Microbiome Inhibition of IRAK-4 by Trimethylamine Mediates Metabolic and Immune Benefits in High-Fat-Diet-induced Insulin Resistance

Julien Chilloux[1,8], Francois Brial[2,8], Amandine Everard[3,8], David Smyth[4,8], Liyong Zhang[4], Hubert Plovier[3], Antonis Myridakis[1], Lesley Hoyles[1], Julian E. Fuchs[5], Christine Blancher[6], Selin Gencer[1], Laura Martinez-Gili[1], Jane F. Fearnside[6], Richard H. Barton[1], Ana Luisa Neves[1], Alice R. Rothwell[6], Christelle Gérard[2], Sophie Calderari[2], Claire L. Boulangé[1], Saroor Patel[1], James Scott[7], Robert C. Glen[1,5], Nigel J. Gooderham[1], Jeremy K. Nicholson[1], Dominique Gauguier[1,2,6,9], Peter P. Liu[4,9], Patrice D. Cani[1,3,9], Marc-Emmanuel Dumas[1,9¶]

[1] Integrative Systems Medicine and Digestive Disease, Department of Surgery and Cancer, Imperial College London, Exhibition Road, South Kensington, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom, [2] Sorbonne Universities, University Pierre & Marie Curie, University Paris Descartes, Sorbonne Paris Cité, INSERM UMR_S1138, Cordeliers Research Centre, 15 rue de l'Ecole de Médecine, 75006 Paris, France, [3] Université catholique de Louvain, Louvain Drug Research Institute, WELBIO (Walloon Excellence in Life sciences and BIOtechnology), Metabolism and Nutrition Research Group, 1200 Brussels, Belgium, [3] University of Ottawa Heart Institute, Ottawa ON K1Y 4W7, Canada, [5] Centre for Molecular Informatics, Department of Chemistry, University of Cambridge, Lensfield Road, Cambridge CB2 1EW, UK, [6] Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Roosevelt Drive, University of Oxford, Oxford OX3 7BN, UK, [7] Imperial College London, National Heart and Lung Institute, Hammersmith Hospital, London, UK.

[8] these authors contributed equally and should be considered as co-first authors
[9] these authors contributed equally and should be considered as co-senior authors
¶ correspondence should be addressed to M.-E.D.: m.dumas@imperial.ac.uk

Referenced abstract

The interaction between high-fat diet (HFD) feeding and the gut microbiome has a strong

impact on the onset of insulin resistance (IR)[1-3]. In particular, bacterial lipopolysaccharides

(LPS) and dietary fats trigger low-grade inflammation[4] through activation of *Toll*-like

receptor 4 (TLR4), a process called metabolic endotoxemia[5]. However, little is known

about how the microbiome can mitigate this process. Here, we investigate longitudinal

physiological and metabotypical responses of C57BL/6 mice to HFD feeding. A series of *in*

***vivo* experiments with choline supplementation, then blocking trimethylamine (TMA)**

production and administering TMA, demonstrate that this microbiome-associated

metabolite decouples inflammation and IR from obesity in HFD. Through *in vitro* kinome

screens and *in silico* molecular dynamics studies, we reveal TMA specifically inhibits

Interleukin-1 Receptor-associated Kinase 4 (IRAK-4), a central kinase integrating signals

from various TLRs and cytokine receptors. Consistent with this, genetic ablation and

chemical inhibition of IRAK-4 result in similar metabolic and immune improvements in

HFD. In summary, TMA appears as a key microbial effector inhibiting IRAK-4 and

mediating metabolic and immune effects with benefits upon HFD. Thereby we highlight

the critical contribution of the microbial signalling metabolome in homeostatic regulation

of host disease and the emerging role of the kinome[6] in microbial–mammalian chemical

crosstalk.

Main Text

IR is key to a cluster of conditions such as impaired glucose tolerance (IGT), obesity,

hyperlipidemia, hypertension and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), increasing the

risk of developing type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular diseases[7]. One of the hallmarks of

these disorders is the early development of a systemic low-grade inflammation[4].

Increasing evidence supports that complex communication occurs between the gut

microbiota and the innate immune system[8], with consequences on metabolic homeostasis[9].

Whilst some of the functional signalling molecules mediating microbial–mammalian

chemical crosstalk have been characterized, a limited number of metabolite classes and

their targets have been identified (G protein-coupled[10] and nuclear[11] receptors). It is,

however, hypothesized that microbial metabolites potentially affect other pharmacological

target classes such as kinases[6]. In previous studies, we and others have identified a family of

microbiome-associated metabolites, methylamines, associated with IR, NAFLD[12] and

atherosclerosis[13], but their mechanisms of action on mammalian hosts remain unclear.

TMA is one of the most abundant microbial metabolites produced by the gut microbiota.

We first reported that TMA may be associated with IR[12]. TMA results from microbial

metabolism of dietary choline, carnitine and TMAO[14-18] before being absorbed and *N*-

oxidized into TMAO by hepatic flavin-containing mono-oxygenase 3 (FMO3)[19]. After initial

reports associating TMAO with adverse cardiovascular outcomes[13,16], it has since emerged

that Fmo3 inactivation was beneficial for several metabolic outcomes[20-23], strongly

suggesting that TMA and TMAO have distinct biological roles.

Here, we present a new paradigm to decipher the microbiome–host kinome chemical

crosstalk in IR: i) identification of gut-derived microbial metabolites associated with HFD-

induced IGT and obesity, ii) systematic pharmacological target screening of discriminant

microbial metabolites, iii) molecular modelling of the interaction, and iv) mechanistic

validation of the pathophysiological relevance of pharmacological interactions with *in vivo*

models, thereby unravelling novel mechanisms by which gut microbial TMA acts as an IRAK-

4 inhibitor and directly improves the host's immunometabolism.

Longitudinal study leading to the choline supplementation hypothesis.

We initially carried out a longitudinal pathophysiological monitoring in a cohort of C57BL/6

mice (n=472) rapidly developing obesity and IGT when fed a 65% kCal HFD (**Suppl. Fig. 1a-c**).

Liver transcriptomics identified 1,641 significant differentially expressed genes between

chow-fed (CHD-) and HFD-fed mice (**Suppl. Fig. 1d,e** and **Suppl. Tab. 1**). Gene ontology and

signalling pathway impact analyses (**Suppl. Fig. 2, Suppl. Tab. 2-4**) demonstrated

upregulation of protein processing in the endoplasmic reticulum, whereas carbohydrate

metabolism, circadian rhythm and AMPK signalling were significantly inhibited, consistent

with existing literature[24,25]. Surprisingly, inflammation-associated pathways were not

differentially affected: expression of genes coding for acute phase serum amyloid A proteins

Saa1 and *Saa2* in response to acute inflammation and associated with type 2 diabetes was

reduced whereas expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as *Il6* and *Il1β* was not

significant (**Suppl. Fig. 1d** and **Suppl. Tab. 4**). This is contrasting with established knowledge

as low-grade inflammation is one of the key features associated with IR[4,5]. Metabolic

profiling of the urinary metabolome of this mouse cohort (CHD and HFD, 4 time-points) by

^{1}H-NMR spectroscopy followed by multivariate modelling showed diet is the main factor

influencing the metabolic profiles, followed by age (**Suppl. Fig. 1f**), the model's goodness-of-

prediction parameters being highly significant upon permutation testing (**Suppl. Fig. 1g**).

The metabolic signature of HFD-feeding compared to CHD was mainly associated with TMA

excretion (**Suppl. Fig. 1h**), consistent with our previous reports using this diet[12,26]. We used

variance components analysis to decompose the contribution of diet and age to the

excretion of these three metabolites, showing that the HFD contribution overwhelms the

contribution of age (**Suppl. Fig. 1i**). Since the HFD contains >15 g of choline per kg of diet,

this led us to hypothesize that choline supplementation may explain some of the metabolic

and immune variation in response to the HFD.

Choline supplementation corrects HFD-induced inflammation and IR.

To investigate the effect of choline supplementation on glucose tolerance and IR, we

initiated a series of *in vivo*, *in vitro* and *in silico* studies. We first fed C57BL/6 mice with a

65% kCal HFD containing 2 g/kg or 17 g/kg of choline (i.e., LC-HFD and HC-HFD, respectively;

Fig. 1). Body weight (BW) was significantly increased in mice fed a LC-HFD from weaning

until 5 months of age compared to mice fed a chow diet and remarkably compared to mice

fed HC-HFD (**Fig. 1a**), which was not related to food intake (**Suppl. Fig. 3a**). To evaluate

metabolic homeostasis, we performed glucose tolerance tests (GTT), which displayed a

similar pattern with normalisation of cumulative glycemia on HC-HFD compared to LC-HFD

(**Fig. 1b-c**). We then profiled circulating pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL6, IL1β, TNFα

(**Fig. 1d-f**) and phosphorylation of NF-κB regulating their transcription (**Suppl. Fig. 3b,c**),

which was also suggestive of an improvement of HFD-induced inflammation by choline

supplementation.

Targeted analysis of choline and methylamine pathways.

To document the effect of choline supplementation on choline-related metabolic pathways,

we further refined our isotopic UPLC-MS/MS quantification[27,28] to evaluate plasma

concentrations of choline- and carnitine-derived metabolites leading to TMA and TMAO

(**Suppl. Fig. 3d,e**). An O-PLS-DA model significantly segregates the three treatment groups at

5 months and highlights a choline supplementation effect on the first predictive component

(**Fig. 1g,h**). Quantifications all reflect an increase in TMA and TMAO in the HC-HFD in line

with choline supplementation (**Fig. 1i,j**). In particular, the circulating TMA levels were similar

in the CHD and the LC-HFD (0.38 µM in CHD vs. 0.3 µM in LC-HFD) which was about 20 times

less than in the HC-HFD (5.9 µM). These results depict an increased microbial conversion of

choline into TMA in our HC-HFD, an observation already made in a previous study[12]. These

results suggest that TMA could mediate the metabolic and immune benefits of choline

supplementation.

Baseline metabolic phenotyping after 2-month HFD feeding.

To further assess the impact of choline supplementation on metabolic homeostasis and low-

grade inflammation in HFD contexts, we performed a second experiment, feeding C57BL/6

mice a 60% kcal HFD with a time-frame comparable to the ones used in subsequent figures.

Weekly BWs and the GTT showed a similar trend after 8 weeks of HFD-feeding (**Fig. 2a-c**).

Choline supplementation not only improved glucose tolerance (**Fig. 2b,c**) but also the

Matsuda index (**Fig. 2d**), a surrogate marker for IR[29]. The normalisation of insulin sensitivity

was confirmed through insulin tolerance tests (ITT) and hepatic Akt phosphorylation assays

(**Fig. 2e-h**). We further characterized that HFD feeding increased hepatic NF-κB

phosphorylation compared to CHD, which was normalised by choline supplementation (**Fig.**

2i,j), a pattern that was also observed for expression of acute-phase proteins *Saa1*, *Saa2*

and *Saa3* (**Fig. 2k-m**).

Chemical blockage of bacterial TMA biosynthesis and loss of metabolic benefits.

To test whether the beneficial effects of choline supplementation are mediated by its

microbial product TMA, we sought to block bacterial TMA production in HC-HFD-fed mice

both non-specifically and specifically using, respectively, a wide-spectrum antibiotics

cocktail and 3,3-dimethyl-1-butanol (DMB), which inhibits microbial TMA-lyase[30]. We first

confirmed the functional blockage of TMA production in mice fed a HC-HFD, resulting in a

drastic drop in circulating and excreted TMA and TMAO following 1% DMB administration

(**Suppl. Fig. 4a-d**). In accordance with our hypothesis, both antibiotics and DMB treatments

abolished the effects of choline supplementation-induced improvements in HFD, in

particular for glucose tolerance, insulin sensitivity (as suggested by the Matsuda index, **Fig.**

3a-c, **Suppl. Fig. 4e,f**) and hepatic insulin sensitivity as shown by the absence of beneficial

effect of choline supplementation on insulin-induced Akt phosphorylation (**Fig. 3d-g**). The

metabolic improvements were not associated with change in BW gain (**Suppl. Fig. 4e**),

thereby strongly suggesting that the effects on glucose metabolism induced by inhibiting

bacterial TMA production in HC-HFD were decoupled from obesity.

TMA treatment mimics choline supplementation.

To further confirm whether TMA mediates the beneficial effects of choline

supplementation, we chronically treated LC-HFD-fed C57BL/6 mice with TMA for 6 weeks

using subcutaneous osmotic minipumps and assessed their immunometabolism. We

confirmed that chronic TMA treatment at 0.01 mM in a LC-HFD did not affect BW gain

(**Suppl. Fig. 4g**) but effectively normalised glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity (**Fig.**

3h-l, Suppl. Fig. 4d). TMA treatment also improved the pro-inflammatory response to HFD-

feeding and hepatic expression of acute phase proteins *Saa1*, *Saa2* and *Saa3* (**Fig. 3m-p**).

These results suggest that chronic TMA treatment decouples BW gain and adiposity from

low-grade inflammation and glucose homeostasis, thereby mimicking the immune and

metabolic benefits observed in choline supplementation.

TMA is a specific IRAK-4 inhibitor.

To identify a direct mechanism linking TMA to metabolic and immune benefits in HFD-fed

mice, we sought to identify its host pharmacological targets. The kinome, made of 518

kinases encoded the human genome[6], represents a repertoire of critical signal transduction

switches for metabolic homeostasis and inflammation. To discover physical interactions, we

screened TMA against a panel of 456 clinically-relevant human kinases using a high-

throughput assay[31,32] and identified five preliminary hits for TMA (**Fig. 4a** and

Supplementary Tab. 5). We then generated multiple-dose binding curves between TMA and

each hit and confirmed that only TMA specifically binds IRAK-4 (dissociation constant K_d = 14

nM, **Fig. 4b**) whereas TMA did not bind the other four preliminary hits (flat dissociation

curves with no K_d fit in **Supplementary Fig. 5a-d**, meaning no physical binding was

observed). Since K_d only addresses a physical interaction in its simplest form (*i.e.* binding),

we functionally tested TMA as an IRAK-4 inhibitor, by quantifying IRAK-4 phosphorylation

activity in presence of ATP and increasing doses of TMA to derive a half-maximal relative

inhibitory constant (IC_{50} = 3.4 μM, **Fig. 4c**). We also confirmed that choline, TMAO and DMB

do not inhibit IRAK-4 (**Suppl. Fig. 5e-g**) and that TMA does not inhibit IRAK-1 either (**Suppl.**

Fig. 5h), as *Irak-1^{-/-}* mice fed a HFD were recently shown to have metabolic improvements

similar to TMA treatment[33]. Molecular dynamics simulations of IRAK-4 were performed in

the presence of 1% TMA. *In silico* analysis of thousands of binding and unbinding events

suggests that in solution TMA binds to several small hydrophobic cavities in IRAK-4 and to

the ATP binding site (**Fig. 4d** and **Suppl. Fig. 5i-j**).

Since IRAK-4 is a central kinase in the TLR pathway sensing bacterial invasion and promoting

a pyretic pro-inflammatory response in infectious contexts[34,35], we sought to test its

inhibition in a HFD context. The main free fatty acid (FFA) in our HFD is palmitate, a

saturated FFA which triggers TLR4. We therefore developed a palmitate-activated Kupffer

cell model of HFD-induced low-grade inflammation based on murine KUP5 cell line[36] (**Suppl.**

Fig. 4k). Palmitate treatment in KUP5 cells significantly increased both IL-6 and TNFα

secretions, which were improved by co-treatment with 0.1 mM TMA (**Fig. 4e,f**). Our results

reveal that TMA is a specific IRAK-4 inhibitor blunting the palmitate-induced low-grade

inflammation *in vitro*, requiring further assessment in Irak4^{-/-} mice.

***Irak4^{-/-}* mice are protected against HFD-induced immune and metabolic dysregulations.**

IRAK-4 is a key kinase required for defence against pyogenic infections in acute contexts[34,35].

To test whether this kinase plays a role in HFD-induced chronic low-grade inflammation and

glucose homeostasis, we fed 5-week-old *Irak4^{-/-}* mice[37] and wild-type (WT) littermates in

C57BL/6 background a LC-HFD, to avoid potential confounding effects from TMA for 8

weeks before assessing circulating cytokines, expression of hepatic inflammatory genes and

acute-phase markers and metabolic homeostasis (**Fig. 5a-h**). *Irak4^{-/-}* mice presented

improved glycemic control compared to WT littermates (**Fig.5 a,b**). Likewise, the

inflammatory response to LC-HFD observed in WT was obliterated in *Irak4^{-/-}* littermates (**Fig.**

5c-g). There was a similar trend for *Saa3* (**Fig. 5h**), whilst there was no effect on BW gains

(**Supplementary Fig. 6a**). Hence, genetic ablation of IRAK-4 abolishes the HFD-induced pro-

inflammatory response and IGT thereby decoupling obesity from impaired glucose tolerance

and low-grade inflammation with a similar phenotype to *Irak1* deficiency[33].

Pharmacological inhibition of Irak4 normalises metabolism.

Since the *Irak4^{-/-}* mice lack the whole protein, we compared the knock-out phenotype with

the phenotype of PF06650833, a recently discovered chemical inhibitor of the human IRAK4

protein[38] currently being assessed in a clinical trial (NCT02996500). Treatment with

PF06650833 improved BW in LC-HFD mice (**Suppl. Fig. 6b**). This inhibitor also yielded

significant improvements in plasma glycemia at the latter time-points of the GTT and ITT

and in cumulative glycemia (**Fig. 5i-l**), which was mirrored by an increase in Akt

phosphorylation (**Fig. 5m-n**). These results collectively show that specific chemical inhibition

of IRAK-4 leads to significant improvements in glycemic control, insulin sensitivity and

insulin signalling. Further, they suggest that IRAK-4 could constitute a clinically relevant

target in IR and related disorders.

DISCUSSION

The discovery that TMA is a kinase inhibitor controlling IRAK-4, a central kinase involved in

innate immunity, is a major finding which provides an attractive mechanism for the

metabolic and immune improvements observed with choline-supplementation in HFD

contexts (**Fig. 6**).

IRAK-4 is the first regulatory checkpoint after MyD88, the adapter protein connecting IRAK-4

to at least six TLRs sensing bacterial compounds[39]. IRAK-4 deficiency is associated with

bacterial infections in humans[35] and in mice[40]. Consistent with the involvement of the TLR

signalling pathway at the crossroads between gut microbiota and dietary lipids[41,42], IRAK-4

deletion and its inhibition by TMA and PF06650833[38] rescued HFD-induced low-grade

inflammation and IR[4,43,44], highlighting new unexpected roles for this microbial metabolite

and its target kinase in immunometabolism. The relative IC_{50} (3.4 μM) we determined is two

times smaller than the plasma isotopic quantifications obtained by UPLC-MS/MS in the HFD

group supplemented with choline. These quantifications are comparable to circulating TMA

levels previously reported in normal human plasma, ranging between 0.42 and 48 μM[45,46],

which makes this IC_{50} particularly relevant with regard to pathophysiological mechanisms:

dosing mice with 0.01 mM TMA (3x IC_{50}) was sufficient to improve inflammatory and

metabolic responses. TMA can therefore be considered a "microbial signalling metabolite"[47]

sending a negative feedback signal to a pathway triggered by influx of saturated free fatty

acids in HFD contexts, this mechanism participating in maintaining a low immunological

footprint and metabolic improvements in a symbiotic relationship. TMA's role as an IRAK-4

inhibitor could for instance explain some of the beneficial effects reported for choline

supplementation in NAFLD patients[48]. Altogether, our results on IRAK-4 inhibition and

ablation provide further insight in the phenotypic convergence between *Myd88*, *Irak4* and

Irak1 knock-out mouse models[33,49], suggesting that the gut microbiota, through TMA,

proceeds with a targeted hijacking of the TLR signal transduction machinery to the host's

benefit resulting in metabolic and immune improvements.

In summary, through the combination of *in silico*, *ex vivo*, *in vitro* and *in vivo* approaches, we

reveal a unique mechanism in which TMA acts as a gut microbial signalling metabolite

inhibiting IRAK-4, a central molecular target in the TLR pathway, thereby allowing the gut

microbiota to control HFD-induced pro-inflammatory response and IR. The kinome

represents a key repertoire of regulatory host targets for microbial signals and the

uncharted microbiome–kinome crosstalk requires further investigation. By highlighting the

physiological and therapeutic roles of TMA and IRAK-4 on HFD-induced low-grade

inflammation and IR, we anticipate that its immunomodulatory properties extend beyond IR

to a wider range of human pathologies involving TLR signalling and modulation of innate

immunity.

Author Contributions

JC and SG performed cell-based assays, JC performed multivariate statistics and interpreted

the results. JC, FB, JFF, AE, HP, LZ, DS, ARR, PDC, SC and CG contributed *in vivo* experiments,

RHB, AM, ALN, LMG, SG, CLB and SP performed various experiments. JEF and RCG designed

and performed *in silico* experiments. LH analysed microarray data. JS, DG, JKN, PPL, PDC,

NJG and MED conceived the project, mentored and supervised its participants and

interpreted its results. MED performed metabolic profiling experiments, analysed data and

interpreted the results. JC, NJG, DG, PPL, PDC, and MED wrote the manuscript. All authors

edited the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from the Wellcome Trust (Functional Genomics Initiative

grant Biological Atlas of Insulin Resistance 06678 to JKN, DG and JS), the European

Commission (METACARDIS HEALTH-F4-2012-305312 to DG and MED, Neuron II under

agreement 291840 and the MRC (MR/M501797/1 to MED), Institut Mérieux through a grant

awarded to MED, and Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) grants (MOP-49413 &

MOP-142471) awarded to PPL. DG held a Wellcome Trust Senior Fellowship in Basic

Biomedical Science (057733). JEF was supported by the Medical Research Council (grant

number MR/K020919/1). PDC is a senior research associate and AE a research associate at

FRS-FNRS (Fonds de la Recherche Scientifique). PDC is the recipient of grants from FNRS. LH

is in receipt of an MRC Intermediate Research Fellowship in Data Science (grant number

MR/L01632X/1, UK Med-Bio). This work was supported by FRFS-WELBIO under grant:

WELBIO-CGR-2017, by the Funds InBev-Baillet Latour (Grant for Medical Research 2015) and

ERC Starting Grant 2013 (European Research Council, Starting grant 336452-ENIGMO).

Online Content.

Methods, along with any additional Supplementary display items and Source Data, are

available in the online version of the paper; references unique to these sections appear only

in the online paper.

References.

1. Wu, G. D. *et al.* Linking long-term dietary patterns with gut microbial enterotypes. *Science* **334,** 105–108 (2011).
2. Le Chatelier, E. *et al.* Richness of human gut microbiome correlates with metabolic markers. *Nature* **500,** 541–546 (2013).
3. Pedersen, H. K. *et al.* Human gut microbes impact host serum metabolome and insulin sensitivity. *Nature* **535,** 376–381 (2016).
4. Cai, D. *et al.* Local and systemic insulin resistance resulting from hepatic activation of IKK-beta and NF-kappaB. *Nat. Med.* **11,** 183–190 (2005).
5. Cani, P. D. *et al.* Metabolic endotoxemia initiates obesity and insulin resistance. *Diabetes* **56,** 1761–1772 (2007).
6. Manning, G., Whyte, D. B., Martinez, R., Hunter, T. & Sudarsanam, S. The protein kinase complement of the human genome. *Science* **298,** 1912–1934 (2002).
7. Samuel, V. T. & Shulman, G. I. Mechanisms for insulin resistance: common threads and missing links. *Cell* **148,** 852–871 (2012).
8. Hooper, L. V., Littman, D. R. & Macpherson, A. J. Interactions between the microbiota and the immune system. *Science* **336,** 1268–1273 (2012).
9. Nicholson, J. K. *et al.* Host-gut microbiota metabolic interactions. *Science* **336,** 1262–1267 (2012).
10. Maslowski, K. M. *et al.* Regulation of inflammatory responses by gut microbiota and chemoattractant receptor GPR43. *Nature* **461,** 1282–1286 (2009).
11. Venkatesh, M. *et al.* Symbiotic Bacterial Metabolites Regulate Gastrointestinal Barrier Function via the Xenobiotic Sensor PXR and Toll-like Receptor 4. *Immunity* **41,** 296–310 (2014).
12. Dumas, M.-E. *et al.* Metabolic profiling reveals a contribution of gut microbiota to fatty liver phenotype in insulin-resistant mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **103,** 12511–12516 (2006).
13. Wang, Z. *et al.* Gut flora metabolism of phosphatidylcholine promotes cardiovascular disease. *Nature* **472,** 57–63 (2011).
14. Al-Waiz, M., Mikov, M., Mitchell, S. C. & Smith, R. L. The exogenous origin of trimethylamine in the mouse. *Metab. Clin. Exp.* **41,** 135–136 (1992).
15. Craciun, S. & Balskus, E. P. Microbial conversion of choline to trimethylamine requires a glycyl radical enzyme. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109,** 21307–21312 (2012).
16. Koeth, R. A. *et al.* Intestinal microbiota metabolism of L-carnitine, a nutrient in red meat, promotes atherosclerosis. *Nat. Med.* **19,** 576–585 (2013).
17. Al-Waiz, M., Ayesh, R., Mitchell, S. C., Idle, J. R. & Smith, R. L. Disclosure of the metabolic retroversion of trimethylamine *N*-oxide in humans: a pharmacogenetic approach. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.* **42,** 608–612 (1987).
18. Hoyles, L. *et al.* Metabolic retroconversion of trimethylamine *N*-oxide and the gut microbiota. *bioRxiv* 225581 (2017). doi:10.1101/225581
19. Dolphin, C. T., Janmohamed, A., Smith, R. L., Shephard, E. A. & Phillips, I. R. Missense mutation in flavin-containing mono-oxygenase 3 gene, FMO3, underlies fish-odour syndrome. *Nat. Genet.* **17,** 491–494 (1997).
20. Shih, D. M. *et al.* Flavin containing monooxygenase 3 exerts broad effects on glucose and lipid metabolism and atherosclerosis. *J. Lipid Res.* **56,** 22–37 (2015).
21. Warrier, M. *et al.* The TMAO-Generating Enzyme Flavin Monooxygenase 3 Is a Central Regulator of Cholesterol Balance. *Cell Rep* **10,** 326–338 (2015).

22.   Miao, J. *et al.* Flavin-containing monooxygenase 3 as a potential player in diabetes-
associated atherosclerosis. *Nat Commun* **6,** 6498 (2015).
23.   Schugar, R. C. *et al.* The TMAO-Producing Enzyme Flavin-Containing Monooxygenase
3 Regulates Obesity and the Beiging of White Adipose Tissue. *Cell Rep* **19,** 2451–2461
(2017).
24.   Ozcan, U. *et al.* Endoplasmic reticulum stress links obesity, insulin action, and type 2
diabetes. *Science* **306,** 457–461 (2004).
25.   Eckel-Mahan, K. L. *et al.* Reprogramming of the circadian clock by nutritional
challenge. *Cell* **155,** 1464–1478 (2013).
26.   Dumas, M.-E. *et al.* Microbial-Host Co-metabolites Are Prodromal Markers Predicting
Phenotypic Heterogeneity in Behavior, Obesity, and Impaired Glucose Tolerance. *Cell*
Rep **20,** 136–148 (2017).
27.   Kadar, H. *et al.* A multiplexed targeted assay for high-throughput quantitative analysis
of serum methylamines by ultra performance liquid chromatography coupled to high
resolution mass spectrometry. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **597,** 12–20 (2016).
28.   Plovier, H. *et al.* A purified membrane protein from Akkermansia muciniphila or the
pasteurized bacterium improves metabolism in obese and diabetic mice. *Nat. Med.*
23, 107–113 (2017).
29.   Matsuda, M. & DeFronzo, R. A. Insulin sensitivity indices obtained from oral glucose
tolerance testing: comparison with the euglycemic insulin clamp. *Diabetes Care* **22,**
1462–1470 (1999).
30.   Wang, Z. *et al.* Non-lethal Inhibition of Gut Microbial Trimethylamine Production for
the Treatment of Atherosclerosis. *Cell* **163,** 1585–1595 (2015).
31.   Fabian, M. A. *et al.* A small molecule-kinase interaction map for clinical kinase
inhibitors. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **23,** 329–336 (2005).
32.   Karaman, M. W. *et al.* A quantitative analysis of kinase inhibitor selectivity. *Nat.*
Biotechnol. **26,** 127–132 (2008).
33.   Sun, X.-J. *et al.* Deletion of interleukin 1 receptor-associated kinase 1 (Irak1) improves
glucose tolerance primarily by increasing insulin sensitivity in skeletal muscle. *J. Biol.*
Chem. **292,** 12339–12350 (2017).
34.   Suzuki, N. *et al.* Severe impairment of interleukin-1 and Toll-like receptor signalling in
mice lacking IRAK-4. *Nature* **416,** 750–756 (2002).
35.   Picard, C. *et al.* Pyogenic bacterial infections in humans with IRAK-4 deficiency.
Science **299,** 2076–2079 (2003).
36.   Kitani, H. *et al.* Establishment of c-myc-immortalized Kupffer cell line from a C57BL/6
mouse strain. *Results Immunol* **4,** 68–74 (2014).
37.   Valaperti, A. *et al.* Innate immune interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 4
exacerbates viral myocarditis by reducing CCR5(+) CD11b(+) monocyte migration and
impairing interferon production. *Circulation* **128,** 1542–1554 (2013).
38.   Lee, K. L. *et al.* Discovery of Clinical Candidate 1-{[(2S,3S,4S)-3-Ethyl-4-fluoro-5-
oxopyrrolidin-2-yl]methoxy}-7-methoxyisoquinoline-6-carboxamide (PF-06650833), a
Potent, Selective Inhibitor of Interleukin-1 Receptor Associated Kinase 4 (IRAK4), by
Fragment-Based Drug Design. *J. Med. Chem.* **60,** 5521–5542 (2017).
39.   O'Neill, L. A. J., Golenbock, D. & Bowie, A. G. The history of Toll-like receptors -
redefining innate immunity. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **13,** 453–460 (2013).
40.   Bernuth, von, H., Picard, C., Puel, A. & Casanova, J.-L. Experimental and natural
infections in MyD88- and IRAK-4-deficient mice and humans. *Eur. J. Immunol.* **42,**

391   3126–3135 (2012).

41.   Caesar, R., Tremaroli, V., Kovatcheva-Datchary, P., Cani, P. D. & Backhed, F. Crosstalk
between Gut Microbiota and Dietary Lipids Aggravates WAT Inflammation through
TLR Signaling. *Cell Metab.* **22,** 658–668 (2015).

42.   Shi, H. *et al.* TLR4 links innate immunity and fatty acid-induced insulin resistance. *J.*
Clin. Invest. **116,** 3015–3025 (2006).

43.   Reilly, S. M. *et al.* An inhibitor of the protein kinases TBK1 and IKK-ε improves obesity-
related metabolic dysfunctions in mice. *Nat. Med.* **19,** 313–321 (2013).

44.   Kiechl, S. *et al.* Blockade of receptor activator of nuclear factor-κB (RANKL) signaling
improves hepatic insulin resistance and prevents development of diabetes mellitus.
Nat. Med. **19,** 358–363 (2013).

45.   Bain, M. A., Faull, R., Fornasini, G., Milne, R. W. & Evans, A. M. Accumulation of
trimethylamine and trimethylamine-N-oxide in end-stage renal disease patients
undergoing haemodialysis. *Nephrol. Dial. Transplant.* **21,** 1300–1304 (2006).

46.   Lundh, T., Akesson, B. & Skerfving, S. Effect of dietary intake of trimethylamine on
human metabolism of the industrial catalyst dimethylethylamine. *Occup Environ Med*
52, 478–483 (1995).

47.   Dumas, M.-E. The microbial-mammalian metabolic axis: beyond simple metabolism.
Cell Metab. **13,** 489–490 (2011).

48.   Spencer, M. D. *et al.* Association between composition of the human gastrointestinal
microbiome and development of fatty liver with choline deficiency. *Gastroenterology*
140, 976–986 (2011).

49.   Everard, A. *et al.* Intestinal epithelial MyD88 is a sensor switching host metabolism
towards obesity according to nutritional status. *Nat Commun* **5,** 5648 (2014).

Online Methods

Protocols

All experimental procedures involving mice were carried out in accordance with U.K. Home

Office, Canadian Council on Animal Care, the ethics committee of the French Research

Ministry (authorization number 00486.01), Belgian Law of May 29, 2013 regarding the

protection of laboratory animals (agreement number LA1230314) and local guidelines on

animal welfare and license conditions and the University of Oxford, University of Ottawa,

Université Pierre et Marie Curie and Université Catholique de Louvain guidelines on animal

welfare.

Cell-based assays.

C-myc-immortalised KUP5 cells, originally harvested from a C57BL/6 mouse, were

purchased from RIKEN BioResource Center, which certified the cells were not contaminated

by *Mycoplasma*. They were cultured in splitting medium at 37°C and 5% CO_2 atmosphere

under sterile conditions. Cells were split every 48-72 h using splitting medium (DMEM

GlutaMAX-I supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin and streptomycin, 0.1% insulin and

0.044% thioglycerol), maintained at a density between $5 \times 10^{5} – 1 \times 10^{6}$ cells/mL and used

between passages 2 and 20. For palmitate (PA) treatment, 125,000 cells/cm^2 were seeded in

treatment medium (DMEM GlutaMAX-I supplemented with 5% FBS, 1% penicillin and

streptomycin, 0.1% insulin and 0.044% thioglycerol) on a 48-well plate with a working

volume of 250 μL and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2 atmosphere overnight (16-18 h). 0.5 M

PA stock solution was prepared in 100% ethanol and 0.5 mM PA treatment solution was

prepared in treatment medium containing a final concentration of 0.5% low-endotoxin-fatty

acid free BSA. TMA (0.1 mM) treatment was performed in a simultaneous fashion with PA.

All solutions containing PA were prepared in borosilicate glass tubes. Upon overnight

incubation of seeded cells, the medium was replaced with the same volume of treatment

solutions and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2 atmosphere for 24 h before measurement of

cytokines in the medium.

Mouse Models.

<u>Longitudinal HFD-feeding in mice.</u> All experiments were approved by the ethical committee

of the University of Oxford. Male mice from C57BL/6J inbred strain were bred in our animal

facility by using a stock originating from The Jackson Laboratory. At 5 weeks of age, groups

of n=8-10 mice were transferred to a 40 %w/w high fat diet (65% kcal) (Special Diets

Services), containing 32 % lard and 8 % corn oil, whereas control groups remained on a 5 %

Low Fat Diet (B & K Universal) for up to 6 months. Detailed diet formulations were

published previously[12] and summarised in **Supplementary Table 6**.

Mice were housed under a 12 h–12 h light–dark cycle. For physiological profiling, several

mouse groups fed CHD or HFD were tested to assess consistency of results and discard any

impact of potential batch effects. Intra peritoneal glucose tolerance tests (ipGTT) were

performed in mice after 2-, 3-, 5-and 7-month-old mice after an overnight fast, as previously

published[50] (see also metabolic phenotyping below). Four days after the GTT, 24 h urinary

samples (9 a.m. to 9 a.m.) were collected from mice maintained in individual metabolic

cages. Urinary samples collected in a solution of 1 % (wt/vol) sodium azide were centrifuged

to remove solid particles and kept at -80°C until assayed. After an overnight fast, mice were

killed by exsanguination. Plasma was separated by centrifugation and stored at -80 °C until

^{1}H-NMR analysis.

Choline supplementation on HFD. At 5 weeks of age, mice were fed either a chow diet

containing 2g of choline/kg of diet (Research Diets, D12450J), a low-choline HFD containing

2g of choline/kg of diet (Research diets, D12492), a high-choline HFD containing 17 g of

choline/kg of diet (Research diets, D16100401), a HC-HFD containing 1% of DMB or a HC-

HFD combined with a cocktail of antibiotics (0.5 g/L vancomycin hydrochloride, 1 g/L

neomycin trisulfate, 1 g/L metronidazole, 1 g/L ampicillin sodium) in drinking bottles (n=6-

10 per group) for 8 weeks (see diet formulations in **Supplementary Table 6**). Mice then

were killed by decapitation and organ were dissected and weighed.

Irak4$^{-/-}$ mice. Irak4$^{-/-}$ mice on C57BL/6J background as already described[37] were bred with

C57BL/6J female mice (The Jackson Laboratory), and the F1 offspring were subsequently

bred to produce *Irak4$^{-/-}$* mice and WT littermate used for this study. After eight weeks of

HFD-feeding, mice were killed by decapitation and organ were dissected and weighed.

Chronic TMA and PF06650833 treatment in LC-HFD-fed mice. Five-week-old C57BL/6J mice

(Charles River) were housed a week before experiment in a controlled environment. Mice

were housed under a 12 h–12 h light–dark cycle. At day 0, the 10-week-old mice were

anaesthetised with isoflurane (ForeneH, Abbott). Mini-osmotic pumps were implanted

subcutaneously (Model 2006, Alzet) (flow rate: 0.15 mL/h, total filling volume: 200 mL,

delivery duration: 42 days) as previously described[51]. The osmotic mini-pump contains

either vehicle or TMA (0.1 mM in circulation) or PF06650833 (50 nM in circulation). After six

weeks of metabolite treatment, mice were killed by decapitation and organ were dissected

and weighed.

Physiological phenotyping

After four weeks of treatment an intra-peritoneal glucose tolerance test (2g/kg) was

performed in conscious mice following an overnight fast. Blood was collected from the tail

vein before glucose injection and 30, 60, 90 and 120 minutes afterwards. Blood glucose

levels were determined using an Accu-Check® Performa (Roche Diagnostics, Meylan,

France). Additional blood samples were collected at baseline and 30 minutes after glucose

injection in Microvette® CB 300 Lithium Heparin (Sarstedt, Marnay, France). Plasma was

separated by centrifugation and stored at -80°C until insulin radioimmunoassay. Circulating

insulin levels were determined using Insulin ELISA kits (Mercodia, Uppsala, Sweden). The

Matsuda insulin sensitivity index was calculated as previously published[29].

After five weeks, we performed an insulin tolerance test. 5 hour-fasted mice were injected

intraperitoneally with insulin (0.75 mU/g, Actrapid, Novo Nordisk). Blood glucose levels

were measured immediately before and 15, 30, 45, 60, 90 and 120 min after insulin

injection with a standard glucose meter (Accu Check, Roche, Basel, Switzerland) on the tip

of the tail vein.

Gene expression.

Groups of 6 mice showing consistent pathophysiological profile in response to CHD or HFD

treatment were selected for microarray analysis performed as previously described[52] and

data were deposited in array express with accession number: E-MEXP-1755. The

Bioconductor[53] package Limma[54] was used to generate the list of differentially expressed

genes. Gene ontology was implemented using Enrichr[55] and signalling pathway impact

analysis using SPIA[56].

For qPCR analysis, total RNA was prepared from tissues using TriPure reagent (Roche).

Quantification and integrity analysis of total RNA were performed by analysing 1 µL of each

sample in an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit, Agilent). cDNA was

prepared by reverse transcription of 1 mg total RNA using a Reverse Transcription System

kit (Promega). Real-time PCR was performed with the StepOnePlus real-time PCR system

and software (Applied Biosystems) using Mesa Fast qPCR (Eurogentec) for detection

according to the manufacturer's instructions. RPL19 RNA was chosen as the housekeeping

gene. All samples were performed in duplicate in a single 96-well reaction plate and data

were analysed according to the 2_DDCT method. The identity and purity of the amplified

product were assessed by melting curve analysis at the end of amplification. The primer

sequences for the targeted mouse genes are: SAA1 forward CAT-TTG-TTC-ACG-AGG-CTT-

TCC, SAA1 reverse GTT-TTT-CCA-GTT-AGC-TTC-CTT-CAT-GT, SAA2 forward GGG-GTC-TGG-

GCT-TCC-CAT-CT, SAA2 reverse CCA-TTC-TGA-AAC-CCT-TGT-GG, SAA3 forward CGC-AGC-

ACG-AGC-AGG-AT, SAA3 reverse CCA-GGA-TCA-AGA-TGC-AAA-GAA-TG.Q-RT-PCR assays

were performed in a single batch with the personnel blind to treatment groups.

Circulating cytokine quantification.

Circulating cytokines were quantified using MSD V-PLEX Plus Proinflammatory Panel 1 kit.

Plasma samples were diluted 2 times in diluent 41 provided and experiment was processed

as request by manufacturer and read on a SECTOR imager 2400. Cytokine assays were

performed in a single batch with the personnel blind to treatment groups.

Western-blotting.

Western blot analyses were performed as described previously [28]. To analyze the insulin

signaling pathway, mice were allocated to either a saline-injected subgroup or an insulin-

injected subgroup so that both subgroups were matched in terms of BW and fat mass. They

then received 1 mU insulin/g BW (Actrapid; Novo Nordisk A/S, Denmark) or an equal volume

of saline solution. Three minutes after injection, mice were killed and liver was harvested.

30mg of liver were homogenized in 680 µL of RIPA buffer containing a cocktail of protease

and phosphatase inhibitors. The homogenate was then centrifuged at 12,000G for 20 min at

4 °C. Equal amounts of proteins were separated by SDS–PAGE and transferred to

nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4 °C with antibodies

diluted in Tris-buffered saline Tween-20 containing 1% bovine serum albumin: p-Akt Ser473

(1:1,000; #4060, Cell Signaling), Total Akt (1:1000 ,#9272S, Cell Signalling), p-NF-κB (1:3000,

#ab86299, AbCam), Total NF- κB p65 (1:3000, #8242, Cell Signalling).

^{1}H-NMR spectroscopy and multivariate statistics.

Mouse urine and plasma samples were prepared and measured on a spectrometer (Bruker)

operating at 600.22 MHz ^{1}H frequency; full resolution ^{1}H NMR spectra were then processed

and analysed using orthogonal partial least square discriminant analysis as described

previously[12]. Variance component analysis was performed as described previously[57]. ^{1}H

NMR profiling was performed in a single batch with the personnel blind to treatment

groups. The O-PLS-DA model was validated using 10,000 random permutations of the

original class membership variable to explain (i.e. diets, treatments or genotypes), as

described previously[57].

Plasma methylamine quantification by UPLC-MS/MS. Methylamines were quantified as

previously described[27,28]. Plasma samples (20 μL) were spiked with 10 μL Internal Standard

(IS) solution ($^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA, d_9-TMAO, d_4-choline, d_3-carnitine and d_9-betaine in water; 1

mg/L) and 45 μL of ethyl 2-bromoacetate solution (15 g/L ethyl 2-bromoacetate, 1% NH_4OH

in acetonitrile) were added to derivatize methylamines (TMA and $^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA) to their

ethoxy- analogues, completed after 30 min at room temperature. 935 μL of protein/lipid

precipitation solution (94% acetonitrile/5% water/1% formic acid) was added; samples were

centrifuged for 20 min (4°C, 20,000g) and were transferred to UPLC-autosampler vials.

Sample injections (10 μL loop) were performed on 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

in 95:5 (v/v) acetronitrile:water for 14min at 500 μL/min and 50 °C. Positive electrospray

(ESI+) was used as ionization source and mass spectrometer parameters were set as follows:

capillary, cone and source offset voltages at 500, 93 and 50 V, respectively, desolvation

temperature at 600°C, desolvation/cone/nebulizer gases were high-purity nitrogen at 1000

L/hr, 150 L/hr and 7 bar respectively. Collision gas was high-purity argon. Mass

spectrometer was operated in multiple reactions monitoring (MRM) mode. The monitored

transitions were the following: for derivatized-TMA, +146 -> +118/59 m/z (23/27 V); for

derivatised-$^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA, +150 -> +63 (27V); for TMAO, +76 -> +59/58 m/z (12/13 V); for d_9-

TMAO, +85 -> +68 m/z (18 V); for choline, +104-> +60/45 m/z (14/16 V); for d_4-choline, +108

-> +60 m/z (15 V); for γ-butyrobetaine, +146 -> +60/87 m/z (12/12 V); for carnitine, +162 ->

+103/60 m/z (16/14 V); for d_3-carnitine, +165 -> +103 m/z (16 V); for betaine, +118 ->

+59/58 m/z (16/16 V); for d_9-betaine, +127 -> +68 m/z (16 V).

Kinome screen, K_d and IC$_{50}$ determination.

TMA was assessed using KdELECT screening service (DiscoveRx) as described previously[31,32].

This technique is based on a competition-binding assay that quantitatively measures the

ability of a compound to compete with an immobilized, active site-directed ligand. The

assay consists of DNA-tagged kinase, immobilized ligand, and the potent inhibitor. The

ability of TMA to compete with the immobilized ligand was measured by quantitative PCR of

the DNA tag. The binding constant (K_d) was then calculated from duplicate 11-point dose–

response curve. Kinase interaction tree plots were generated using TREEspot™ Software

Tool and reprinted with permission from KINOMEscan®, a division of DiscoveRx Corporation,

© Discoverx corporation 2015. The TMA IC$_{50}$ on IRAK-4 was determined using Kinexus

kinase-inhibitor activity profiling service (Kinexus, Vancouver, Canada). The technique is

based on the direct quantification of radiolabelled phosphate from ATP onto a protein

substrate of a target protein kinase.

Molecular dynamics simulations.

Molecular dynamics simulations were performed within the Amber package[58] based on an

X-ray structure of human IRAK-4[59]. After removal of the bound ligand and sulfate ions, the

system was prepared using protonate3d[60]. Protein atoms were described using the Amber

fore field 99SB-ILDN[61], ligand TMA was described within the Generalized Amber Force

Field[62] after fitting partial charges using RESP at the Hartree-Fock/6-31G* level (see

Supplementary 2e for resulting parameters). A periodic truncated octahedral shell of TIP3P

water molecules was added[63] 10Å to our systems. 1% of approximately 10,000 water

molecules with a minimum distance of 4Å to the protein were randomly replaced by TMA to

study binding. After applying an elaborate equilibration protocol[64], we sampled each system

without restraints for 100 ns using the GPU implementation of pmemd[58]. Analyses of

simulation data were performed using ptraj and cpptraj from AmberTools[65]. After

performing standard stability checks for energy and overall structure, hydrogen bonding

between protein and ligands was counted using cpptraj's default criteria. All protein–ligand

contacts within a distance cutoff of 5Å were considered for contact analysis. Grid-based

analyses of TMA positions were performed on a grid capturing the entire simulation box

with a spacing of 0.5Å. The resulting grids were overlaid with an ATP-bound structure of

IRAK-4 (PDB: 2OID)[66].

Reagents.

Glutamine (Glutamax, 35050061, Life Technologies), Fetal bovine serum (Life Technologies),

crystal violet (C6158) and Trimethylamine (W324108) were from Sigma-Aldrich. Mouse IL-6

Quantikine ELISA kits (M6000B, R&D system), RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen). SuperScript II

Reverse Transcriptase, IL6 Taqman probe Hs00174131_m1 and FAST master mix

(Invitrogen). High Fat Diet (Special Diets Services) and Low Fat Diet (B & K Universal) were

specifically formulated in[12]. Control Diet (D12450K; Research diet), LC-HFD (60% kcal fat and

20% kcal carbohydrates, D12492, Research diet), HC-HFD (60% kcal fat and 20% kcal

carbohydrates with 17g of choline/kg, D16100401i, Research diet). Mouse Insulin ELISA (10-

1249-01, Mercodia). Isoflurane (10014451, Forene, Abbott). TriPure reagent (1667165,

Roche). Reverse Transcription System kit (A3500, Promega). Mesa Fast qPCR (CS-CKIT-PROD,

Eurogentec). MSD V-PLEX Plus Proinflammatory Panel 1 kit (K15048G Meso Scale

Diagnostics).

Statistics.

Potential outliers were identified by a Grubbs test. For statistical comparisons between

study groups, normality was tested using D'agostino-Pearson omnibus normality test, then

one-way ANOVA was used, followed by Tukey's *post hoc* testing when data were normally

distributed, otherwise groups were compared using the two-tailed Mann-Whitney test ($P <$

0.05 considered to be statistically significant). Data are displayed as mean ± s.e.m in all

figures. All cell culture experiments included at least three biological replicates (as indicated

in figure legends). All animal cohorts included at least five animals in each study group (as

indicated in figure legends) and animals were randomized to treatment groups.

Figure Legends.

Figure 1. Choline supplementation improves glucose homeostasis and inflammation after 5 months of HFD.

5-week-old C57BL/6J mice were fed a CHD diet, a low-choline HFD or a low-choline HFD supplemented with choline (n=10) and were phenotyped after 5 months. (**a**) Body weight (BW) measured after 5 months of diet. (**b**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**c**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**d-f**) Quantification of circulating cytokines: IL6 (**d**), TNFα (**e**) and IL1β (**f**). (**g**) Scores plot from a cross-validated O-PLS-DA model segregating the three groups of mice according to diet based on isotopic quantification of methylamines by UPLC-MS/MS. (**h**) Empirical assessment of the significance of O-PLS goodness-of-fit parameters by generating a null distribution with 10,000 random permutations. (**i-j**) Quantification of circulating TMA (**i**) and TMAO (**j**) by UPLC-MS/MS. Data are means ± s.e.m. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's *post hoc* tests (superscript letters for factor levels $P<0.05$) on log-transformed data except (**g-h**).

Figure 2. Choline supplementation corrects HFD adverse effects on glucose homeostasis, insulin sensitivity and inflammation after 8 weeks of diet.

5-week-old C57BL/6J mice were fed a CHD diet, a low-choline HFD or a low-choline HFD supplemented with choline (n = 10) and were phenotyped after 8 weeks. (**a**) Body weight measured periodically during 8 weeks of diet. (**b**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**c**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**d**) Matsuda insulin sensitivity index calculated from the ipGTT. (**e**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**f**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**g-j**) Western-Blot analysis of liver Akt phosphorylation (**g-h**) and NF-kB phosphorylation (**i-j**). (**k-m**) expression of hepatic acute phase inflammation proteins markers *Saa1* (**k**), *Saa2* (**l**) and *Saa3* (**m**). Data are means ± s.e.m. (**c, d, f, h-m**) One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's *post hoc* tests (superscript letters for factor levels $P<0.05$) on log-transformed data. (**a, b, e**) Non-parametric two-sided Mann-Whitney test was used for each timepoint, significance comparison signs are as follow: *=CHD vs LC-HFD, $=LC-HFD vs HC-HFD and #=CHD vs HC-HFD.

Figure 3. Blocking TMA production from choline cancels metabolic benefits from choline

supplementation and chronic TMA chronic treatment mimics it.

(a-g) 5-weeks-old C57BL/6J mice were fed a low-choline HFD or a low-choline HFD

supplemented with choline (n = 10). Two strategies were used in parallel to block TMA

production from choline by the gut microbiota using either 1% DMB in the diet or an

antibiotic treatment. (**a**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**b**) Area under the

curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**c**) Matsuda insulin sensitivity

index calculated from the ipGTT (**d**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**e**) Area

under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**f-g**) Western-blot

analysis of liver Akt phosphorylation. (**h-p**) Mice were weaned at 3 weeks and fed a low-

choline HFD before being fitted with osmotic minipumps delivering a chronic circulating

dose of TMA (0.1 mM) for 6 weeks (n = 9 saline HFD, n = 8 TMA HFD). (**h**) Plasma glucose

concentration during an ipGTT. (**i**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration

during an ipGTT. (**j**) Matsuda insulin sensitivity index calculated from the ipGTT. (**k**) Plasma

glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**l**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose

concentration during an ipITT. (**m**) Quantification of circulating IL6. (**n-p**) Expression of

hepatic acute-phase inflammation protein markers *Saa1* (**n**), *Saa2* (o) and *Saa3* (**p**). Data are

means ± s.e.m. Results were assessed by one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's

post hoc tests (superscript letters for factor levels $P<0.05$) on log-transformed data.

Figure 4. TMA inhibits IRAK-4 and rescues TLR4-mediated pro-inflammatory response.

(**a**) Kinome screen for a single dose of TMA (0.1 mM) against 456 kinases. (**b**) Confirmation

of a physical interaction between TMA and IRAK-4 using TMA at concentrations ranging

from 0.1 nM to 100 µM, resulting in a dissociation constant (K_d) of 14 nM. (**c**) Functional

characterization of the inhibition of IRAK-4 by TMA. IRAK-4 phosphorylation activity was

determined in presence of various concentration of TMA and resulted in an IC_{50} of 3.4 µM.

(**d**) Preferred binding sites of TMA from molecular dynamic simulations of IRAK-4 in

presence of 1% TMA. Blue grid points indicate regions with highest TMA occupancy, thereby

identifying several small cavities and the ATP pocket as potential binding sites. (**e-f**)

Assessment of the effect of 100 µM of TMA treatment on KUP5 Kupffer cells activated with

0.5 mM of palmitate. (**e-f**) IL6 and TNFα secretion in cell medium (n=10 biological

replicates). The kinases covered by the kinome scan assay are visualised using a

phylogenetic layout. Preliminary positive hits with potential binding >35 % vs control

(DMSO) are represented by a red dot whilst non-binding kinases are represented by a green

dot. Kinase group names: TK, Tyrosine Kinases; TKL, Tyrosine Kinase-like; STE, STE kinase

group; CK1, Cell Kinase 1; AGC, Protein kinase A, G and C families; CAMK, Calcium and

Calmodulin-regulated kinases; CMGC, CMGC kinase group. Data are means ± s.e.m. One-

way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's *post hoc* tests (superscript letters for factor

levels $P<0.05$) on log-transformed data.

Figure 5. IRAK-4 deficiency corrects IGT and pro-inflammatory response after 8 weeks of

low choline HFD feeding in C57BL/6 mice and a chemical inhibitor of IRAK-4 mimics the

effects on glucose homeostasis. (a-g) 5-week-old *Irak4$^{-/-}$* mice and WT littermates were fed

a low-choline HFD (10 WT HFD and 8 *Irak4$^{-/-}$* HFD) and were phenotyped after 8 weeks. (**a**)

Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**b**) Area under the curve of the plasma

glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**c-e**) Circulating cytokines (**c**) IL6, (**d**) TNFα, (**e**) IL1β.

(**f-h**) Liver mRNA expressions for *Saa1* (**f**), *Saa2* (**g**) and *Saa3* (**h**) genes. (**i-n**) Mice were

weaned at 3 weeks and fed a low-choline HFD before being fitted with osmotic minipumps

delivering a chronic circulating dose of PF06650833 (50 nM) for 6 weeks. (**i**) Plasma glucose

concentration during an ipGTT. (**j**) Area under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration

during an ipGTT. (**k**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**l**) Area under the curve

of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipITT. (**m-n**) Western-blot analysis of liver Akt

phosphorylation. Data are means ± s.e.m. Student's T-test ($P<0.05$) on log-transformed

data.

Fig. 6. Overview of effects of IRAK-4 inhibition by TMA on metabolic response to HFD.

TMA, which is synthesized from dietary choline (1) by the gut microbiota (2) specifically

inhibits IRAK-4 activity (3). This inhibition blunts the TLR signalling pathway (induced by LPS

and saturated free fatty acids) leading to an improvement of metabolic response to HFD

(e.g. glucose homeostasis).

 Supplementary Figure Legends

 Supplementary Figure 1. C57BL/6 mice fed HFD display low acute-phase gene expression

 in liver paralleled by high TMA excretion. Male mice were weaned at 3 weeks and fed a

 CHD diet, before being randomly assigned to CHD group (n=270) or HFD (n=202) groups and

 monitored at 2 (72 CHD and 64 HFD), 3 (84 CHD and 57 HFD), 5 (68 CHD and 47 HFD) and 7

 months (46 CHD and 34 HFD). (**a-c**) Effect of HFD-feeding on physiological parameters. (**a**)

 Body weight (BW), (**b**) glucose tolerance test (GTT) at 5 months and (**c**) cumulative glycemia

 during GTT (AUC). (**d-e**) Effect of HFD-feeding on liver transcriptome at 5 months. (**d**)

 Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes, highlighting that *Saa1* and *Saa2* are down-

 regulated in HFD. Red dots, significantly (FDR < 0.1) differentially expressed genes. (**e**)

 Heatmap of significantly (FDR < 0.1) differentially expressed genes. (**f-i**) Effect of HFD-

 feeding and age on urinary metabolic phenotypes analyzed by ^{1}H-NMR spectroscopy. (**f**) ^{1}H-

 NMR-based metabotyping scores plot from a cross-validated O-PLS-DA model segregating

 the eight groups of mice according to both diet and age. (**g**) Empirical assessment of the

 significance of O-PLS goodness-of-fit parameters by generating a null distribution with

 10,000 random permutations. (**h**) Metabolic signature of diet on O-PLS model coefficient

 plot; line plot corresponds to covariance and the color-scale represents proportion of

 variance explained. (**i**) Assessment of the contribution of factors diet and age on choline,

 TMA and TMAO by O-PLS variance components analysis. Data are means ± s.e.m. Two-sided

 Mann-Whitney test (*P < 0.05 vs control). For the O-PLS-DA permutation test, the horizontal

 axis corresponds to the correlation between the original class membership variable (single

 dots on the right) and the randomly permuted class membership vectors (no longer

 correlated with the original class membership) (swarm of permutated models on the left).

 The y axis corresponds to goodness-of-fit parameter R^2 (in green) derived for each O-PLS-DA

 model and the goodness-of-prediction parameter Q^2 (in blue) derived by 7-fold cross-

 validation of each O-PLS-DA model. The R^2 and Q^2 parameters obtained from the original

 model in the top right corner are outside the confidence interval of the 10,000 randomly

 permuted models and therefore confirming the significance of the fitness and prediction

 capacity of the original O-PLS-DA model.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Pathway analysis for hepatic significant genes. (**a**) Gene ontology

analysis for down- and up-regulated HFD-responsive genes, (**b**) Signaling pathway impact

analysis for HFD-responsive genes. Pathways respectively on the right-hand side of the red

and blue curves are significant after Bonferroni correction of the global p-values (pG)

obtained by combining the pPERT and pNDE using the normal inversion method, and

significant after a FDR correction of pG. Significant KEGG pathways: 04141, Protein

processing in the endoplasmic reticulum; 04710, Circadian rhythm; 04152, AMPK signaling

pathway.

Supplementary Fig. 3. Choline supplementation corrects HFD adverse effects and

associated methylamine measurements. (**a**) Food intake measured on the three tested

diets (CHD, LC-HFD and HC-HFD). (**b-c**) Western blot analysis of liver NF-kB phosphotylation

state between LC-HFD and HC-HFD. (**d**) Plasma sample chromatogram for the simultaneous

detection of TMA, TMAO, choline, γ-butyrobetaine, carnitine, betaine and their isotopically

labelled analogues. (**e**) Principal Component Analysis Biplot of plasma methylamine

quantifications by UPLC/MS-MS from mice fed CHD, LC-HFD and HC-HFD. Data are means ±

s.e.m. Two-sided Mann-Whitney test (*P < 0.05 vs control).

Supplementary Fig. 4. Modulation of TMa production and effects. (**a-d**) Confirmation of

blockage of production of TMA (**a**, **c**) and TMAO (**b**, **d**) by 1% DMB measured in plasma (**a-b**)

and urine (**c-d**). (**e**) Body weight monitoring during the whole experiment of mice fed a LC-

HFD and a HC-HFD supplemented or not with DMB or treated with antibiotics. (**f**) Plasma

insulin concentration during GTT at 0, 30 and 120 min post glucose injection. (**g**) Body

weight monitoring during the whole experiment of mice fed a LC-HFD and chronically

treated with TMA. (**h**) Plasma insulin concentration during GTT at 0, 30 and 120 min post

glucose injection. Data are means ± s.e.m. Two-sided Mann-Whitney test (*P < 0.05 vs LC-

HFD control).

Supplementary Fig. 5. TMA does not bind with kinases ANKK1, HIPK2, JAK2, and NDR1

identified as candidates in the kinome screen, but makes significant contact with IRAK-4.

(**a-d**) Physical interaction test between TMA and the four hits identified using a kinome

screen, using TMA concentrations ranging from 0.1 nM to 100 µM for (**a**) ANKK1, (**b**) HIPK2,

(**c**) JAK2 and (**d**) NDR1. (**e-g**) IRAK-4 activity is not inhibited by choline (**e**), TMAO (**f**) or DMB

(**g**), while TMA does not have any inhibitory effect on IRAK-1 (**h**). (**i-j**) Molecular dynamic

parameters and outputs (**i**) force-field parameters and (**j**) number of protein-ligand H bonds

and contacts with 1% of TMA. (**k**) Optimisation of palmitate dose on IL6 secretion by KUP5

cells. Data are means ± s.e.m. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's *post hoc* tests

(superscript letters for factor levels $P<0.05$) on log-transformed data.

Supplementary Fig. 6. IRAK-4 knock-out does not affect body weight while chronic

treatment with PF06650833 reduces it in mice fed a low-choline HFD. (a-b) Body weight

monitoring during the whole experiment of *Irak4*$^{-/-}$ mice (**a**) or PF06650833-treated mice (**b**)

fed a LC-HFD.

Supplementary Tab. 1: Hepatic genes differentially expressed by HFD-feeding. Hepatic

transcriptomes were analysed using Limma[54] and genes are considered significant if Fdr<0.1.

Supplementary Tab. 2: Down-regulated HFD-responsive hepatic pathways. Gene ontology

analysis was performed using Enrichr[55] and pathways are considered significant if Fdr<0.1.

Supplementary Tab. 3: Up-regulated HFD-responsive hepatic genes. Gene ontology

analysis was performed using Enrichr[55] and pathways are considered significant if Fdr<0.1.

Supplementary Tab. 4: Hepatic signalling pathways impacted by HFD. Signalling pathway

impact analysis was performed using SPIA[56] and pathways are considered significant if

pGFWER<0.1.

Supplementary Tab. 5. TMA kinome screen. Screening results for single-dose TMA binding

to 456 kinases. "Percent control" corresponds to the percentage of DNA amplified by qPCR

compared to the control condition. Values below 35 % (in green) are considered as positive

hits.

Supplementary Tab. 6. Diet formulations. Sepcific fat, protein, carbohydrate and choline

content in regimens formulated by Research Diet are summarized based on %w/w and

%kcal.

Online References.

50.   Fearnside, J. F. *et al.* Phylometabonomic patterns of adaptation to high fat diet
831   feeding in inbred mice. *PLoS ONE* **3,** e1668 (2008).
832   51.   Geurts, L., Muccioli, G. G., Delzenne, N. M. & Cani, P. D. Chronic endocannabinoid
833   system stimulation induces muscle macrophage and lipid accumulation in type 2
834   diabetic mice independently of metabolic endotoxaemia. *PLoS ONE* **8,** e55963 (2013).
835   52.   Toye, A. A. *et al.* Subtle metabolic and liver gene transcriptional changes underlie
836   diet-induced fatty liver susceptibility in insulin-resistant mice. *Diabetologia* **50,** 1867–
837   1879 (2007).
838   53.   Gentleman, R., Carey, V. J., Huber, W., Irizarry, R. A. & Dudoit, S. *Bioinformatics and*
839   *Computational Biology Solutions Using R and Bioconductor.* (Springer, 2006).
840   54.   Smyth, G. K. in *… and computational biology solutions using R and …* 397–420
841   (Springer-Verlag, 2005). doi:10.1007/0-387-29362-0_23
842   55.   Chen, E. Y. *et al.* Enrichr: interactive and collaborative HTML5 gene list enrichment
843   analysis tool. *BMC Bioinformatics* **14,** 128 (2013).
844   56.   Tarca, A. L. *et al.* A novel signaling pathway impact analysis. *Bioinformatics* **25,** 75–82
845   (2009).
846   57.   Blaise, B. J. *et al.* Metabotyping of Caenorhabditis elegans reveals latent phenotypes.
847   *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **104,** 19808–19812 (2007).
848   58.   Salomon-Ferrer, R., Götz, A. W., Poole, D., Le Grand, S. & Walker, R. C. Routine
849   Microsecond Molecular Dynamics Simulations with AMBER on GPUs. 2. Explicit
850   Solvent Particle Mesh Ewald. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* **9,** 3878–3888 (2013).
851   59.   Wang, Z. *et al.* Crystal structures of IRAK-4 kinase in complex with inhibitors: a
852   serine/threonine kinase with tyrosine as a gatekeeper. *Structure* **14,** 1835–1844
853   (2006).
854   60.   Labute, P. Protonate3D: assignment of ionization states and hydrogen coordinates to
855   macromolecular structures. *Proteins* **75,** 187–205 (2009).
856   61.   Lindorff-Larsen, K. *et al.* Improved side-chain torsion potentials for the Amber ff99SB
857   protein force field. *Proteins* **78,** 1950–1958 (2010).
858   62.   Wang, J., Wolf, R. M., Caldwell, J. W., Kollman, P. A. & Case, D. A. Development and
859   testing of a general amber force field. *J Comput Chem* **25,** 1157–1174 (2004).
860   63.   Jorgensen, W. L., Chandrasekhar, J., Madura, J. D., Impey, R. W. & Klein, M. L.
861   Comparison of simple potential functions for simulating liquid water. *J. Chem. Phys.*
862   **79,** 926–935 (1983).
863   64.   Fuchs, J. E. *et al.* Dynamic regulation of phenylalanine hydroxylase by simulated redox
864   manipulation. *PLoS ONE* **7,** e53005 (2012).
865   65.   Roe, D. R. & Cheatham, T. E., III. PTRAJ and CPPTRAJ: Software for Processing and
866   Analysis of Molecular Dynamics Trajectory Data. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* **9,** 3084–
867   3095 (2013).
868   66.   Kuglstatter, A. *et al.* Cutting Edge: IL-1 receptor-associated kinase 4 structures reveal
869   novel features and multiple conformations. *J. Immunol.* **178,** 2641–2645 (2007).
870

a Body weight (g)

b Glucose concentration (mg/dl) — Time (min)

c Area under curve GTT (mg/dl/min)

d IL6 (pg/ml)

e TNF-alpha (pg/ml)

f IL1-beta (pg/ml)

g Tpred$_2$ — Tpred$_1$

h Q^2 and R^2 — Correlation with design

i TMA (uM)

j TMAO (uM)

CHD (2g choline/kg diet)

LC-HFD (2g choline/kg diet)

HC-HFD(17g choline/kg diet)

1

a Food intake (g/day) — CHD, LC-HFD, HC-HFD

b NF-kB p65 (pS536) / NF-kB p65 — LC-HFD, HC-HFD ✳✳

c
LC-HFD   HC-HFD
NF-kB p65
NF-kB p65 (pS536)

d
TMA 2.60
$^{13}C_3/^{15}N$-TMA 2.60
TMAO 3.58
d_9-TMAO 3.53
choline 4.51
d_4-choline 4.55
γ-butyrobetaine 6.35
carnitine 9.74
d_3-carnitine 9.71
betaine 11.46
d_9-betaine 11.51

Relative abundance

Time (min)

e
Component 2 vs Component 1
g-butyrobetaine
Betaine
Carnitine
TMA
TMAO
Choline

S3

CHD (2g choline/kg diet)   LC-HFD (2g choline/kg diet)   HC-HFD(17g choline/kg diet)

S4

4

S5

a Glucose concentration (mg/dl) vs Time (min) — WT LC-HFD (orange), Irak4⁻/⁻ LC-HFD (blue). **b** Area under curve GTT (mg/l/min), *. **c** Il6 (pg/ml), **. **d** TNF-alpha (pg/ml), **. **e** IL1-beta (pg/ml), *. **f** Liver *Saa1* mRNA (Relative expression), **. **g** Liver *Saa2* mRNA (Relative expression), **. **h** Liver *Saa3* mRNA (Relative expression).

WT LC-HFD
Irak4⁻/⁻ LC-HFD

i Glucose concentration (mg/dl) vs Time (minutes). **j** Area under curve GTT (mg/l/min), *. **k** Glucose concentration (mg/dl) vs Time (min). **l** Area under curve ITT (mg/l/min), ***. **m** LC-HFD / LC-HFD + PF06650833, Insulin − +, Akt, P-Akt (Ser). **n** Insulin induced P-Akt^Ser/Total Akt (arbitrary units), *.

LC-HFD
LC-HFD + PF06650833

5

S6