quantities of

amino acids used to make the stock solutions and the volume of stock solution used was

altered. The masses of amino acids added to the AA media were calculated by the

difference between mean old and mean young concentrations measured by the D.U.M.P.

assay in conventionally reared flies, plus the original defined media amino acid

concentration for each amino acid. Complete recipes for both the standard and Aged AA

media are given in a supplemental protocol file attached to this manuscript.

Lifespan

All experiments were carried out using age-matched mated females, housed at a density of

27-32 flies per vial. These flies were flipped onto new food within 24 hours of eclosing. They

were then allowed at least a further 24 hours to mate before the mated females were

sorted under light CO_2 anaesthesia into vials containing defined media at 48-96 hours after

eclosion. Flies were flipped to fresh food every 2-3 days and the number of dead flies was

counted. At least 6 vials of 30 females were used per lifespan. To control for bacterial

growth on the food, control and experimental flies are always transferred to fresh food at

the same time points.

Mifepristone or RU-486 (Cayman chemicals, 10006317), hereafter referred to as RU,

food was prepared by the addition of 125 μL of 20 mg/ml RU stock solution per 100mL food.

To ensure sufficient volume for effective mixing 125 μL of RU stock was added to 125 μL of

100% ethanol per 100 mL of food prior to addition to the food. Control food was prepared

by the addition of 250 μL ethanol per 100 mL food. Food was mixed thoroughly to ensure a

homogenous solution.

Smurf assay

The smurf assay[31] for intestinal barrier integrity was performed by flipping flies onto food

containing 2.5 % FD&C blue food dye #1 for 24 hours (FastColours, 08BLU00201). After 24

hours, the flies were flipped back onto dye-free food and the number of 'smurf' and 'non-

smurf' flies were recorded.

Generation of axenic and reassociated flies

To generate sterile (axenic) flies, eggs were collected on apple juice agar plates seeded with a paste of live bakers yeast and ddH$_2$O, then washed and treated with bleach and ethanol as described previously[81]. All steps were carried out in a laminar flow hood. Briefly, <14 hour-old embryos were dechorionated in 2 % sodium hypochlorite solution for 2.5 minutes, rinsed in 70 % ethanol for 5 minutes and then rinsed with ~200 mL sterile PBS. Embryos were then resuspended in sterile 0.01 % PBSTx (PBS + 0.01 % Triton X-100 (Sigma, X100)) and transferred to sterile autoclaved cornmeal medium.

To re-associate sterilised embryos with parental gut bacteria, 100 µL adult fly homogenate (1 fly/20 µL sterile PBS) was added to sterile cornmeal medium prior to addition of axenic embryos and allowed to dry. Flies were surface sterilised for 5 minutes in 70 % ethanol prior to homogenisation to ensure only internal microbes were present in the homogenate. Where conventionally reared flies were used as a further control to axenic or re-associated flies, 30 mated females were placed in vials containing sterilised cornmeal food and allowed to lay eggs for 24 hours, starting the evening prior to embryo collection. All medium for sterile and control flies was sterilised by autoclaving for 15 minutes at 121 °C, and all equipment used to push flies was first sterilised in Virkon for at least 20 minutes, then rinsed and stored in 80 % ethanol. Gas pads were subsequently dried by running CO$_2$ through them. To maintain sterility, axenic females were separated into lifespan vials next to an open flame and flipped to new sterile food every 2-3 days in a laminar flow hood.

Sterile conditions were confirmed throughout lifespans by testing the sterility of soiled vials. Soiled stoppers were pressed into single wells of 12-well plates (Starlab, E2996-1610) containing 3 mL of pre-poured and set LB Miller Agar. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24-48 hours to check for bacterial growth.

Drosophila Undigested Metabolite Profiling (D.U.M.P.) assay

Preparation

This assay relies on knowing the full content of the defined media. To prepare, defined media was cooked as described above, with the addition of 2.5 % blue food dye #1 after cooking (as in the Smurf assay). As well as preparing 4 mL vials, the food was poured into

petri-dishes for the assembly of collection vials. Collection vials are open-ended glass tubes with 2.4 cm external diameter and 9.6 cm high, similar dimensions to standard fly vials. These were provided by the glassblowing workshop within the Durham University chemistry department. Prior to beginning the assay, collection tubes were prepared by using each tube to stamp out a disc of food from the prepared petri-dish. The food discs were secured in place in the tube ends with parafilm. This plugs one end of the vial; the other end of the tube was plugged with a foam Droso-Plug (SLS, FLY1000).

24 hours prior to sample collection, flies were flipped onto defined media containing 2.5 % FD&C blue food dye #1. This ensures that the flies' guts will be full of the assay media containing the dye for normalisation. Additionally, this is enough time for flies losing intestinal barrier function to become clearly visible, enabling their exclusion from the assay.

Sample collection

To begin the assay, flies were sorted into the pre-prepared collection vials under light CO_2 anaesthesia. Approximately 55 - 65 non-smurf, mated females were sorted into each vial. More flies do not increase the amount of faecal deposit as when overcrowded they get stuck at the bottom of the vial. 6 collection vials were used per sample to ensure a large enough sample for full analysis. Once the flies awoke from anaesthesia, they were incubated at 25°C for between 4 and 5 hours to eat and defecate as usual. Standing the vials at a 45° angle results in an improved sample, particularly when collecting samples from aged flies with reduced mobility. Following incubation, the flies were anaesthetised with CO_2, the parafilm removed and the food disc along with the flies was pushed out from the bottom of the tube. The outside of the vial and the food residue was cleaned with a tissue dampened by milliQ water until the tissue came away clean.

The collection vials were all the same weight (26.91g ± 0.41) and fit inside 50mL falcon tubes. Once within the 50 mL tube, the collection vials were thoroughly rinsed with 1.5 mL of water to collect the polar, water-soluble faecal fraction, and spun down. The same 1.5 mL of water was used to rinse each tube. This ensured the sample could be frozen and lyophilised quickly. Two falcon tubes are used, with the collection vials each being washed, then the water sample split between the falcons, to ensure the tubes are balanced for centrifugation. Once all tubes are rinsed, the sample is transferred to a microcentrifuge

tube. The rinse is repeated a second time to ensure all faecal matter is collected, resulting in

two water-wash samples of 1.5 mL.

The vials were then rinsed thoroughly with a 1:1 mixture of DCM and methanol to

collect non-polar deposits. The rinses were carried out in a small glass beaker to collect the

sample. The volume for this wash was not limited, but approximately 5 mL was used for all

the tubes. Plastic use should be avoided with the DCM:MeOH wash. All samples were frozen

at -80 ° C prior to downstream processing.

Sample processing

The two water washes were combined, and 1-2 μL was removed and diluted 1/100 for the

blue dye to be quantified at 628nm absorbance, on the Bio-tek Synergy H4, alongside a

standard curve of known concentration. The remaining sample was split three ways to

enable analyte-specific processing and quantification. While we only quantified amino acids

in our final samples for the purpose of this study, we provide details for initial processing of

the other sample types here. The amino acid and sugar fractions were lyophilised and

weighed, then resuspended in 40 μL 0.1N HCl, or 72:28 MeCN:H_2O + 0.1% NH_4CN per mg

respectively. The resuspended amino acid sample was diluted 1:100 in HILIC A for LC-MS/MS

analysis, and the sugar samples were diluted between 1:10 and 1:100 in the 72:28

MeCN:H_2O + 0.1% NH_4CN prior to LC-MS/MS analysis. The third fraction was for cholesterol

analysis. An equal volume of DCM was added to the water fraction, then the sample was

vortexed for 2 minutes prior to 15 minutes of centrifugation at 1000x rpm. The DCM layer

was removed and added to the DCM:MeOH wash, this was dried under a stream of N_2, then

resuspended in 200 μL 1:1 IPA:MeCN, and spiked with 10 μM d6-cholesterol prior to LC-

MS/MS analysis.

Amino acid quantitation

LC-MS/MS analysis was performed on a Shimadzu Nexera X2 Ultra-Fast Liquid

Chromatography system consisting of binary pumps, an on-line degassing unit, an

autosampler, and a column oven (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan), coupled with an AB

Sciex 6500 QTRAP mass spectrometer consisting of an electrospray ionization (ESI) source

(AB SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA). 1uL of sample of injected on to a BEH Amide (1.0 x

100mm, Waters, Milford, MA, USA), BEH HILIC (1.0 x 100mm, Waters, Milford, MA, USA) or

Ascentis HILIC (2.1 x 150mm, Waters, Milford, MA, USA) maintained at 40 °C, at a flow rate

of 0.2 mL/min or 0.3mL/min for the 1.0 and 2.1mm columns respectively. Three columns

were used to enable separation of isomers leucine and isoleucine, and optimal peak shape

for more accurate quantification. The mobile phases consisted of Solution A (85% MeCN +

0.15% FA + 10mM ammonium formate) and Solution B (85% H_2) + 15% MeCN + 0.15% FA +

10mM ammonium formate). A gradient elution was optimized for the separation of amino

acids with 1.5 min equilibration 0-6.0 min, 0% Solution B; 6.0-10 min, 0-100% Solution B; 10-

12 min, 100% Solution B; 12-12.1 min, 0% Solution B; 12.1-18 min, 0% Solution B; with a

total run time of 21 min. The ion source was operated in positive mode under an optimal

condition: curtain gas, 40 psi; nebulizer gas, 50 psi; auxiliary gas, 50 psi; ion spray voltage,

5500 V; and temperature, 500°C. Optimal multiple-reaction monitoring (MRM) transitions

were identified for the amino acids (Supplemental table 2). Quantification was performed

using an external calibration curve, amino acids stocks in 0.1N HCl were diluted with HILIC A

as per sample preparation. Data acquisition and analysis were all performed with Analyst

1.6.3 software (AB SCIEX)

Analysis

Relative quantification was performed using the blue food dye; the mass-spec calculated

concentration (μM) was adjusted for the sample dilution. This was then divided by the

concentration of the blue dye (μM) for that sample.

The percentage change between young and old timepoints was calculated using the

equation:

$\% \ change = \frac{O - Y}{Y} * 100$

Where O is the normalised concentration at the old timepoint, and Y is the normalised

concentration at the young timepoint. The young concentrations from all replicates were

compared against the old concentrations from each replicate.

The microbial concentration was calculated at young and old timepoints by:

$Microbial \ contribution = conventional \ concentration - axenic \ concentration$

Where the conventional concentrations from each replicate were compared against the

axenic concentrations for each replicate and at every timepoint.

Supplemental table 2. MRM transitions for the amino acids quantified

Q1 m/z	Q3 m/z	Time (msec)	Amino Acid	DP (V)	EP (V)	CE (V)	CXP (V)
166.1	120.1	50	Phe 1	30	10	15	12
132.1	86.1	50	Leu 1	36	10	23	14
132.1	86.1	50	Ile 1	40	7	15	8
150	104	50	Met 1	30	10	15	12
118.1	72.1	50	Val 1	30	10	15	12
116	70.1	50	Pro 1	30	10	15	12
182.1	136.1	50	Tyr 1	30	10	15	12
90.1	44.1	50	Ala 1	30	10	10	12
120	74.1	50	Thr 1	30	10	15	12
76	30.1	50	Gly 1	46	10	20	12
106	60	50	Ser 1	30	10	10	12
148	84	50	Glu 1	30	10	15	12
134	88	50	Asp 1	26	10	13	14
156	110.1	50	His 1	30	10	15	12
175.1	70.1	50	Arg 1	30	10	15	12
147.1	84.1	50	Lys 1	30	10	15	12
166	103	50	Phe 2	31	10	35	28
132.1	69	50	Leu 2	36	10	23	20
150	133	50	Met 2	21	10	13	8
118	55	50	Val 2	36	10	29	6
182.1	165	50	Tyr 2	46	10	19	6
120	56	50	Thr 2	86	10	23	6
106	42	50	Ser 2	31	10	31	4
148	102	50	Glu 2	21	10	15	4
134	70	50	Asp 2	36	10	25	6
156	93	50	His 2	41	10	31	8
175	116	50	Arg 2	46	10	19	6
147	130	50	Lys 2	16	10	13	6
122	76	50	Cys 1	30	10	10	15
205.1	146.1	50	Trp 1	36	10	10	23
147.1	84.1	50	Gln 1	30	10	10	15
133	74	50	Asn 1	30	10	25	25
133	116	50	Asn 2	31	10	13	8
205.1	188	50	Trp 2	41	7	15	9
147	102	50	Gln 2	31	10	19	12
132.1	69	50	Ile 2	40	7	24	9

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Capillary feeding (CAFÉ) assay

Food consumption was measured, essentially as previously described[34], using liquid defined

media made without agar and, due to issues in solubility, without cholesterol. Cotton wool

balls were placed at the bottom of drosophila vials and saturated with water. Any excess

water was removed, and the vial walls were dried. 10 µL pipette tips were trimmed to

enable capillary tubes to extend from the end with a tight fit so they wouldn't slip.

Drosophila flugs were cut in half laterally, and three prepared tips were inserted through

the flug. The capillary tubes were prepared by loading with 2 µL of mineral oil to limit

evaporation, and 10 µL of liquid food, then the interface between oil and food was marked.

10 mated female flies were sorted into the prepared vials. Each condition had a

minimum of 10 vials. Additionally, a minimum of three evaporation control vials, containing

no flies, were used for each experiment. Once the flies were awake within the vial, the

capillary tubes were inserted into the tips, so the ends extended just beyond the base of the

tip. The capillary tubes were changed every 24 hours, and the distance between the

interface between oil and food, and the mark denoting the starting interface was recorded.

The flies were allowed 24 hours to acclimate to the new feeding setup prior to

measurements being recorded. Following acclimation, the assay was performed for 24-48

hours. Food consumption was calculated in mm, by calculating the difference in the start

and end interface and subtracting the average difference in the start and end interface of

the evaporation controls. A conversion factor (X µL/mm) was calculated for each capillary

tube by dividing 10 (the amount of liquid food), by the starting interface (mm). This was

then used to convert food consumption in mm to µL.

Bacterial DNA extraction

30 whole flies were sorted under light CO_2 anaesthesia into microcentrifuge tubes and

frozen at -80 °C. Flies were then surface sterilised in 70 % ethanol for 5 minutes and rinsed

twice in sterile PBS. 5 flies were sorted into sterile microcentrifuge tubes and homogenised

in 200 µl lysis buffer (1 X TE, 1 % Triton X-100, 1/100 proteinase K (NEB, P8107S)) using a

mechanical pestle, with a further 300 µl of lysis buffer being added after homogenisation.

Lysate was incubated for 1.5 hours at 55 °C then transferred to screw cap vials containing

0.4 g sterilised low binding 100-micron silica beads (OPS Diagnostics, BLBG 100-200-11) and

vortexed for 10 minutes at max speed. Lysate was then transferred back to the original tube

and incubated for a further 1.5 hours at 55 °C followed by 10 minutes at 95 °C.

RNA extraction

Total RNA was extracted from 5 midguts per biological replicate. Midguts were dissected in

ice-cold PBS and included the cardia and midgut, through to the midgut-hindgut junction,

excluding the hindgut and Malpighian tubules. Midguts were homogenised in 100 µL

TRIzol™ (Thermofisher, 15596026) using a motorised pestle. RNA was extracted following

the standard TRIzol protocol.

cDNA preparation

For a 10 µL reaction, 1 µL DNase buffer (Thermo, EN0521) and 0.5 µL DNase 1 (Thermo,

EN0521) were added to 8.5 µL RNA solution and incubated for 30 minutes at 37 °C, to

remove any DNA contaminants. The DNase enzyme was then deactivated by the addition of

0.5 µL 50mM EDTA (Thermo, EN0521) and subsequent incubation for 10 minutes at 65 °C.

cDNA synthesis was carried out using Thermo Scientific's First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit. In

short, 1 µL of random hexamers (Thermo, SO142) were added and the samples were

incubated at 70 °C for 5 minutes before a 9 µL of a master mix containing 4 µL first strand

buffer (Thermo, EPO442), 0.5 µL RIbolock RNase inhibitor (Thermo, EO0382), 2 µL 10mM

dNTPs (Thermo, R0181), 0.2 µL RevertAid reverse transcriptase (Thermo, EPO442) and 2.3

µL molecular grade water (Sigma, W4502) per well, was added. The samples were then

incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature, followed by 1 hour at 37 °C and 10 minutes

at 70 °C. The samples were spun following each incubation step.

Quantitative PCR

qPCR was performed with Power SYBR™ Green master mix (Fisher, 10219284) on a Bio-RAD

CFX Connect Real-Time PCR detection system. Either 4.5 µL bacterial DNA or 1 µL of

Drosophila cDNA sample was used in a 10 µL reaction with 5 µL of Power SYBR™ Green and

0.5 µL of L + R primer mix. Any remaining volume was made up with molecular grade water.

Cycling conditions were: 95°C for 10 minutes, then 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds followed

by 60°C for 60 seconds. All calculated gene expression values were normalised to the value

of the housekeeping gene rp49. Levels of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene were normalised to

the level of the *Drosophila* Actin gene. The primer sequences used are given in table 1.

Table 1: Primer sequences

Target	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Reference
Actin 5C	TTGTCTGGGCAAGAGGATCAG	ACCACTCGCACTTGCACTTTC	[7]
CG1698	CCAGGCGTATGTGGGTTCATT	AGAGAGCGTCTTCTTGCCATT	This study
CG43693	CCGTTGGTAATCTCTCGGAAAA	AGCGATCCCTTTAGCAAGTGT	This study
CG5535	TTATCCGCCTTCGATCTTACCG	CGGCATATTGCTTGGACACTT	This study
CG7255	CGGCAGTGTCTCAAAGTCG	TGGCGAACCATTGTTCAGTAT	This study
CG8785	AATGACTTCAACTCGAAAGCCA	GCTCGAAGGGATGGTAGGGA	This study
DmGlut	CGCCAATTAGTACCGAGATGA	CGCTGGGGTATCACGAAAT	This study
Eaat1	ATTGTGCCGCTTTTGGTCTCA	GTAATGGCTCTGGTAGCAATCTT	This study
Kazachoc (kcc)	GCCGTGGAAATCGTATTGAC	AGCGTCCTTGGTGAAGTCC	This study
NAAT1	CTTATGGGTTTGGTCTACGTTACA	CAGACCATAAACCCACACGA	This study
Minidiscs (mnd)	TGTGCCCTCGCTGATATTC	CCACGTAGCTGACGTAGTTGA	This study
Pathetic (path)	ATGTGCTCCGGTCTCATCAT	CTTGTGTCCGCATTTTACCA	This study
Rp49	ATCGGTTACGGATCGAACAA	GACAATCTCCTTGCGCTTCT	This study
Slimfast (slif)	CACAGTGAACAGCTACACGAAGA	GGTCCAGGTTAAAGAGCATGG	This study
Sobremesa	TGGGGTGGCTTTAATTGTTGG	CAGTGCGAACCAGTAAACCG	This study
16S	AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG	CTGCTGCCTYCCGTA	[82]

Statistics

All Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9, excluding the binomial tests

and principal component analyses which were performed in R (Rstudio build 372, R version

4. 0. 3). Survival curve analysis was completed using the log-rank test in GraphPad Prism;

the median survival was calculated by Graph Pad Prism 8 and is an approximation to the

closest sampling time. Quantitative PCR data and normalised DUMP amino acid data were

cleaned in GraphPad Prism, with outliers detected using the Robust regression and outlier

removal (ROUT) method with Q=1. Normality of the cleaned data was tested by Shapiro-

Wilk tests to determine the most appropriate statistical test. Differences between two

points were analysed by students t-test, or mann-whitney tests for normally and non-

normally distributed data respectively. Differences in gene expression values between more

than two time points, within or between conditions, were analysed by *two way Anova with*

Tukeys multiple comparison. P-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Bar-graph error bars depict ± standard error of the mean (SEM). For all box-plots shown,

boxes display the 25-75th percentiles, with the horizontal bar at the median, and whiskers

extending from the minimum to maximum points.

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