Metabolic retroconversion of trimethylamine *N*-oxide and the gut microbiota

Lesley Hoyles[1]*, Maria L. Jiménez-Pranteda[2]*, Julien Chilloux[1]*, Francois Brial[3], Antonis

Myridakis[1], Thomas Aranias[3], Christophe Magnan[4], Glenn R. Gibson[2], Jeremy D. Sanderson[5], Jeremy

K. Nicholson[1], Dominique Gauguier[1,3], Anne L. McCartney[2]† and Marc-Emmanuel Dumas[1]†

[1]Integrative Systems Medicine and Digestive Disease, Department of Surgery and Cancer, Faculty of

Medicine, Imperial College London, Exhibition Road, London SW7 2AZ, UK

[2]Food Microbial Sciences Unit, Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, School of Chemistry,

Food and Pharmacy, Faculty of Life Sciences, The University of Reading, Whiteknights Campus,

Reading RG6 6UR, UK

[3]Sorbonne Universities, University Pierre & Marie Curie, University Paris Descartes, Sorbonne Paris

Cité, INSERM UMR_S 1138, Cordeliers Research Centre, Paris, France

[4]Sorbonne Paris Cité, Université Denis Diderot, Unité de Biologie Fonctionnelle et Adaptative, CNRS

UMR 8251, 75205 Paris, France

[5]Department of Gastroenterology, Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust and King's College

London, London, UK

*These authors made equal contributions to this work; shared first authorship.

†**Corresponding authors:** Anne L. McCartney, a.l.mccartney@reading.ac.uk; Marc-Emmanuel

Dumas, m.dumas@imperial.ac.uk

Running title: Reduction of TMAO by the human gut microbiota

Abbreviations: AUC, area under the curve; DMA, dimethylamine; FISH, fluorescence *in situ*

hybridization; FMO, flavin mono-oxygenase; MMA, monomethylamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine;

TMA, trimethylamine; TMAO, trimethylamine *N*-oxide; UPLC–MS/MS, ultra-performance liquid

chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry.

Keywords: co-metabolic axis; gut–liver axis; metabolomics; *Enterobacteriaceae*; lactic acid bacteria.

ABSTRACT

The dietary methylamines choline, carnitine and phosphatidylcholine are used by the gut microbiota

to produce a range of metabolites, including trimethylamine (TMA). However, little is known about

the use of trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO) by this consortium of microbes. A feeding study using

deuterated TMAO in C57BL6/J mice demonstrated microbial conversion of TMAO to TMA, with

uptake of TMA into the bloodstream and its conversion to TMAO. Antibiotic-treated mice lacked

microbial activity necessary to convert TMAO to TMA, with deuterated TMAO being taken up

directly into the bloodstream. In batch-culture fermentation systems inoculated with human faeces,

growth of *Enterobacteriaceae* was stimulated in the presence of TMAO. Human-derived faecal and

caecal bacteria (n = 66 isolates) were screened on solid and liquid media for their ability to use

TMAO, with metabolites in spent media analysed by ^{1}H-NMR. As with the *in vitro* fermentation

experiments, TMAO stimulated the growth of *Enterobacteriaceae*; these bacteria produced most

TMA from TMAO. Caecal/small intestinal isolates of *Escherichia coli* produced more TMA from

TMAO than their faecal counterparts. Lactic acid bacteria produced increased amounts of lactate

when grown in the presence of TMAO, but did not produce large amounts of TMA. In summary,

TMA can be produced by the gut microbiota (predominantly *Enterobacteriaceae*) from TMAO. This

TMA is then taken up by the host and converted back to TMAO. That is, metabolic retroconversion

occurs. In addition, TMAO influences microbial metabolism depending on isolation source and taxon

of gut bacterium.

INTRODUCTION

Dietary methylamines such as choline, trimethylamine *N*-oxide (TMAO),
phosphatidylcholine (PC) and carnitine are present in a number of foodstuffs, including meat, fish,
nuts and eggs. It has long been known that gut bacteria are able to use choline in a fermentation-like
process, with trimethylamine (TMA), ethanol, acetate and ATP among the known main end-products
(Wünsche, 1940; Bradbeer, 1965; Zeisel *et al.*, 1983). TMA can be used by members of the order
Methanomassiliicoccales (*Archaea*) present in the human gut to produce methane (Borrel *et al.*,
2017), or taken up by the host. Microbially produced TMA derived from PC is absorbed in the small
intestine (Stremmel *et al.*, 2017). TMA diffuses into the bloodstream from the intestine via the hepatic
vein to hepatocytes, where it is converted to trimethylamine *N*-oxide (TMAO) by hepatic flavin-
containing mono-oxygenases (FMOs; Bennett *et al.*, 2013). The bulk of TMAO, and lesser amounts
of TMA, derived from dietary methylamines can be detected in urine within 6 h of ingestion, and both
compounds are excreted in urine but not faeces (de la Huerga and Popper, 1951; Taesuwan *et al.*,
2017). TMAO can also be detected in human skeletal muscle within 6 h of an oral dose of TMAO
(Taesuwan *et al.*, 2017).

TMAO present in urine and plasma is considered a biomarker for non-alcoholic fatty liver
disease (NAFLD), insulin resistance and cardiovascular disease (Dumas *et al.*, 2006; Spencer *et al.*,
2011; Tang *et al.*, 2013; Dumas *et al.*, 2017). Feeding TMAO to high-fat-fed C57BL/6 mice
exacerbates impaired glucose tolerance, though the effect on the gut microbiota is unknown (Gao *et al.*, 2014). Low plasma PC and high urinary methylamines (including TMAO) were observed in
insulin-resistant mice on a high-fat diet, suggesting microbial methylamine metabolism directly
influences choline bioavailability (Dumas *et al.*, 2006), and choline bioavailability is known to
contribute to hepatic steatosis in patients (Spencer *et al.*, 2011). High levels of circulating TMAO are
associated with cardiovascular disease (Tang *et al.*, 2013). However, circulating TMAO has been
suggested to play a role in protection from hyperammonemia, acting as an osmoprotectant, and from
glutamate neurotoxicity (Kloiber *et al.*, 1988; Miñana *et al.*, 1996). Recently, chronic exposure to
TMAO has been shown to attenuate diet-associated impaired glucose tolerance in mice, and reduce
endoplasmic reticulum stress and adipogenesis in adipocytes (Dumas *et al.*, 2017). There is a basal

77   level of TMA and TMAO detected in human urine even in the absence of dietary supplementation (de

78   la Huerga *et al.*, 1953), suggesting use of (microbial and/or host) cell-derived choline or PC in the

79   intestinal tract by the gut microbiota.

80   While it is well established that choline (Zeisel *et al.*, 1983; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Spencer *et al.*,

2011), PC (Zeisel *et al.*, 1983; Tang *et al.*, 2013) and carnitine (Rebouche *et al.*, 1984; Seim *et al.*,

1985; Rebouche and Chenard, 1991; Koeth *et al.*, 2013) are used by the human and rodent gut

microbiotas to produce TMA, little is known about the reduction of TMAO (predominantly from fish)

to TMA (or other compounds) by members of these consortia. TMAO is found at concentrations of

20–120 mg per 100 g fish fillet (Jebsen and Riaz, 1977). Ingestion of fish by humans leads to

increased urinary excretion of dimethylamine (DMA) and TMA, from 5.6 to 24.1 and from 0.2 to 1.6

μmol/24 h/kg of body weight, respectively (Zeisel and Da Costa, 1986). Individuals with

trimethylaminuria (fish odour syndrome), in which TMA is not detoxified to TMAO by hepatic

FMOs, have been shown to reduce 40–60 % of an oral dose of TMAO to TMA (al-Waiz *et al.*, 1987).

It was suggested the gut microbiota was responsible for reducing TMAO in these individuals, and in

those individuals without trimethylaminuria the TMA was re-oxidized in the liver before being

excreted in the urine. The process was termed '*metabolic retroversion*' "*(i.e., a cycle of reductive*

followed by oxidative reactions to regenerate TMAO)" (al-Waiz *et al.*, 1987). The reduction of

TMAO to TMA is most commonly associated with the gut microbiota of marine fish, with the TMA

generated by these bacteria contributing to the characteristic odour of rotting fish (Barrett and Kwan,

1985). Members of the class *Gammaproteobacteria*, which includes a number of food spoilage

organisms, are known to reduce TMAO to TMA quantitatively and are unable to reduce TMA further

(Takagi and Ishimoto, 1983; Barrett and Kwan, 1985). The conversion of TMAO to TMA by bacteria

represents a unique form of anaerobic respiration, in which TMAO reductase acts as a terminal

electron acceptor (from NADH or formate) for respiratory electron flow (Takagi and Ishimoto, 1983).

101   Mining of metagenomic data (*torA*) suggests *Proteobacteria* (particularly *Escherichia* and

Klebsiella spp.) are likely to contribute greatest to the production of TMA from TMAO in the human

gut via the TMAO reductase pathway, with *Actinobacteria* (*Eggerthellaceae*) becoming more

important under stress (Jameson *et al.*, 2016). Other microbial genes are associated with production of

TMA from choline (*cutC*), glycine-betaine (*grdH*), L-carnitine (*cntA*) and γ-butyrobetaine (*cntA*)

(Borrel *et al.*, 2017). A search of the NCBI nucleotide database with the phrase 'TMAO reductase'

also suggests many other bacteria of human intestinal origin (namely, *Salmonella*, *Helicobacter*,

Prevotella, *Bacillus* and *Bacteroides* spp.) should be able to reduce TMAO to TMA. However, this

trait has not been examined *in vitro* for isolates of intestinal origin.

Consequently, we carried out an *in vivo* study in mice to confirm use of TMAO by the mouse

gut microbiota and to allow us to examine metabolic retroconversion of TMAO in a murine model.

We then used an *in vitro* fermentation system to highlight the effect of TMAO on the human faecal

microbiota. Finally, we screened a panel of human faecal and caecal/small intestinal isolates to

determine which members of the human gut microbiota were able to reduce TMAO to TMA, and

whether their metabolism was affected by being grown in the presence of TMAO.

METHODS

Animal work

Groups of six-week-old C57BL6/J mice (Janvier Labs, Courtaboeuf, France) were received

and acclimated in specific pathogen-free (SPF) maintenance conditions. They were fed with a

standard chow diet (R04-40, Safe, Augy, France) and were either given free access to tap water or

treated with the antibiotic cocktail (0.5 g/L vancomycin hydrochloride, 1 g/L neomycin trisulfate, 1

g/L metronidazole, 1 g/L ampicillin sodium; all antibiotics were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) for

14 days. Mice were given in the morning by gavage either a solution of d_9-TMAO at 1×10^{-4} M

(Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc., DLM-4779-0, UK) or saline and euthanized 6 h later by

cervical dislocation. Blood samples were collected by tail tipping every 2 h in Microvette® CB 300

Lithium Heparin (Sarstedt, Marnay, France). Plasma was separated by centrifugation (10 min, 5000 ***g***,

4 °C) and stored at -80 °C until analysed by ultra-performance liquid chromatography–tandem mass

spectrometry (UPLC–MS/MS).

All procedures were authorized following review by the institutional ethics committee

(Sorbonne Universities) and carried out under national license conditions.

UPLC–MS/MS determination of plasma TMA, d_9-TMA, TMAO and d_9-TMAO

UPLC-MS/MS was employed for the determination of TMA, d_9-TMA, TMAO and d_9-

TMAO. Samples (10 µL) were spiked with 10 µL Internal Standard solution (d_9-choline and $^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-

TMA in water; 1 mg/L, Sigma-Aldrich). Ethyl 2-bromoacetate solution (45 µL) (15 g/L ethyl 2-

bromoacetate, 1 % NH_4OH in acetonitrile; ChromaSolv grade, Sigma-Aldrich) was added and

derivatization of TMAs (TMA, d_9-TMA and $^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA) to their ethoxy-analogues was completed

after 30 min at room temperature. Protein/lipid precipitation solution (935 µL) (94 % acetonitrile/5

%water/1 % formic acid; ChromaSolv grade, Sigma-Aldrich) was added, samples were centrifuged

(20 min, 20,000 *g*, 4 °C) and were transferred to UPLC-autosampler vials. Sample injections (5 µL

loop) were performed with a Waters Acquity UPLC-Xevo TQ-S UPLC-MS/MS system equipped

with an Acquity BEH HILIC (2.1×100 mm, 1.7 µm) chromatographic column. An isocratic elution

was applied with 10 mM ammonium formate (Sigma-Aldrich) in 95:5 (v/v) acetronitrile:water for 7

min at 750 µL/min and 50 °C. Positive electrospray (ESI+) was used as ionization source and mass

spectrometer parameters were set as follows: capillary, cone and sources voltages at -700, -18 and

50 V, respectively, desolvation temperature at 600 °C, desolvation/cone/nebuliser gases were high

purity nitrogen (BOC) at 1000 L/h, 150 L/h and 7 bar, respectively. Collision gas was high-purity

argon (BOC). Mass spectrometer was operated in multiple reaction monitoring mode. The monitored

transitions were the following: for TMA, +146 → +118/59 *m/z* (23/27 V); for d_9-TMA, +155 →

+127/68 *m/z* (21/23 V); for $^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA, +150 → +63/122 *m/z* (27/22 V); for TMAO, +76 →

+59/58 *m/z* (12/13 V); for d_9-TMAO, +85 → +68/66 *m/z* (18/20 V); and for d_9-choline, +108 →

+60/45 *m/z* (20/22 V). The system was controlled by MassLynx software, also used for data

acquisition and analysis.

^{1}H-NMR spectroscopy and data analysis

Medium samples were randomized and centrifuged (5 min, 16000 *g*). Aliquots (50 µL) of the

supernatants were diluted in 550 µL D_2O containing 1 mM trimethylsilyl-(2,2,3,3-2H$_4$)-1-propionate.

Samples were transferred to 5 mm NMR tubes and measured on a NMR spectrometer (Bruker)

operating at 600.22 MHz ^{1}H frequency as described previously (Dona *et al.*, 2014). ^{1}H-NMR spectra

were pre-processed and analysed as described previously (Dumas *et al.*, 2006) using the Statistical

Recoupling of Variables-algorithm (Blaise *et al.*, 2009). Structural assignment was performed as

described in Dona *et al.* (2016), using in-house and publicly available databases.

***In vitro* fermentation systems**

Freshly voided faecal samples were obtained from three healthy human volunteers (one male

and two females; age range 29–31 years), none of whom had been prescribed antibiotics 6 months

prior to the study, eaten fish 3 days prior to sample collection or had any history of gastrointestinal

disease. The University of Reading's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) does not require that

specific ethical review and approval be given by UREC for the collection of faecal samples from

healthy human volunteers to inoculate *in vitro* fermentation systems. Samples were processed

immediately by diluting them 1 in 10 (w/w) in pre-reduced minimal broth and homogenizing them in

a filter bag in a stomacher (Stomacher 400 Lab System; Seward) for 2 min at 'high' speed. For each

donor, a batch culture vessel containing 175 mL of pre-reduced minimal broth was inoculated with

20 mL of the faecal homogenate and 5 mL of sterile H_2O containing 2 g TMAO dihydrate (Sigma-

Aldrich). Control vessels were inoculated with 20 mL of the faecal homogenate and 5 mL of sterile

H_2O. The final working volume of each batch culture vessel was 200 mL. The pH of each vessel (pH

6.5) was controlled automatically by the addition of 2 M HCl or 2 M NaOH. pH controllers were

supplied by Electrolab. The contents of each vessel were stirred constantly. An anaerobic

environment was maintained by constantly sparging the vessels with O_2-free N_2. The temperature of

each vessel was maintained at 37 °C by use of a circulating waterbath connected to each fermentation

vessel. The experiment was run for 9 h, with samples taken at 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 9 h.

Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) analysis

Aliquots (2× 375 μL) of sample were fixed in ice-cold 4 % paraformaldehyde for 4 h, washed

in sterile phosphate-buffered saline and stored for FISH analysis as described by Martín-Peláez *et al.*

(2008). **Supplementary Table 1** gives details for probes used in this study. Probes were synthesized

commercially (MWG-Biotech) and labelled with the fluorescent dye cyanine 3 (Cy3; excitation λ,

514 nm; emission λ, 566 nm; fluorescence colour, orange–red). FISH was done as described by

Martín-Peláez *et al.* (2008).

Slides were viewed under a Nikon E400 Eclipse microscope. DAPI slides were visualized

with the aid of a DM400 filter; probe slides were visualized with the aid of a DM575 filter. Cells

(between 15 and 50 per field of view) were counted for 15 fields of view, and the numbers of bacteria

were determined by using the following equation:

$DF \times ACC \times 6{,}732.42 \times 50 \times DF_{sample}$

Where the DF (dilution factor) was calculated by taking into account the concentration of the

original sample (375 μL to 300 μL = 0.8×). *ACC* (average cell count) was determined by counting 15

fields of view and assumes that a normal distribution was observed for the counts. The figure

6,732.42 refers to the area of the well divided by the area of the field of view. DF_{sample} refers to the

dilution of sample used with a particular probe (e.g. 5× for t_0 Lab158 counts). The detection limit of

this method was 89,766 bacteria/mL of sample (= $\log_{10} 4.95$).

Screening of bacteria for ability to reduce TMAO

Part of an in-house collection (University of Reading) of bacteria isolated from human

caecal/small intestinal and faecal samples (Table 1) was screened on minimal agar [g/L: glucose

(Fisher Scientific), 4; bacteriological peptone (Oxoid), 20; NaCl (Fisher Scientific), 5; neutral red

(Sigma-Aldrich), 0.03; agar technical no. 3 (Oxoid), 15; pH 7] with and without 1 % (w/v) TMAO

dihydrate (Sigma-Aldrich). The composition of the agar was based on that of Takagi and Ishimoto

(1983), who used the medium with crystal violet and bile salts to screen members of the

Enterobacteriaceae for TMAO reductase activity. Colonies of isolates able to ferment glucose were

red, whereas those able to reduce TMAO were white. Growth curves (OD$_{600}$ measured hourly for 10–

12 h, then at 24 h) were determined for selected isolates grown anaerobically at 37 °C in anaerobic

minimal broth [g/L: glucose, 4; bacteriological peptone, 20; NaCl, 5; L-cysteine HCl (Sigma-Aldrich),

0.5; resazurin solution (0.25 mg/mL; Sigma-Aldrich), 4 mL; pH 7] with and without 1 % (w/v)

TMAO dihydrate. Glucose was substituted by raffinose (Sigma-Aldrich) (Trojanová *et al.*, 2006) in

the minimal broth when working with bifidobacteria because of the poor growth of these bacteria on

the glucose-based medium. pH and metabolite profiles of culture medium were examined at the end

of the growth experiment (i.e. at t_{24}).

Statistical analyses

Differences between metabolites produced by faecal and caecal/small intestinal isolates of

Escherichia coli and lactic acid bacteria in the presence and absence of TMAO were analysed using

Student's *t* test. FISH data from the *in vitro* fermentation systems were analysed using the

Kolmogorov–Smirnov test with statistical significance, after correction for multiple testing, taken at P

< 0.05. Because of the presence of ties in the metabolite data from *in vitro* fermentation systems, the

bootstrapped Kolmogorov–Smirnov test (10,000 replications) was used with these data. Data from *in*

vitro fermentation systems (FISH and NMR) were correlated using Spearman's rank correlation

(corrected for ties) with results corrected for multiple testing using the method of Benjamini and

Hochberg (1995).

RESULTS

In vivo **confirmation of metabolic retroconversion**

First, to confirm *in vivo* metabolic retroconversion (i.e. microbial conversion of TMAO to

TMA, followed by host conversion of TMA to TMAO), we administered isotopically-labelled d$_9$-

TMAO or saline to mice that had or had not been treated with a broad-spectrum antibiotic cocktail for

14 days to suppress the gut microbiota (Tang *et al.*, 2013). Reduction of d$_9$-TMAO to d$_9$-TMA was

quantified in urine by UPLC–MS/MS up to 6 h after d$_9$-TMAO gavage, together with unlabelled

TMA and TMAO potentially produced from dietary sources (**Fig. 1**).

In the absence of antibiotics, d_9-TMAO was converted to d_9-TMA within 2 h of gavage. This

conversion was dramatically reduced, leading to a significantly lower concentration of d_9-TMA and a

higher concentration of d_9-TMAO, when the gut microbiota was suppressed by antibiotics (**Fig. 1A–**

D). We noted that in the absence of antibiotics all animals excreted approximately three times higher

levels of urinary unlabelled TMA than TMAO (**Fig. 1E–H**), corresponding to constitutively low

FMO3 activity in mice (Zhang *et al.*, 2007). Levels of unlabelled TMAO/TMA were not significantly

different from one another in the control and d_9-TMAO-fed animals, while antibiotic treatment

significantly reduced the amount of both TMAO and TMA (**Fig. 1E, F**). Bioavailability of unlabelled

TMAO/TMA, as assessed by area under the curve (AUC), was significantly reduced by antibiotic

treatment in both saline and d_9-TMAO-gavaged animals, with almost no TMA detected in either

experimental group (**Fig. 1G**, **H**).

Effect of TMAO on human gut bacteria within a mixed system

After *in vivo* validation of the role of the gut microbiota in metabolic retroconversion, we

analysed the effect of TMAO on the faecal microbiota in an anaerobic batch-culture fermentation

system. Fermenter vessels filled with the glucose-containing medium supplemented or not with 1 %

(w/v) TMAO were inoculated with faecal slurries from three healthy donors and monitored for 9 h.

With the exception of enhanced growth of the *Enterobacteriaceae* (probe Ent), the presence of

TMAO in the medium had no statistically significant effect on the growth of bacteria within the

fermentation systems at 9 h (**Fig. 2A**, **Supplementary Figure 1**).

Huge variability, as measured by ^{1}H-NMR, was observed in the amount of TMA and DMA

produced by gut bacteria in the TMAO-containing fermentation systems, with the concentrations of

both metabolites increasing steadily from 0 to 9 h and differing significantly ($P < 0.05$) from the

control systems (**Fig. 2B**). The amount of TMAO in the systems was seen to decrease at 8 h.

Correlation of metabolite and FISH data demonstrated *Clostridium* clusters I and II

(Chis150), *Enterobacteriaceae* (Ent), bifidobacteria (Bif164) and coriobacteriia (Ato291) were

associated with TMA, acetate, ethanol and lactate (**Fig. 2C**). The *Betaproteobacteria* (Bet42a) were

anti-correlated with TMA, acetate, ethanol and lactate, which is unsurprising given this was the only

group of bacteria whose representation decreased in the fermentation systems over the course of the

experiment (**Supplementary Figure 1**, **Fig. 2C**). The *Enterobacteriaceae* and clostridia were

positively correlated with DMA production. The lactic acid bacteria (Lab158) were not significantly

correlated with any of the metabolites in the mixed culture.

Growth of pure cultures of gut bacteria in the presence of TMAO

Using an in-house collection of bacteria, we initially screened isolates on a modified version

of the agar of Takagi and Ishimoto (1983) as a rapid means of screening bacteria for TMAO reductase

activity, and thereby their ability to reduce TMAO to TMA. While members of the

Enterobacteriaceae produced expected results (i.e. white colonies when grown in the presence of

TMAO and glucose, rather than red colonies on the glucose only control), we observed a number of

unexpected outcomes depending on the species under study. For example, colonies of lactic acid

bacteria were larger (almost twice their usual size) on TMAO-containing agar than on the glucose

control but remained red in colour, suggesting they had not reduced TMAO to TMA at detectable

levels but TMAO was influencing their growth. The clostridia examined produced mixed results on

the control and TMAO-containing media (i.e. white colonies on both plates or on the control plate

only, larger colonies on the TMAO-containing medium but without a colour change of the medium).

To determine whether these isolates were converting TMAO to TMA but a low level, we

examined the growth of all isolates in liquid culture and metabolites in the spent medium using NMR.

The growth of the *Enterobacteriaceae* was most greatly affected by the presence of TMAO in the

medium, with a faster, longer-lasting exponential phase than for the same isolates grown in the

control medium (**Fig. 3A**). pH of the spent medium (after 24 h) when *Enterobacteriaceae* were grown

in the presence of TMAO increased from a mean of 4.7 ± 0.3 (for the control) to 7.6 ± 0.3 ($n = 20$)

(the change in pH is what causes the colonies to appear white on TMAO-containing agar). The

growth of lactic acid bacteria, including *Enterococcus* and *Streptococcus* (**Fig. 3A**) spp., was

enhanced in the presence of TMAO, but not to the same extent as seen for the *Enterobacteriaceae*.

There was no significant difference ($P = 0.27$, t test) in the pH of the spent medium for these bacteria

after 24 h (mean 4.67 ± 0.9 compared with 4.33 ± 0.27 for the control). The growth of members of

Clostridium cluster I (e.g. *Clostridium perfringens*, **Fig. 3A**) was not enhanced in the presence of

TMAO, though some of these bacteria changed the colour of both the control and TMAO-containing

plates yellow during their growth. The pH of the spent liquid medium confirmed this observation to

be due to the alkalinity of the media in the control and TMAO-containing media after 24 h incubation:

e.g. *Clostridium sporogenes* D1(9) (pH 6.25 compared with 6.76 in the control medium), *Clostridium*

paraputrificum L16-FAA6 (pH 6.45 vs 5.38) and *Clostridium perfringens* L20-BSM1 (pH 5.56 vs

4.64).

^{1}H-NMR analysis of spent medium from the TMAO-containing and control samples

demonstrated that, as expected, the *Enterobacteriaceae* produced the greatest amount of TMA from

TMAO (mean 38.79 ± 11.08 mM compared with 0.03 ± 0.01 mM, $n = 20$) (**Fig. 3B**; **Supplementary**

Table 2). Members of the families *Peptostreptococcaceae* (3.72 mM, $n = 1$), *Clostridiaceae* (Cluster

I) (2.62 ± 1.83 mM, $n = 3$), *Porphyromonadaceae* (1.42 mM, $n = 1$), *Bacteroidaceae* (1.40 ± 0.31

mM, $n = 3$), *Enterococcaceae* (1.19 ± 0.05 mM, $n = 5$), *Erysipelotrichaceae* (0.94 mM, $n = 1$;

[*Clostridium*] *ramosum*), *Staphylococcaceae* (0.34 mM, $n = 1$), *Streptococcaceae* (0.30 ± 0.16 mM, n

$= 5$), *Lactobacillaceae* (0.17 ± 0.07 mM, $n = 2$), *Pseudomonadaceae* (0.12 mM, $n = 1$) and

Bifidobacteriaceae (0.13 ± 0.1 mM, $n = 17$) produced low levels of TMA from TMAO (**Fig. 3B**;

Supplementary Table 2). There was great variability in the ability of the bifidobacteria to produce

TMA from TMAO, with several isolates and [*Clostridium*] *innocuum*, *Actinomyces odontolyticus*,

Fusobacterium ulcerans and *Actinomyces viscosus* not producing TMA from TMAO (**Fig. 3B**;

Supplementary Table 2).

Differences in the metabolic capabilities of faecal and caecal *Escherichia coli* isolates

Comparison of the amounts of TMA, and co-metabolites, produced by the faecal ($n = 7$) and

caecal ($n = 9$) isolates of *Escherichia coli* demonstrated significantly higher amounts of TMA were

produced by the caecal isolates compared with the faecal isolates in the TMAO-containing medium

(**Fig. 3C**). *Escherichia coli* of caecal origin produced more TMA than faecal isolates of the same

bacterium or other enterobacteria (*Hafnia*, *Citrobacter* and *Klebsiella* spp.) (**Supplementary Table**

2). The faecal isolates produced more acetate and lactate than the caecal isolates when grown in the

control medium. Taken together, these results demonstrate the different metabolic capabilities of

isolates of *Escherichia coli* recovered from different regions of the human gut.

Lactic acid bacteria produce more lactate in the presence of TMAO

Differences were also seen in the amount of lactic acid produced by lactic acid bacteria in the

presence and absence of TMAO (**Fig. 3B, D**). In raffinose-containing medium, bifidobacteria

produced increased of amounts of lactate when grown in the presence of TMAO (the bifidobacteria

grew poorly, if at all, in glucose-containing media). Unlike the bifidobacteria, the *Streptococcaceae*

and *Enterococcaceae* grew well in the glucose-containing medium and produced over 25 mM lactic

acid in the TMAO-containing samples compared with < 5 mM in the control samples (**Fig. 3D**). To

the best of our knowledge, this is the first time TMAO has been shown to influence the metabolism of

gut bacteria – specifically lactic acid bacteria – without producing appreciable amounts of TMA.

DISCUSSION

TMAO is a circulating metabolite produced as a direct result of microbial degradation of

dietary methylamines in the intestinal tract, and can be readily detected along with its precursor TMA

in human urine, blood and skeletal muscle (Wang *et al.*, 2011; Koeth et al., 2013; Tang *et al.*, 2013;

Taesuwan *et al.*, 2017). It worsens atherosclerosis in some mouse models of cardiovascular disease,

and is positively correlated with cardiovascular disease severity in humans. Beneficial effects

associated with TMAO include potential protection from hyperammonia and glutamate neurotoxicity,

alleviation of endoplasmic reticulum stress and improved glucose homeostasis by stimulating insulin

secretion by pancreatic cells (Kloiber *et al.*, 1988; Miñana *et al.*, 1996; Dumas *et al.*, 2017).

Over many decades it has been established that choline, PC and carnitine are dietary

methylamines that contribute directly to microbiome-associated circulating levels of TMAO found in

humans and other animals (e.g. Zeisel *et al.*, 1983; Rebouche *et al.*, 1984; Seim *et al.*, 1985; Wang *et*

al., 2011; Koeth et al., 2013; Tang *et al.*, 2013). However, TMAO itself is a water-soluble osmolyte

found in high abundance in fish. Based on their observations that individuals with trimethylaminuria

could reduce an oral dose of TMAO to TMA could not detoxify it to TMAO, al-Waiz *et al.* (1987)

suggested the gut microbiota could use TMAO as a substrate, and in those individuals without

trimethylaminuria the TMA was re-oxidized in the liver before being excreted in the urine. This led

these authors to propose the process of '*metabolic retroversion*'. Reference to the literature associated

with fish spoilage and recent mining of metagenomic data have predicted members of the

Enterobacteriaceae (particularly *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*) have the potential to

convert TMAO to TMA in the intestinal tract, but this has not been tested *in vitro* or *in vivo* to date

(Takagi and Ishimoto, 1983; Barrett and Kwan, 1985; Jameson *et al.*, 2016; Borrel *et al.*, 2017;

Taesuwan *et al.*, 2017). Consequently, we instigated this study to demonstrate metabolic

retroconversion of TMAO, and to determine the effect of TMAO on the growth and metabolism of

human-derived intestinal bacteria in pure and mixed cultures.

Through *in vivo* administration of deuterated TMAO to mice via oral gavage in mice, we

unambiguously demonstrated that TMAO is converted to TMA, with this TMA detectable in plasma

within 2 h of administration. This conversion was highly dependent on the gut microbiota, as

conversion of TMAO to TMA was dramatically reduced when the microbiota was suppressed by

treatment of animals with broad-spectrum antibiotics. Even in the presence of antibiotics, there was

low-level conversion of TMAO to TMA, suggesting a subpopulation of the microbiota was resistant

to the antibiotics used in our experiment. However, administration of a broad-spectrum antibiotic

cocktail for 14 days has been demonstrated to be an effective means of suppressing the gut microbiota

in studies associated with gut microbial use of dietary methylamines (Tang *et al.*, 2013).

Our *in vivo* experiment clearly demonstrates the gut microbiota converts TMAO to TMA, and

that this TMA is re-oxidized to TMAO, in line with the process of '*metabolic retroversion*' defined

by al-Waiz *et al.* (1987). Gut-associated microbial conversion of the majority of TMAO to TMA is at

odds with the findings of Taesuwan *et al.* (2017), who suggested TMAO is taken up intact and not

metabolised by the gut microbiota of humans. The ratio of TMAO-to-TMA is around 10:1 in humans

and 1:10 in mice, meaning TMAO was *N*-oxidized before Taesuwan *et al.* (2017) were able to

observe it in circulating blood of their human subjects. In a human system with high FMO3 activity,

O^{17}-labelled TMAO would need to be used in any study evaluating O turnover to allow calculation of

the true rate of retroconversion.

Having conducted our *in vivo* experiment in mice, we examined the ability of a range of

human-derived gut bacteria to convert TMAO to TMA. In the mixed microbiota system and in pure

cultures, the growth of the *Enterobacteriaceae* – the main TMA-producers – was quickly affected by

the presence of TMAO. This is likely to happen in the human gut also. Consequently, we believe

dietary TMAO undergoes metabolic retroconversion in mammals, with the TMA produced as a result

of bacterial activity in the gut available to the host for conversion back to TMAO by FMOs in

hepatocytes. It should be noted that Taesuwan *et al.* (2017) did not suppress or monitor the

intestinal/faecal microbiota when they administered isotopically labeled TMAO to humans, nor did

they measure d_9-TMA and d_9-TMAO in the portal vein, bypassing subsequent hepatic *N*-oxidation of

d_9-TMA, so it is not possible to interpret their results in the context of presence/absence of microbial

activity.

Of note is the finding that caecal isolates of enterobacteria produce more TMA from TMAO

than faecal isolates of the same bacterium. The speed with which TMAO was reduced to TMA by the

Enterobacteriaceae in the present study suggests bacterial conversion of TMAO to TMA takes place

in the small intestine/proximal colon of humans and small intestine/caecum of mice. It is, therefore,

unsurprising that caecal bacteria – representing the microbiota present at the intersection of the small

and large intestine – are metabolically more active than their faecal counterparts with respect to

TMAO metabolism. This finding is relevant to functional studies of the gut microbiota where gene

annotations are based largely on faecal isolates, whose functionalities may be greatly different from

those of bacteria in other regions of the human intestinal tract. It has already been demonstrated that

the microbiota of the small intestine is enriched for functions associated with rapid uptake and

fermentation of simple carbohydrates compared with the faecal microbiota, and that streptococci

isolated from this niche are functionally very different from the same bacteria isolated from different

habitats (Zoetendal *et al.*, 2012; van den Bogert *et al.*, 2013). It is, therefore, important we

characterize the functions and genomes of bacteria isolated from all regions of the intestinal tract, not

just those of faecal bacteria, to gain a true picture of how microbial activity influences host health.

Enterobacteriaceae made the greatest contribution to the conversion of TMAO to TMA, both

in pure culture and in a mixed microbiota. These Gram-negative bacteria are a source of the virulence

factor lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is associated with low-grade inflammation in high-fat-fed

mice and elevated plasma levels that define metabolic endotoxaemia (Cani *et al.*, 2007, 2008). High-

fat feeding has been shown to increase the representation of *Enterobacteriaceae* in the caecal

microbiota of obesity-prone Sprague–Dawley rats (de La Serre *et al.*, 2010), though this mode of

feeding is known to modulate the microbiota of mice independent of obesity (Hildebrandt *et al.*,

2009). Non-LPS-associated virulence of *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Vibrio cholerae* and *Helicobacter pylori*

is increased when these bacteria are grown anaerobically or microaerophilically in the presence of as

little as 5–10 mM TMAO (Ando *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et al.*, 2012; Paiva *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2017),

and may be an additional means by which the gut microbiota contributes to cardiovascular and other

diseases in which increased representation of *Gammaproteobacteria* is observed. This warrants

attention in future animal studies.

Lactic acid bacteria clearly grow better in the presence of TMAO. The relatively high

concentration (1 %) of TMAO used in this study may have contributed to this improved growth, as

TMAO is an osmolyte that stabilizes proteins. Future work will involve growing lactic acid bacteria in

a range of TMAO concentrations to determine how this compound affects their growth and gene

expression, and comparing faecal and caecal isolates. Similar to the *Enterobacteriaceae*, a large

number of these bacteria are facultative anaerobes able to grow over a range of conditions, and whose

representation is increased in obese, and cirrhotic patients (Le Chatelier *et al.*, 2013; Qin *et al.*, 2014).

Streptococcus and *Enterococcus* spp. are commensal lactic acid bacteria of the gut microbiota known

to modulate immune function; but little is known about their metabolic activities in mixed microbial

populations (van den Bogert *et al.*, 2014). Understanding how commensal lactic acid bacteria

influence the host in dysbiosis in mixed microbial communities may allow the development of

approaches to modulate their activity and influence host health.

With respect to the lactic acid bacteria, it is important to note that our mixed culture work did

not highlight these as being relevant to TMAO metabolism. This is unsurprising given these bacteria

do not produce large quantities of TMA from TMAO. However, we have shown their metabolism is

affected by presence of TMAO in growth medium, and the increased lactate they produce in its

presence may contribute to cross-feeding associated with short-chain fatty acid production (Hoyles

and Wallace, 2010). It is difficult to determine relevance of correlations from mixed microbial

ecosystems in the absence of isotope labelling or pure culture work: i.e. correlation does not equate

with causation. As an example, three (*Clostridium* clusters I and II, bifidobacteria, coriobacteriia) of

the four groups of bacteria correlated with TMA production in our fermentation study did not produce

notable quantities of TMA from TMAO based on our pure culture work. Therefore, correlating

microbiota and metabolite data derived from complex systems will not give a true picture of which

members of microbiota contribute to specific metabolic processes, and work with pure cultures is

required to supplement functional studies to increase our understanding of poorly understood

microbially driven metabolic processes within the human gut.

447   In summary, we have demonstrated metabolic retroconversion – another example of host–

microbial co-metabolism – occurs in the mammalian system with respect to TMAO, whereby TMAO

is reduced by the gut microbiota to TMA and regenerated by host hepatic enzymes. We have also

demonstrated that growth and metabolism of members of the gut microbiota are affected by TMAO in

a source- and taxon-dependent manner, with the family *Enterobacteriaceae* making the greatest

contribution to production of TMA in the gut.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. *In vivo* confirmation of metabolic retroconversion of TMAO. Reduction of d_9-TMAO to d_9-

TMA was quantified by UPLC–MS/MS up to 6 h after d_9-TMAO gavage and antibiotic treatment,

together with unlabelled TMA and TMAO levels. Plasma quantification of post-gavage (A) d_9-TMA

and (B) d_9-TMAO. *, Significantly ($P < 0.05$; *t* test and corrected for multiple comparison using the

Holm–Sidak method) different from the respective groups not treated with antibiotics. (C) d_9-TMA

bioavailability (AUC). (D) d_9-TMAO bioavailability (AUC). Plasma quantification of post-gavage

unlabelled/endogenous (E) TMA and (F) TMAO. *, Significant between d_9 and d_9 antibiotic

treatment; $, significant between TMAO and TMAO antibiotic treatment. (G) Unlabelled/endogenous

TMA bioavailability (AUC). (H) Unlabelled/endogenous TMAO bioavailability (AUC). Data ($n = 6$

per group) are shown as mean ± SEM. (A, B, E and F). Differences between the bioavailabilities (C,

D, G and H) were assessed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by Holm–Sidak

post hoc tests. Data with different superscript letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Fig. 2. Effect of TMAO on mixed faecal microbial population *in vitro*. (A) Enumeration of selected

bacteria in fermentation vessels by FISH analysis. Red lines, TMAO-containing systems; blue lines,

negative controls. Data are shown as mean + SD ($n = 3$). Eub338, total bacteria; Ent,

Enterobacteriaceae; Bif164, *Bifidobacterium* spp.; Lab158, lactic acid bacteria. *, Statistically

significantly different (adjusted $P < 0.05$) from the control at the same time point. Full data are shown

in **Supplementary Figure 1**. (B) ^{1}H-NMR data for batch culture samples. Data are shown mean ± SD

($n = 3$). Red lines, TMAO-containing systems; blue lines, negative controls. *, Statistically

significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from the negative control at the same time point. (C) Bidirectional

clustering of correlation matrix of FISH data and data for the six metabolites found in highest

amounts in the NMR spectra from the batch-culture samples. +, Adjusted *P* value (Benjamini–

Hochberg) statistically significant ($P < 0.05$). FISH and metabolite data and a table of correlations and

adjusted *P* values (Benjamini–Hochberg) for the batch-culture samples are available in

Supplementary Tables 3–5.

Fig. 3. Influence of TMAO on growth and metabolism of pure cultures of gut bacteria. (A) Representative growth curves for isolates grown in the presence and absence of TMAO. Red lines, TMAO-supplemented cultures; blue lines, negative controls. Data are shown as mean ± SD ($n = 3$). (B) Biplot showing production of various metabolites when isolates were grown in the presence of TMAO. Summary of data from **Supplementary Table 2**. The larger a circle, the more of the metabolite produced by an isolate. (C) Differences in metabolites produced when caecal and faecal isolates of *Escherichia coli* were grown in the presence (+) and absence (–) of 1 % TMAO. Adjusted (Benjamini–Hochberg) *P* values indicate the caecal isolates were significantly different from the faecal isolates for a particular metabolite. (D) Lactate production by lactic acid bacteria was increased in the presence of TMAO. *Enterobacteriaceae*, $n = 20$; *Bifidobacteriaceae*, $n = 17$; *Streptococcaceae*, $n = 7$; *Enterococcaceae*, $n = 5$. Members of the *Enterococcaceae* and *Streptococcaceae* are homofermenters (produce only lactic acid from glucose fermentation), whereas the *Bifidobacteriaceae* are heterofermenters (produce ethanol, CO_2 and lactic acid from glucose fermentation), though it should be noted the bifidobacteria included in this study were grown on raffinose-containing media. Red, TMAO-containing medium; blue, negative control. *, Statistically significantly different from its negative control (adjusted *P* value < 0.05).

715 **Fig. 1**

718   **Fig. 2**

Fig. 3

 Table 1. Details for human-derived gut bacteria screened for their ability to reduce or utilize TMAO

Isolate*	Identified as	Source	Reference	Facultative anaerobe?
D2(9)	[*Clostridium*] *innocuum*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	No
L16-FAA1	[*Clostridium*] *ramosum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L12-BSM1	*Actinomyces odontolyticus*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L6-BSM10	*Actinomyces viscosus*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L6-FAA7	*Bacteroides fragilis*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
D1(4)	*Bacteroides vulgatus*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	No
L9-FAA7	*Bacteroides vulgatus*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
DSM 20083[T]	*Bifidobacterium adolescentis*	Human intestine	DSMZ†	No
LCR26	*Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp. *lactis*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
LCR11	*Bifidobacterium bidifum*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
L25-MRS2	*Bifidobacterium bifidum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
LCR5	*Bifidobacterium breve*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
LCR8	*Bifidobacterium breve*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
LCR1	*Bifidobacterium dentium*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
DSM 20093[T]	*Bifidobacterium gallicum*	Human intestine	DSMZ	No
LCR6	*Bifidobacterium longum*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
DSM 20088[T]	*Bifidobacterium longum* subsp. *infantis*	Infant intestine	DSMZ	No
LCR2	*Bifidobacterium longum* subsp. *infantis*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
DSM 20219[T]	*Bifidobacterium longum* subsp. *longum*	Human intestine	DSMZ	No
LCR3	*Bifidobacterium pseudocatenulatum*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No
L19-MRS1	*Bifidobacteroum longum* subsp. *longum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L25-MRS8	*Bifidobacteroum longum* subsp. *longum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L26-MRS4	*Bifidobactrium animalis* subsp. *lactis*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L26-FAA1	*Citrobacter gillenii*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L8-FAA3	*Citrobacter koseri*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L16-FAA6	*Clostridium paraputrificum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L20-BSM1	*Clostridium perfringens*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
D1(9)	*Clostridium sporogenes*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	No
D2(14)	*Enterococcus faecalis*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D3(1)	*Enterococcus faecalis*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D5(2)	*Enterococcus faecalis*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D6(1)	*Enterococcus faecium*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D6(5)	*Enterococcus gallinarum*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D1(2)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D2(1)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D2(2)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D2(8)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D3(8)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D4(15)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D5(1)	*Escherichia coli*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
L1-FAA5	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L13-FAA2	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L16-FAA5	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L19-FAA2	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L20-FAA3	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L24-FAA5	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L5-FAA2	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L6-FAA1	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L9-MRS1	*Escherichia coli*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L9-FAA5	*Fusobacterium ulcerans*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L15-FAA9	*Hafnia paralvei*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L4-FAA5	*Klebsiella pneumoniae* subsp. *pneumoniae*	Human caecum	Hoyles *et al.* (2015)	Yes
L26-MRS5	*Lactobacillus fermentum*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No

L26-FAA6	*Lactobacillus rhamnosus*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
L13-FAA10	*Parabacteroides johnsonii*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	No
D4(1)	*Paraclostridium bifermentans*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	No
L1-FAA6	*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
D2(4)	*Staphyloccoccus hominis*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D1(5)	*Streptococcus anginosus*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
D5(12)	*Streptococcus anginosus*	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
L25-MRS1	*Streptococcus gallolyticus*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L4-MRS5	*Streptococcus oralis*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
L4-MRS1	*Streptococcus sanguinis*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
D4(3)	*Streptococcus* sp.	Human faeces	M.L. Jiménez-Pranteda, unpublished	Yes
L26-MRS7	*Streptococcus vestibularis*	Human caecum	L. Hoyles, unpublished	Yes
LCR4	Unknown *Bifidobacterium*	Infant faeces	Roger *et al.* (2010)	No

724 *L*n*- prefix, different numbers indicate isolates recovered from different individuals.

725 †DSMZ, Leibniz Institute DSMZ – German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures.

Supplementary Figure 1. Effect of TMAO on mixed faecal microbial population *in vitro*.

Enumeration of bacteria in fermentation vessels by FISH analysis. Red lines, TMAO-containing

systems; blue lines, negative controls. Data are shown as mean + SD (*n* = 3). Eub338, total bacteria;

Bac303, *Bacteroidales*; Ato291, '*Atopobium* cluster'; Bif164, *Bifidobacterium* spp.; Ent,

Enterobacteriaceae; Bet42a, *Betaproteobacteria*; Prop853, *Veillonellaceae*; Lab158, lactic acid

bacteria (*Lactobacillales*); Fpra655, *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* and *Subdoligranulum* spp.;

Erec482, *Lachnospiraceae*; Clit135, *Clostridium* cluster XI; Rbro730/Rfla729, *Ruminococcaceae*;

Chis150, *Clostridium* clusters I and II. Detection limit of the method was 4.95 $\log_{10}$(number of

bacteria/mL sample). *, Statistically significantly different (adjusted *P* < 0.05) from the control at the

same time point.

739 **Supplementary Table 1.** Oligonucleotide probes used in this study

Probe name	Detects	Probe accession no.*	Hybridization pre-treatment†	Formamide (%) in hybridization buffer	Temperature (°C)		Reference(s)
					Hybridization	Washing	
Ato291	*Cryptobacterium curtum*, *Gordonibacter pamelaeae*, *Paraeggerthella hongkongensis*, all *Eggerthella*, *Collinsella*, *Olsenella* and *Atopobium* species; '*Enorma*' and *Senegalemassilia* spp. (most members of the class *Coriobacteriia*; phylum *Actinobacteria*)	pB-00943	Lysozyme	0	50	50	Harmsen *et al.* (2000); Thorasin *et al.* (2015)
Bac303	Most members of the genus *Bacteroides*, some *Parabacteroides* and *Prevotella* species, *Paraprevotella*, *Xylanibacter*, *Barnesiella* species and *Odoribacter splanchnicus* (order *Bacteroidales*; phylum *Bacteroidetes*)	pB-00031	None	0	46	48	Manz *et al.* (1996); Hoyles and McCartney (2009)
Bet42a	*Betaproteobacteria* (class *Betaproteobacteria*; phylum *Proteobacteria*)	pB-00034	None	35	46	48	Manz *et al.* (1992)
Bif164	Most *Bifidobacterium* species and *Parascardovia denticolens* (family *Bifidobacteriaceae*; phylum *Actinobacteria*)	pB-00037	Lysozyme	0	50	50	Langendijk et al. (1995)
Chis150	Most members of *Clostridium* cluster I, all members of *Clostridium* cluster II (family *Clostridiaceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-00962	None	0	50	50	Franks *et al.* (1998)
Clit135	Nine members of [*Clostridium*] cluster XI, including [*Clostridium*] *difficile* (family *Peptostreptococcaceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-00961	None	0	50	50	Franks *et al.* (1998)
Ent	*Enterobacteriaceae* except *Proteus* spp. (order *Gammaproteobacteria*; phylum *Proteobacteria*)	pB-00351	None	30	46	48	Kempf *et al.* (2000)
Erec482	Most members of *Clostridium* cluster XIVa (family *Lachnospiraceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-00963	None	0	50	50	Franks *et al.* (1998)
Eub338/ Eub338II/ Eub338III‡	*Bacteria*	pB-00159/ pB-00160/ pB-00161	None	35	46	48	Daims *et al.* (1999)
Fpra655	*Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* and *Subdoligranulum* spp. (*Clostridium* cluster IV; family *Ruminococcaceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-00734	None	0	58	58	Hold *et al.* (2003)
Lab158	All *Oenococcus*, *Vagococcus*, *Melissococcus*, *Tetragenococcus*, *Enterococcus*, *Catellicoccus*, *Paralactobacillus*, *Pediococcus* and *Lactococcus* species, most *Lactobacillus*, *Weissella* and *Leuconostoc* species (order *Lactobacillales*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-03928	Lysozyme	0	50	50	Harmsen *et al.* (1999)
Prop853	Most members of *Clostridium* cluster IX (family *Veillonellaceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-03930	None	0	50	50	Walker *et al.* (2005)
Rbro730/ Rfla729‡	*Anaerotruncus colihominis*, *Ruminococcus bromii*, *Ruminococcus flavefaciens*, *Ruminococcus albus*, *Desulfotomaculum alcoholivorax* (Clostridium cluster IV; family *Ruminococcaceae*; phylum *Firmicutes*)	pB-00558/ pB-00557	Lysozyme	20	50	50	Harmsen *et al.* (2002)

740   *According to probeBase (Loy *et al.*, 2007).

741   †As described by Martín-Peláez *et al.* (2008).

742   ‡These probes were used together in equimolar concentrations (each at 50 ng/μL).

Species and isolate*	Family, phylum	TMA (mM)		DMA (mM)		Acetate (mM)		Ethanol		Lactate	
		+TMAO	-TMAO	+TMAO	-TMAO	+TMAO	-TMAO	+TMAO	-TMAO	+TMAO	-TMAO
Escherichia coli **L6-FAA1**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	53.94	0.03	0.03	0.05	28.17	0.70	7.64	8.20	0.19	5.10
Escherichia coli **L24-FAA5**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	53.94	0.04	0.07	0.05	27.67	0.56	7.14	4.00	2.40	6.00
Escherichia coli **L9-MRS1**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	52.94	0.02	0.08	0.04	27.17	0.60	9.14	10.20	0.00	4.70
Escherichia coli **L19-FAA2**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	51.94	0.03	0.03	0.05	24.17	0.60	7.64	9.80	0.02	4.80
Hafnia paralvei **L15-FAA9**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	45.44	0.03	0.08	0.07	23.97	5.20	6.44	14.60	0.80	2.50
Escherichia coli **L13-FAA2**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	44.94	0.03	0.00	0.04	23.47	0.60	8.64	10.00	0.00	4.50
Escherichia coli **L16-FAA5**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	44.94	0.03	0.06	0.05	23.17	0.60	9.64	9.30	0.06	4.80
Escherichia coli **L20-FAA3**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	43.94	0.04	0.07	0.07	24.17	0.70	12.64	9.00	0.15	6.50
Escherichia coli **L1-FAA5**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	42.94	0.03	0.03	0.05	23.67	0.60	10.64	9.00	0.03	5.20
Citrobacter koseri **L8-FAA3**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	42.24	0.02	0.35	0.04	21.17	0.74	10.64	11.00	5.30	5.00
Escherichia coli **L5-FAA2**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	41.94	0.02	0.07	0.03	23.17	0.60	10.64	9.70	0.32	4.10
Citrobacter gillenii **L26-FAA1**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	37.94	0.03	0.13	0.06	18.77	0.60	12.64	11.00	4.60	5.40
Escherichia coli **D3(8)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	32.64	0.04	0.03	0.08	16.77	6.80	6.14	6.90	0.00	8.70
Escherichia coli **D2(8)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	31.84	0.03	0.02	0.06	16.47	8.20	6.74	7.00	0.00	8.50
Escherichia coli **D2(2)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	31.54	0.03	0.01	0.06	16.27	8.00	6.34	6.80	0.00	9.50
Escherichia coli **D1(2)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	30.34	0.03	0.00	0.07	16.17	8.60	5.44	8.00	0.00	9.40
Escherichia coli **D4(15)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	29.94	0.03	0.03	0.06	14.67	6.75	6.64	6.40	0.20	7.30
Escherichia coli **D2(1)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	24.44	0.05	0.00	0.08	11.67	8.70	4.14	7.60	0.00	9.00
Escherichia coli **D5(1)**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	22.94	0.04	0.00	0.05	12.37	6.70	5.14	6.40	0.00	7.00
Klebsiella pneumoniae **subsp. pneumoniae L4-FAA5**	*Enterobacteriaceae, Proteobacteria*	14.94	0.02	0.41	0.05	10.17	0.52	7.14	12.00	4.40	5.90
Clostridium sporogenes D1(9)	*Clostridiaceae* (Cluster I), *Firmicutes*	4.64	0.12	1.03	0.07	17.37	16.90	16.24	13.50	0.10	0.90
[*Clostridium*] *bifermentans* D4(1)	*Peptostreptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	3.72	0.00	1.08	0.00	12.15	0.00	8.81	0.00	0.03	0.00
Clostridium perfringens L20-BSM1	*Clostridiaceae* (Cluster I), *Firmicutes*	2.19	0.03	0.23	0.06	1.97	0.81	10.64	5.30	4.80	5.90
Enterococcus gallinarum D6(5)	*Enterococcaceae, Firmicutes*	1.74	0.04	0.30	0.15	0.00	0.77	1.24	0.83	29.80	2.00
Bacteroides vulgatus L9-FAA7	*Bacteroidaceae, Bacteroidetes*	1.70	0.00	0.88	0.00	2.65	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Enterococcus faecalis D5(2)	*Enterococcaceae, Firmicutes*	1.64	0.05	0.45	0.13	0.00	0.67	0.82	1.04	27.80	1.60
Parabacteroides johnsonii L13-FAA10	*Porphyromonadaceae, Bacteroidetes*	1.42	0.00	0.65	0.00	1.51	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.24	0.00
Bacteroides fragilis L6-FAA7	*Bacteroidaceae, Bacteroidetes*	1.42	0.00	0.51	0.00	2.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.56	0.00
Enterococcus faecalis D3(1)	*Enterococcaceae, Firmicutes*	1.24	0.06	0.29	0.16	0.00	0.74	1.24	1.02	28.60	2.00

Bacteroides vulgatus D1(4)	*Bacteroidaceae, Bacteroidetes*	1.08	0.02	0.71	0.01	1.66	2.82	0.06	0.00	0.12	0.33
Clostridium paraputrificum L16-FAA6	*Clostridiaceae* (Cluster I), *Firmicutes*	1.04	0.03	0.33	0.07	1.37	0.63	1.04	2.50	2.00	3.60
Enterococcus faecalis D2(14)	*Enterococcaceae, Firmicutes*	1.00	0.05	0.17	0.14	0.00	0.69	1.34	1.40	27.20	1.80
[*Clostridium*] *ramosum* L16-FAA1	*Erysipelotrichaceae, Firmicutes*	0.94	0.07	0.33	0.09	1.47	0.60	1.34	1.80	4.30	5.20
Streptococcus sanguinis L4-MRS1	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.49	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.00	0.60	0.34	0.33	22.90	9.20
Streptococcus anginosus D5(12)	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.48	0.02	0.16	0.12	0.00	0.60	0.09	0.46	29.30	2.00
Streptococcus anginosus D1(5)	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.44	0.03	0.11	0.14	0.00	0.64	0.06	0.38	29.10	2.20
Bifidobacterium breve LCR5	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.38	0.03	0.04	0.00	32.04	26.51	2.00	0.89	12.77	0.68
Staphylococcus hominis D2(4)	*Staphylococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.34	0.03	0.33	0.08	1.47	2.30	0.08	0.32	2.50	4.00
Enterococcus faecium D6(1)	*Enterococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.31	0.06	0.13	0.14	0.00	0.70	0.30	0.37	30.80	1.95
Bifidobacterium infantis DSM 20088T	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.27	0.02	0.04	0.00	27.56	29.81	0.34	0.21	12.01	0.94
Streptococcus vestibularis L26-MRS7	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.25	0.02	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.40	0.28	0.65	29.40	2.20
Bifidobacterium bifidum LCR11	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.01	33.14	33.91	0.50	0.49	14.13	0.91
Lactobacillus fermentum L26-MRS5	*Lactobacillaceae, Firmicutes*	0.22	0.02	0.16	0.03	0.47	1.50	0.19	0.80	0.70	2.70
Bifidobacterium longum LCR6	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.01	23.86	23.77	0.39	0.06	10.47	0.77
Bifidobacterium longum DSM 20219^{T}	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.20	0.02	0.02	0.00	27.92	23.19	0.58	0.28	13.51	0.83
Bifidobacterium longum subsp. *infantis* LCR2	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.18	0.03	0.02	0.01	25.11	0.00	0.38	0.02	11.65	0.74
Streptococcus oralis L4-MRS5	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.16	0.02	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.60	1.39	0.80	24.60	5.10
Streptococcus sp. D4(3)	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.16	0.03	0.06	0.13	0.00	0.56	0.25	0.40	27.90	1.90
Streptococcus gallolyticus L25-MRS1	*Streptococcaceae, Firmicutes*	0.14	0.04	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.60	0.09	0.35	31.20	2.20
Bifidobacterium pseudocatenulatum LCR3	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.14	0.03	0.01	0.02	28.26	19.68	0.78	0.27	12.66	1.25
Pseudomonas aeruginosa L1-FAA6	*Pseudomonadaceae, Proteobacteria*	0.12	0.02	0.04	0.00	0.09	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00
Lactobacillus rhamnosus L26-FAA6	*Lactobacillaceae, Firmicutes*	0.12	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.16	0.00	0.11	0.00	12.49	0.00
Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. *lactis* L26-MRS4	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.10	0.02	0.01	0.00	6.76	6.32	0.10	0.01	3.12	2.73
Bifidobacterium longum subsp. *longum* L19-MRS1	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.09	0.02	0.01	0.01	14.86	12.64	0.22	0.13	6.79	3.06
Unknown *Bifidobacterium* LCR4	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.07	0.02	0.01	0.00	8.51	6.84	0.06	0.00	4.10	3.75
Bifidobacterium breve LCR8	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.00	13.11	6.33	0.14	0.00	6.07	3.49
Bifidobacterium longum subsp. *longum* L25-MRS8	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.01	5.87	9.40	0.09	0.05	2.63	4.68
Bifidobacterium bifidum L25-MRS2	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.01	1.32	1.72	0.06	0.07	0.34	0.90
Bifidobacterium dentium LCR1	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.00	2.18	1.75	0.04	0.01	0.88	1.14
[*Clostridium*] *innocuum* D2(9)	*Erysipelotrichaceae, Firmicutes*	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.26	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.10	0.00
Bifidobacterium adolescentis DSM 20083^{T}	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.00	1.85	2.31	0.02	0.01	0.92	1.57
Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. *lactis* LCR26	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.00	1.26	1.75	0.01	0.06	0.39	0.79
Actinomyces odontolyticus L12-BSM1	*Actinomycetaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.82	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00
Fusobacterium ulcerans L9-FAA5	*Fusobacteriaceae, Fusobacteria*	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.14	1.46	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.10

Bifidobacterium gallicum DSM 20093^T	*Bifidobacteriaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.31	0.33	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.43
Actinomyces viscosus L6-BSM10	*Actinomycetaceae, Actinobacteria*	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.22	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.06

747 *Species and isolates shown in bold produce large quantities of TMA from TMAO.

750   **Supplementary Table 3.** FISH data for the batch culture samples, with data presented as $\log_{10}$(number of bacteria/mL sample)

System, time (h)*	EUB338	Bac303	Ato291	Bif164	Ent	Bet42a	Prop853	Lab158	Fpra655	Erec482	Clit135	Rbro/Rfla	Chis150
A0	9.08	7.78	6.96	7.17	5.65	8.22	7.68	6.70	7.36	8.52	6.21	7.44	7.05
A4	8.89	7.70	7.40	7.64	7.36	7.32	7.44	7.04	7.41	8.20	5.65	7.46	7.34
A9	9.13	7.90	7.48	8.04	8.10	6.10	7.62	6.92	7.24	7.98	5.25	7.39	7.30
B0	8.97	7.81	6.95	7.26	5.65	8.22	7.69	6.93	7.45	8.54	5.99	7.49	6.84
B4	8.99	7.80	7.43	7.57	7.01	7.37	7.62	7.20	7.43	8.26	5.65	7.42	7.08
B9	9.25	7.92	7.63	8.17	7.40	6.18	7.63	6.98	7.42	8.11	4.95	7.40	7.27
C0	9.03	7.65	7.14	7.19	5.80	8.29	7.74	6.67	7.25	7.70	5.43	7.30	6.07
C4	8.76	7.56	7.64	7.81	6.64	6.35	7.74	6.81	7.31	7.73	4.95	7.34	7.22
C9	9.05	7.57	7.54	8.33	8.17	5.99	7.76	6.21	6.89	7.75	5.25	7.36	7.41
D0	8.97	7.63	7.30	7.31	5.43	8.27	7.69	6.76	7.29	7.67	5.56	7.44	5.95
D4	8.89	7.66	7.80	8.12	5.95	6.30	7.71	6.47	7.29	7.77	5.25	7.53	6.50
D9	9.12	7.73	7.65	8.26	7.33	6.18	7.77	5.99	6.98	7.76	5.25	7.31	7.49
E0	9.26	8.23	7.35	7.55	6.82	7.88	7.25	7.29	7.29	7.77	5.80	7.43	6.68
E4	9.15	7.65	8.04	7.66	7.28	7.51	7.63	6.69	8.05	7.78	6.23	7.47	7.29
E9	9.07	7.63	7.80	8.26	8.07	7.49	8.03	7.00	8.06	7.97	6.10	7.47	7.38
F0	9.22	8.20	7.45	7.54	6.94	7.94	7.37	7.28	7.39	7.78	5.56	7.34	6.58
F4	9.23	7.98	8.21	8.16	6.76	7.39	7.73	6.60	7.45	7.92	6.28	7.48	7.14
F9	9.24	7.34	8.30	8.32	7.28	7.40	8.04	7.16	7.42	8.21	5.95	7.51	7.39

752   *A prefix, donor 1 vessel containing TMAO; B prefix, donor 1 vessel without TMAO (negative control); C prefix, donor 2 vessel containing TMAO; D prefix, donor 2

753   vessel without TMAO (negative control); E prefix, donor 3 vessel containing TMAO; F prefix, donor 3 vessel without TMAO (negative control).

756 **Supplementary Table 4.** NMR data for the batch culture samples, with concentrations of metabolites given in mM

System, time (h)	TMA	TMAO	DMA	Ethanol	Acetate	Lactate
A0	0.03	89.45	0.05	0.44	1.63	1.44
A4	0.77	92.3	0.45	0.59	6.68	3.69
A9	5.46	71.4	0.86	1.76	26.51	13.61
B0	0.03	0.58	0.04	0.31	1.51	1.42
B4	0.03	0.56	0.03	0.92	9.79	4.53
B9	0.06	0.21	0.05	2.14	33.5	12
C0	0.02	80	0.04	0.4	0.89	1.44
C4	0.16	81.1	0.19	0.55	4.61	2.96
C9	6.33	76.83	0.4	2.07	33.7	15.51
D0	0.03	0.62	0.05	0.31	0.97	1.5
D4	0.03	0.55	0.03	0.69	6.41	3.74
D9	0.06	0.2	0.04	2.01	32.4	13.94
E0	0.03	79.6	0.05	0.41	1.76	1.4
E4	1.61	80	0.61	1.52	17.5	7.38
E9	10.81	70.8	1.4	2.5	38.5	10.7
F0	0.03	0.58	0.05	0.27	1.77	1.37
F4	0.05	0.23	0.05	2.78	29.5	9.75
F9	0.08	0.05	0.16	2.76	38.3	3.95

758 *A prefix, donor 1 vessel containing TMAO; B prefix, donor 1 vessel without TMAO (negative control); C prefix, donor 2 vessel containing TMAO; D prefix, donor 2

759 vessel without TMAO (negative control); E prefix, donor 3 vessel containing TMAO; F prefix, donor 3 vessel without TMAO (negative control).

761 **Supplementary Table 5.** Spearman correlation (corrected for ties) and adjusted P values (Benjamini–Hochberg) for FISH and metabolite data for batch culture samples

Probe	Spearman correlation values*					
	Acetate	DMA	Ethanol	Lactate	TMA	TMAO
Eub338	0.37	0.14	0.38	0.15	0.06	-0.38
Bac303	-0.18	-0.30	-0.17	-0.21	-0.36	-0.16
Ato291	0.78	0.33	0.79	0.60	0.57	-0.46
Bif164	0.93	0.37	0.87	0.81	0.72	-0.48
Ent	0.82	0.59	0.65	0.75	0.81	-0.09
Bet42a	-0.69	-0.22	-0.62	-0.78	-0.62	0.24
Prop853	0.40	0.01	0.47	0.40	0.24	-0.32
Lab158	-0.05	0.14	-0.21	-0.43	-0.08	0.02
Fpra655	0.18	0.17	0.19	-0.10	0.12	-0.12
Erec482	0.20	0.03	0.20	-0.01	0.06	-0.13
Clit135	-0.03	0.13	0.07	-0.24	-0.06	0.10
Rbro730/Rfla729	0.15	0.04	0.24	-0.07	0.05	-0.22
Chis150	0.85	0.56	0.74	0.76	0.85	-0.13
Probe	**Adjusted P values**					
	Acetate	DMA	Ethanol	Lactate	TMA	TMAO
Eub338	2.51×10^{-1}	7.05×10^{-1}	2.51×10^{-1}	7.05×10^{-1}	8.05×10^{-1}	2.51×10^{-1}
Bac303	5.23×10^{-1}	5.23×10^{-1}	5.23×10^{-1}	5.23×10^{-1}	5.23×10^{-1}	5.23×10^{-1}
Ato291	3.88×10^{-4}	1.84×10^{-1}	3.88×10^{-4}	1.67×10^{-2}	1.99×10^{-2}	6.89×10^{-2}
Bif164	1.13×10^{-7}	1.33×10^{-1}	8.41×10^{-6}	8.01×10^{-5}	1.04×10^{-3}	5.55×10^{-2}
Ent	1.63×10^{-4}	1.26×10^{-2}	5.32×10^{-3}	6.66×10^{-4}	1.63×10^{-4}	7.15×10^{-1}
Bet42a	5.06×10^{-3}	3.71×10^{-1}	9.87×10^{-3}	7.82×10^{-4}	9.87×10^{-3}	3.71×10^{-1}
Prop853	2.09×10^{-1}	9.64×10^{-1}	2.09×10^{-1}	2.09×10^{-1}	4.15×10^{-1}	3.02×10^{-1}
Lab158	9.35×10^{-1}	9.35×10^{-1}	9.35×10^{-1}	4.38×10^{-1}	9.35×10^{-1}	9.35×10^{-1}
Fpra655	6.83×10^{-1}	6.83×10^{-1}	6.83×10^{-1}	6.83×10^{-1}	6.83×10^{-1}	6.83×10^{-1}
Erec482	9.71×10^{-1}	9.71×10^{-1}	9.71×10^{-1}	9.71×10^{-1}	9.71×10^{-1}	9.71×10^{-1}
Clit135	9.09×10^{-1}	9.09×10^{-1}	9.09×10^{-1}	9.09×10^{-1}	9.09×10^{-1}	9.09×10^{-1}
Rbro730/Rfla729	8.65×10^{-1}	8.65×10^{-1}	8.65×10^{-1}	8.65×10^{-1}	8.65×10^{-1}	8.65×10^{-1}
Chis150	2.80×10^{-5}	2.00×10^{-2}	6.10×10^{-4}	5.37×10^{-4}	2.80×10^{-5}	6.21×10^{-1}

763 *Green cells show statistically significant results.