Inhibition of IRAK4 by microbial trimethylamine blunts metabolic

inflammation and ameliorates glycemic control

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Abstract

The global type 2 diabetes epidemic is a major health crisis and there is a critical need for innovative strategies to fight it. Although the microbiome plays important roles in the onset of insulin resistance (IR) and low-grade inflammation, the microbial compounds regulating these phenomena remain to be discovered. Here, we reveal that the microbiome inhibits a central kinase, eliciting immune and metabolic benefits. Through a series of *in vivo* experiments based on choline supplementation, blocking trimethylamine (TMA) production then administering TMA, we demonstrate that TMA decouples inflammation and IR from obesity in the context of high-fat diet (HFD) feeding. Through *in vitro* kinome screens, we reveal TMA specifically inhibits Interleukin-1 Receptor-associated Kinase 4 (IRAK4), a central kinase integrating signals from various toll-like receptors and cytokine receptors. TMA blunts TLR4 signalling in primary human hepatocytes and peripheral blood monocytic cells, and improves mouse survival after a lipopolysaccharide-induced septic shock. Consistent with this, genetic deletion and chemical inhibition of IRAK4 result in similar metabolic and immune improvements in HFD. In summary, TMA appears to be a key microbial compound inhibiting IRAK4 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 in microbial–mammalian chemical crosstalk.

Main

Globally, diabetes affects 529 million individuals[1], claiming 1.6 million lives per year

according to the World Health Organization. Insulin resistance (IR) is a multifactorial

condition and now increasingly common due, among other factors, to the increase in

prevalence of a sedentary lifestyle, Western-style foods and obesity. IR is a risk factor for

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

disorders is the early development of a chronic, systemic low-grade inflammation[3]. The

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

on the onset of IR[4–6]: bacterial lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and dietary fats trigger low-grade

inflammation[2] through activation of *Toll*-like receptor 4 (TLR4), a process called metabolic

endotoxemia[7].

This is supported by a complex communication that 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 receptors[11]). It is, however, hypothesized that

microbial metabolites potentially affect other pharmacological target classes such as

kinases[12]. In previous studies, we and others have identified a family of microbiome-

associated metabolites, methylamines, associated with IR, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease[13]

and atherosclerosis[14], but their mechanisms of action on mammalian hosts remain unclear.

Trimethylamine (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 trimethylamine *N*-oxide (TMAO)[15–19]

before being absorbed and *N*-oxidized into TMAO by hepatic flavin-containing mono-

oxygenase 3 (FMO3)[20]. After initial reports associating TMAO with adverse cardiovascular

outcomes[13,16], it has since emerged that FMO3 inactivation was beneficial for several

metabolic outcomes[21–24], strongly suggesting that TMA and TMAO have distinct biological

roles.

Here, we decipher the role of TMA in the microbiota–host kinome chemical crosstalk in IR

through i) identification of gut-derived microbial metabolites associated with HFD-induced

impaired glucose tolerance (IGT), IR and obesity, ii) pharmacological target screening of

discriminant microbial metabolites, and iii) mechanistic validation of the pathophysiological

relevance of pharmacological interactions with *in vitro* and *in vivo* models. Using this

approach, we discovered a novel mechanism by which gut microbial TMA acts as an IRAK4

inhibitor and directly improves the host immune and metabolic tone.

Lack of hepatic inflammation in HFD and the choline supplementation hypothesis.

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

mice (n=5 for HFD and n=6 for chow diet (CHD)) rapidly developing obesity and IGT when

fed a 65% kCal HFD with a range of macronutrient and micronutrient differences compared

to CHD (**Extended Data Fig. 1a-b, Fig. 1a** and **Supplementary Table 1**). Liver transcriptomics

(n=5-6 per diet group) identified 2,084 significantly (FDR < 0.1) differentially expressed

genes between CHD-fed and HFD-fed mice (**Extended Data Fig. 1c, Fig. 1b** and

Supplementary Table 1). Gene ontology and signalling pathway impact analyses (**Extended**

Data Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 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[25,26]. Surprisingly,

inflammation-associated pathways were not differentially affected: expression of genes

coding for acute phase serum amyloid A proteins *Saa1* and *Saa2* upregulated 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 (**Fig. 1b** and

Supplementary Table 4). This is in contrast to established knowledge as low-grade

inflammation is one of the key features associated with IR[2,6] and HFD[27]. Beyond % of fat

content as a macronutrient, we therefore looked for variation in micronutrients and

microbial metabolites that may contribute to this phenotype by performing 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. Our analysis showed diet is the

main factor influencing the metabolic profiles, followed by age (**Extended Data Fig. 1d**); the

model's goodness-of-prediction parameters being highly significant upon permutation

testing (**Extended Data Fig. 1e**). The metabolic signature of HFD-feeding compared to CHD

was mainly associated with TMA excretion (**Fig. 1c**), consistent with our previous reports

using this diet[13,28]. 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 (**Fig. 1d**). Since the HFD contains >15 g of choline per kg

of diet, we then investigated whether supplementation in this micronutrient could

modulate the metabolic and immune variation in response to HFD feeding.

Choline supplementation corrects HFD-induced inflammation and IR.

To test the effect of choline supplementation itself on glucose tolerance and IR in an HFD

context, we initiated a series of *in vivo* 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. 1e-**

n). To evaluate metabolic homeostasis, we performed glucose tolerance tests (GTTs), which

displayed a similar pattern with normalisation of cumulative glycemia on HC-HFD compared

to LC-HFD (**Fig. 1e-f**). 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. 1g**), which was not related to food intake (**Extended**

Data Fig. 3a). We then profiled circulating pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL6, IL1β,

TNFα (**Fig. 1h-j**) and phosphorylation of NF-κB regulating their transcription (**Extended Data**

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[29,30] to evaluate plasma

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

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

groups at 5 months of age (i.e., 4 months of HFD) and highlights a choline supplementation

effect on the first predictive component (**Fig. 1k,l**). Quantifications all reflect an increase in

TMA and TMAO in the HC-HFD in line with choline supplementation (**Fig. 1m,n**). 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) and were about 20 times lower 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[13]. These results suggest that TMA could

mediate the metabolic and immune benefits of choline supplementation.

Baseline metabolic phenotyping after 2-month choline modulation in HFD.

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

experimental designs using osmotic minipumps for constant subcutaneous TMA delivery.

GTTs and weekly BWs showed a similar trend after 8 weeks of HFD-feeding (**Fig. 2a-d**).

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

Matsuda index (**Fig. 2c**), a marker for IR derived from oral GTTs[31]. The normalisation of

insulin sensitivity was confirmed through insulin tolerance tests (ITTs) and insulin-induced

hepatic Akt phosphorylation assays (**Fig. 2e-h**). Notably, the normalisation of insulin-

induced hepatic AKT phosphorylation assays was primarily associated with a reduction of

basal level of P-AKT in HC HFD compared to LC HFD observed in saline condition

demonstrating the reduction of IR (**Fig. 2g**). Indeed, it has been previously demonstrated

that HFD increased the basal levels of P-AKT and this participates to IR[32]. 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 that are typically upregulated in response

to tissue inflammation[33] – *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 a wide-spectrum antibiotics cocktail or 3,3-

dimethyl-1-butanol (DMB), inhibiting microbial TMA-lyase[34], respectively. 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

(**Extended Data Fig. 4a-d**). In accordance with our hypothesis, both antibiotic 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, **Extended Data Fig. 4e,f**) and hepatic insulin sensitivity as shown by the absence of

a beneficial effect of choline supplementation on insulin-induced Akt phosphorylation (**Fig.**

3d-e). The metabolic improvements associated with chemical TMA synthesis blockage were

not due to changes in BW gain (**Extended Data 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

(**Extended Data Fig. 4g**) but effectively normalised glucose homeostasis and the Matsuda

index, a readout of insulin sensitivity (**Fig. 3f-h, Extended Data Fig. 4h**). TMA treatment also

improved the pro-inflammatory response to HFD-feeding and hepatic expression of acute

phase proteins *Saa1*, *Saa2* and *Saa3* (**Fig. 3i-l**). 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 IRAK4 kinase 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[12], represents a repertoire of critical signal transduction

switches for metabolic homeostasis and inflammation. To discover specific physical

interactions, we screened TMA against a panel of 456 clinically-relevant human kinases

using a high-throughput assay[35,36] (see *Methods*) and identified five preliminary hits for TMA

(**Fig. 4a** and **Supplementary Table 5**). We then generated multiple-dose binding curves

between TMA and each hit and confirmed that TMA physically binds IRAK4 (dissociation

constant K_d = 14 nM, **Extended Data Fig. 5a**) but not the other four preliminary hits (flat

dissociation curves with no K_d fit in **Extended Data Fig. 5b-e**, suggesting 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 IRAK4 inhibitor, by quantifying IRAK4 kinase

activity in presence of ATP and increasing doses of TMA (see *Methods*) to derive a half-

maximal relative inhibitory constant (IC_{50} = 3.4 μM, **Fig. 4b**). We also confirmed that neither

choline, TMAO nor DMB inhibit IRAK4 kinase activity (**Extended Data Fig. 5f-h**). We finally

confirmed that TMA does not inhibit IRAK-1 either (**Extended Data Fig. 5i**), as suggested by

the phenotypic convergence of *Irak-1-/-* mice fed a HFD which were shown to have

metabolic improvements similar to TMA treatment[37]. Altogether, this screen shows that

IRAK4 is the specific kinase target for TMA, which we next validated using a range of *in vitro*

and *in vivo* experiments.

TMA inhibits IRAK4 signalling in human PBMCs and primary human hepatocytes.

IRAK4 is a central kinase in the TLR pathway sensing bacterial invasion and promoting a

pyretic pro-inflammatory response in infectious contexts[38,39]. To further corroborate the

inhibitory action of TMA on IRAK4 on innate immunity, we studied its effect on human

peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) cytokine secretion and NF-κB signalling in

response to LPS stimulation, a process exclusively mediated by IRAK4 downstream of TLR4

as originally demonstrated by Suzuki et al.[38]. Consistent with this, pre-treatment with TMA

for 30 min dose-dependently blunted IL6 and TNFα secretion by PBMCs challenged with LPS

after 4 hours (**Fig. 4c, d**). Moreover, IL6 and TNFα secretion was virtually abolished by pre-

treatment by the IRAK4 specific inhibitor PF06650833[40] as an additional control (100 nM).

Conversely, TMA (100 µM) or the IRAK4 specific inhibitor PF06650833 (100 nM) had no

significant impact on TNFα secretion by PBMCs stimulated by phorbol-ester/Ionomycin (**Fig.**

4e), similarly to human B-cells harbouring IRAK4-inactivating mutations[41]. Taken together,

these findings further support our assertion that TMA acts through IRAK4 and further

validate the functional inhibition of IRAK4 by TMA in innate immune cells. In addition, TMA

(0.1 mM) significantly ameliorated IRAK1 phosphorylation at a site (Thr209) phosphorylated

by IRAK4[42] upon short-term stimulation of PBMCs with LPS (up to 60min, **Fig. 4f**). TMA also

inhibited [Thr209]IRAK1 phosphorylation dose-dependently after LPS stimulation of PBMCs (**Fig.**

4g). Similarly, TMA time- and dose-dependently suppressed NF-κBp65 phosphorylation in

LPS-challenged PBMCs (**Fig. 4h, i**). In agreement with the cellular PBMC experiments a single

TMA dose significantly improved mouse survival in a 24-hour LPS septic shock experiment

(**Fig. 4j**), which shows similar protection to the Irak4 kinasedead mice[43].

We then sought to test IRAK4 inhibition in a HFD context, the main free fatty acid (FFA) in

our HFD being palmitate, a saturated FFA triggering TLR4 signalling. We therefore used a

primary human hepatocyte model of low-grade inflammation and insulin resistance[44].

In basal conditions (0 min), TMA (0.1 mM, 30 min) pre-treatment resulted in a significant

decrease in $^{pThr345/Ser346}$IRAK4/IRAK4, ^{pThr209}IRAK1/IRAK1 and $^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ/IKKβ. PA (200

μM, 60 min) administration resulted in increased ^{pThr209}IRAK1/IRAK1, $^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ/IKKβ

and ^{pSer536}NF-κBp65/NF-κBp65 (**Extended Data Fig. 6a-d**), which were normalized by TMA

treatment. The TMA effect was significant in a 2-way ANOVA for $^{pThr345/Ser346}$IRAK4/IRAK4

(p=0.04), ^{pThr209}IRAK1/IRAK1 (p=0.03) and $^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ/IKKβ (p<0.001). The normalization

of the phosphorylation ratios in the TLR4 pathway by TMA resulted in a normalization of PA-

induced IL-6 secretion in the cell medium after 4 hours (**Extended Data Fig. 6e**). TMA also

prevented the negative impact of PA (200 μM, 4 h) on insulin action (specifically on insulin-

induced ^{pSer473}Akt1/Akt1), indicating a beneficial TMA effect on insulin signaling (**Extended

Data Fig. 6f**). TMA also tended to decrease $^{pThr183/Tyr185}$SAPK/JNK/SAPK/JNK induced by PA

(200 μM, 60 min, **Extended Data Fig. 5j**) but had no significant effect on p38MAPK

(**Extended Data Fig. 5k**). Collectively, our results demonstrate that TMA is an IRAK4 kinase

inhibitor ameliorating LPS inflammatory signalling in PBMCs and mice and normalising

palmitate-induced low-grade inflammation and aberrant insulin signalling *in vitro*, requiring

further assessment in *Irak4*$^{-/-}$ mice.

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

IRAK4 is a key kinase required for defence against pyogenic infections in acute contexts[38,39].

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

inflammation and glucose homeostasis, we fed 5-week-old *Irak4*$^{-/-}$ mice[45] and wild-type

(WT) littermates in C57BL/6 background (**Extended Data Fig. 7a** for genotyping) 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 wild-type 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 (**Extended Data Fig. 7b**).

Hence, similarly to TMA treatment, genetic ablation of IRAK4 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[37].

Pharmacological inhibition of Irak4 normalises glucose 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[40] with promising results in a phase-I trial for rheumatoid arthritis[46]. Treatment with PF06650833 improved BW in LC-HFD mice (**Extended Data Fig. 7c**). This inhibitor also yielded significant improvements in plasma glycemia at the latter time-points of the GTT and insulin tolerance test (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 IRAK4 leads to significant improvements in glycemic control, insulin sensitivity and insulin signalling. Further, they suggest that IRAK4 could constitute a clinically relevant target in IR and related disorders.

DISCUSSION

The discovery that TMA is a kinase inhibitor controlling IRAK4, a central kinase involved in innate immunity, is a major finding that provides an attractive mechanism for the metabolic and immune improvements observed with choline-supplementation in HFD contexts (**Fig. 6**).

IRAK4 is the first regulatory checkpoint downstream of MyD88, the adapter protein connecting IRAK4 to at least six TLRs sensing bacterial compounds/components[47]. IRAK4 deficiency is associated with bacterial infections in humans[39] and in mice[48]. Consistent with the involvement of the TLR signalling pathway at the crossroads between gut microbiota and dietary lipids[49,50], IRAK4 deletion and its inhibition by TMA and PF06650833[40] rescued HFD-induced low-grade inflammation and IR[3,51,52], highlighting new and 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[53,54], which makes this IC_{50} particularly relevant with respect 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"[55] 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 improved

metabolic homeostasis in a symbiotic relationship. TMA's role as an IRAK4 inhibitor could,

for instance, explain some of the beneficial effects reported for choline supplementation in

NAFLD patients[56] and of improved IR observed in those consuming higher choline diets in a

healthy genetically uniform human population[57]. Altogether, our results on IRAK4 inhibition

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

and *Irak1* knock-out mouse models[37,58], 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.

Our finding that TMA improves metabolic health in the context of HFD is surprising given

the extensive evidence linking higher levels of circulating TMAO (after phase-1 *N*-oxidation

of TMA in the liver) with worst cardiovascular outcomes, particularly in patients with

established atherosclerosis and thrombosis[14]. Our results show that the TMA-lyase inhibitor

DMB blocks TMA production and abrogates the metabolic benefits brought by choline

supplementation in the HC-HFD mice, suggesting that the benefits come from conversion of

choline to TMA. Our findings are supported by the discovery that in diabetic mice

knockdown of the liver gene (*fmo3*) that converts TMA to TMAO, an intervention that would

increase TMA levels, improves IR and attenuates atherosclerotic burden[23]. Similarly, in an

epidemiological study in a genetically homogeneous population, higher choline

consumption associated with improved insulin sensitivity[57].

Our work is consistent with the idea that TMA and TMAO may well play contrasting roles

that are mechanism- and context-dependent. To illustrate context dependence, TMAO,

which has been associated with poor cardiovascular outcomes in humans also beneficially

reduces blood-brain barrier permeability[59], independently of its role in CVD. To illustrate the

target-dependence, TMAO augments Ca^{2+}-mediated platelet aggregation after thrombin

treatment. TMAO also binds to and activates purified Protein Kinase RNA-Like ER Kinase

(PERK) whilst structurally related metabolites such as choline do not[60]. Similarly, we

discovered that TMA binds to and inhibits IRAK4 whilst TMAO does not (ED figure 5g),

suggesting an unexpected and independent mechanism of action. Our observations on

IRAK4 inhibition by TMA and in *Irak4* knock-out mice are consistent with observations in

Myd88 and Irak1 knock-out mice, resulting in improved glucose tolerance and insulin

sensitivity. Consistent with our observations, *Fmo3* deletion, which as a result prevents *N*-

oxidation of TMA into TMAO, improved IR in mice[23]. Therefore, we submit that our study

reveals divergent context-dependent actions between TMA and its phase-II metabolite

TMAO in an HFD context in a "yin-yang relationship".

In conclusion, through the combination of *ex vivo*, *in vitro* and *in vivo* approaches, we reveal

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

IRAK4, a central molecular target in the TLR pathway, thereby allowing the gut microbiota to

control HFD-induced pro-inflammatory response(s) and IR. The kinome represents a key

repertoire of regulatory host targets for microbial signals and the uncharted microbiome–

kinome crosstalk requires further investigation. Our work can guide human trials where the

efficacy of IRAK4 inhibitors available for human use or dietary interventions that increase

TMA bioavailability can be evaluated in the context of obesity and IR. Moreover, since IR is

an independent risk factor of CVD in humans[61], our work uncovers a novel strategy to

alleviate obesity-associated increased cardiovascular risk. By highlighting the physiological

and therapeutic roles of TMA and IRAK4 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, PA, BAS and SG performed cell-based assays, JC performed multivariate statistics and

interpreted the results. JC, FB, JFF, AE, HP, LZ, DS, ARR, PDC, VC, RM, SC and CG contributed

in vivo experiments, RHB, AM, ALN, LMG, SG, JMMN, JL, CLB and SP performed various

experiments. LH analysed microarray data. JS, DG, JKN, PPL, PDC, JMFR, 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, PA, NJG, DG, PPL, PDC, and MED wrote the manuscript. All authors edited and approved

the manuscript.

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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.

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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.

PBMC isolation and cell-based assays

PBMCs were isolated as previously described[62] following local ethical approval from Imperial

College Research Ethics Committee (19IC5372). Briefly, human peripheral blood samples (32

ml) were collected from donors in BD Vacutainer Cell Preparation Tubes containing Sodium

Heparin/Ficoll (BD Biosciences, UK). PBMCs were separated by centrifugation at 1600 *g* for

30 min at room temperature, followed by three washing steps with PBS and 10% FBS

(LabTech, UK), and were centrifuged at 520 RCF for 10 min after each wash. Donors were

females aged between 25 and 32 years. All subjects were healthy volunteers by self-

declaration and provided written informed consent.

LPS stimulation and IL6 and TNFα release quantification.

Human PBMCs ($1x10^5$ per condition in duplicate), freshly isolated as described above, were

serum-starved in 0.1% v/v FCS RPMI-1640 (Sigma Cat. R7638) in the presence of TMA (Sigma

Cat.No. 72761) or the IRAK4 inhibitor PF06650833 (0.5μM; Tocris Cat.No.6373; PF

thereafter), as indicated in the corresponding Figures, for 30 min. PBMCs were subsequently

stimulated with 1 μg/ml LPS (Sigma Cat.No. L2630) for 4 h (37 °C, 5% CO_2). For the

PMA/Ionomycin stimulation experiments, human PBMCs isolated as above ($1x10^5$ per

condition) pre-incubated with TMAO (100 μM), PF06650833 (0.5μM) or vehicle as indicated

for 30min were then stimulated with 50ng/ml Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA; Sigma

Cat.No. 79346) and 1μg/ml ionomycin (Sigma Cat.No. I0634) for 4h. Next cells were pelleted

by centrifugation (200 *g* for 10 min) and supernatants were collected and stored at -20 °C

until further use. IL6 and TNFα were measured in the media diluted 1:10 in RPMI-1640 using the DuoSet ELISA kits from R&D (Cat.No. DY206 and Cat.No. DY210 from R&D, respectively) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For PMA/ionomycin TNFα measurements the media were un-diluted. For all treatments $N=4$ biological repeats.

PBMCs IRAK1 and NF-κBp65 phosphorylation in response to LPS.

Freshly isolated human PBMCs (1×10^6/ml per condition) were added to 96-well plates coated with L-poly-lysine for 30 min (100 ng/ml, Sigma Cat.No. P4707) in RPMI-1640 containing 20% FCS and were left to attach to the wells overnight at 37 $^{\circ}$C, 5% CO_2. The following day media were discarded and cells were incubated in serum-free RPMI-1640 containing 100 µM TMA, or RPMI-1640 vehicle for 30 min. PBMCs were then stimulated with LPS (1 µg/ml) for the indicated times in corresponding Figure legends, for up to 60 min. At the end of the stimulation PBMCs were fixed with 8% paraformaldehyde (Sigma Cat.No. F8775) at room temperature for 20 min. Phosphorylation of IRAK1 (at Thr209) or NF-κBp65 (at Ser536) was determined in fixed PBMCs using commercially available ELISA kits (Cat.No.LS-F1401-1 or Cat.No.LS-F891-1 respectively, both from LSBio) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Readings were normalized to the levels of total-IRAK1 protein determined in sister wells treated identically. The dose-dependent impact of TMA (see corresponding Figures) on phospho levels of IRAK1 or NF-κBp65 upon LPS (1 µg/ml) stimulation of PBMCs (for 10 min or 15 min, respectively) was also determined using the commercially available kits from LSBio as described above.

Cell-based assays in primary human hepatocytes.

Cryopreserved primary human hepatocytes (HH) were commercially sourced (Innoprot, Bizkaia, Spain) and cultured with hepatocytes medium (Innoprot) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum, 1% hepatocytes growth supplement (mixture of growth factors, hormones and proteins necessary for culture of primary hepatocytes) and 100 U/mL penicillin and streptomycin. HH were grown on poly-L-lysine pre-coated cell dishes at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 atmosphere following manufacturer's recommendations. The following experiments were performed 24 h after seeding: i) First, palmitic acid (PA, 200 µM) administration (0 and 60 min) with or without trimethylamine hydrochloride (TMA, 0.1 mM,

30 min) pre-treatment plus co-administration during PA exposure were assayed. PA solution

was prepared as previously reported[44,63]. In this experiment, the effect of PA and TMA on

IRAK1, IRAK4, NF-κBp65, IKKαβ, SAPK/JNK and p38MAPK activity was analyzed. ii) In a

second experiment, the effect of TMA (0.1 mM, 30 min) pre-treatment plus co-

administration during vehicle or PA exposure for 4 h on insulin action and on IL6 release

were tested. Insulin action was evaluated measuring ^{pSer473}Akt1/Akt1 after insulin (100 nM,

10 min) stimuli.

^{pThr209}IRAK1, total IRAK1, ^{pSer536}NF-κBp65, total NF-κBp65, ^{pSer473}AKT1, total AKT1 and GAPDH

(as an endogenous control) were measured with specific colorimetric Cell-Based ELISA Kits

[CytoGlow^{TM} IRAK1 (catalog nº: CBP1425), CytoGlow^{TM} NF-κBp65 (catalog nº: CBP1633) and

CytoGlow^{TM} AKT1 (catalog nº: CBP1490), Assay Biotechnology Company, Inc, CA, USA]

following manufacturer's instructions. For data analysis, optical density of target proteins

(read at 450 nm) was normalized with cell nuclei crystal violet staining (read at 595 nm),

which was proportional to cell counts. The analysis of cell-based assays was performed in a

blind manner.

$^{pThr345/Ser346}$IRAK4/IRAK4, $^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ/IKKβ, $^{pThr183/Tyr185}$SAPK/JNK and

$^{pThr180/Tyr182}$p38MAPK/p38MAPK were determined by western blot. Briefly, hepatocyte

proteins were directly extracted in radioimmnuno precipitation assay (RIPA) buffer (0.1%

SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Nonidet P-40, 150 mM NaCl, and 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH

8.0), supplemented with protease inhibitors (1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride). Cellular

debris and lipids were eliminated by centrifugation of the solubilized samples at 13000 rpm

for 10 min at 4 °C, recovering the soluble fraction. Protein concentration was determined

using the RC/DC Protein Assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). RIPA protein extracts

(20 μg) were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes by

conventional procedures. Membranes were immunoblotted with antibodies against the

following proteins: $^{pThr345/Ser346}$IRAK4 (#11927), IRAK4 (#4363), $^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ (#2694), IKKβ

(#8943), $^{pThr183/Tyr185}$SAPK/JNK (4668), SAPK/JNK (#9258), $^{pThr180/Tyr182}$p38MAPK (#9215),

p38MAPK (#9212), all purchased from Cell Signaling Technology, Inc (CST, MA, USA) and β-

actin (sc-47778, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CA, USA). Anti-rabbit IgG and anti-mouse IgG

coupled to horseradish peroxidase was used as a secondary antibody. Horseradish

peroxidase activity was detected by chemiluminescence, and quantification of protein

expression was performed using scion image software. IL6 concentration in hepatocyte

media was measured using Human IL-6 Quantikine ELISA Kit (D6050, R&D Systems, Inc, MN,

USA). All these experiments were performed at least in three sample replicates.

Mouse Models.

Longitudinal HFD-feeding in mice. 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 HFD (65% kcal) (Special Diets Services),

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

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

previously[13] 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 (ipGTTs) were

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

published[64] (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 2 g of choline/kg of diet (Research Diets, D12450J), a low-choline HFD containing

2 g 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 7**). Mice then

were killed by decapitation and organs were dissected and weighed.

Irak4-/- mice. *Irak4-/-* mice on C57BL/6J background as already described[38,45] were bred with

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

produce *Irak4-/-* mice and WT littermate used for this study. Mice were breaded and

genotyped at animal facility of University of Ottawa Heart Institute. The following primers

were used for genotyping. Irak4 KO 5'-tga atg gaa gga ttg gag cta cgg ggg t -3'; Irak4 common

5'- gaa cac gct ccc agg tct ctt tcc aac; and Irak4 WT 5'- tct tct acc tga aat atg aaa gat tcc t -3'.

The PCR reaction were run at 94 °C 60s, 60 C 60s, 72 C 60s for 40 cycles. 10-12 weeks old mice

were feed with HFD for eight weeks and were killed by decapitation and organ were dissected

and weighed at the end of the study.

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[65]. 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 organs were dissected

and weighed.

Septic shock mouse model. Six-week-old male mice in a C57BL/6J background were

purchased from Charles River (Calco, Italy) and maintained in a controlled environment for 2

weeks to acclimate them to local conditions. Animal experiment protocol was approved by

local and national committees in charge (Tor Vergata University Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee and Ministry of Health, license no. 265/2019-PR) and conducted in

accordance with accepted standard of humane animal care. Mice were intraperitoneally

injected with 59mg/kg TMA (Sigma Cat.No. 72761) (treatment group, n=7), or PBS alone

(control group, n=6) 30 minutes before LPS injection [30 mg/kg of LPS (Sigma Cat.No. L2630)

in sterile PBS by intraperitoneal injection]. The survival of the mice was monitored every 4 h

for 36 h.

Physiological phenotyping.

After 4 weeks of treatment an ipGTT test (2 g/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 min afterwards. Blood glucose levels were determined using an

Accu-Check® Performa (Roche Diagnostics, Meylan, France). Additional blood samples were

collected at baseline and 30 min 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[31].

After 5 weeks, we performed an ITT. 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 profiles in response to CHD or HFD

treatment were selected for microarray analysis performed as previously described[64] and

data were deposited in ArrayExpress under accession number E-MEXP-1755. The

Bioconductor[66] package Limma[67] was used to generate the list of differentially expressed

genes. Gene ontology was implemented using Enrichr[68] and signalling pathway impact

analysis using SPIA[69].

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 as reported[70]. Q-RT-

PCR assays were performed in a single batch with the personnel blinded to treatment

groups.

Circulating cytokine quantification.

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

Plasma samples were diluted two times in diluent provided and the experiment was

processed as requested by the manufacturer and read on a SECTOR imager 2400. Cytokine

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

Western-blotting.

Western blot analyses were performed as described previously[71]. 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.

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

and phosphatase inhibitors. The homogenate was then centrifuged at 12,000 *g* 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). Insulin-induced

pAkt/total Akt corresponds to the ratio between pAkt/Akt in insulin treated mice and

pAkt/Akt in saline treated mice. For these western blots, the membranes were stripped and

re-probed with a β-actin antibody as a loading control.

^{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 (O-PLS-DA) as

described previously[13]. Variance component analysis was performed as described

previously[72]. ^{1}H-NMR profiling was performed in a single batch with the personnel blinded

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[72].

Plasma methylamine quantification by UPLC-MS/MS.

Methylamines were quantified as previously described[29,30]. 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. Methylamines were derivatised with ethyl bromoacetate to increase

its sensitivity (the underivatized form was giving low response to the mass spectrometer

due to its low molecular weight) and enhance its chromatographic performance. 935 µL of

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

samples were centrifuged for 20 min (4°C, 20,000 *g*) 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 14 min 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.

TMA was assessed using KdELECT screening service (DiscoveRx) as described previously[35,36].

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,

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Kinase activity assays.

The TMA IC_{50} on IRAK4 was determined using Kinexus kinase-inhibitor activity profiling

service (Kinexus, Vancouver, Canada). Protein kinase assays (in duplicate) were performed

at ambient temperature for 30 min in a final volume of 25 µL according to the following

assay reaction recipe:

Component 1. 5 µl of diluted active IRAK4 target (recombinant, full length, expressed by

baculovirus in Sf9 insect cells with an GST tag (SignalChem Catalogue 112 – 10G); ~10-50 nM

final concentration in the assay).

Component 2. 5 µl of stock solution of substrate (Myelin Basic Protein 1mg/ml diluted in

H_2O).

Component 3. 5 µl of kinase assay buffer (25 mM MOPS, pH 7.2, 12.5 mM β-glycerol-

phosphate, 25 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM EGTA, 2 mM EDTA, 0.25 mM DTT, added just prior to assay

initiation).

Component 4. 5 µl of compound (various concentration as indicated) or 10% DMSO for

blank.

Component 5. 5 µl of ^{32}P-ATP (250 µM stock solution, 0.8 µCi, Perkin Elmer).

The assay was initiated by the addition of ^{32}P-ATP and the reaction mixture incubated at

ambient temperature for 30 min. After the incubation period, the assay was terminated by

spotting 10 μL of the reaction mixture onto Multiscreen phosphocellulose P81 plate. The

Multiscreen phosphocellulose P81 plate was washed 3 times for approximately 15 min each

in a 1% phosphoric acid solution. The radioactivity on the P81 plate was counted in the

presence of scintillation fluid in a Trilux scintillation counter. Blank control was set up that

included all the assay components except the addition of Myelin Basic Protein (replaced

with equal volume of assay dilution buffer). The corrected activity for IRAK4 target was

determined by removing the blank control value.

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 17 g 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.

Male mice were weaned at 3 weeks and fed a CHD diet, before being randomly assigned to

CHD group (n=68) or HFD (n=47) groups and monitored at 5 months of age. Effect of HFD-

feeding on (**a**) glucose tolerance test (GTT). (**b**) Volcano plot of differentially expressed liver

genes, highlighting that *Saa1* and *Saa2* are down-regulated in HFD after 4 months of HFD.

Red dots, significantly (FDR < 0.1) upregulated genes; blue dots, significantly (FDR < 0.1)

downregulated genes. (**c**) Metabolic signature of diet on O-PLS model coefficient plot; line

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

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

TMAO by O-PLS variance components analysis. 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. (**e**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**f**) Area

under the curve of the plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**g**) Body weight (BW)

measured after 5 months of diet. (**h-j**) Quantification of circulating cytokines: IL6 (**h**), TNFα

(**i**) and IL1β (**j**). (**k**) 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, each component's explained variance is shown in parenthesis. (**l**) Empirical

assessment of the significance of O-PLS goodness-of-fit parameters by generating a null

distribution with 10,000 random permutations. (**m-n**) Quantification of circulating TMA (**m**)

and TMAO (**n**) 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 (**k&l**).

Figure 2. Choline supplementation corrects HFD adverse effects on glucose homeostasis,

insulin sensitivity and inflammation after 8 weeks of diet.

Five-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**) 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**) Body weight measured periodically during 8 weeks of diet. (**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-e**) Five-week-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-e**) Western-blot analysis of liver Akt phosphorylation. (**f-**

l) 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). (**f**) Plasma glucose concentration during an ipGTT. (**g**) Area under the

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

index calculated from the ipGTT. (**i**) Quantification of circulating IL6. (**j-l**) Expression of

hepatic acute-phase inflammation protein markers *Saa1* (**j**), *Saa2* (**k**) and *Saa3* (**l**). 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 IRAK4 and rescues LPS-induced TLR4-mediated pro-inflammatory

response.

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

characterization of the inhibition of IRAK4 by TMA. IRAK4 phosphorylation activity was

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

TMA preincubation (100 µM, for 30 min) suppresses LPS-induced (1 µg/ml, 4h) IL6 (**c**) and

TNFα (**d**) release by human PBMCs. The values of the unstimulated controls were arbitrarily

set to 1. *****<0.05 vs LPS-stimulated control. (**e**) TMA (100µM) or the IRAK4 specific inhibitor

PF06650833 (PF; 50nM) do not inhibit TNFα secretion from human PBMCs after 4h

stimulation with PMA (50ng/ml) and ionomycin (1µg/ml). (**f**) Impact of TMA pre-treatment

(100 µM, 30 min) on human PBMCs' ^{Thr209}IRAK1/IRAK1 phosporylation upon LPS (1 µg/ml)

stimulation for the indicated times. (**g**) Human PBMCs were pre-treated (for 30 min) with

the indicated concentrations of TMA and ^{Thr209}IRAK1/IRAK1 phosporylation was assessed

after 10 min of LPS (1 µg/ml) challenge. The time- (**h**) and dose-dependent (**i**) effect of TMA

on phosphorylation of ^{Ser536}NF-κBp65/NF-κBp65 of human PBMCs stimulated with LPS (1

µg/ml) was assessed as in (**f**) and (**g**). For (**f-i**), the control value was arbitrarily set to one

and statistical significance (*****<0.05) was assessed with unpaired Student's *t* test. (**j**) 24-hour

survival curve of mice challenged with a lethal dose of LPS (30 mg/kg) that received a single

dose of TMA (59mg/kg, red line), or vehicle (black line). 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.

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Figure 5. IRAK4 deficiency corrects IGT and pro-inflammatory response after 8 weeks of

low choline HFD feeding in C57BL/6 mice and a chemical inhibitor of IRAK4 mimics the

effects on glucose homeostasis. (**a-h**) 5-week-old *Irak4$^{-/-}$* mice and wild-type (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. (**I**) 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.

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1019 **Fig. 6. Overview of effects of IRAK4 inhibition by TMA on metabolic response to HFD.** TMA

1020 is synthesized from dietary choline (1) by the gut microbiota (2) and specifically inhibits

1021 IRAK4 activity (3). This inhibition blunts the TLR signalling pathway (induced by LPS and

1022 saturated free fatty acids) leading to an improvement of metabolic response to HFD (e.g.

1023 glucose homeostasis).

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Extended Data Figure Legends

Extended Data 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 CHD, 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-b**) Effect of HFD-feeding on physiological parameters. (**a**) Body weight (BW) and (**b**) cumulative glycemia during GTT (AUC). (**c**) Heatmap of significantly (FDR < 0.1) differentially expressed liver genes after 4 months of HFD. (**d**) ^{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. (**e**) Empirical assessment of the significance of O-PLS goodness-of-fit parameters by generating a null distribution with 10,000 random permutations. 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.

Extended Data Figure 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.

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Extended Data Figure 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 phosphorylation

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, each component's

explained variance is shown in parenthesis. Data are means ± s.e.m. Two-sided Mann-

Whitney test (*$P < 0.05$ vs control).

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Extended Data Figure 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).

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Extended Data Figure 5. TMA does not bind with kinases ANKK1, HIPK2, JAK2, and NDR1

identified as candidates in the kinome screen, but makes significant contact with IRAK4.

(**a**) Confirmation of a physical interaction between TMA and IRAK4 using TMA at

concentrations ranging from 0.1 nM to 100 μM, resulting in a dissociation constant (K_d) of

14 nM. (**b-e**) 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 (**b**) ANKK1, (**c**)

HIPK2, (**d**) JAK2 and (**e**) NDR1. IRAK4 kinase activity is not significantly inhibited by choline

(**f**), TMAO (**g**) or DMB (**h**), while TMA does not have any inhibitory effect on IRAK-1 kinase

activity (**i**). (**j-k**) Phosphorylation for $^{pThr183/Tyr185}$SAPK/JNK/SAPK/JNK (**j**) and

$^{pThr180/Tyr182}$p38MAPK/p38MAPK (**k**) ratios. 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.

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Extended Data Figure 6. TMA inhibits IRAK4 and suppresses TLR4-mediated pro-

inflammatory response in primary human hepatocytes. (**a-d**) Effect of palmitate (PA; 200

µM) administration and TMA pre-treatment (0.1 mM, 30 min) in primary human

hepatocytes at 0 and 60 min on $^{pThr345/Ser346}$IRAK4/IRAK4 (**a**), ^{pThr209}IRAK1/IRAK1 (**b**),

$^{pSer176/180}$IKKαβ/IKKβ (**c**), ^{pSer536}NF-κBp65/NF-κBp65 (**d**) ratios. *p<0.05 and **p<0.01 *vs* 0 min;

†p<0.05 and ††p<0.01 *vs* vehicle; ^{b}p=0.07 *vs* vehicle. Effect of PA (200 µM) administration (4

h) with and without TMA pre-treatment (0.1 mM, 30 min) on IL6 accumulation in

hepatocyte media (**e**) and on ^{pSer473}Akt1/Akt1 after insulin stimuli (100 nM, 10min) (**f**).

*p<0.05 and **p<0.01 *vs* control-vehicle; †p<0.05 *vs* control-PA.

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1102   **Extended Data Figure 7. IRAK4 knock-out does not affect body weight while chronic**

1103   **treatment with PF06650833 reduces it in mice fed a low-choline HFD.** (**a**) representative

1104   agarose gel of PCR products from +/-irak4 and -/-irak4 mice. (**b-c**) Body weight monitoring

1105   during the whole experiment of *Irak4$^{-/-}$* mice (**b**) or PF06650833-treated mice (**c**) fed a LC-

1106   HFD.

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Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1: Hepatic genes differentially expressed by HFD-feeding. Hepatic transcriptomes were analysed using Limma[55] and genes are considered significant if FDR<0.1.

Supplementary Table 2: Down-regulated HFD-responsive hepatic pathways. Gene ontology analysis was performed using Enrichr[56] and pathways are considered significant if FDR<0.1.

Supplementary Table 3: Up-regulated HFD-responsive hepatic genes. Gene ontology analysis was performed using Enrichr[56] and pathways are considered significant if FDR<0.1.

Supplementary Table 4: Hepatic signalling pathways impacted by HFD. Signalling pathway impact analysis was performed using SPIA[57] and pathways are considered significant if pGFWER<0.1.

Supplementary Table 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 Table 7. Diet formulations. Specific fat, protein, carbohydrate and choline content in regimens formulated by Research Diet are summarized based on per cent w/w and per cent kcal.

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SIGNIFICANTLY DOWNREGULATED GENES

Biological Process	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
organic acid catabolic process (GO:0016054)	41.00	1.50499E-08	35/200
carboxylic acid catabolic process (GO:0046395)	40.55	1.50499E-08	35/200
cellular amino acid metabolic process (GO:0006520)	40.58	3.70459E-08	51/421
small molecule catabolic process (GO:0044282)	40.28	3.70459E-08	39/261
dicarboxylic acid metabolic process (GO:0043648)	35.76	1.28014E-07	22/87
coenzyme metabolic process (GO:0006732)	29.63	2.15627E-06	30/196
alpha-amino acid catabolic process (GO:1901606)	29.56	1.35749E-06	21/92
cofactor metabolic process (GO:0051186)	28.76	3.83676E-06	34/255
cellular amino acid catabolic process (GO:0009063)	28.58	2.15627E-06	23/117
alpha amino acid metabolic process (GO:1901605)	23.67	2.84938E-05	29/213

Cellular Component	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
organelle inner membrane (GO:0019866)	41.00	3.44957E-08	46/360
mitochondrial membrane (GO:0031966)	39.91	4.49838E-08	52/457
mitochondrial inner membrane (GO:0005743)	38.28	7.03569E-08	43/341
mitochondrion (GO:0005739)	20.34	0.00014029	88/1269
extracellular vesicular exosome (GO:0070062)	16.15	0.000578346	155/2717
very-low-density lipoprotein particle (GO:0034361)	9.70	0.015960442	6/20
oxidoreductase complex (GO:1990204)	9.67	0.010057058	13/88
triglyceride-rich lipoprotein particle (GO:0034385)	9.41	0.015960442	6/20
plasma lipoprotein particle (GO:0034358)	9.36	0.015960442	8/38
mitochondrial matrix (GO:0005759)	9.30	0.015158891	21/208

Molecular Function	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
cofactor binding (GO:0048037)	33.40	1.50742E-06	36/266
pyridoxal phosphate binding (GO:0030170)	15.98	0.000932731	13/57
lyase activity (GO:0016829)	12.48	0.005557205	21/177
coenzyme binding (GO:0050662)	12.35	0.005557205	22/188
carbon-nitrogen lyase activity (GO:0016840)	9.28	0.022905778	5/10
NADH dehydrogenase (quinone) activity (GO:0050136)	8.95	0.022905778	9/46
NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) activity (GO:0008137)	8.87	0.022905778	9/46
NADH dehydrogenase activity (GO:0003954)	8.83	0.022905778	9/46
lysophospholipid acid acyltransferase activity (GO:0042171)	8.22	0.030487068	5/12
flavin adenine dinucleotide binding (GO:0050660)	7.59	0.032683964	11/74

SIGNIFICANTLY UPREGULATED GENES

Biological Process	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
response to endoplasmic reticulum stress (GO:0034976)	63.79	5.5045E-13	39/145
ER-nucleus signaling pathway (GO:0006984)	50.43	1.22345E-10	29/94
endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response (GO:0030968)	49.22	2.1010E-10	27/83
response to unfolded protein (GO:0006986)	49.21	2.54431E-10	33/155
cellular response to unfolded protein (GO:0034620)	48.68	2.54431E-10	27/86
response to topologically incorrect protein (GO:0035966)	47.27	6.88308E-10	33/143
cellular response to topologically incorrect protein (GO:0035967)	46.65	6.88308E-10	27/92
protein N-linked glycosylation via asparagine (GO:0018279)	34.18	1.75157E-07	24/96
peptidyl-asparagine modification (GO:0018196)	34.03	1.86284E-07	24/97
gene expression (GO:0010467)	33.91	4.40708E-07	70/672

Cellular Component	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
endoplasmic reticulum membrane (GO:0005789)	30.02	2.01305E-06	53/449
nucleoplasm (GO:0005654)	28.28	3.29534E-06	92/1051
integral component of endoplasmic reticulum membrane (GO:0030176)	12.42	0.003300267	16/94
nucleolus (GO:0005730)	12.21	0.003300267	113/1653
endoplasmic reticulum-Golgi intermediate compartment (GO:0005793)	9.24	0.014361872	10/47
integral component of organelle membrane (GO:0031301)	6.51	0.049290428	22/211
anchoring junction (GO:0070161)	6.34	0.057276314	35/419
adherens junction (GO:0005912)	6.27	0.057276314	34/405
late endosome (GO:0005770)	5.94	0.056552892	14/107

Molecular Function	Combined Score	FDR	Overlap
phosphate transmembrane transporter activity (GO:1901677)	6.21	0.119107898	6/20
nucleotide transmembrane transporter activity (GO:0015215)	5.85	0.119107898	5/15
intramolecular oxidoreductase activity, transposing S-S bonds (GO:0016864)	5.75	0.119107898	6/22
protein disulfide isomerase activity (GO:0003756)	5.67	0.119107898	6/22
low-density lipoprotein particle receptor binding (GO:0050750)	5.65	0.119107898	5/13
nucleotide-sugar transmembrane transporter activity (GO:0005338)	5.60	0.110256823	5/8
organophosphate ester transmembrane transporter activity (GO:0015605)	5.45	0.130610086	5/16
isomerase activity (GO:0016853)	5.15	0.110256823	19/159
unfolded protein binding (GO:0051082)	4.73	0.119107898	13/101
lipoprotein particle receptor binding (GO:0070325)	4.72	0.160729311	5/18

SPIA two−way evidence plot

AMPK signaling pathway — 04152
Protein processing in ER — 04141
Circadian rhythm — 04710

−log(P PERT) (y-axis); −log(P NDE) (x-axis)

S2

S4

S7