

Journal clubs

Format

Four teams

(3 persons per team)

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Four papers to discuss

(One each day; dates in following slide)

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One paper = two teams

Team 1: present and defend the manuscript

Team 2: find weaknesses, point deficiencies, contest results

(Besides teams involved, everybody will be evaluated)

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Team 1: present and defend the manuscript

Team 2: find weaknesses, point deficiencies, contest results

(Besides teams involved, everybody will be evaluated)

1/3 of exam evaluation

(10 points out of 30)

Dates

April 4th and April 9th

AC will lecture about most relevant technologies in metabolism

April 10th and April 29th

Team building, paper selection, slide preparation, discussion

May 2nd: paper X

May 7th: paper Y

May 9th: paper W

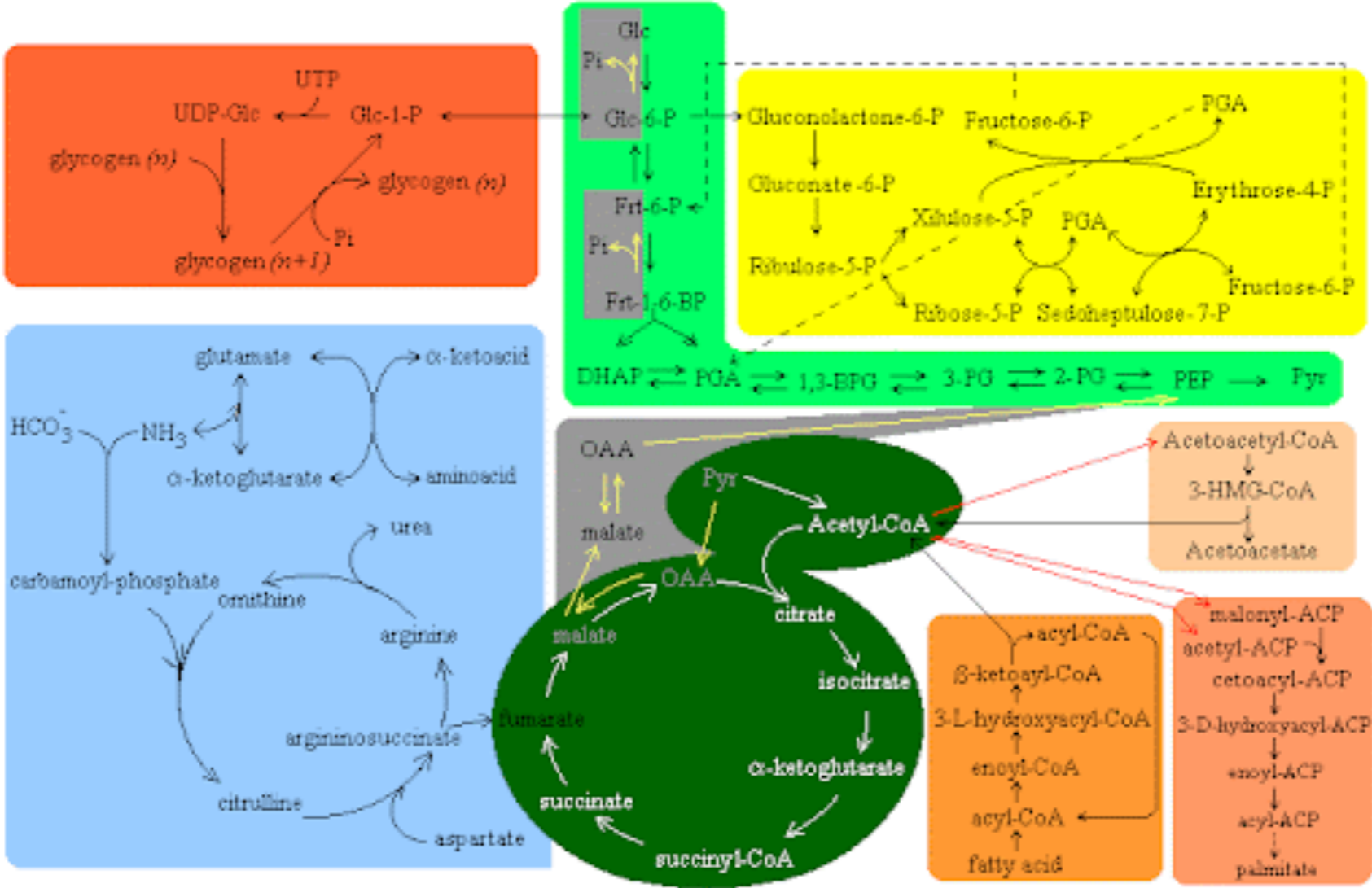
May 14th: paper Z

Papers

1. Banh et al, Cell, 2020 - PMID:33142117
2. Diaz-Cuadros et al, Nature, 2023 - PMID:36599986
3. Ravichandran et al, Cancer Discov, 2022 - PMID:35771494
4. Baixauli et al, Nature, 2022 - PMID:36171294

Methods in Metabolism

What is the difference with Biochemistry I, II, III,?



What is the difference with Biochemistry I, II, III,?

Metabolic Metro Map

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Photosynthesis

Cellular Respiration

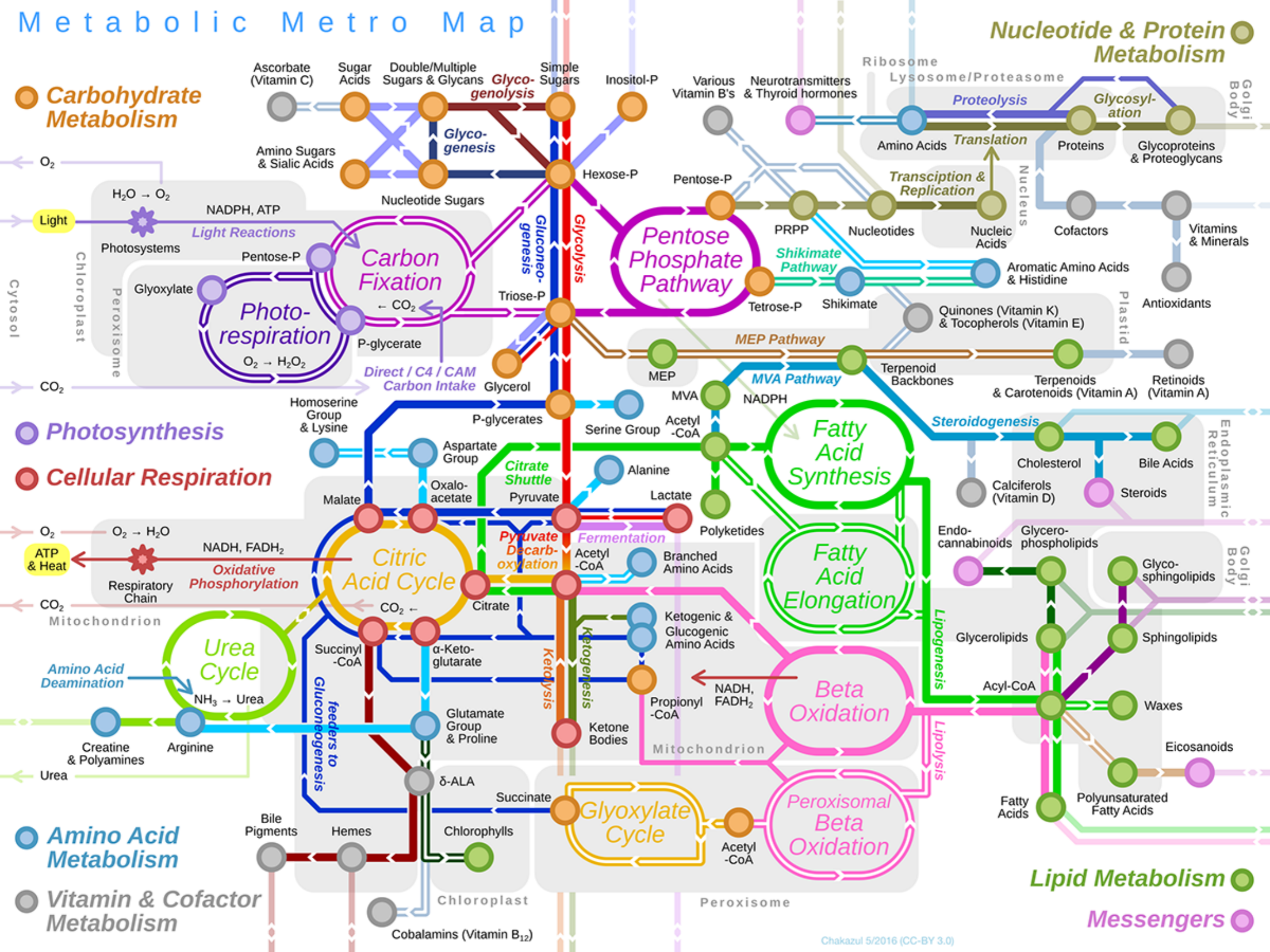
Amino Acid Metabolism

Vitamin & Cofactor Metabolism

Nucleotide & Protein Metabolism

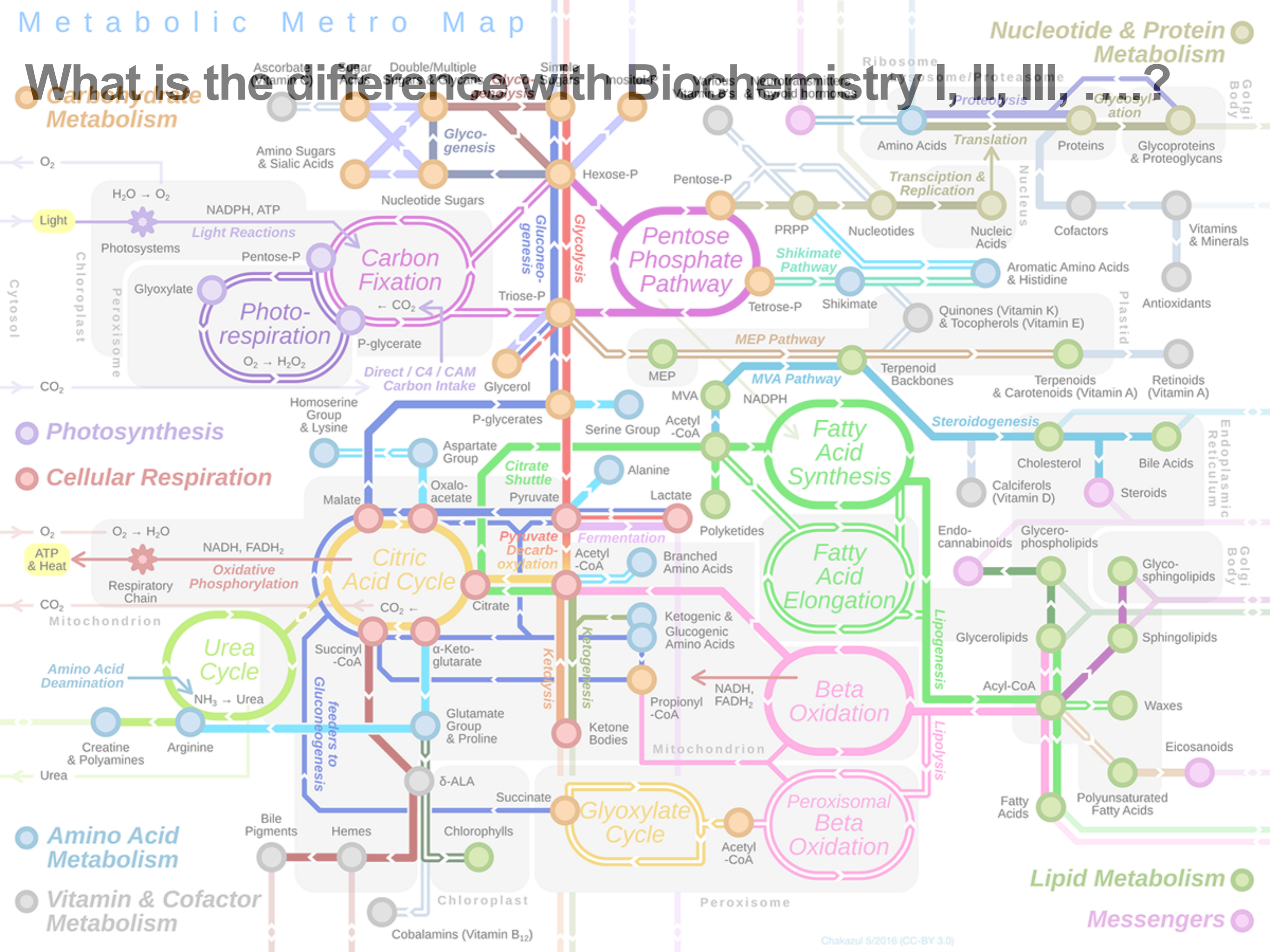
Lipid Metabolism

Messengers



Metabolic Metro Map

What is the difference with Biochemistry I, II, III, ...?



Metabolic assays seek to:

Measure metabolites and macromolecules

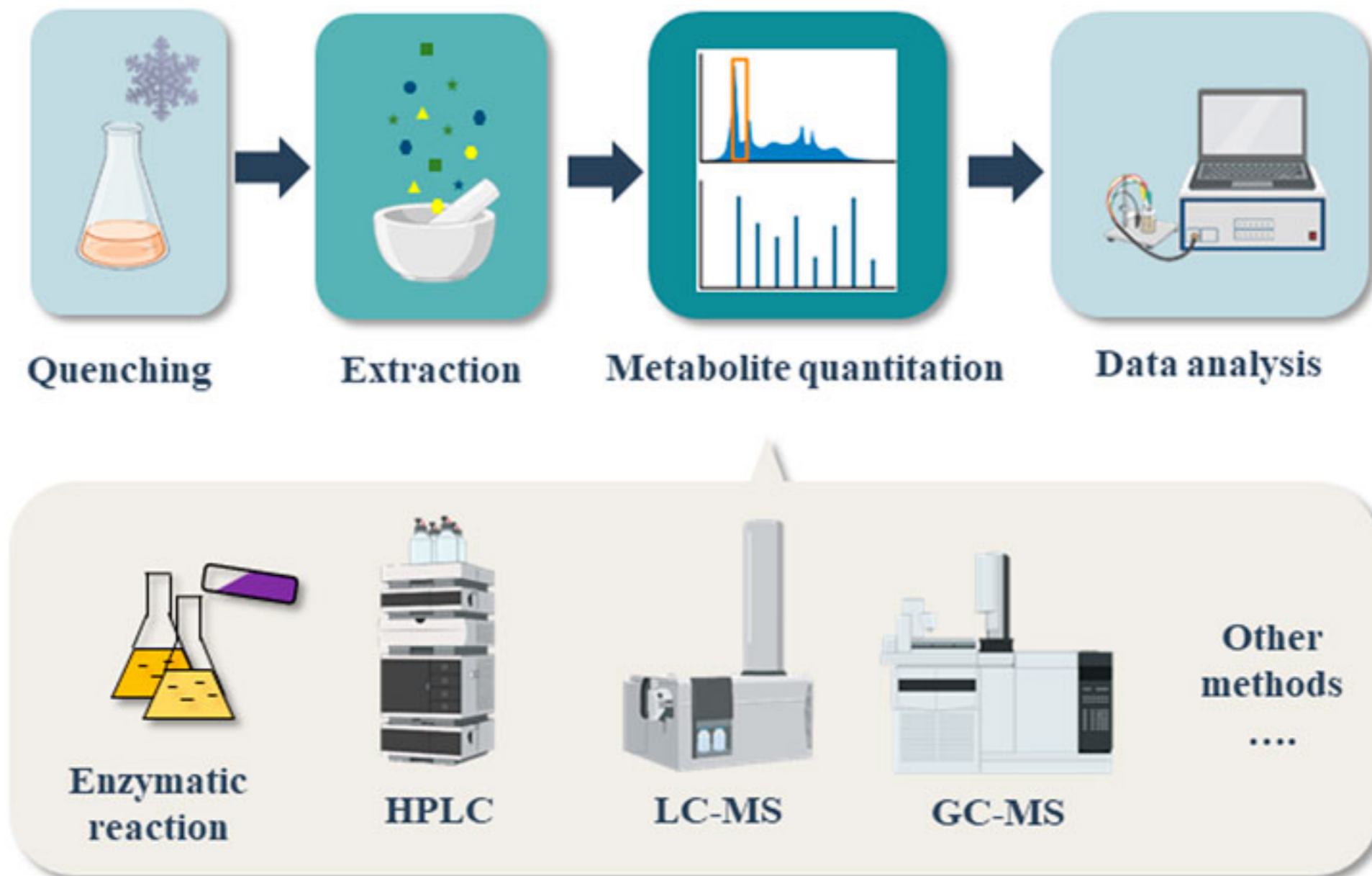
Measure energy equivalents and co-factors

Measure enzymatic activities

Measure activity of metabolic organelles

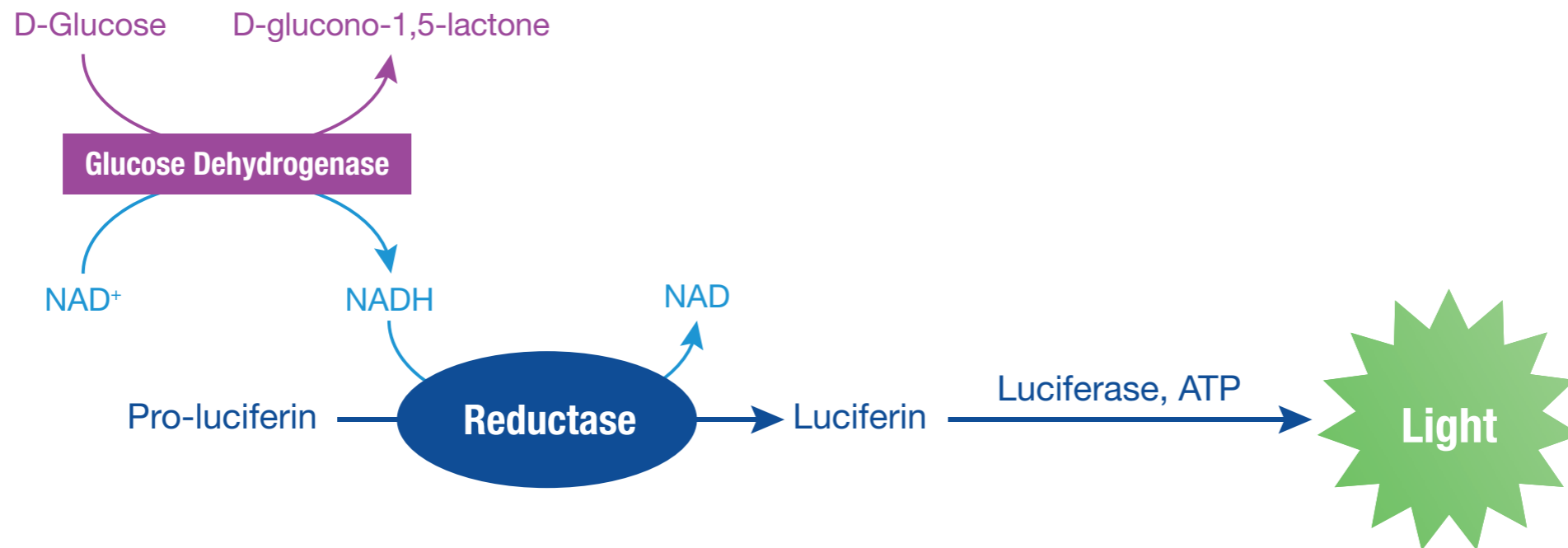
Measure metabolites and macromolecules

Quantitative measures rely on biochemical analytical approaches:



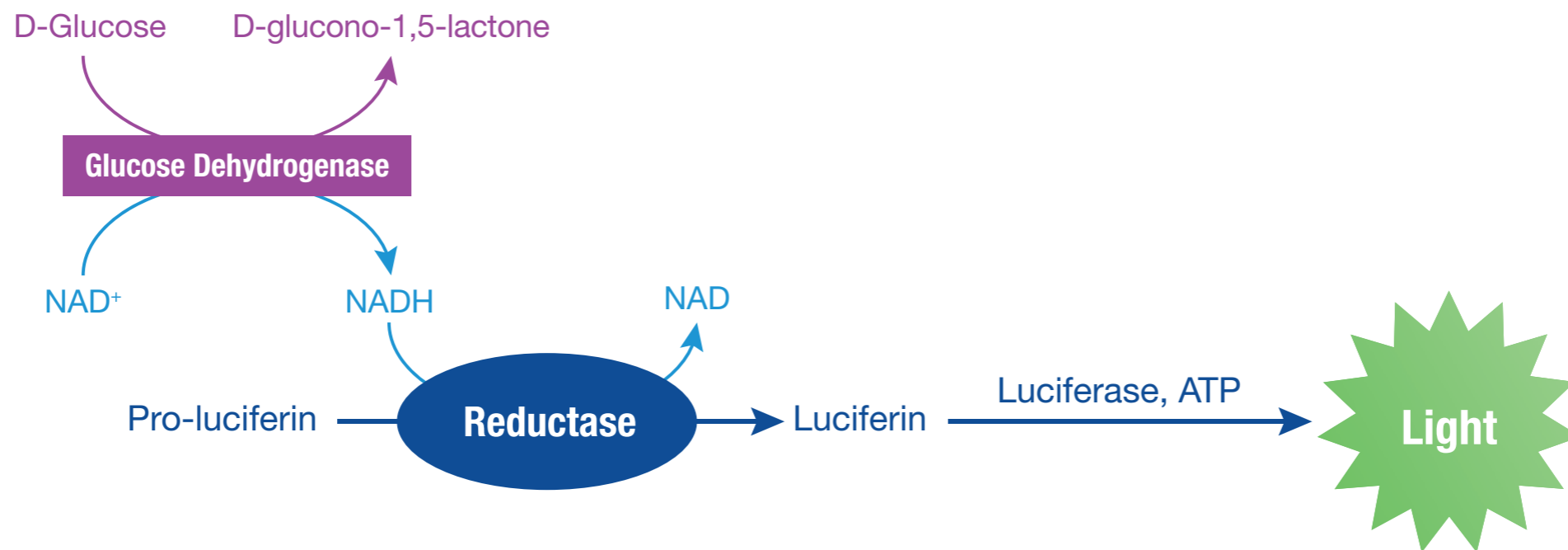
Enzymatic assays

Couples the oxidation/reduction of a specific metabolite with the generation of a co-factor required for the production of a quantifiable output (luminescence, fluorescence, color).



Enzymatic assays

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Requires:

- De-proteinization of samples
- Specific enzyme (recombinant)
- NAD(P)/H degradation
- Proportionality

Enzymatic assays

Couples the oxidation/reduction of a specific metabolite with the generation of a co-factor required for the production of a quantifiable output (luminescence, fluorescence, color).

Pros:

- Easy and quick
- Accessible

Cons:

- Poorly sensitive
- Poor linearity

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Cons:

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- **ONE METABOLITE AT THE TIME**

Enzymatic activity

Switching on/off the genes that encode specific enzymes or regulating their activity contributes to control/regulate cell metabolism

- Allosteric regulation
- Availability of co-factors
- Endogenous activators/inhibitors
- Feedback mechanisms
- **Compartmentalization**

Enzymatic activity

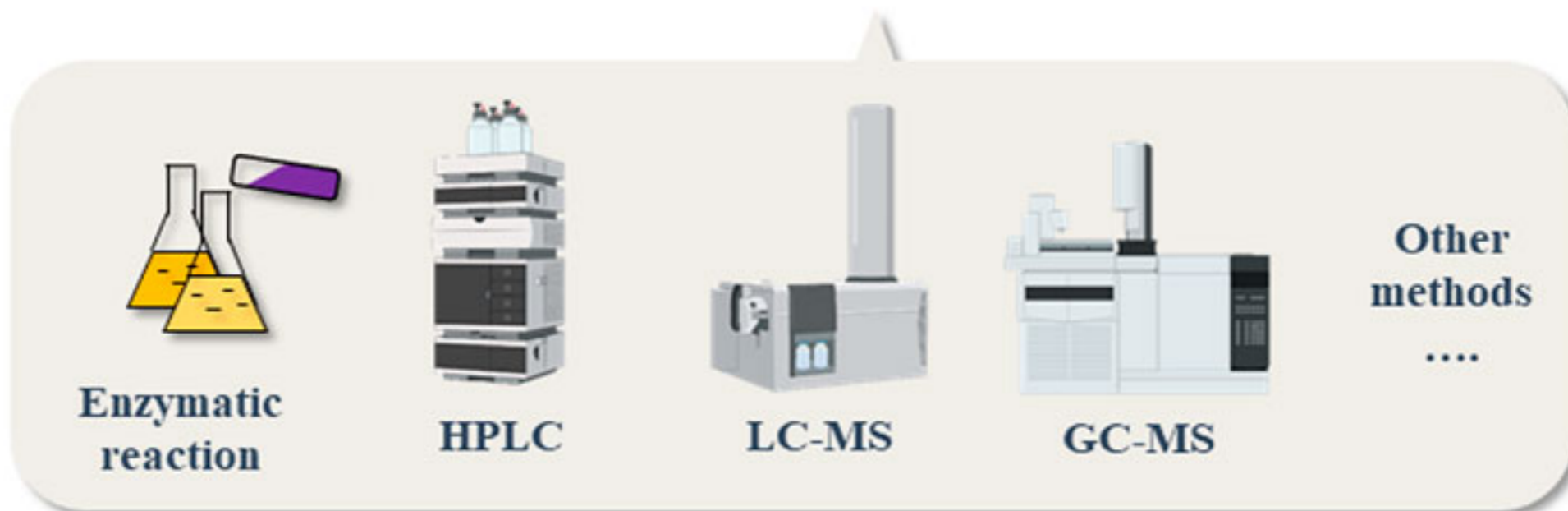
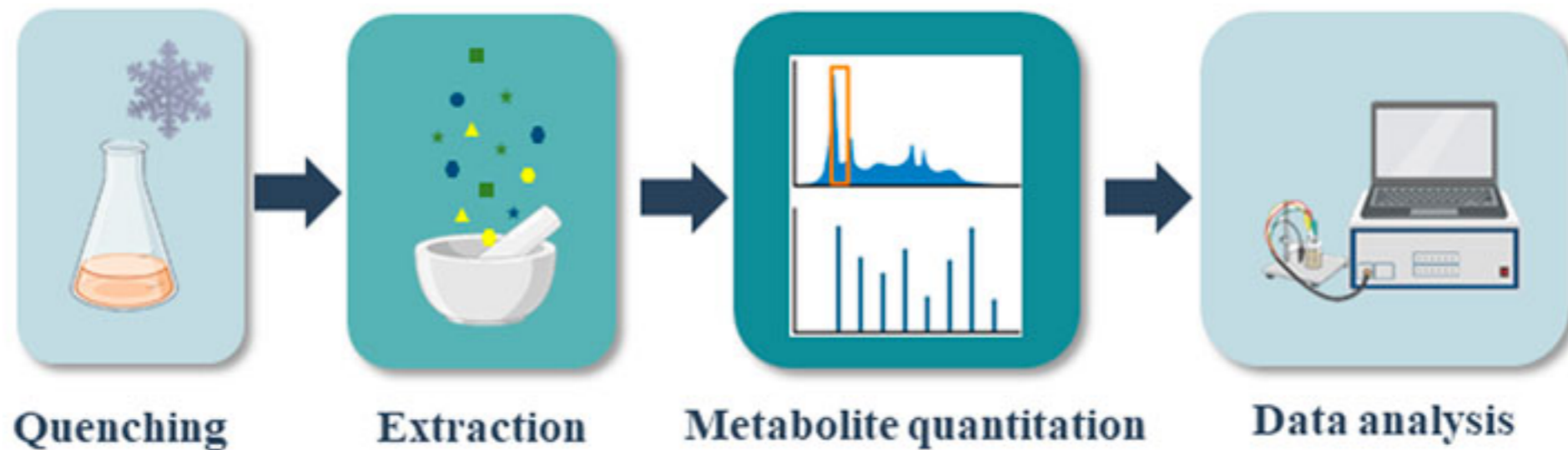
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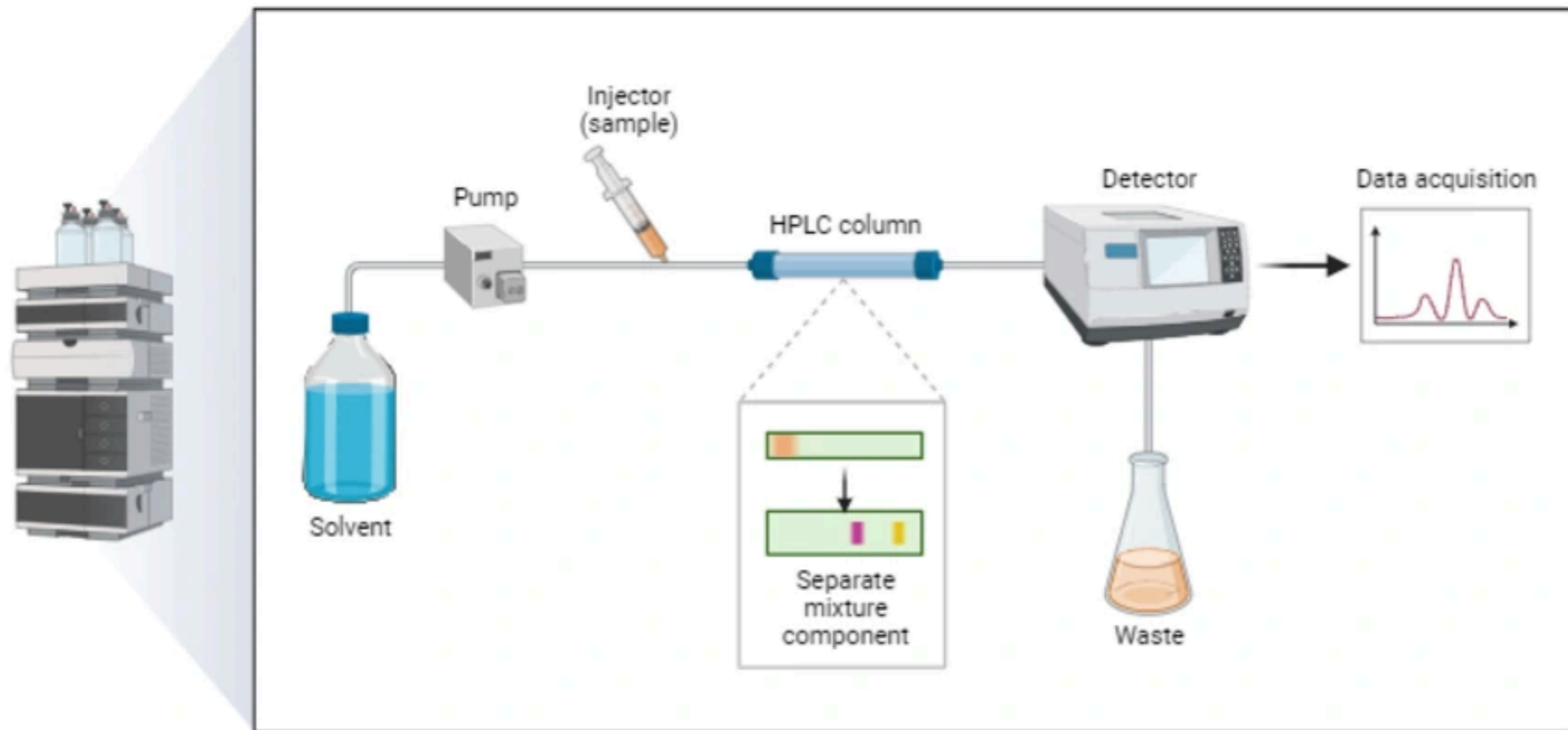
Measure metabolites and macromolecules

Quantitative measures rely on biochemical analytical approaches:



High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

It allows the separation, identification, and quantification of each component in a mixture. The fundamental concept behind HPLC originates from column chromatography, a process in which a mixture is passed through a stationary phase, and the various components separate out due to their multiple interactions with the stationary phase.



High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

The sample is carried by the mobile phase and driven through the column after being inserted into the HPLC system via the injector. The different components experience varying degrees of retention as the mixture interacts with the stationary phase, leading to their separation down the column.

Depending on the type of analytes, the eluted components are next determined using a suitable detector, such as ultraviolet (UV) or visible light detectors, detectors of refractive index, or mass spectrometers.

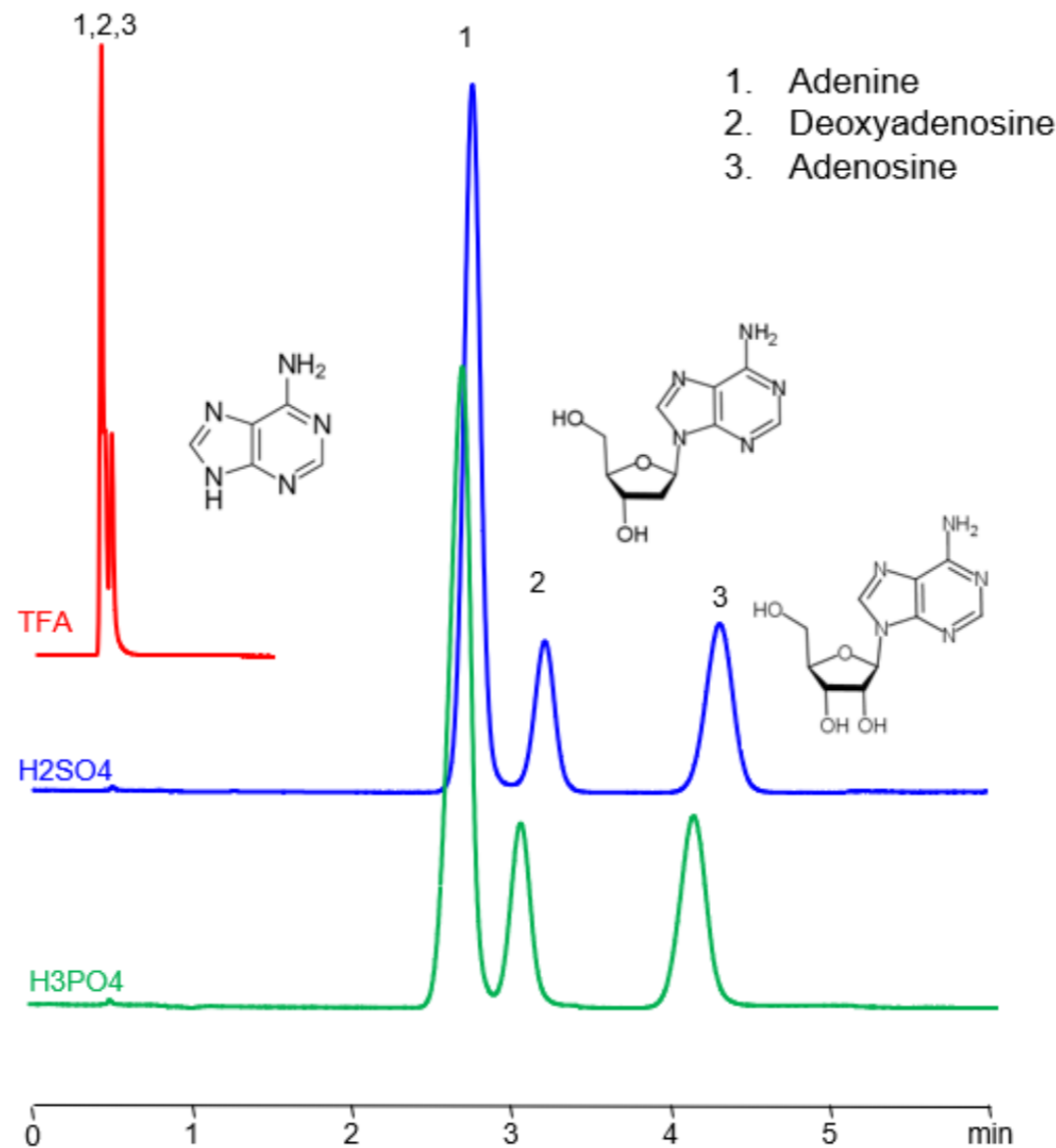
Pros:

- Rapid
- Cheap

Cons:

- Metabolite identification
- Poor adaptability

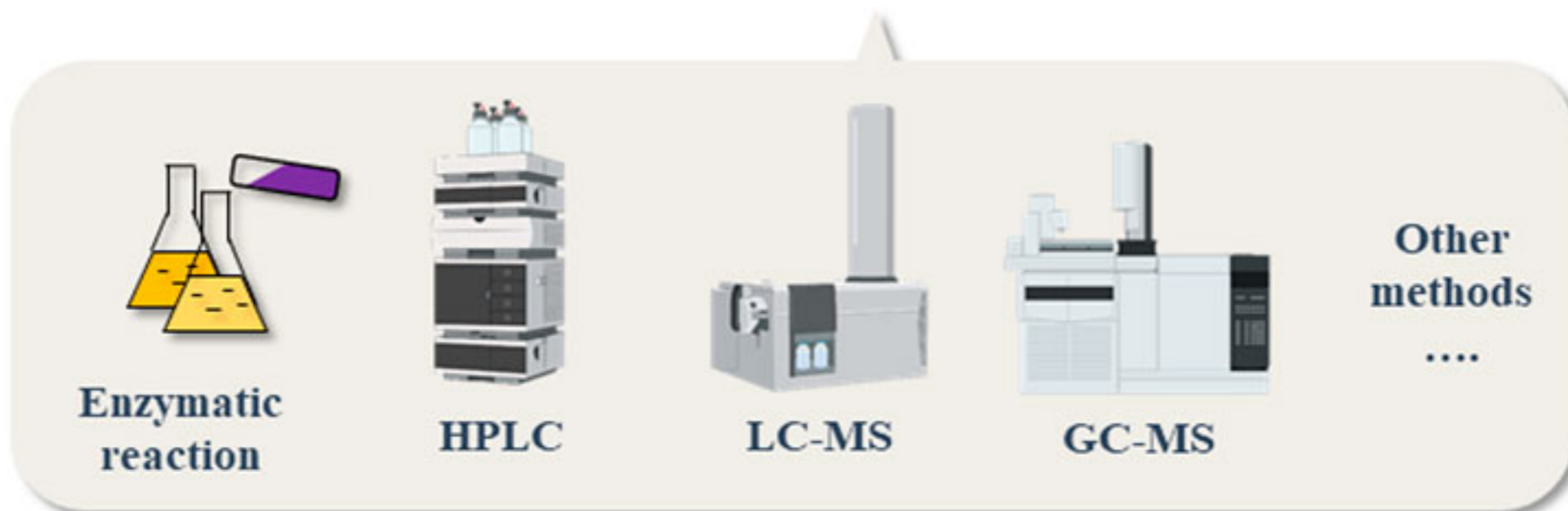
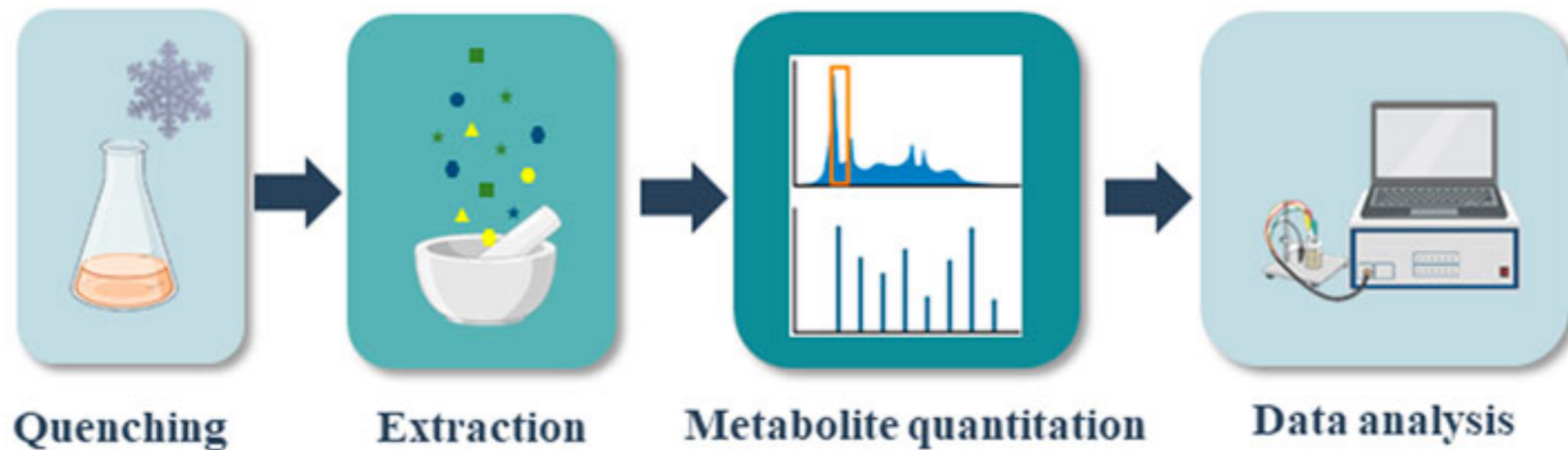
High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)



Column:	BIST B+
Column size:	4.6 × 50 mm, 5 μm
Column part number:	TBP-46.50.0510
Mobile phase:	MeCN – 85%
Buffer:	0.2%
Flow rate:	1,0 mL/min
Detection:	UV 260 nm

Measure metabolites and macromolecules

Quantitative measures rely on biochemical analytical approaches:

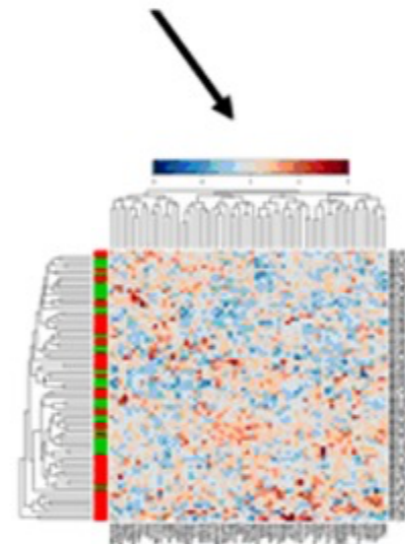
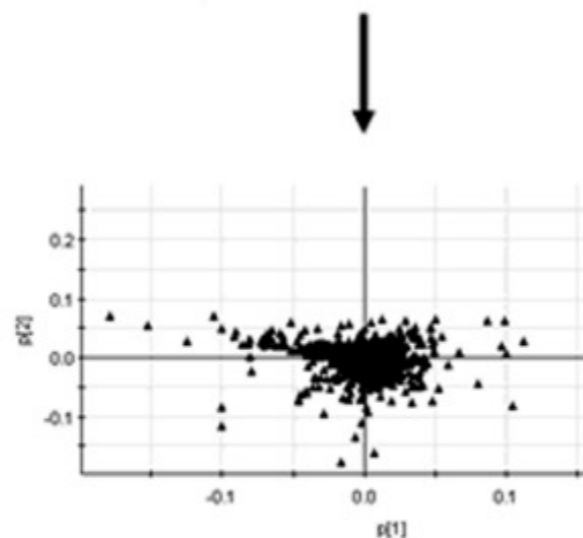
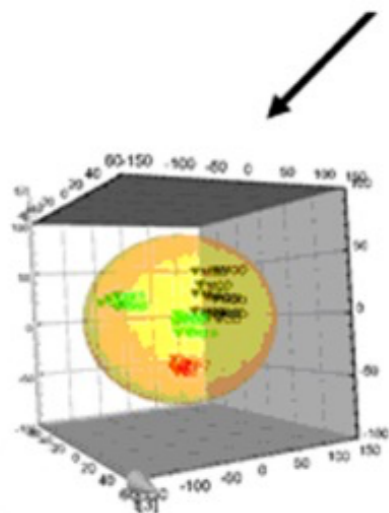
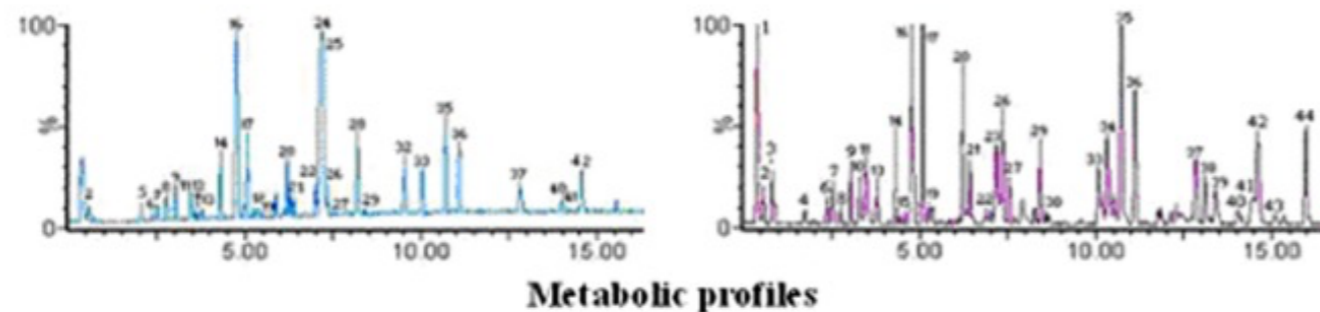


Spectrometry (NMR or MS)

Analytical approaches that resolve a mixture of components into spectra defined by multiple peaks (where each peak correspond to a different molecule).

These peaks are separated according to different physical properties (mass, charge, solubility, etc).

You obtain a “fingerprint” that is a snapshot of cell metabolism at a given time.



Common types of analysis include those that quantify principal components, associate hierarchical clusters, create partial least squares, discriminant function, or even form artificial neural networks. Collectively, this analysis helps identify and discriminate the function of the metabolites in the sample, where databases can secondarily be used to validate specific pathway activity.

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Pros:

- Sensible
- Robust
- Large-scale approach (METABOLOMICS)

Cons:

- Difficult (requires extensive training)

Spectrometry (NMR or MS)

Metabolomic studies often rely on nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy or mass spectrometry (MS) techniques for the identification and quantification of metabolites.

NMR is a quantitative, robust, reproducible, and high-throughput analytical technique associated with a straightforward and simple sample preparation procedure. MS-based techniques are more sensitive, in particular when using liquid chromatography (LC) connected to a tandem MS/MS for quantitative analysis in the multiple reaction monitoring mode.

In NMR, a wide variety of samples may also be used, including plasma, serum, saliva, etc., and these must be deproteinized prior to analysis through precipitation or extraction to weaken the intensity of interfering resonances. After derivatization and buffering the samples undergo analysis to produce a specific NMR profile, constitutive of many peaks that represent various molecules within the sample. For NMR, various nuclei spectras may be used, including ^1H , ^{13}C , ^{15}N and ^{31}P , and the profile can be interpreted using multivariate statistical analysis with pattern recognition software.

Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS or LC-MS)

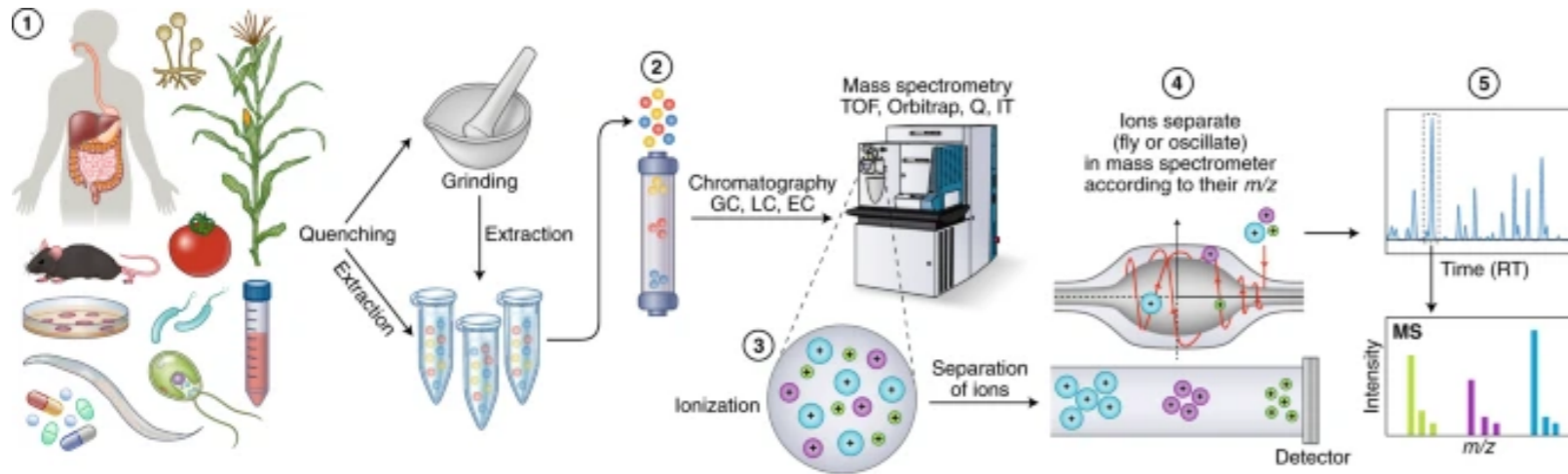
Similar to NMR, mass spectrometry (MS) easily distinguishes the masses of molecular components, or more specifically, ionized molecules and fragments.

1. Samples are prepared accordingly then undergo a rapid quenching step to quickly stop any metabolic activity within the cell. If required, samples must undergo a purification step to separate the cellular phase from the extracellular medium.
2. The sample will undergo an extraction phase that aims to remove and dissolve the maximum amount of original sample metabolites as possible. There is no one-size-fits-all for extraction, as these steps may be variable and must be empirically determined for each sample and reagent combination.
3. Samples are concentrated to partially, if not totally, remove leftover solvents.

Usually, samples will undergo another technique for better resolution prior to MS analysis.

Liquid chromatography (LC) is most commonly used to separate unneeded metabolites according to a column and eluent, though gas chromatography (GC) can be used to separate volatile and non-volatile metabolites as well.

Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS or LC-MS)



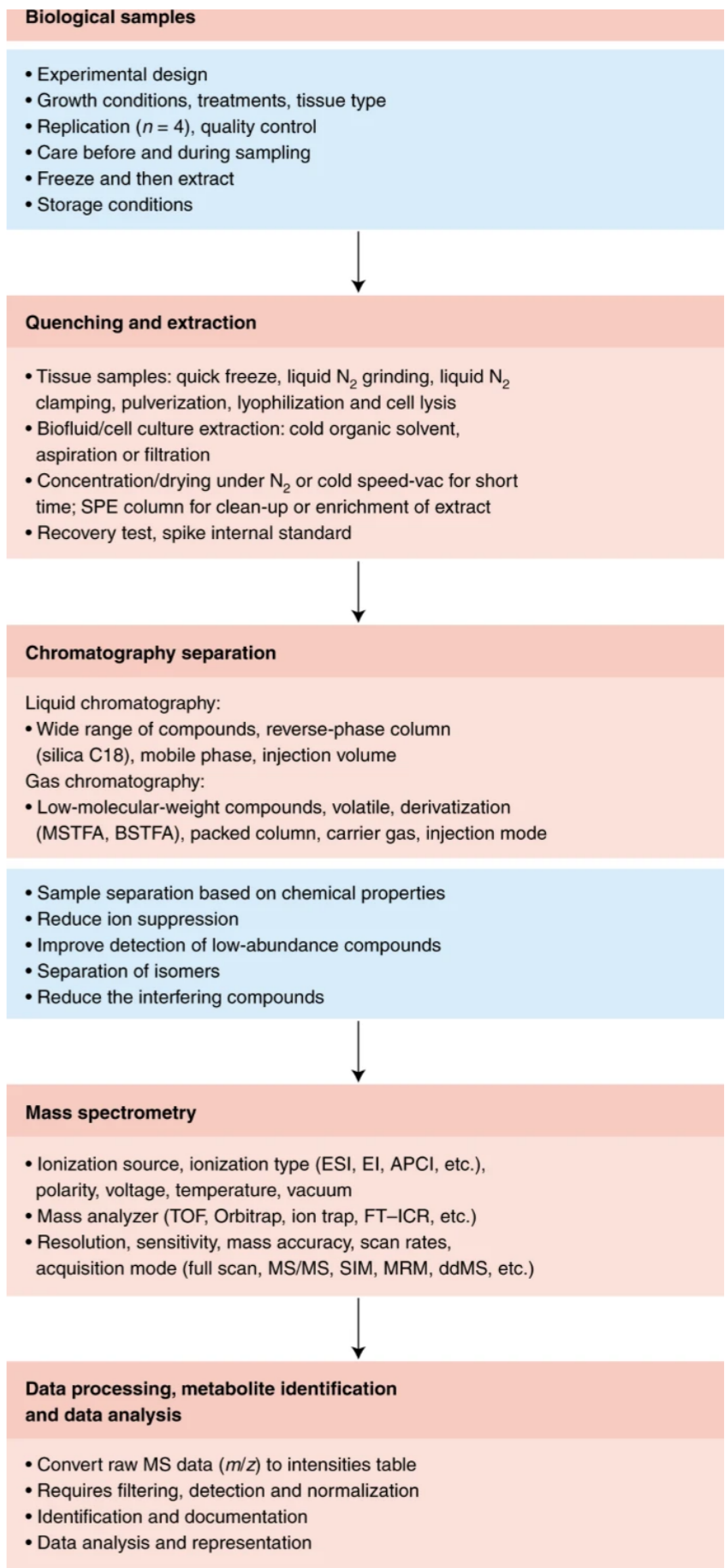
- Sample preparation and extraction**
- Avoid environmental perturbation during harvesting
 - Control environment: harvesting at the same time and under the same conditions
 - Snap-freezing in liquid nitrogen
 - Enzyme quenching: completely terminate all enzyme activities
 - Standards spiked into the quenching solvent
 - Grinding, isolation of cells, fast-filtration or aspiration

- Sample replication and randomization**
- At least four biological replicates, preferably more
 - Technical and analytic replicates are worthy of consideration
 - Randomization of samples throughout workflows is essential
 - In large-scale studies, quality-control samples and batch correction are essential

- Chromatography-mass spectrometry**
- Separation methods, composition of the mobile phase, column properties and injection volume
 - Metabolites are within their range of detection
 - Avoid ion suppression: dilution of extracts, sonication, filtration or centrifugation, recovery test
 - Choosing ionization source and type of detection mode, MS method, scan number and speed, MS/MS and energy for fragmentation

Metabolites are identification with computational approaches, including ion annotation, spectral interpretation and spectral matching.

Targeted metabolomics: spectra matches known analytical standards



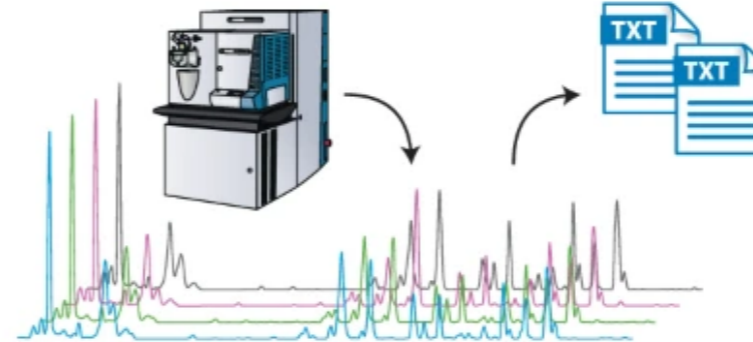
Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS or LC-MS)

a Sample preparation



See sampling, quenching, metabolite extraction and storage (Fig. 2)

b Data acquisition, processing and annotation



Feature detection

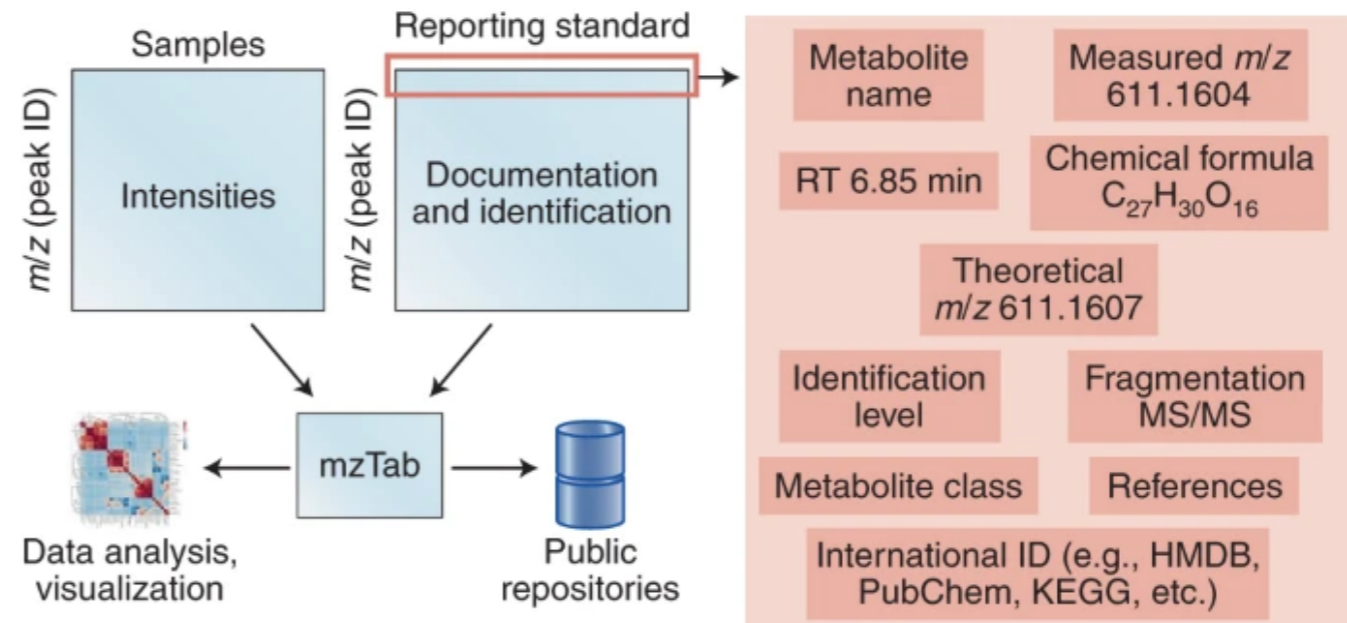
Alignment

Normalization

Identification

- Extraction of information from raw data, including filtering, feature detection and alignment
- Many software packages and algorithms are available for processing and analysis of metabolite data (e.g., MetAlign, XCMS, AMDIS, GNPS, Expressionist Refiner MS, TagFinder, Mzmin, TargetSearch, MSClust, etc.)

c Documentation



Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS or LC-MS)

More than 1 million different metabolites occur across the tree of life, with between 1,000 and 40,000 estimated to occur in a single species.

Even the most comprehensive methods cannot provide firm upper limits for metabolite number. Current capabilities for detection and quantification of metabolites fall a long way short of being comprehensive. Currently, combinations of the most comprehensive methods are able to quantify 700 of the 3,700 metabolites predicted to be present in *Escherichia coli*, 500 of the 2,680 metabolites predicted to be present in yeast, 8,000 of the 114,100 metabolites predicted to be present in humans and only 14,000 of the over 400,000 metabolites predicted to be present in the plant kingdom. Chemical diversity, rapid turnover times and broad dynamic range in cellular abundance currently prohibit the possibility of using single-extraction and single-analysis procedures to measure all metabolites.

To tackle these challenges:

- Different extraction techniques / matrices
- Combinations of analytical methods
- Rigorous standards for normalization

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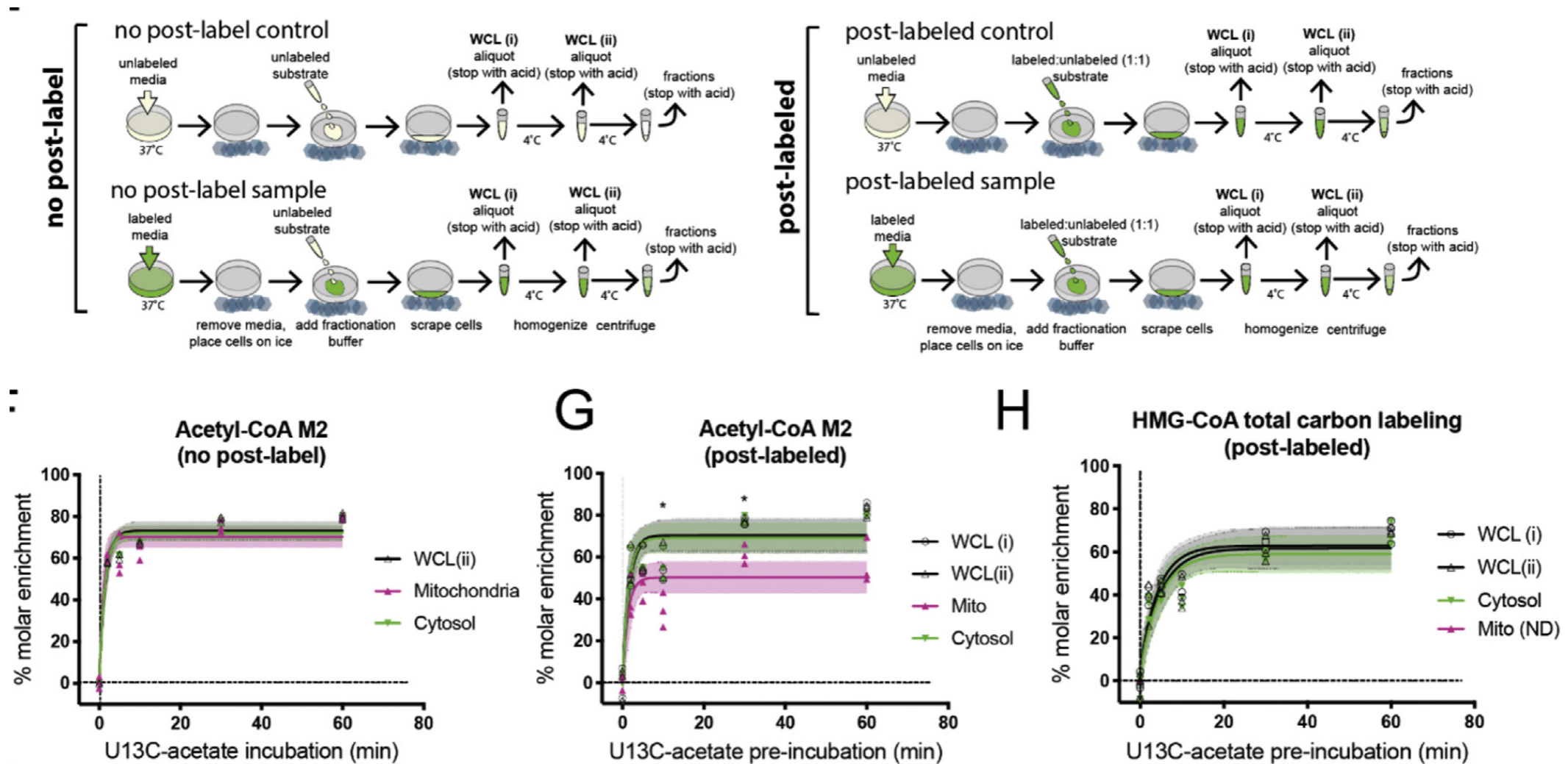
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Yet, they hardly capture the complexity metabolic regulation *in vivo*.

Subcellular fractionation introduces MS bias

Metabolic reactions are extremely dynamic and occur post harvesting.

Long fractionation protocols affect readouts.



Metabolic assays seek to:

Measure metabolites and macromolecules

Measure energy equivalents and co-factors

Measure enzymatic activities

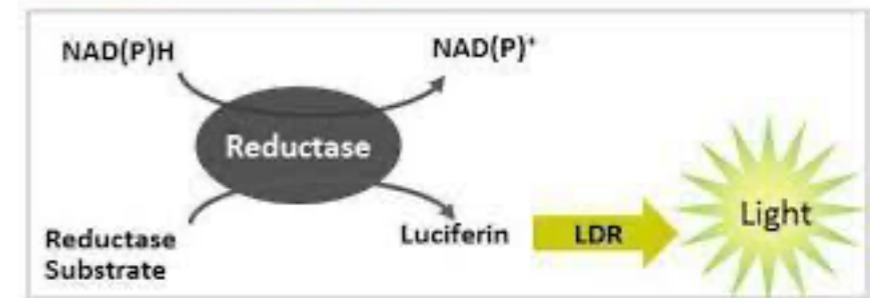
Measure activity of metabolic organelles

Measure energy equivalents and co-factors

ATP and NAD(P)/H levels can be easily measured in vitro using enzymatic assays (commercially available).

However, they do not capture an essential level of regulation: availability at different compartments

NAD(P)H-Glo™ Detection System- detects **NADH** and **NADPH** biochemically

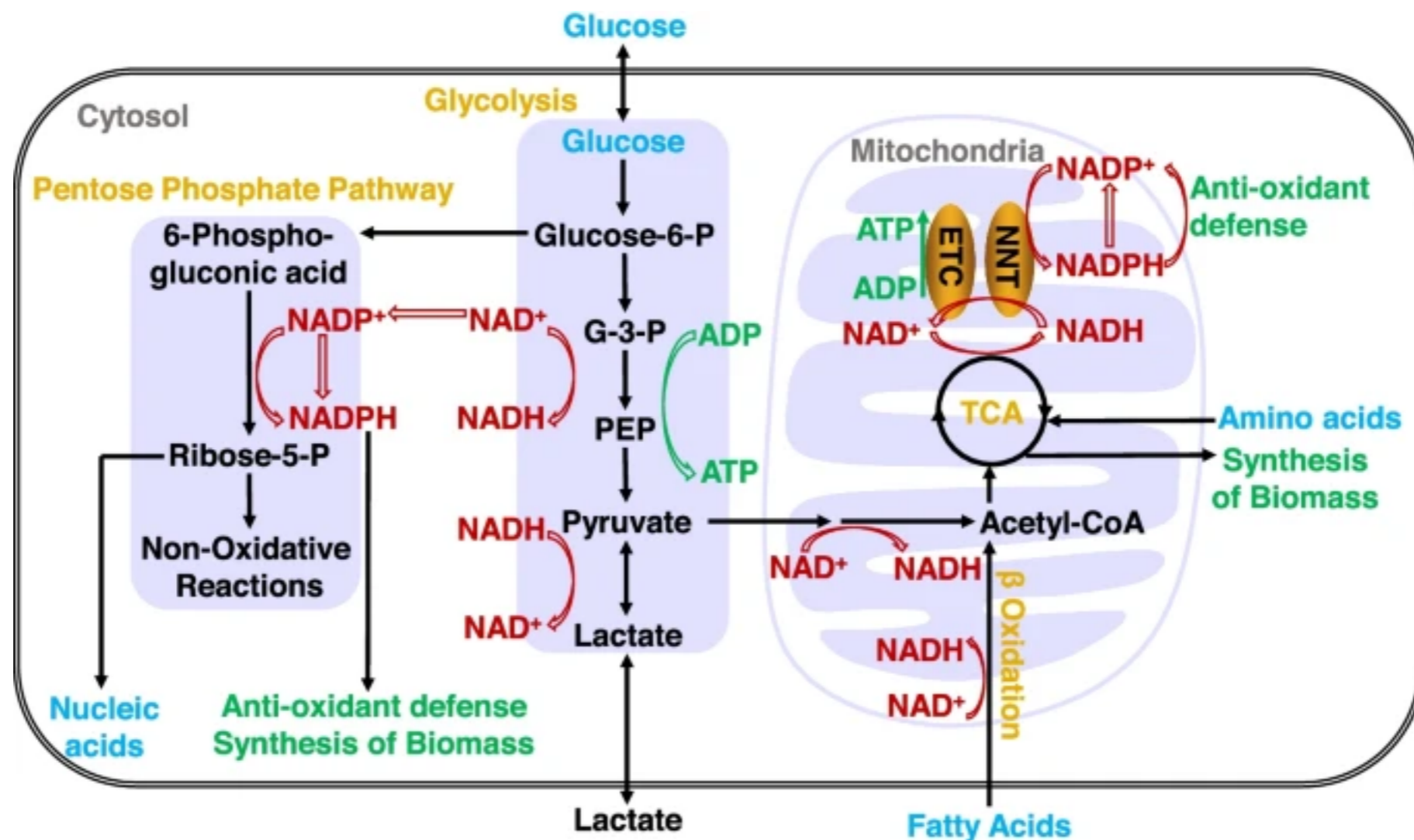
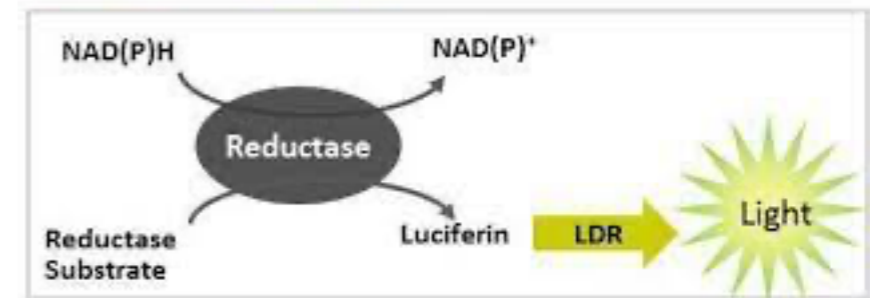


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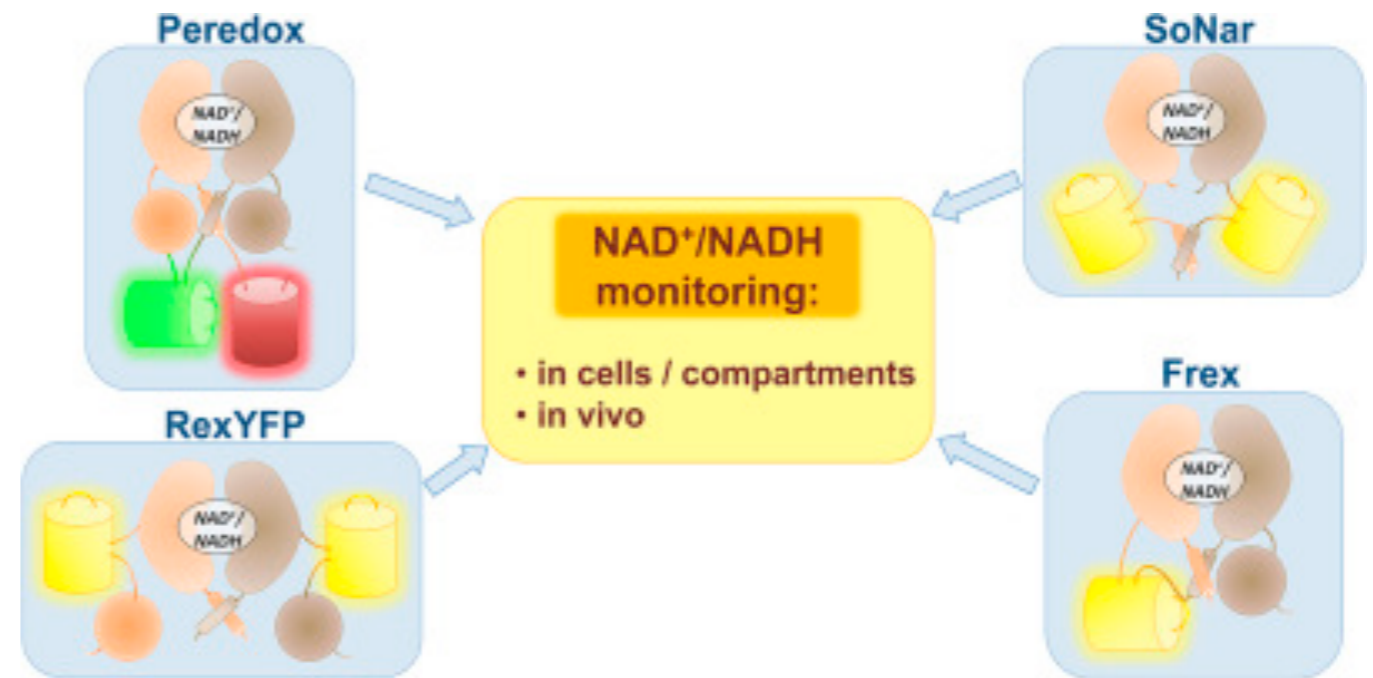


Measure energy equivalents and co-factors

Fluorescent biosensors allow the monitoring of NAD(P)/H in space and time.

They allow in vivo analyses.

Generally consist of two basic components: substrate-binding proteins and one or two fluorescent proteins.

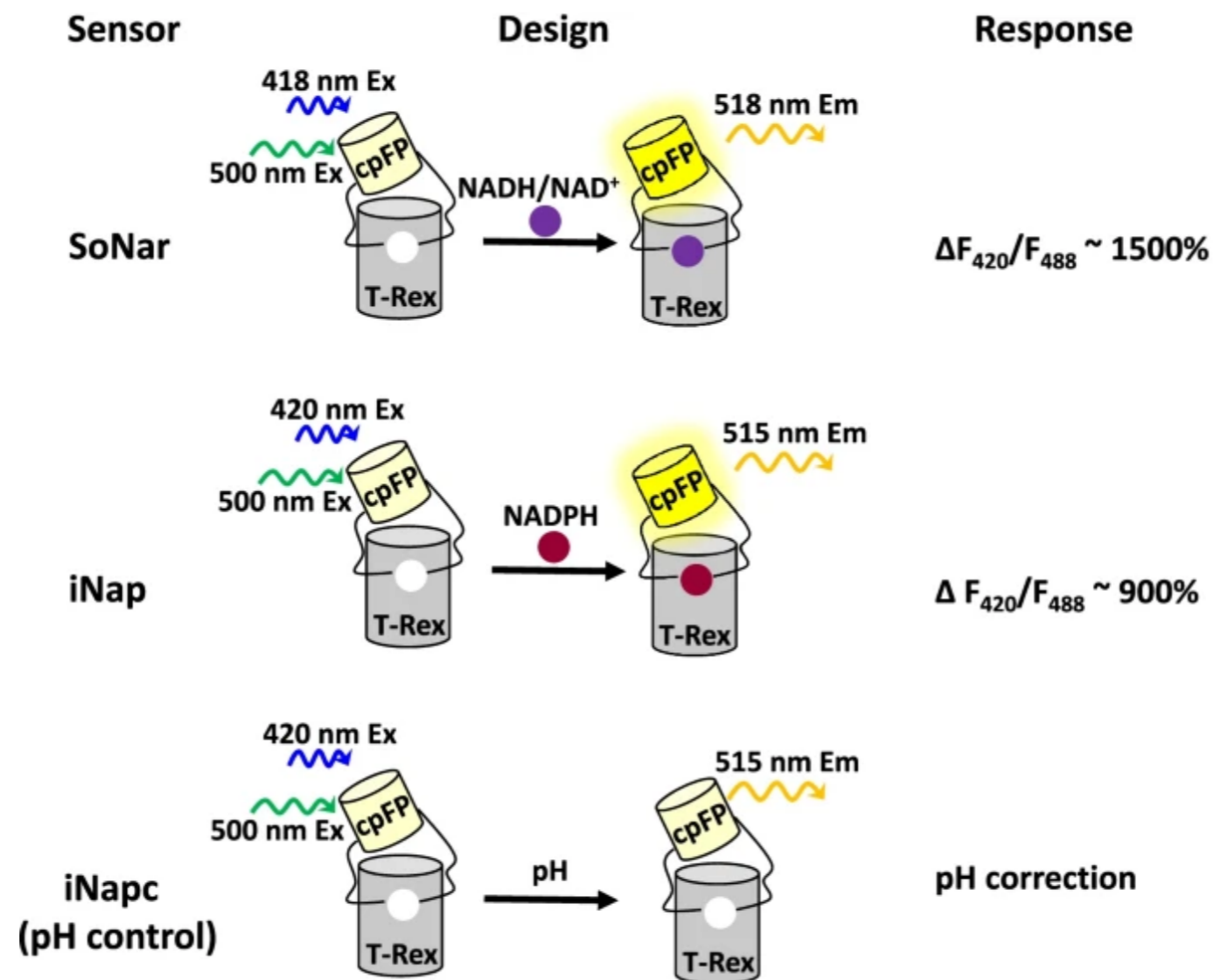


Fluorescent biosensors must meet several criteria for live-cell and in vivo developmental studies, including high specificity, large responsiveness, appropriate affinity, strong brightness, and ratiometric readout, which allows reliable and convenient capture of subtle changes in physiological contexts.

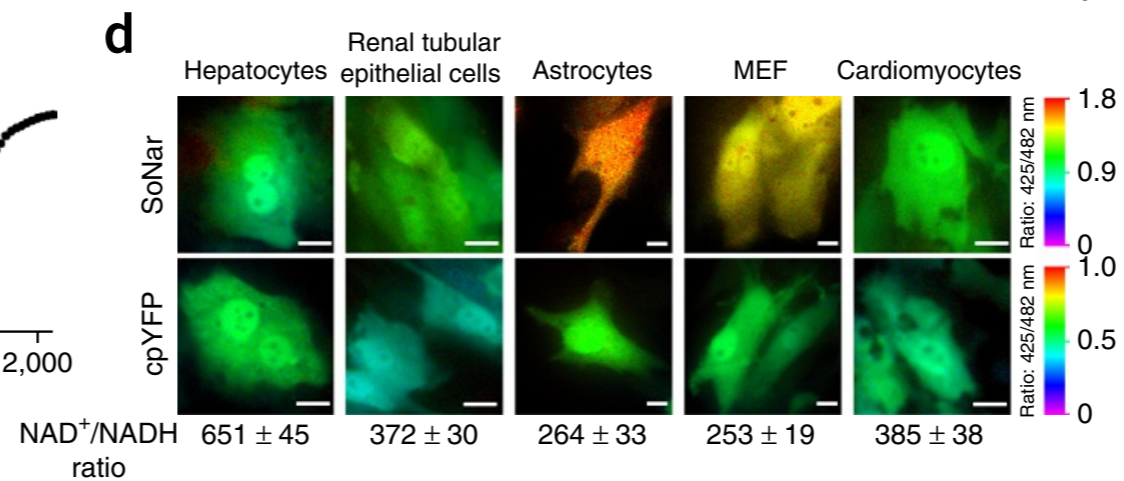
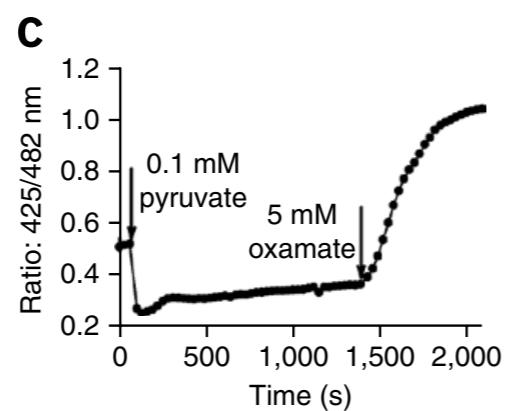
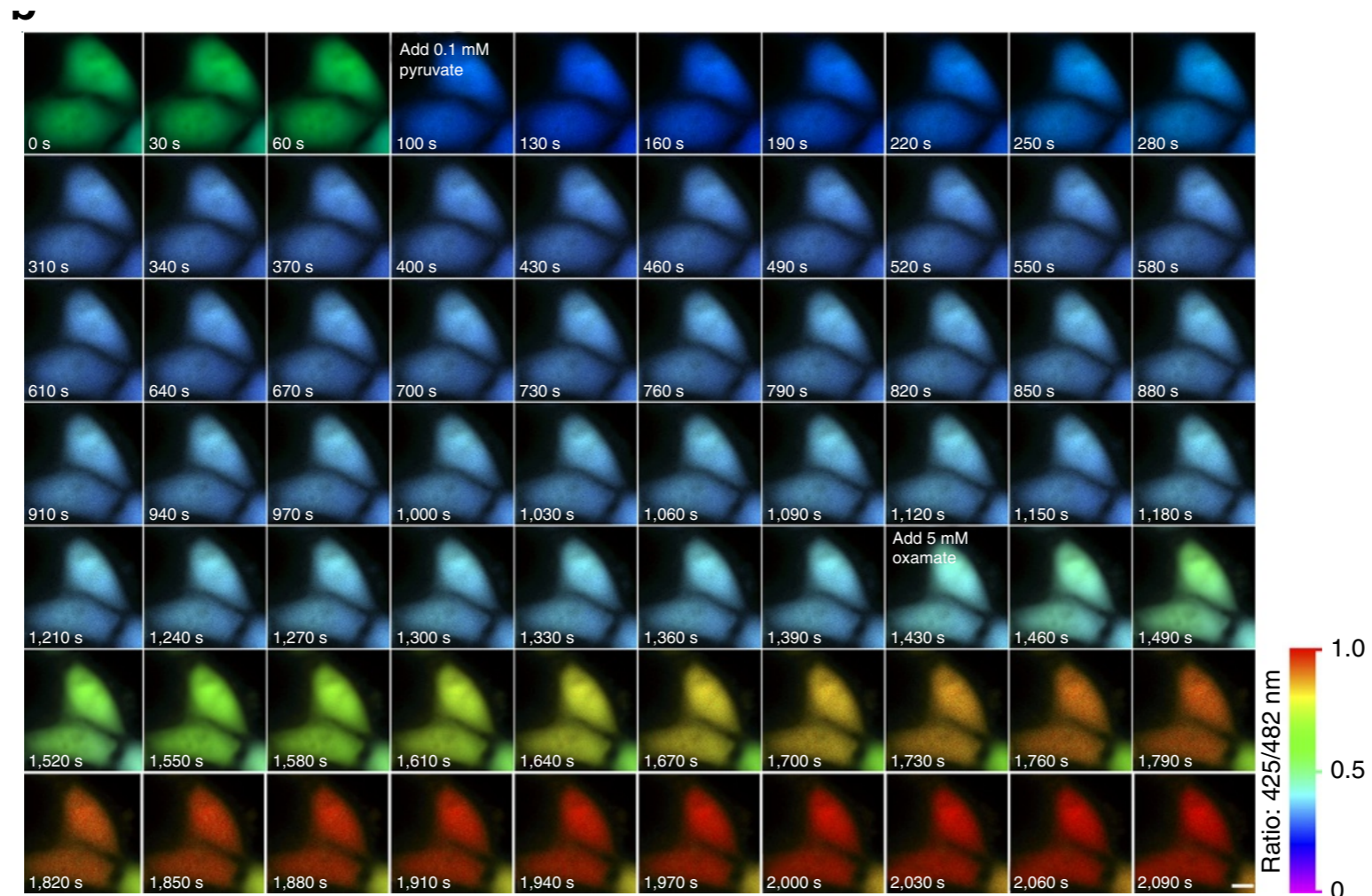
Various transcription factors and regulatory proteins specifically sense intracellular biomolecules from bacteria to mammals. Substrate-sensing proteins often trigger conformational changes upon biomolecule binding, which induces fluorescence changes in fluorescent proteins. Fluorescence can be readily measured by routine instruments such as plate readers, flow cytometry or fluorescence microscopy.

Fluorescence biosensors for the measuring of energy equivalents and co-factors

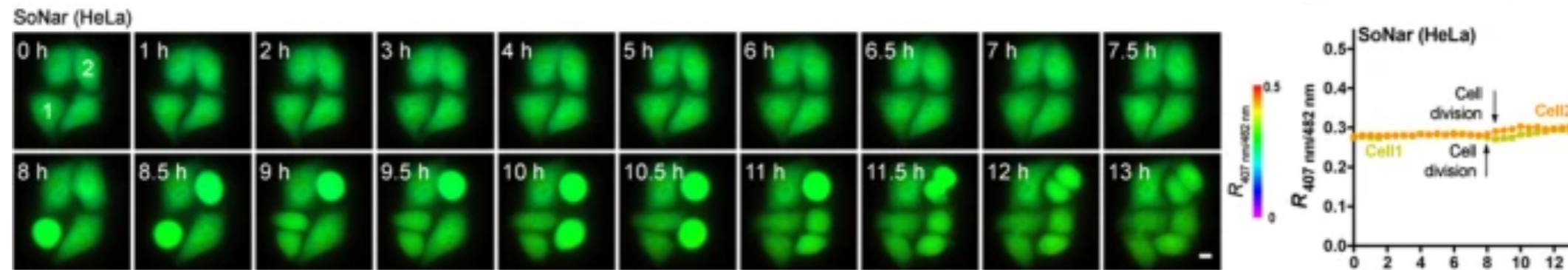
SoNar was designed by inserting circularly permuted yellow fluorescent protein (cpYFP) into the truncated *Thermus aquaticus* T-Rex protein. The sensor has two excitation peaks, which enable an intrinsically ratiometric measurement. SoNar responds to the NAD⁺/NADH ratio but does not depend on either individual NAD⁺ or NADH concentrations alone.



Fluorescence biosensors for the measuring of energy equivalents and co-factors

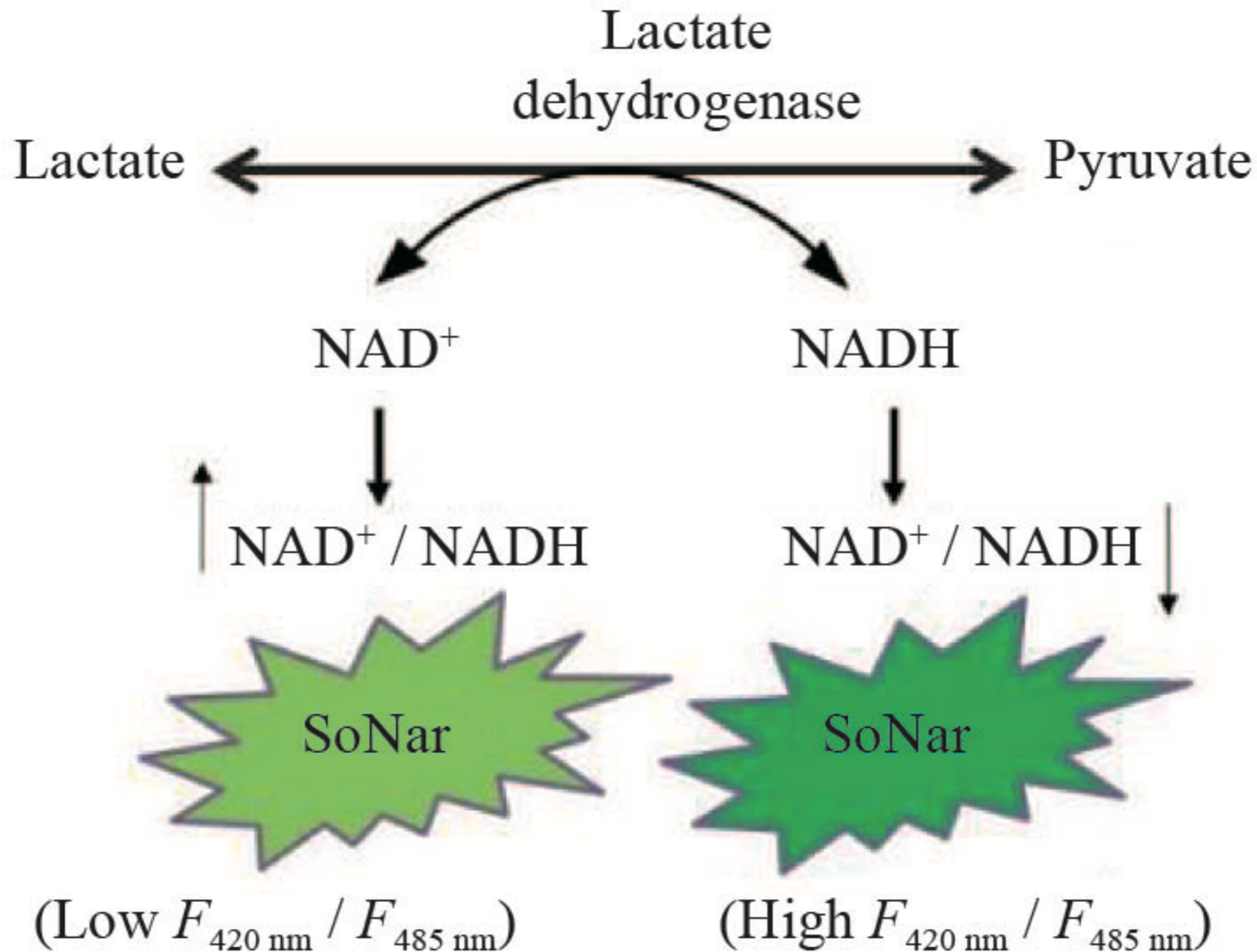


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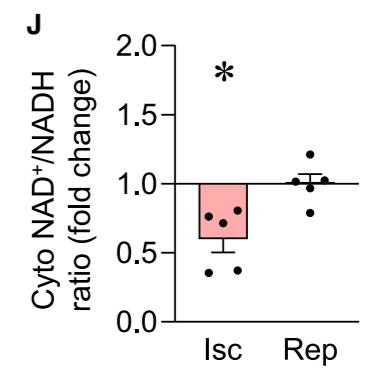
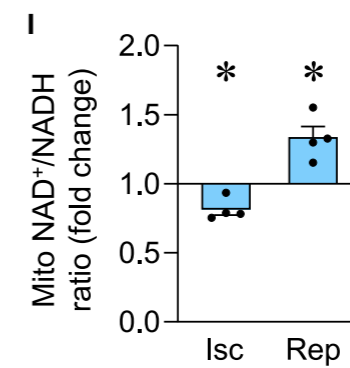
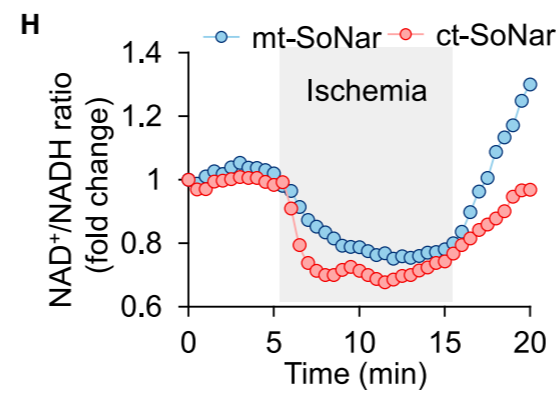
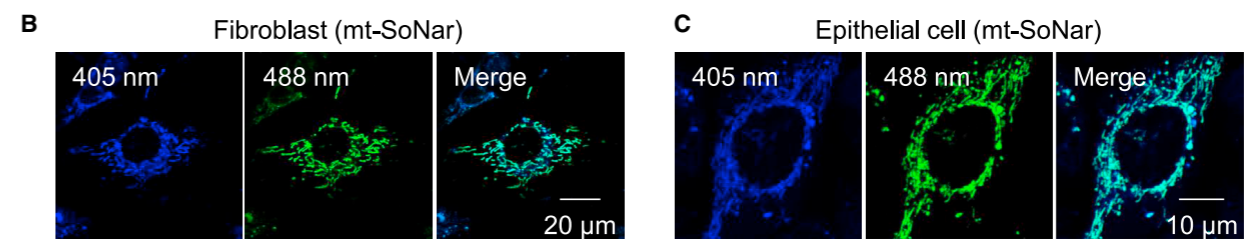
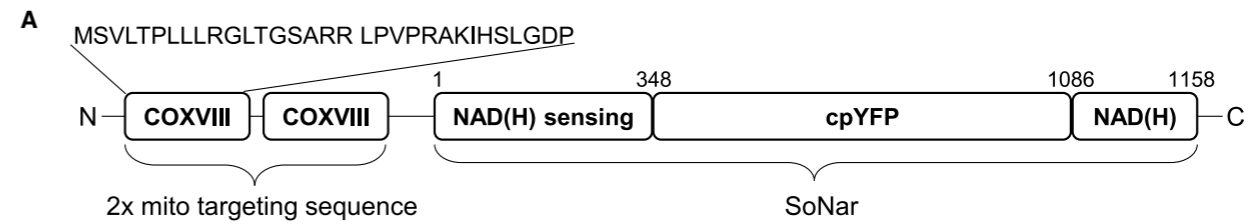
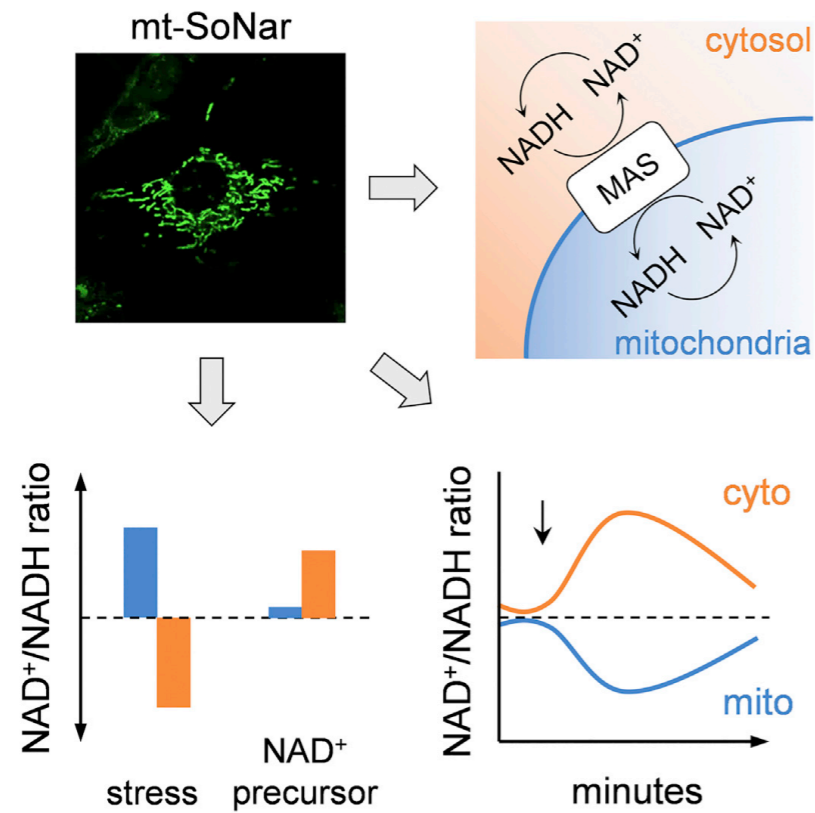


Real-time tracking NADH/NAD⁺ and NADPH dynamics during the cell cycle

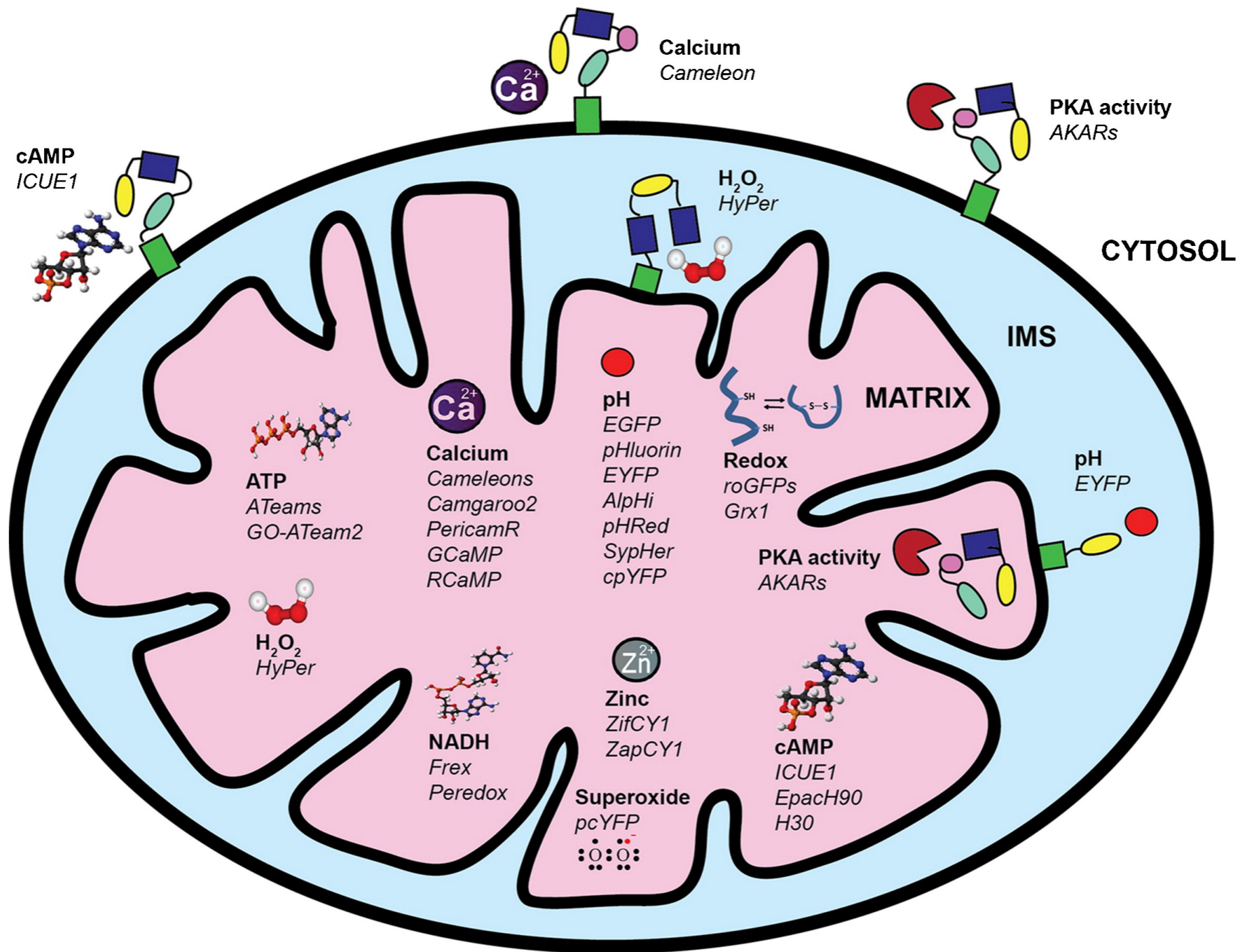
Fluorescence biosensors for the measuring of energy equivalents and co-factors



Genetically encoded biosensors for evaluating NAD⁺/NADH ratio in cytosolic and mitochondrial compartments



Fluorescence biosensors for the measuring of energy equivalents and co-factors



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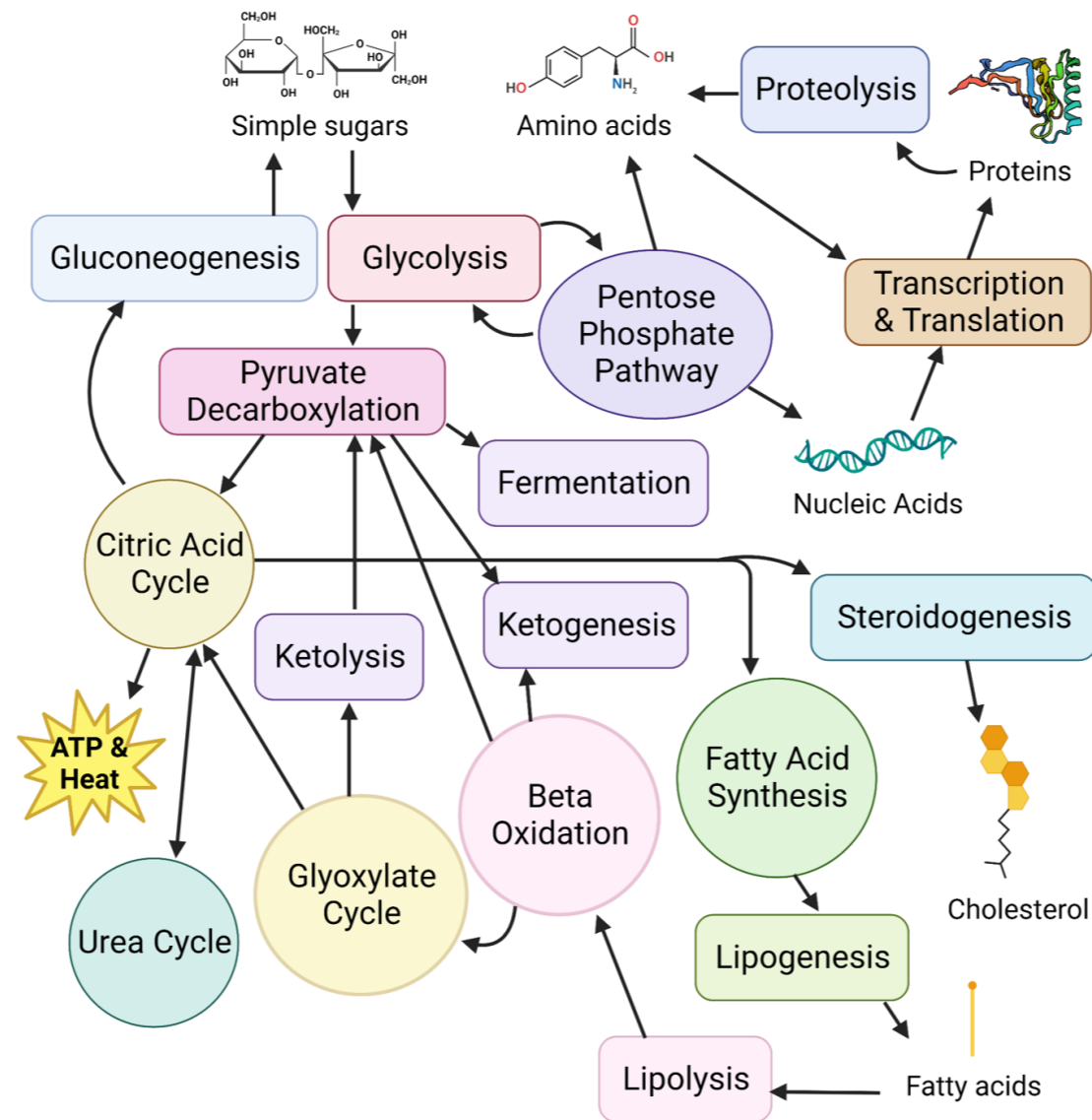
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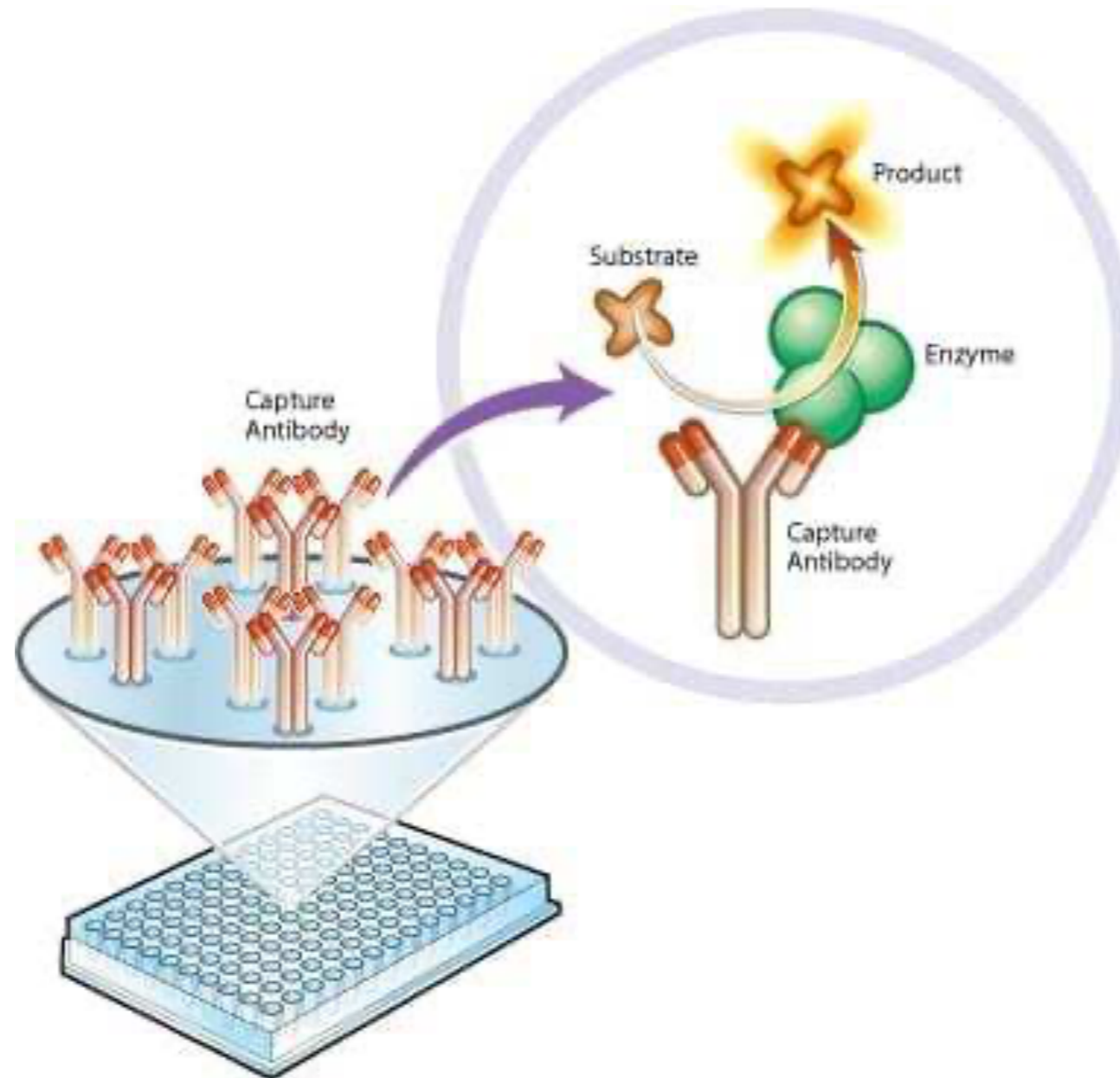
Enzyme activity assays

Enzymatic assays can be used to probe the activity of specific pathways



....or test new inhibitors!

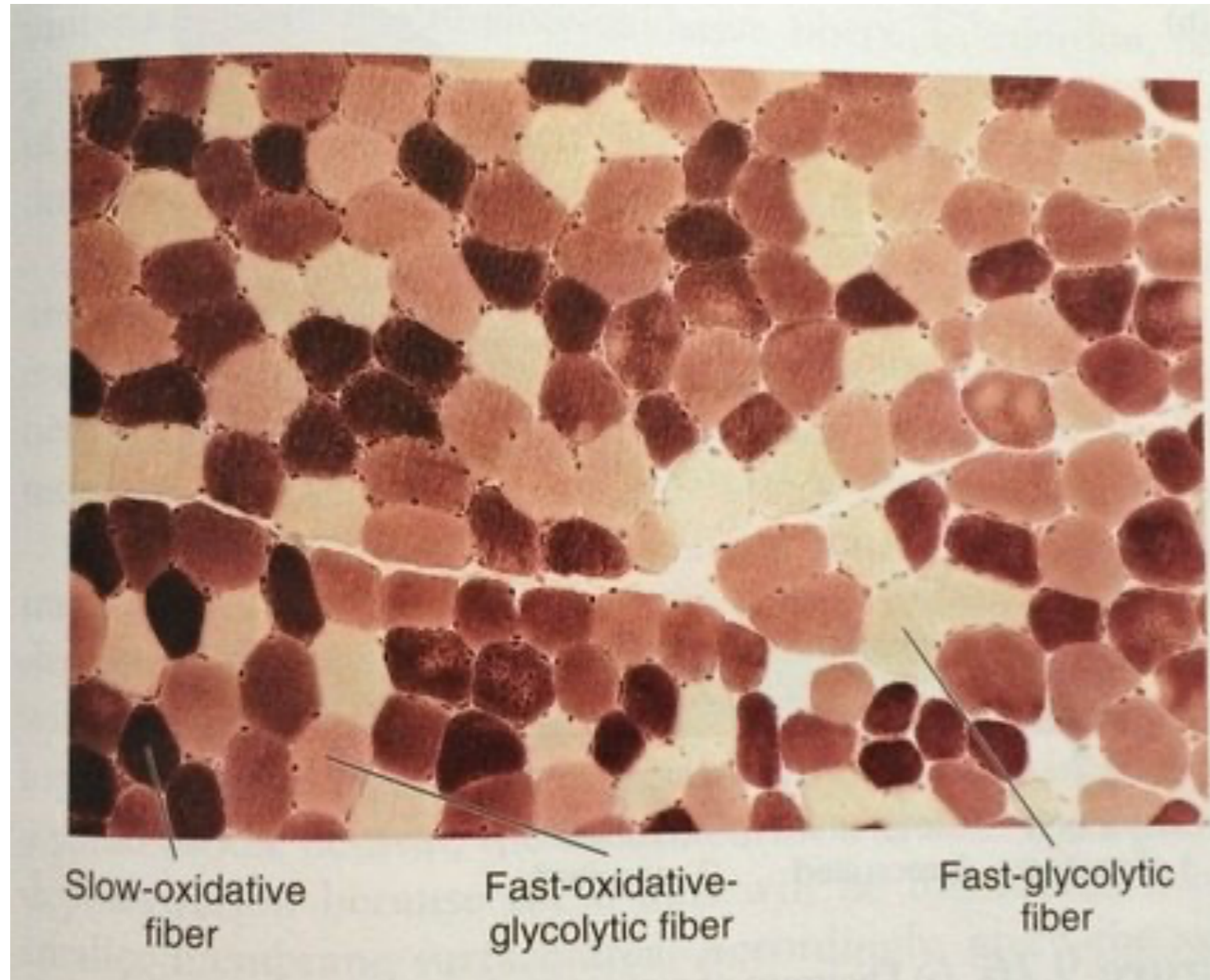
Enzyme activity assays



Enzyme can be immune-purified and activity probed in vitro.

Yet, all problems related to in vitro settings are still there

Enzyme activity assays - ex vivo

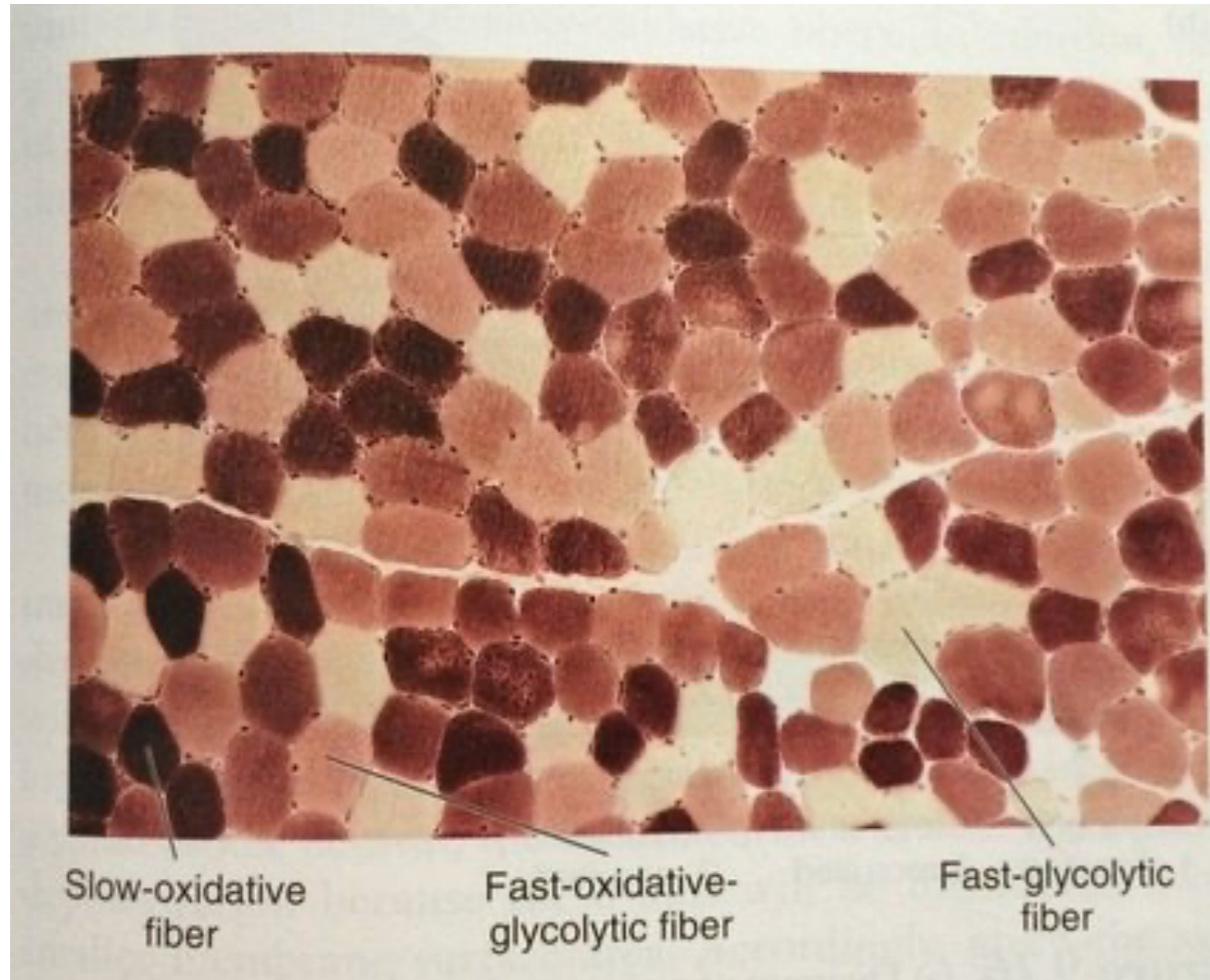


Metabolic enzymes retain activity post harvesting and post fixation.

Activity of most abundant enzymes can be assessed in fixed cells or tissues.

E.g.: Citrate Synthase

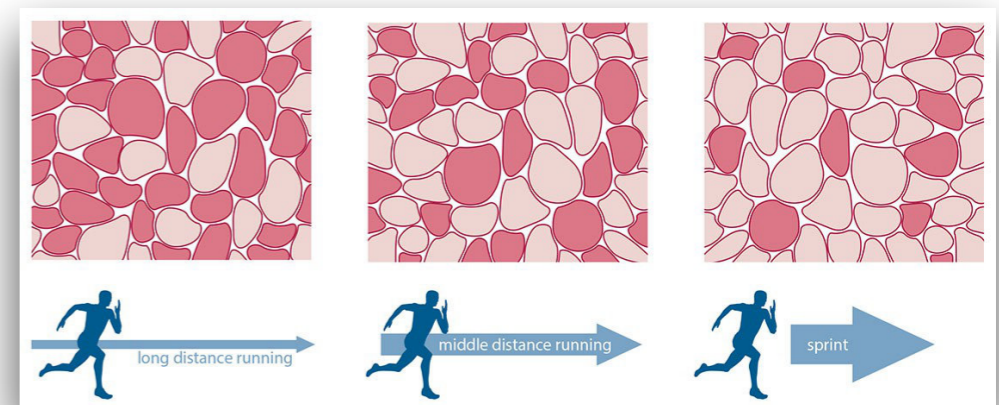
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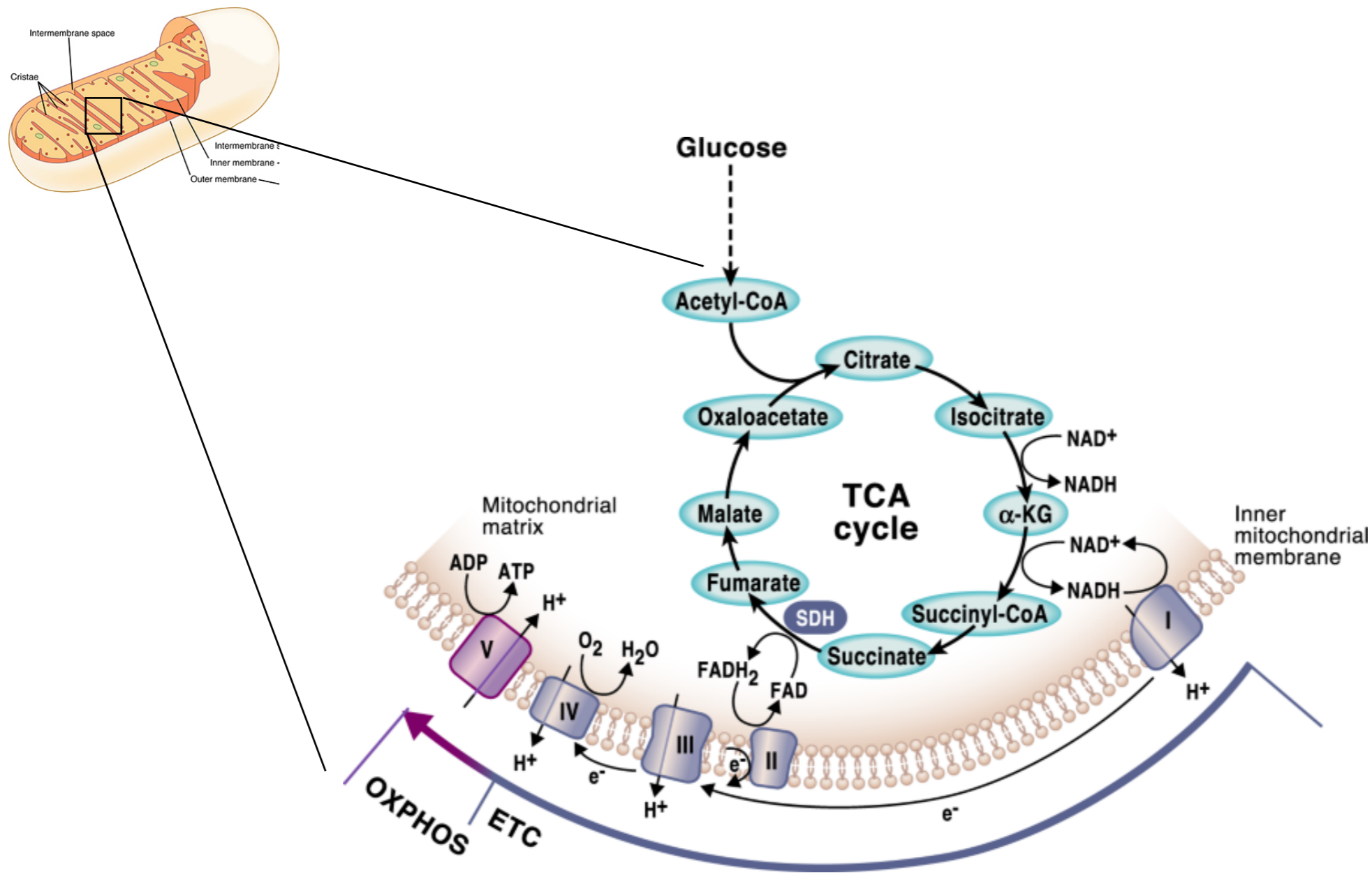
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Mitochondria couple pyruvate oxidation, electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation

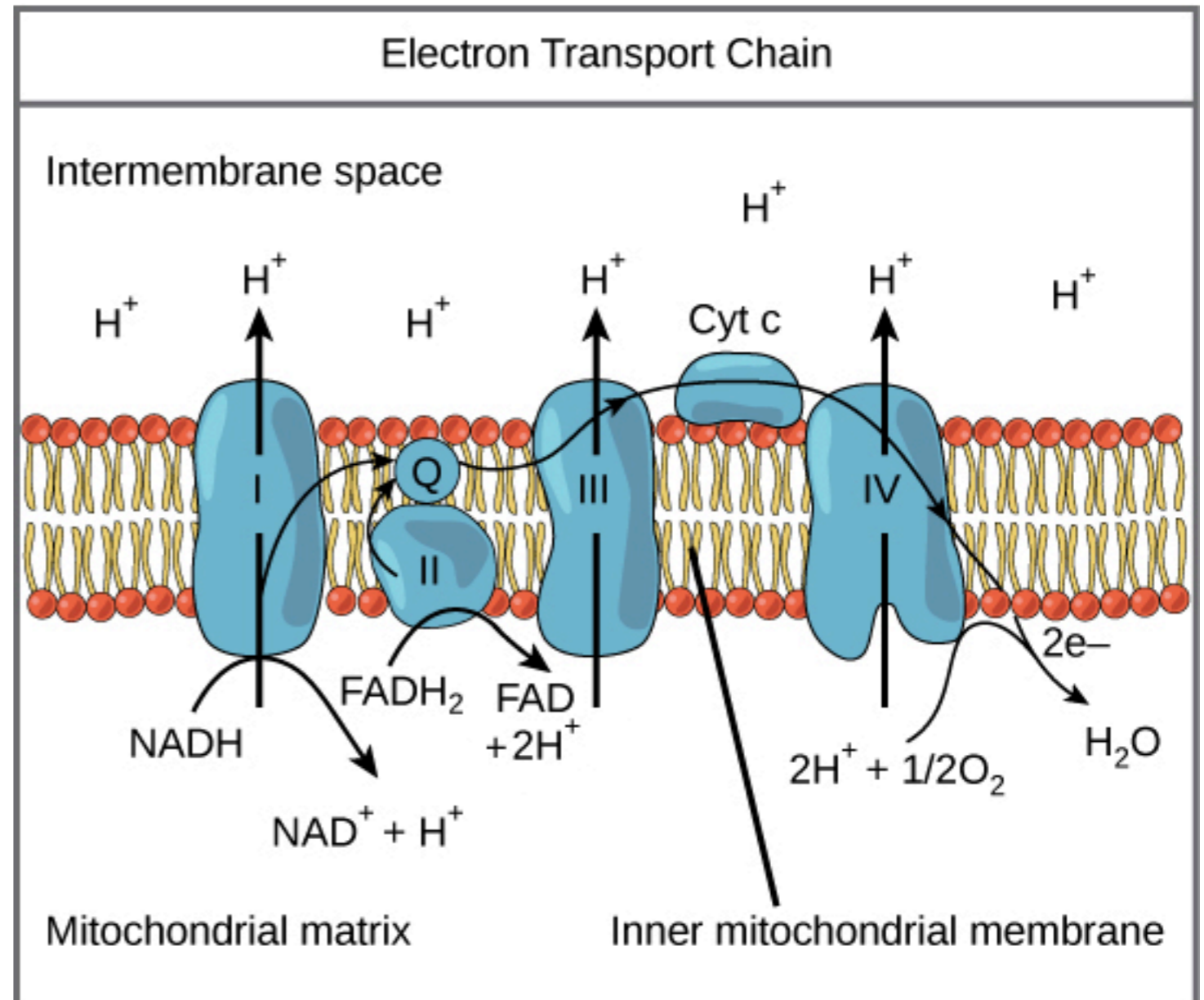


Components of the Respiratory Chain

1. NAD⁺-linked dehydrogenases
2. Flavin-linked dehydrogenases
3. Iron-sulphur proteins
4. Ubiquinone
5. Cytochromes

The complexes of the ETC

- **Complex I**
 - NADH dehydrogenase
- **Complex II**
 - Succinate dehydrogenase
- **Complex III**
 - Cytochrome bc_1 complex
- **Complex IV**
 - Cytochrome aa_3 oxidase
- **Complex V**
 - ATP synthase



Assessing “mitochondrial activity” means:

Complex assembly

Complex activity

NAD oxidation

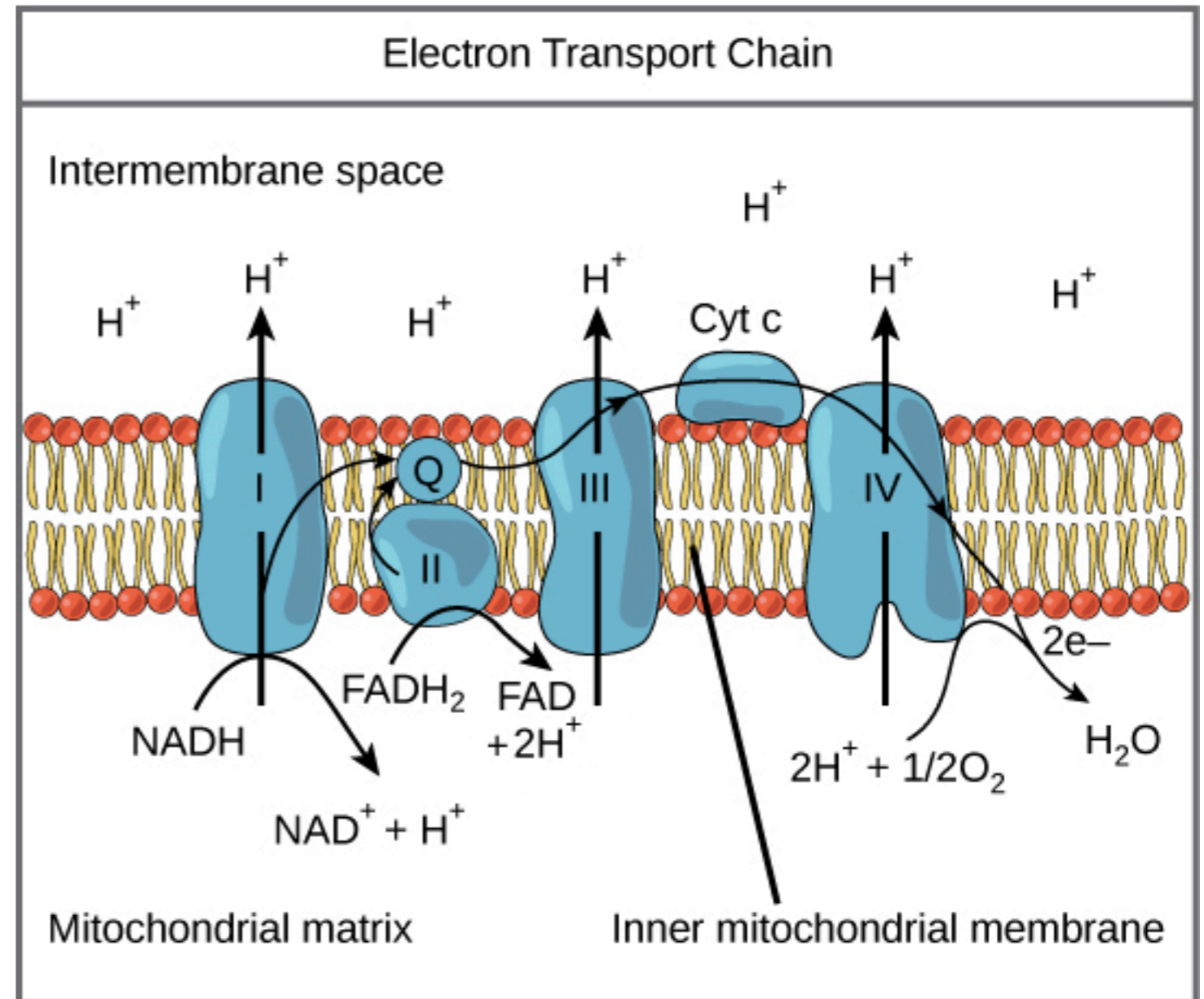
FAD oxidation

CoQ oxidation

Proton pumping

Cytochrome composition

Oxygen consumption



Assessing “mitochondrial activity” means:

Complex assembly	←	“Blue Native” gels
Complex activity	←	Enzymatic assays
NAD oxidation	←	Various methods
FAD oxidation	←	Spectrometry
CoQ oxidation	←	Mass spectroscopy
Proton pumping	←	Fluorescent probes
Cytochrome composition	←	Spectrometry
Oxygen consumption	←	Respirometry

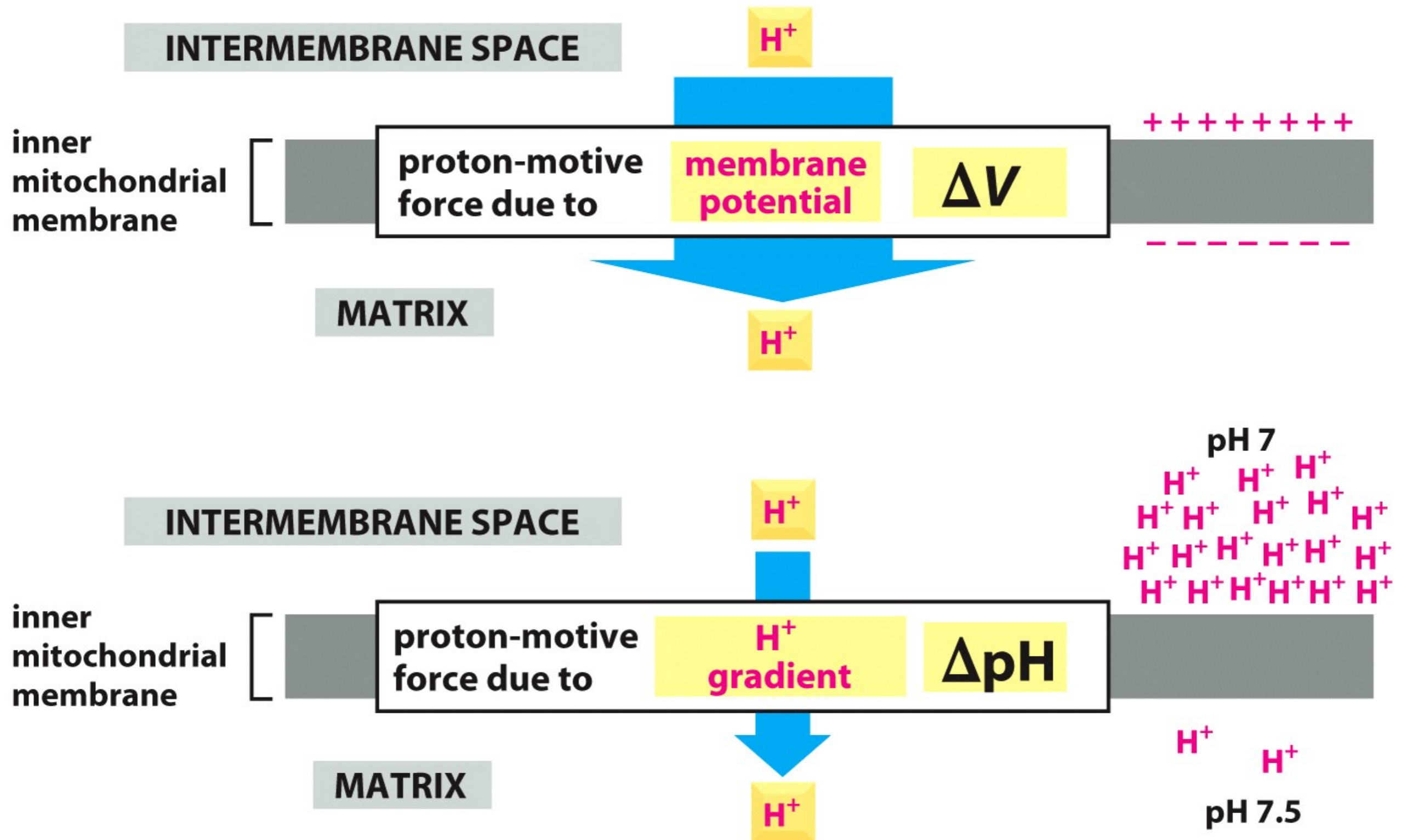
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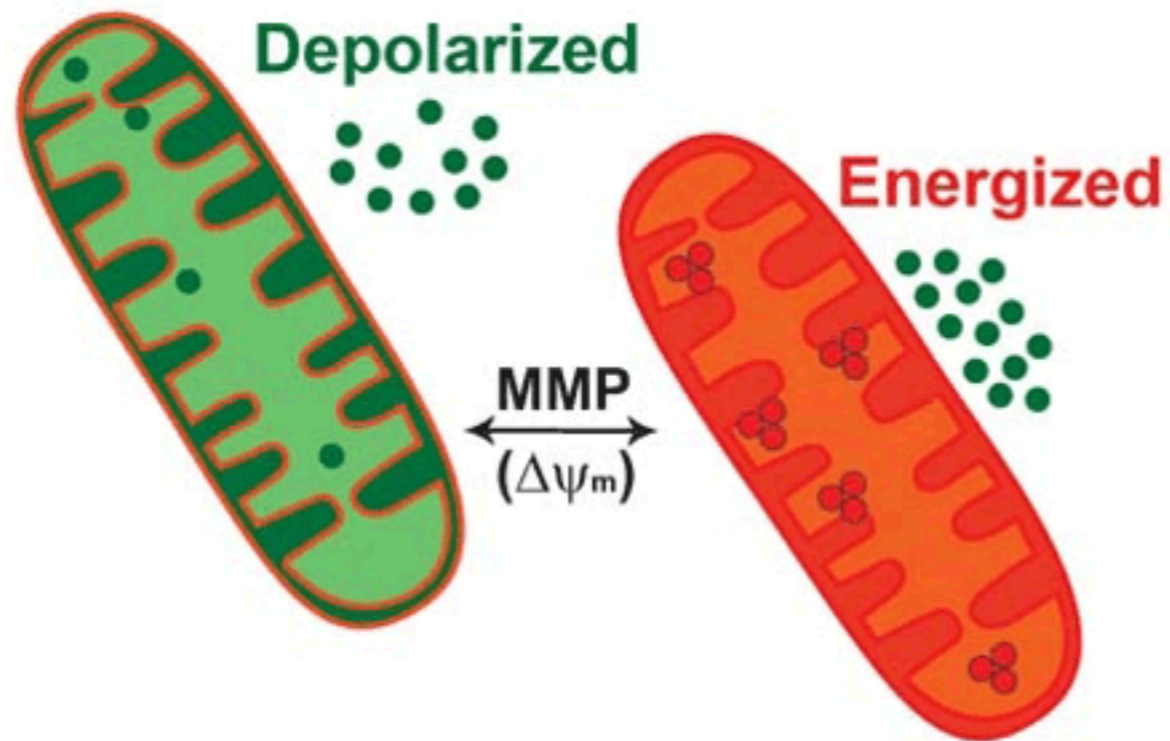
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Complex assembly	←	“Blue Native” gels
Complex activity	←	Enzymatic assays
NAD oxidation	←	Various methods
FAD oxidation	←	Spectrometry
CoQ oxidation	←	Mass spectroscopy
Proton pumping	←	Fluorescent probes
Cytochrome composition	←	Spectrometry
Oxygen consumption	←	Respirometry

Membrane potential is a proxy for proton pumping



Membrane potential can be measured with fluorescent probes



Probes:

TMRE

TMRM

Rhodamine123

JC-1 (not ratiometric)

DiOC (toxic!!)

Probes must be:

- Targeted onto mitochondria (exploiting MMP)
- Fluorescent
- Change status according to acidity/membrane polarization

Readout:

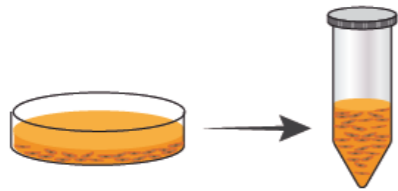
- Flow cytometry
- Plate reader
- Imaging

Membrane potential can be measured with fluorescent probes

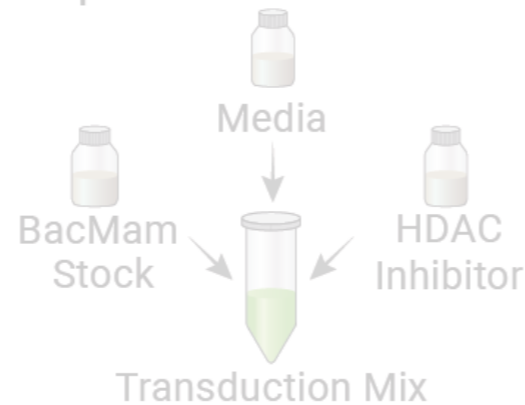
Imaging / Plate reader

Day 1: Transduce and Plate Cells

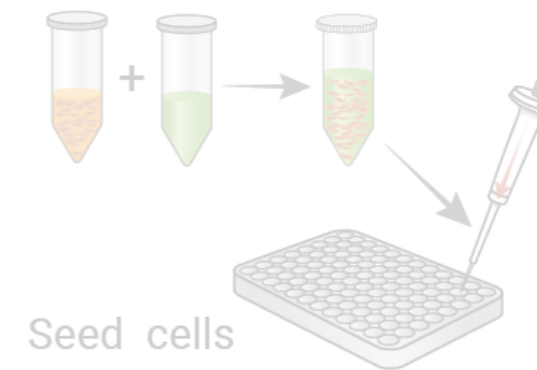
Step 1 Prepare Cells



Step 2 Prepare Transduction Reaction

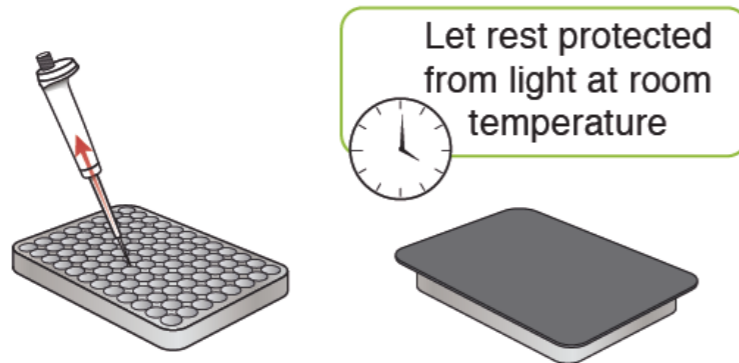


Step 3 Mix Cells & Transduction Mix



Day 2: Live Cell Assay

Step 4 Add TMRE/TMRM



Step 5 Measure Fluorescence



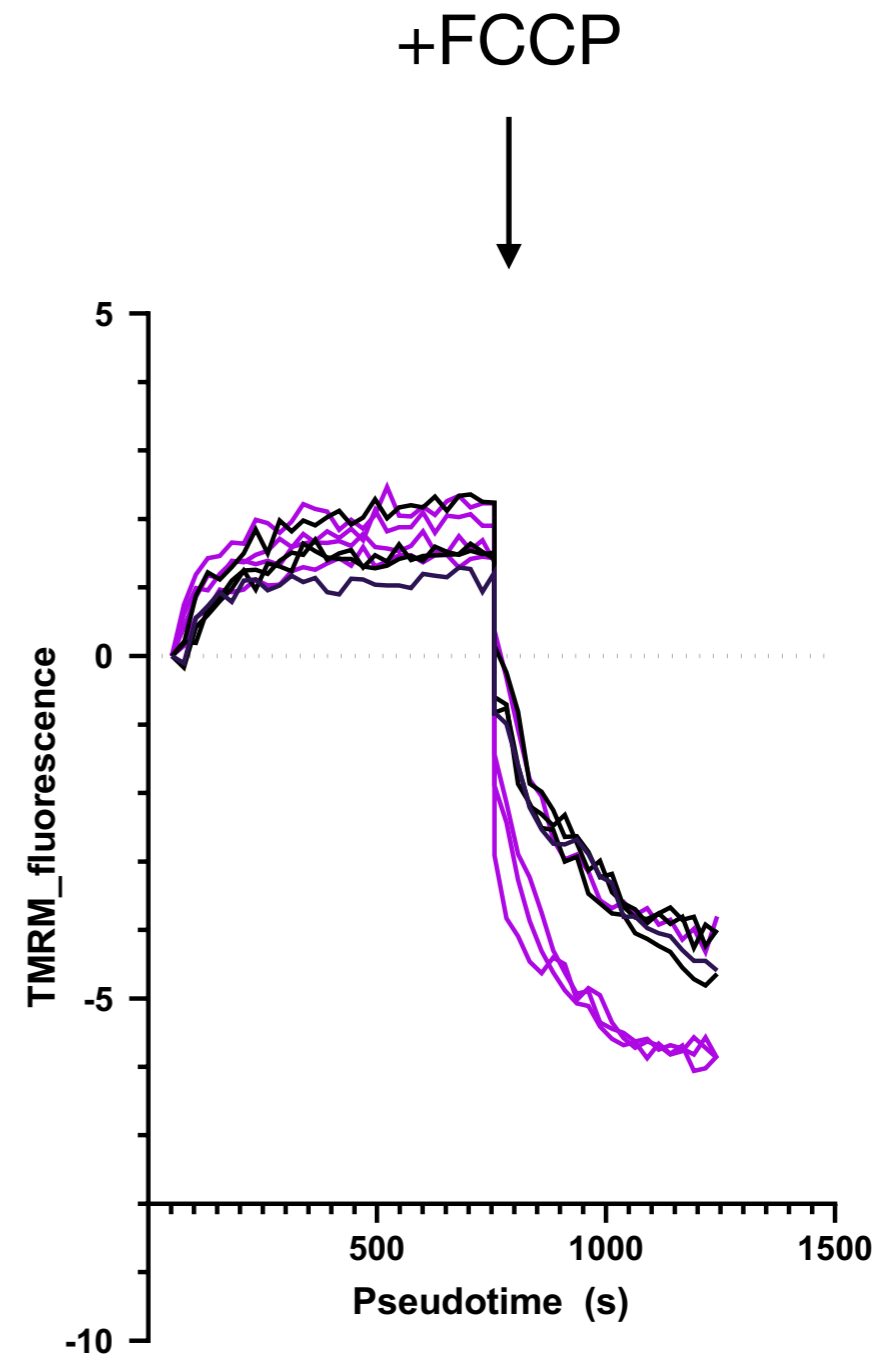
Membrane potential can be measured with fluorescent probes

Imaging:

Distinguish single cells

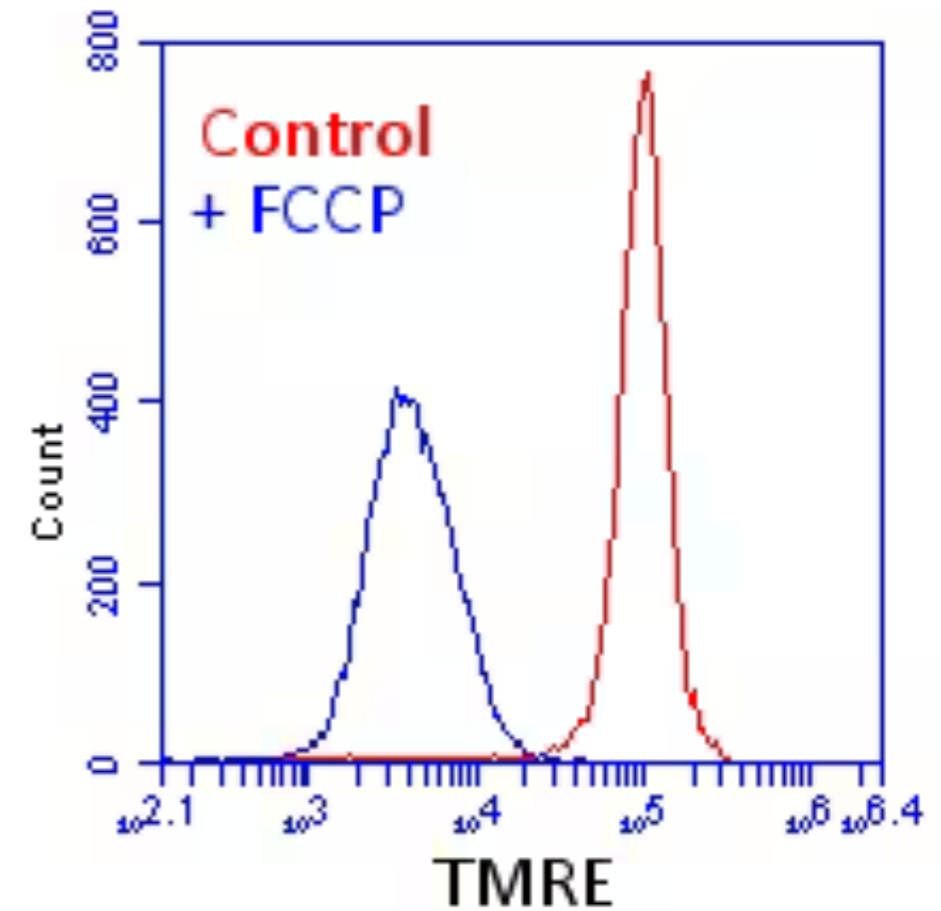
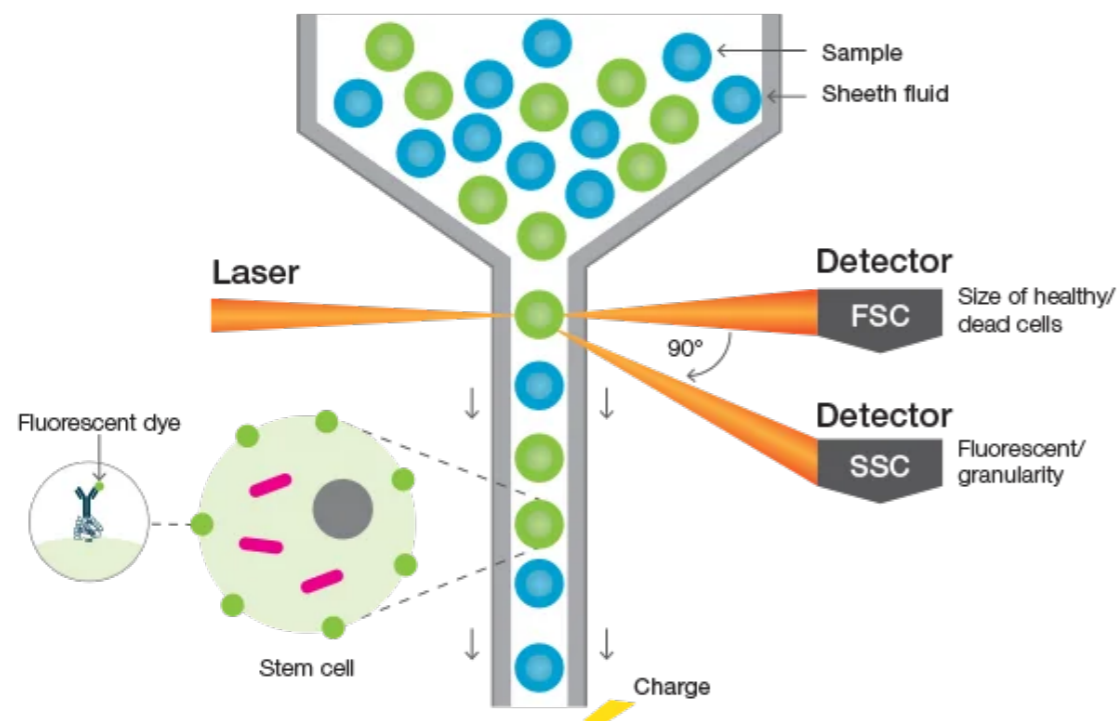
Plate reader:

Quick!!



Membrane potential can be measured with fluorescent probes

Flow cytometry



Assessing “mitochondrial activity” means:

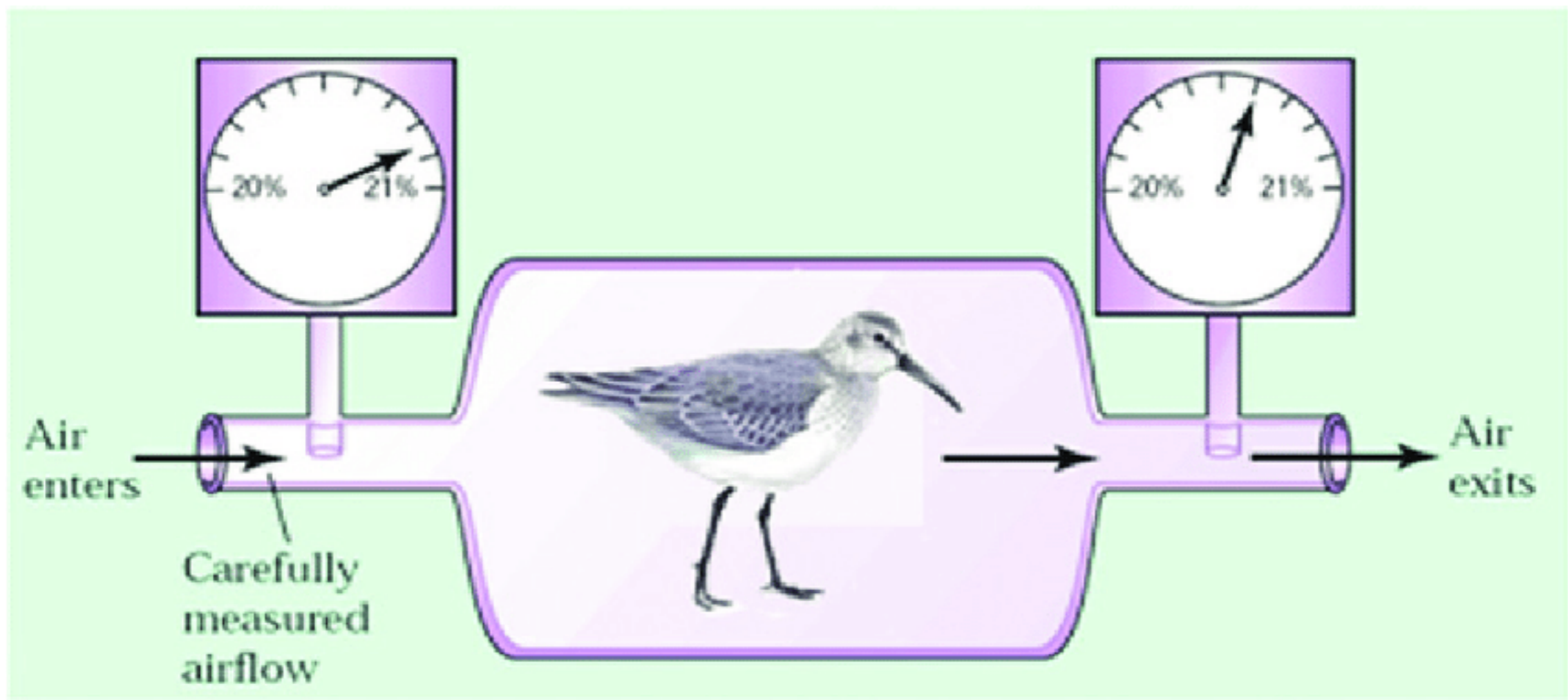
Complex assembly	←	“Blue Native” gels
Complex activity	←	Enzymatic assays
NAD oxidation	←	Various methods
FAD oxidation	←	Spectrometry
CoQ oxidation	←	Mass spectroscopy
Proton pumping	←	Fluorescent probes
Cytochrome composition	←	Spectrometry
Oxygen consumption	←	Respirometry

Assessing “mitochondrial activity” means:

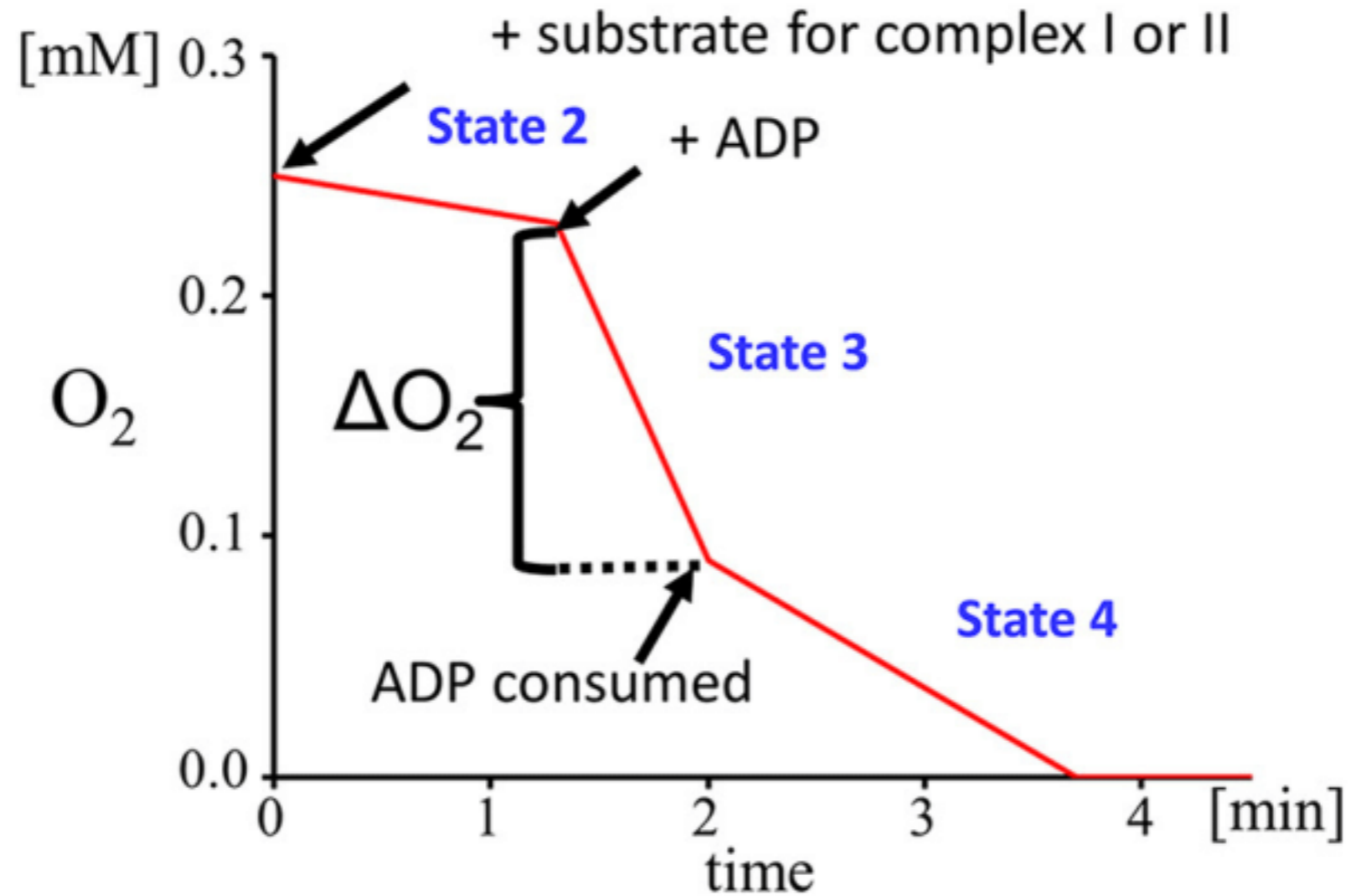
Complex assembly	←	“Blue Native” gels
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Cytochrome composition	←	Spectrometry
Oxygen consumption	←	Respirometry

The Clark electrode





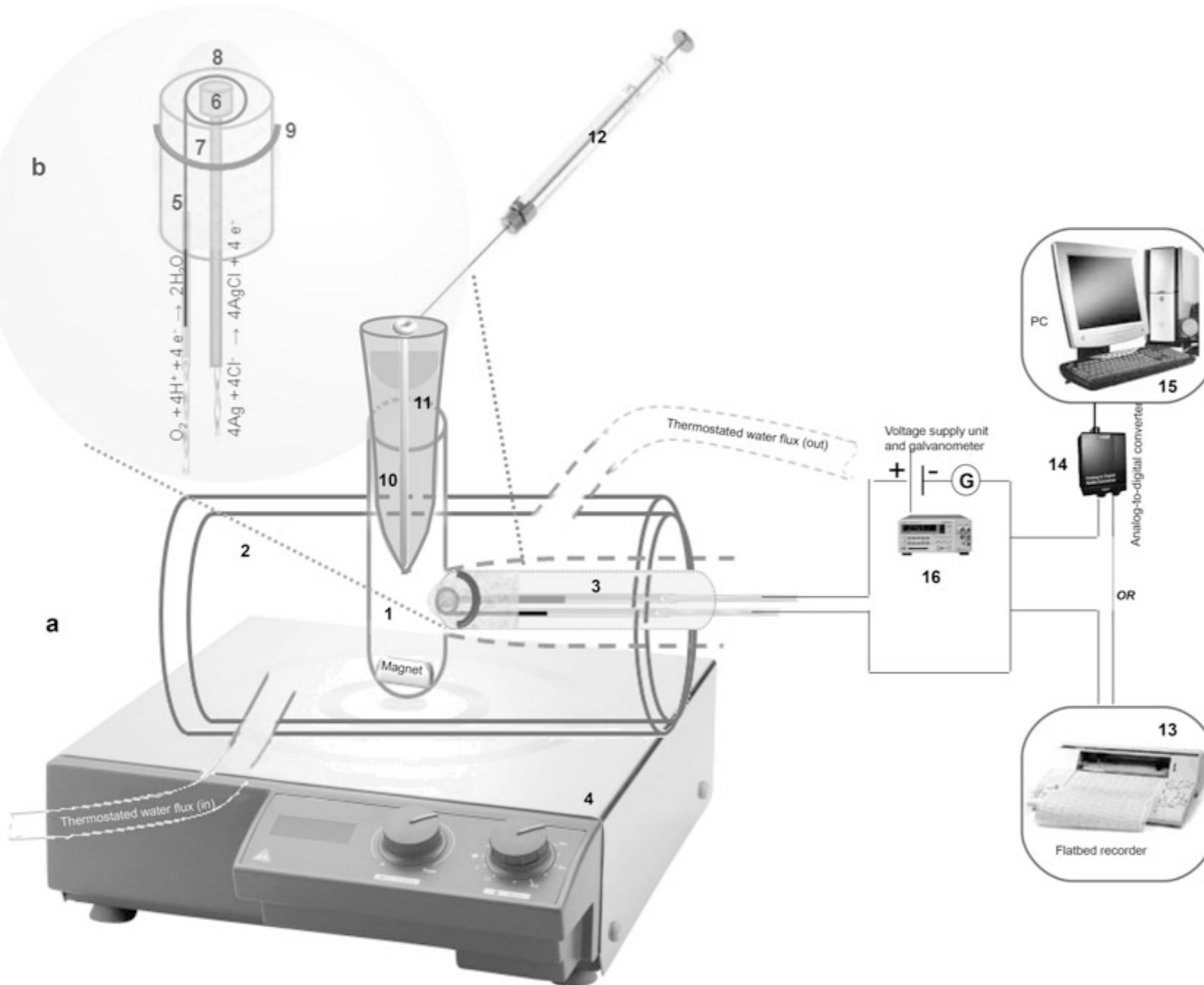
The Clark electrode



The slopes of different mitochondrial states can be used to infer Complex activity and NAD/FAD oxidation

The Clark electrode

General representation of the Clark-type electrode and experimental setup.



(a) The biological preparations (mitochondrial or cell suspensions) are introduced in a well-defined volume of media (1) with an oxygen electrode inserted (3) and magnetic stirrer coupled (4). The electrode determines O₂ concentration in aqueous solutions over a period of time.

(b) Oxygen electrode inset. The electrode itself is located inside the chamber. The platinum cathode (5) is located surrounding a rod-like center anode (6) made by silver (reference Ag/AgCl electrode).

The O₂ recordings can be done in open or closed chamber mode. In the last case, the reciprocal air solution O₂ diffusion is avoided, which allows for better determination of the respiratory rates. Experimental additions of solutions, substrates, mitochondria, and substrates/inhibitors are done through the top of the chamber (10) (open mode) or through the small hole (11) inside the stopper, respectively, using a glass syringe (12).

OROBOROS

Oroboros O2k

Titration-Injection microPump
TIP2k



Respirometry

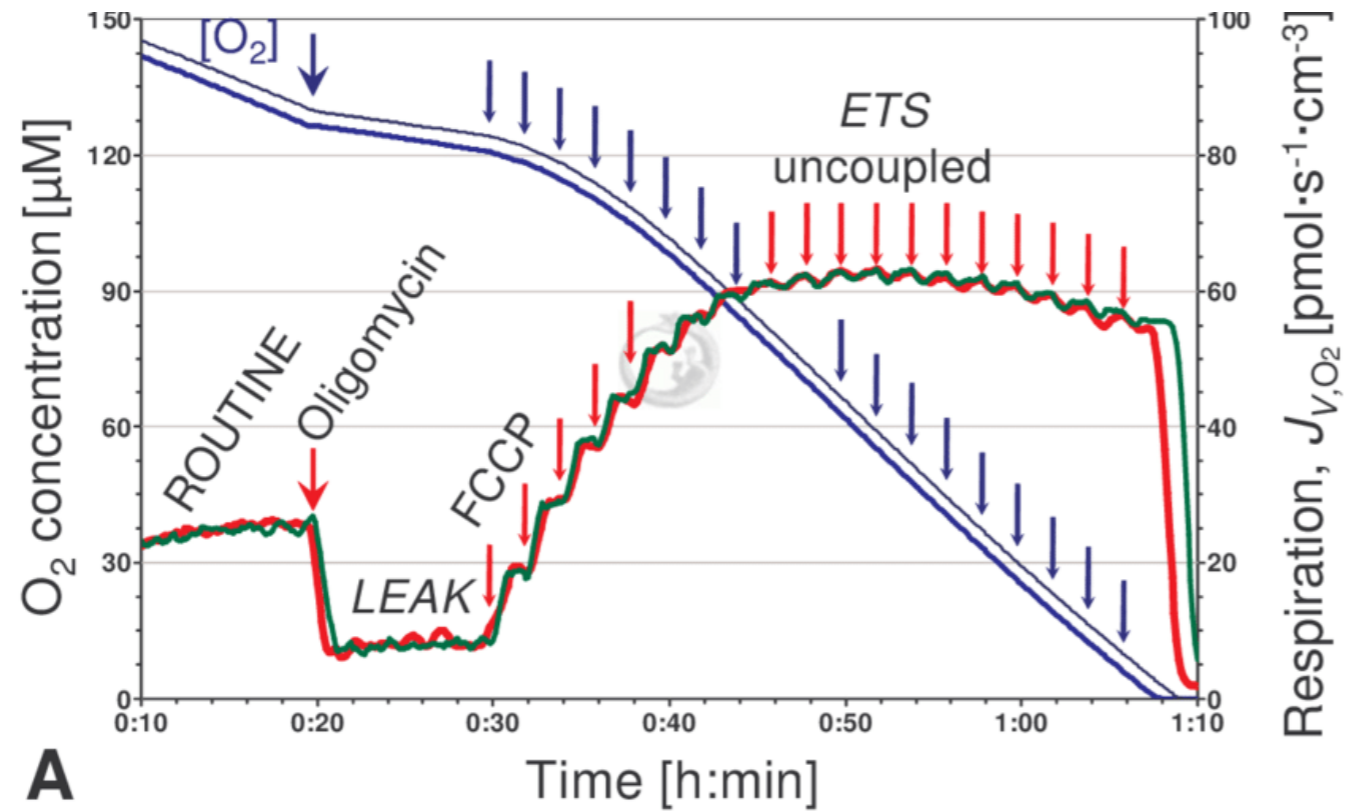
Respirometry reflects the function of mitochondria as structurally intact organelles. It provides a dynamic measurement of metabolic flux (rates), in contrast to static determination (states) of molecular components, such as metabolite and enzyme levels

Mitochondrial respiratory function cannot be measured on frozen tissue samples but usually requires minimum storage times of biological samples and delicate handling procedures to preserve structure and function or highly specific cryopreservation.

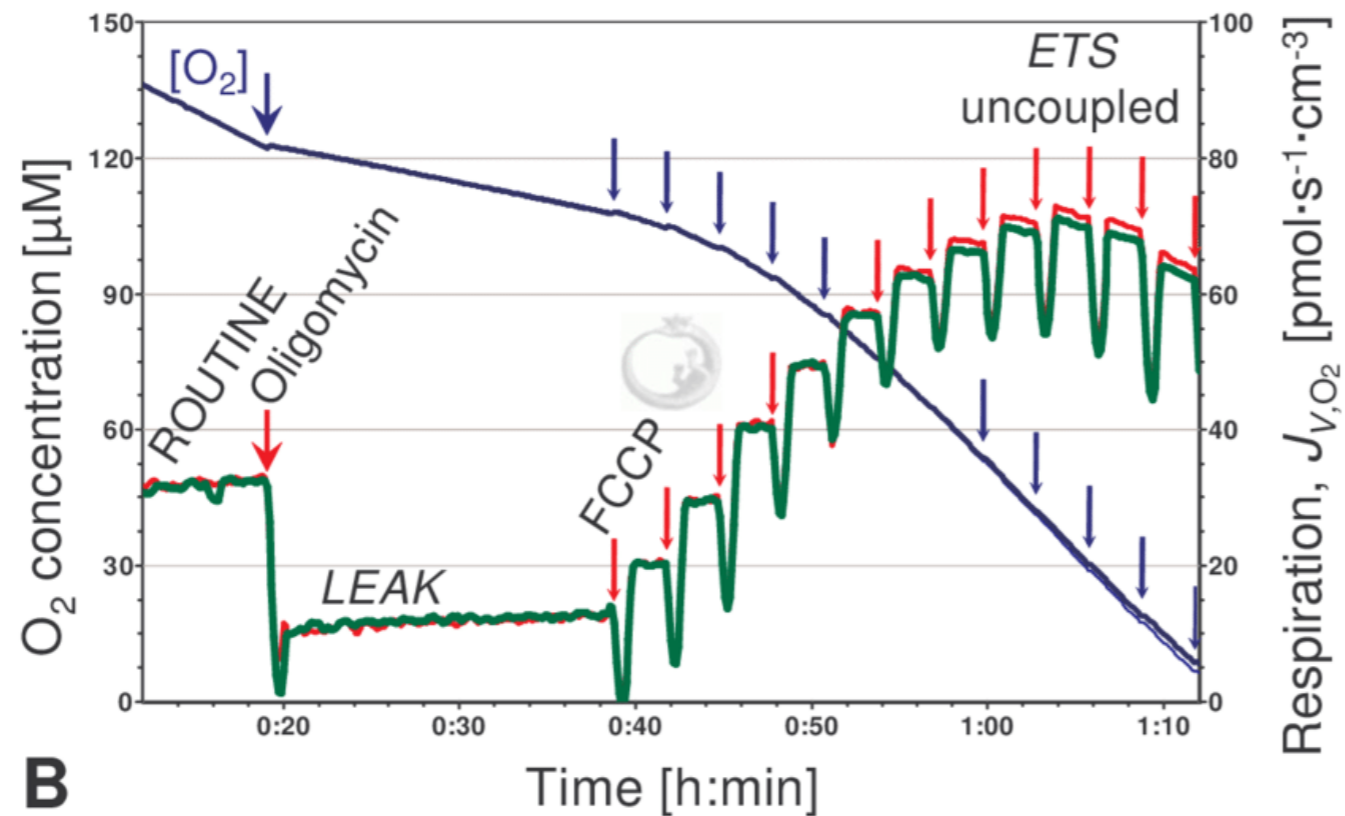
Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.

Understanding mitochondrial respiratory control, in turn, requires experimental modulation of metabolite levels, electrochemical potentials, and enzyme activities.

Respirometry



A

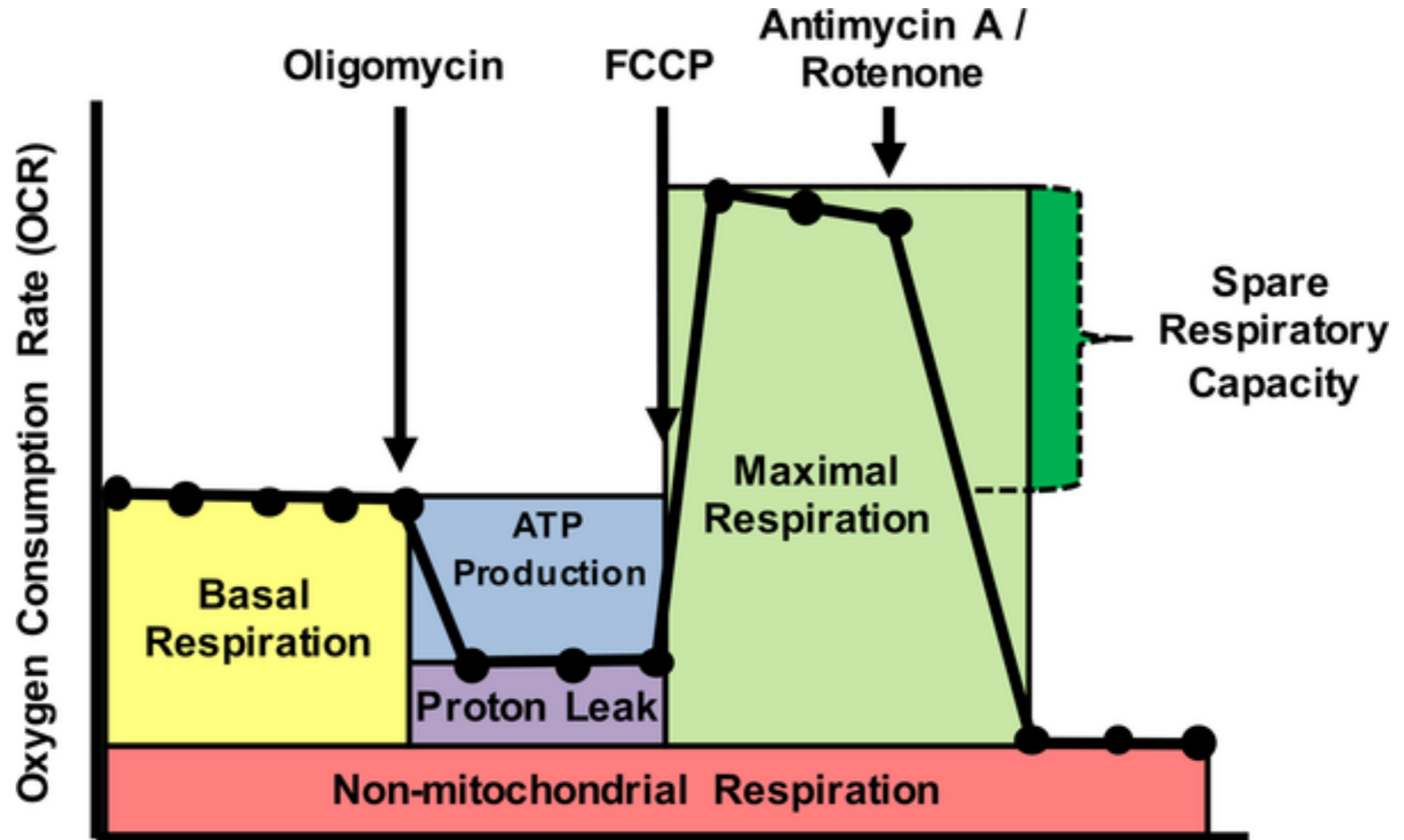


B

Oxygen consumption rate is an integration of oxygen levels over a certain period of time

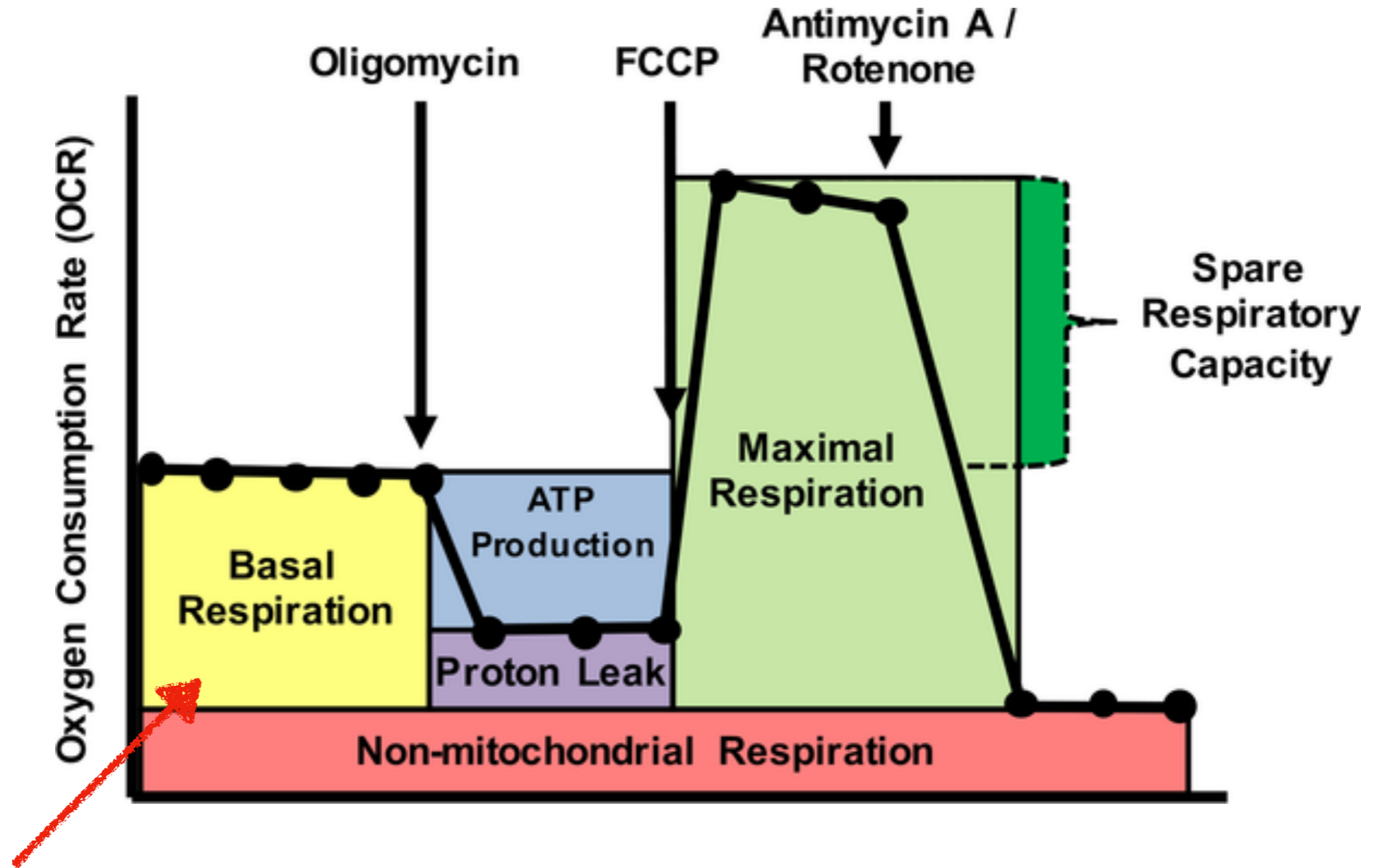
Respirometry: stress test

Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.



Respirometry: stress test

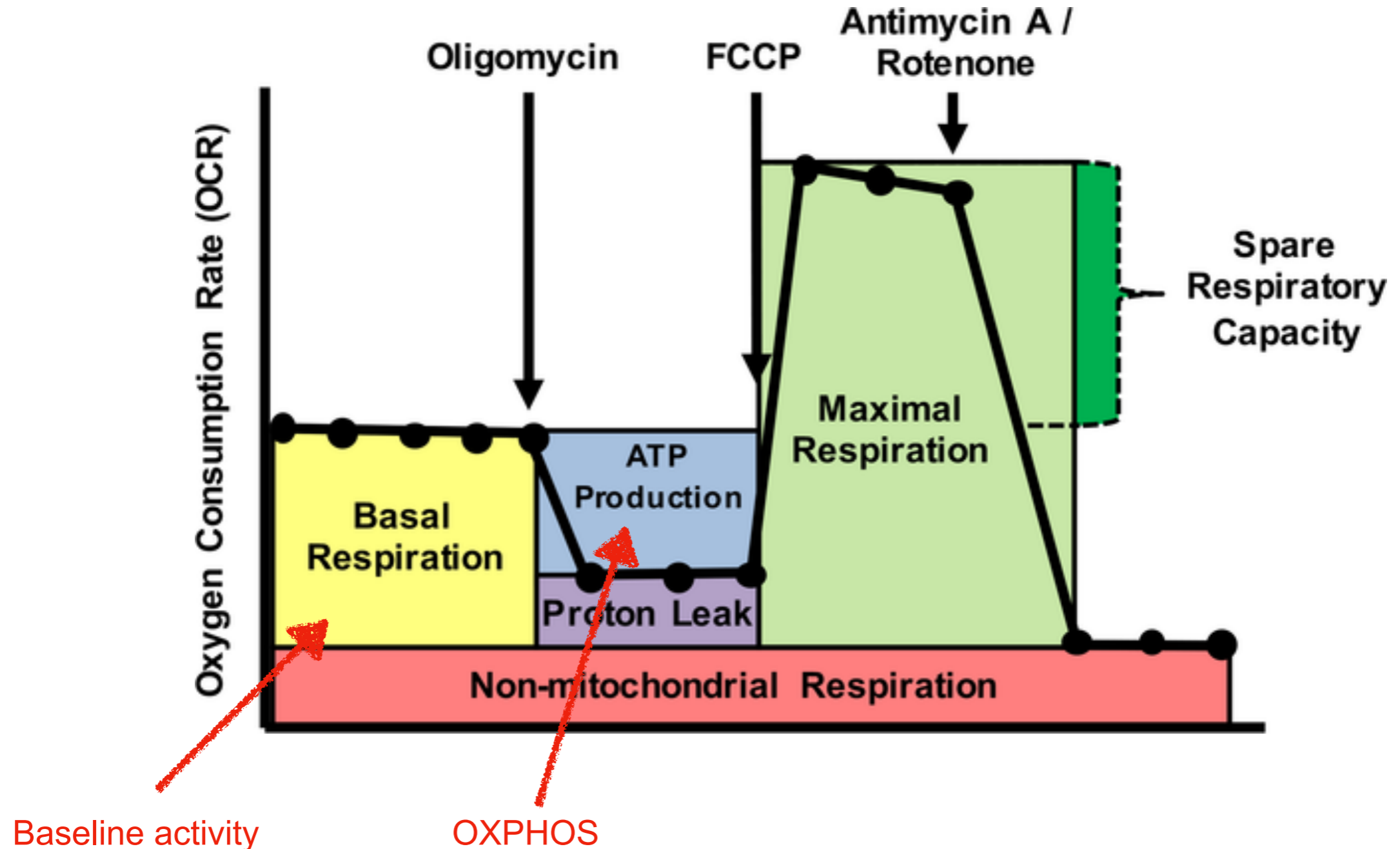
Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.



Baseline activity

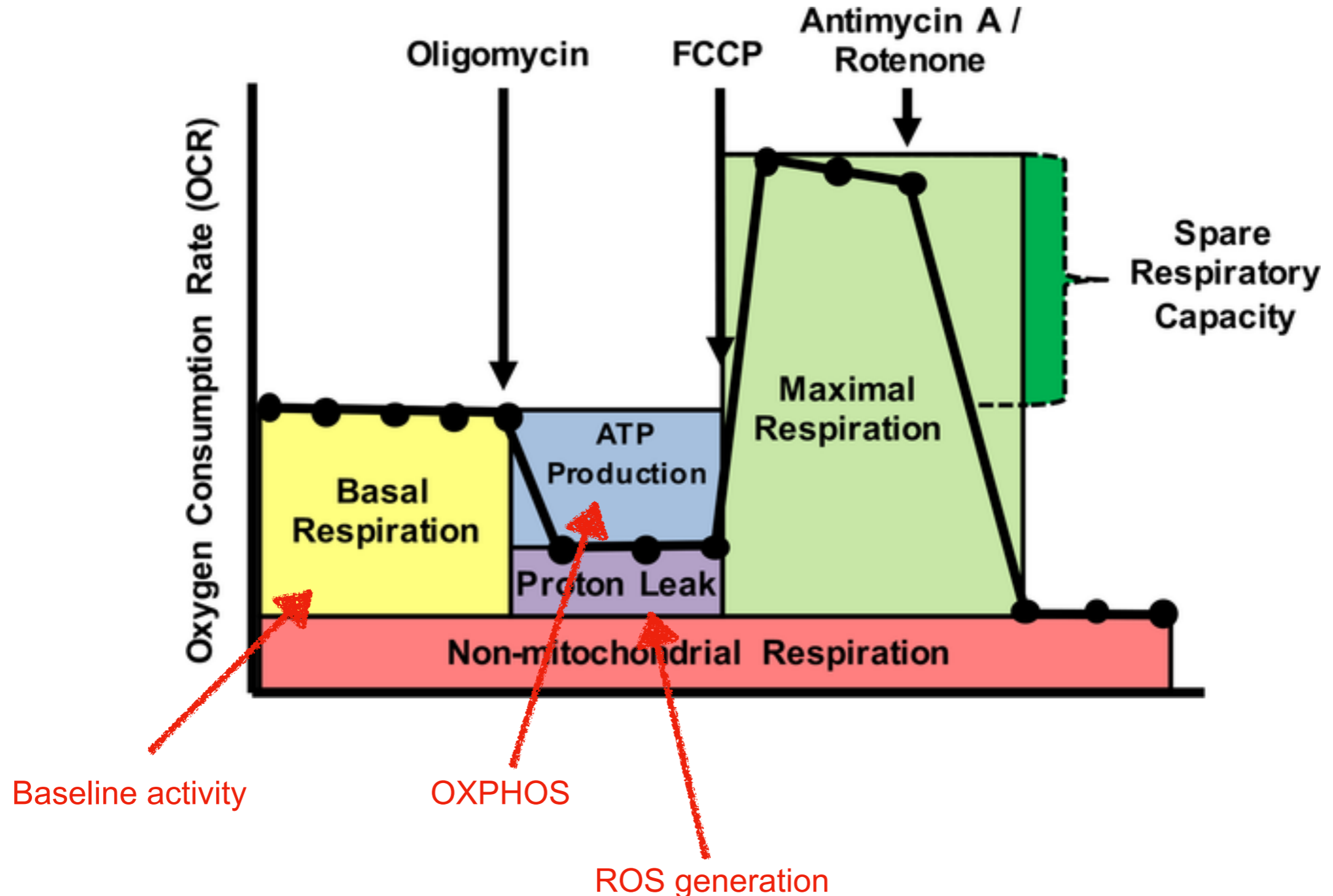
Respirometry: stress test

Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.



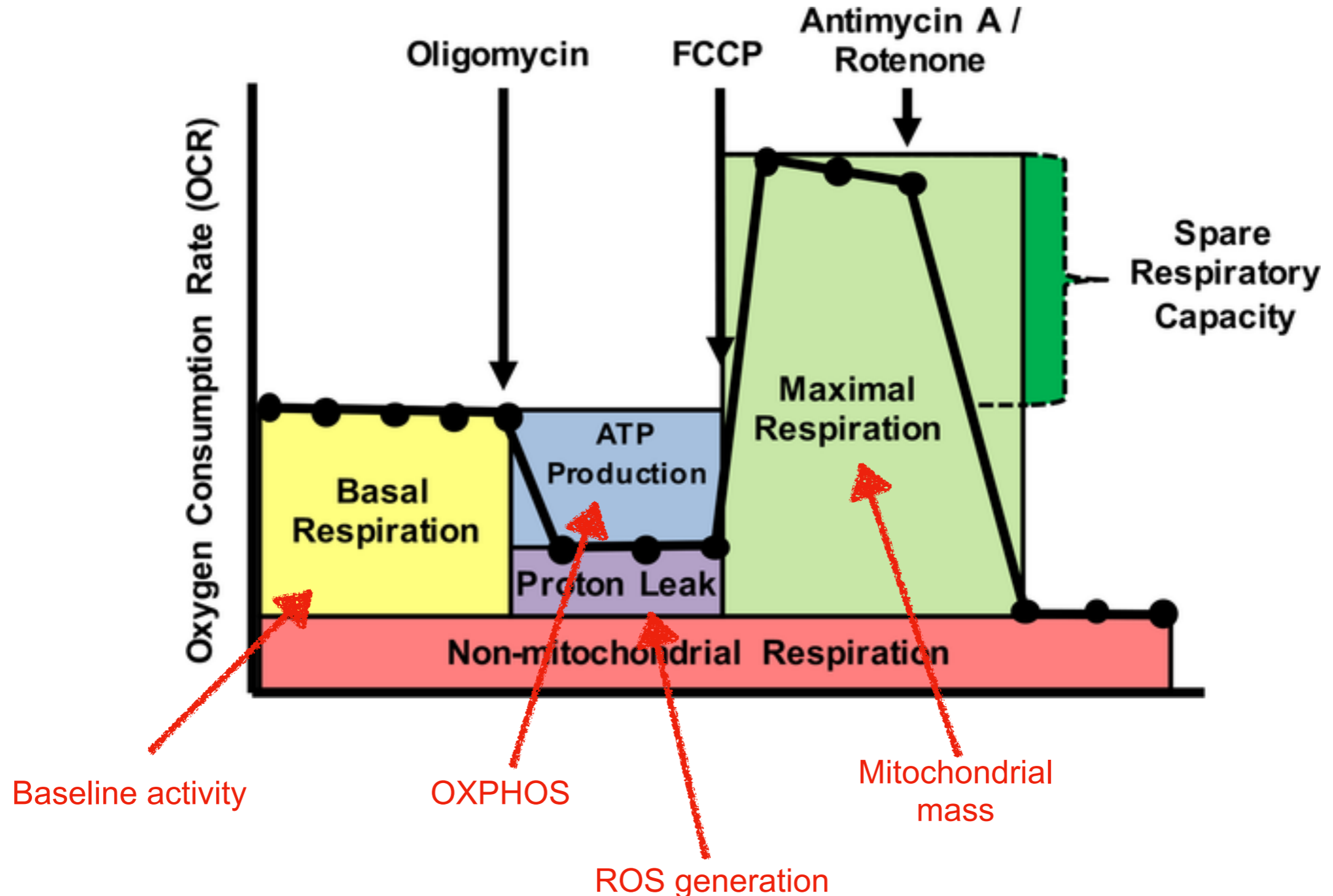
Respirometry: stress test

Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.



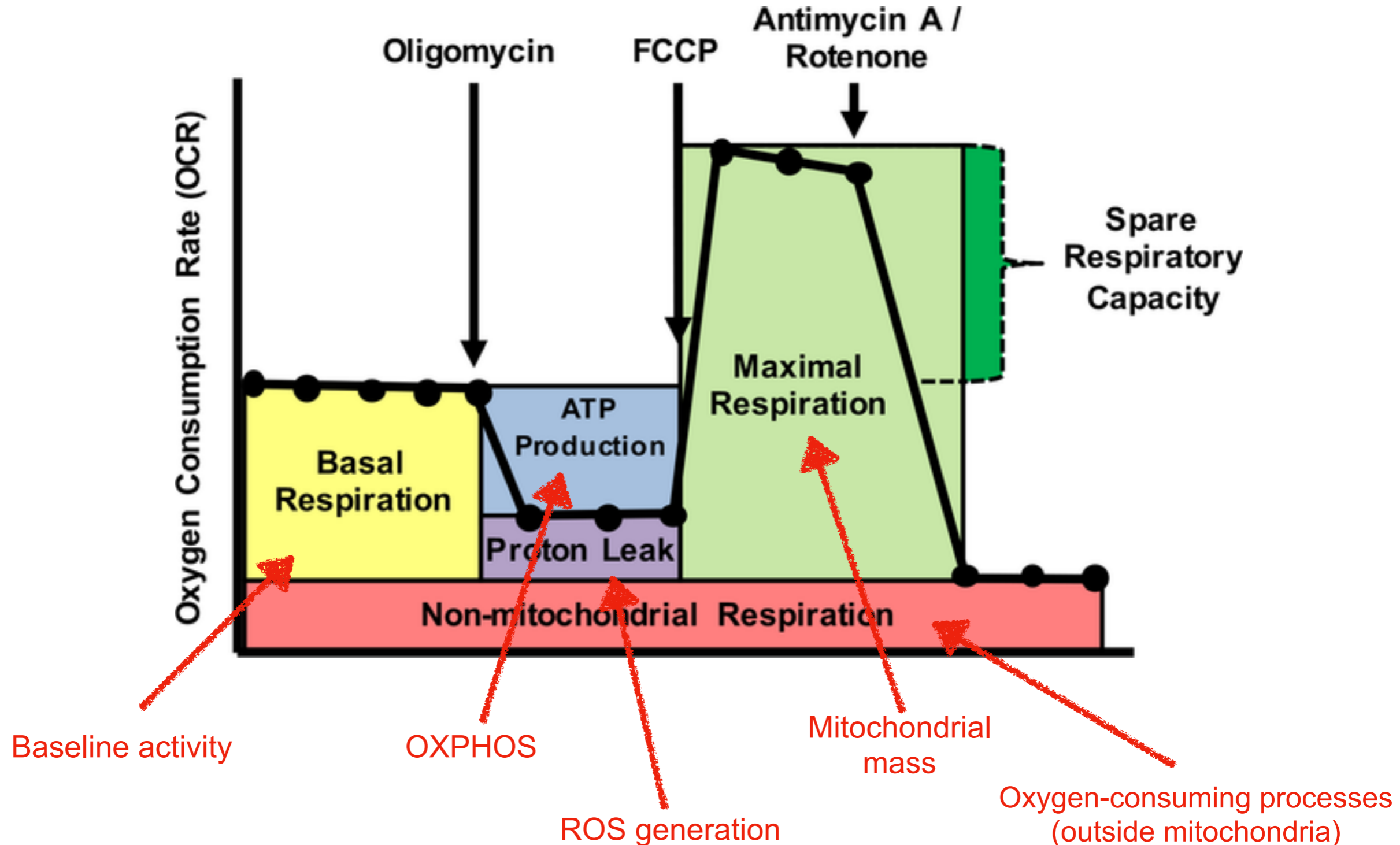
Respirometry: stress test

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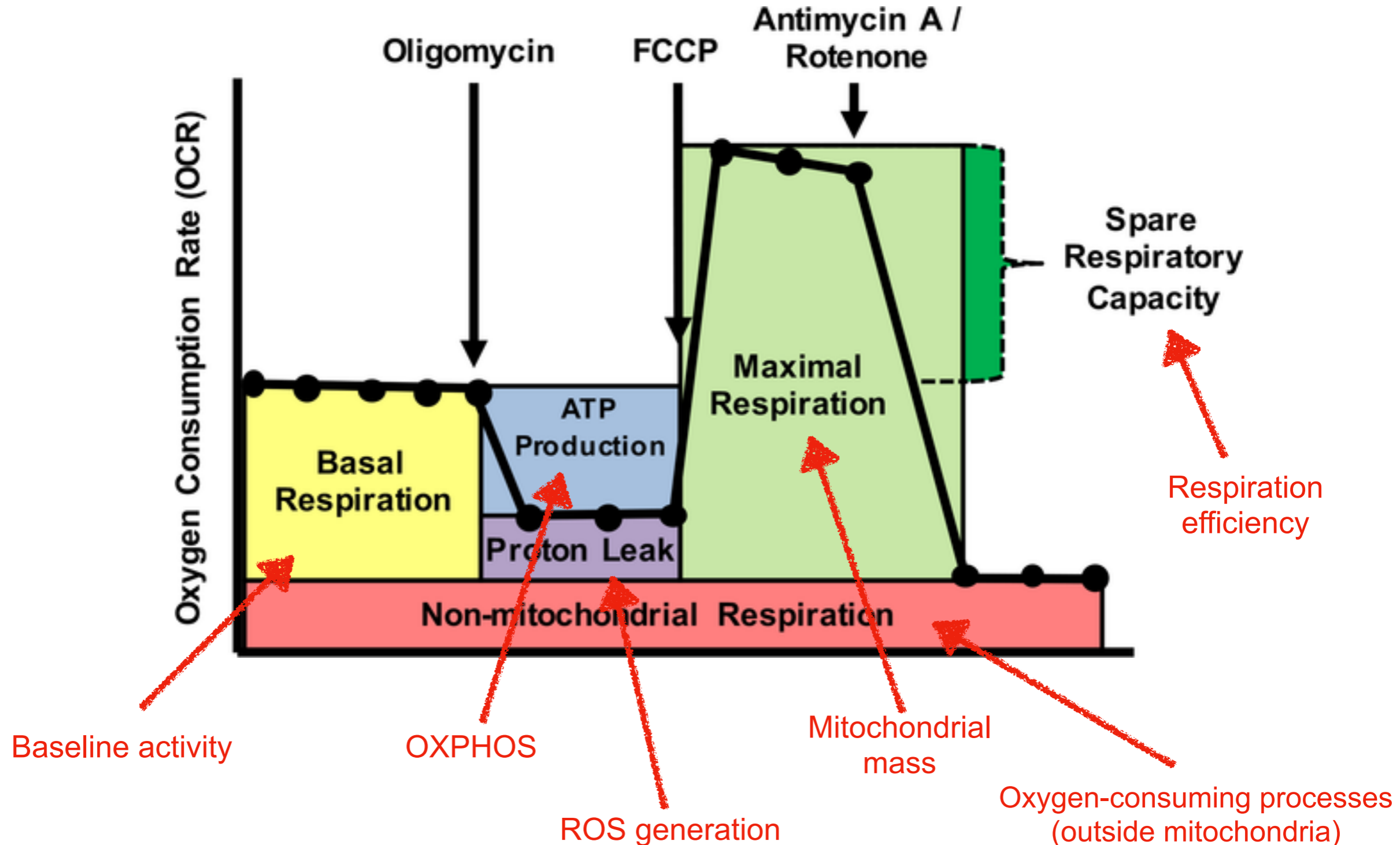
Respirometry: stress test

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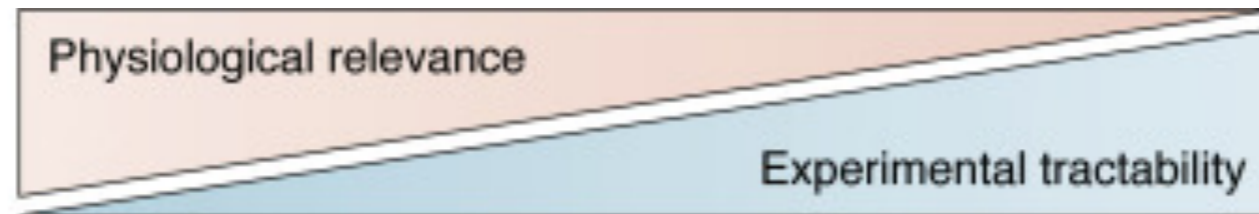


Respirometry: stress test

Mitochondrial respiration yields an integrative measure of the dynamics of complex coupled metabolic pathways, in contrast to monitoring activities of isolated enzymes.



Respirometry (issues)



Intact cells

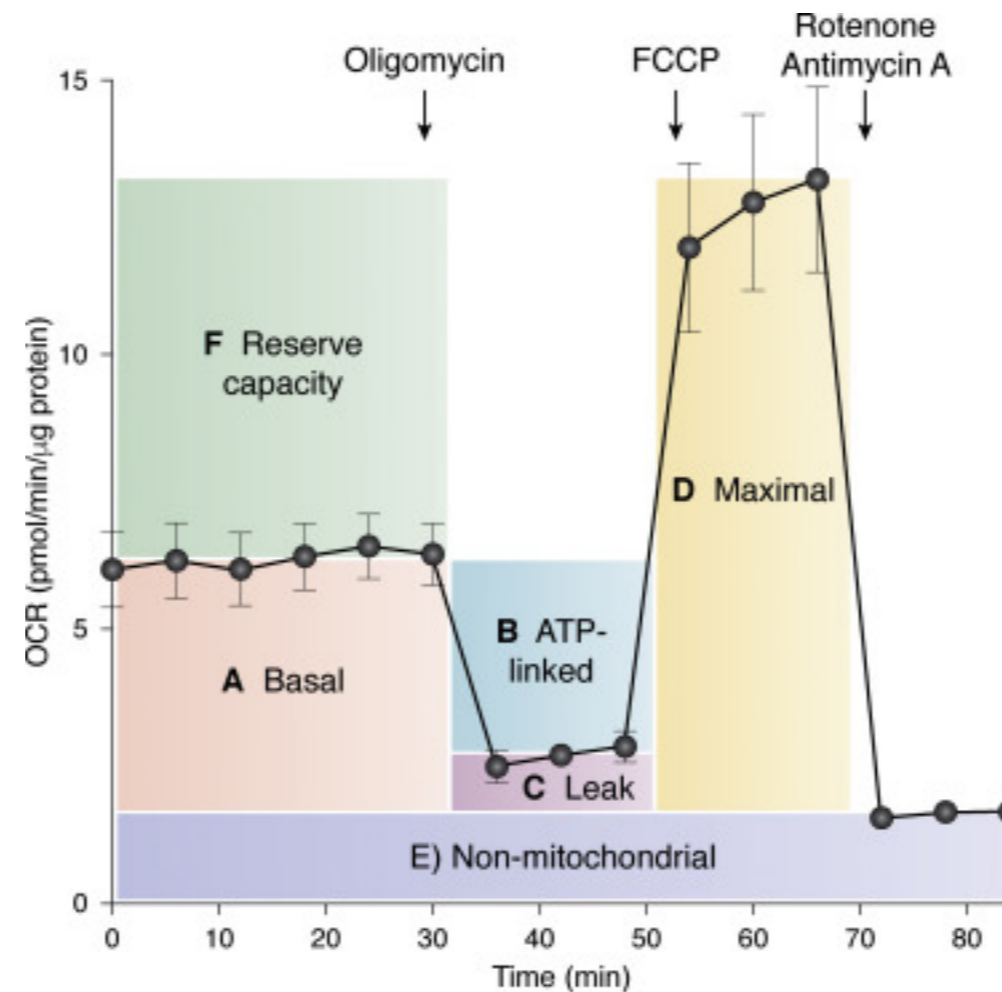


Permeabilized cells



Isolated mitochondria

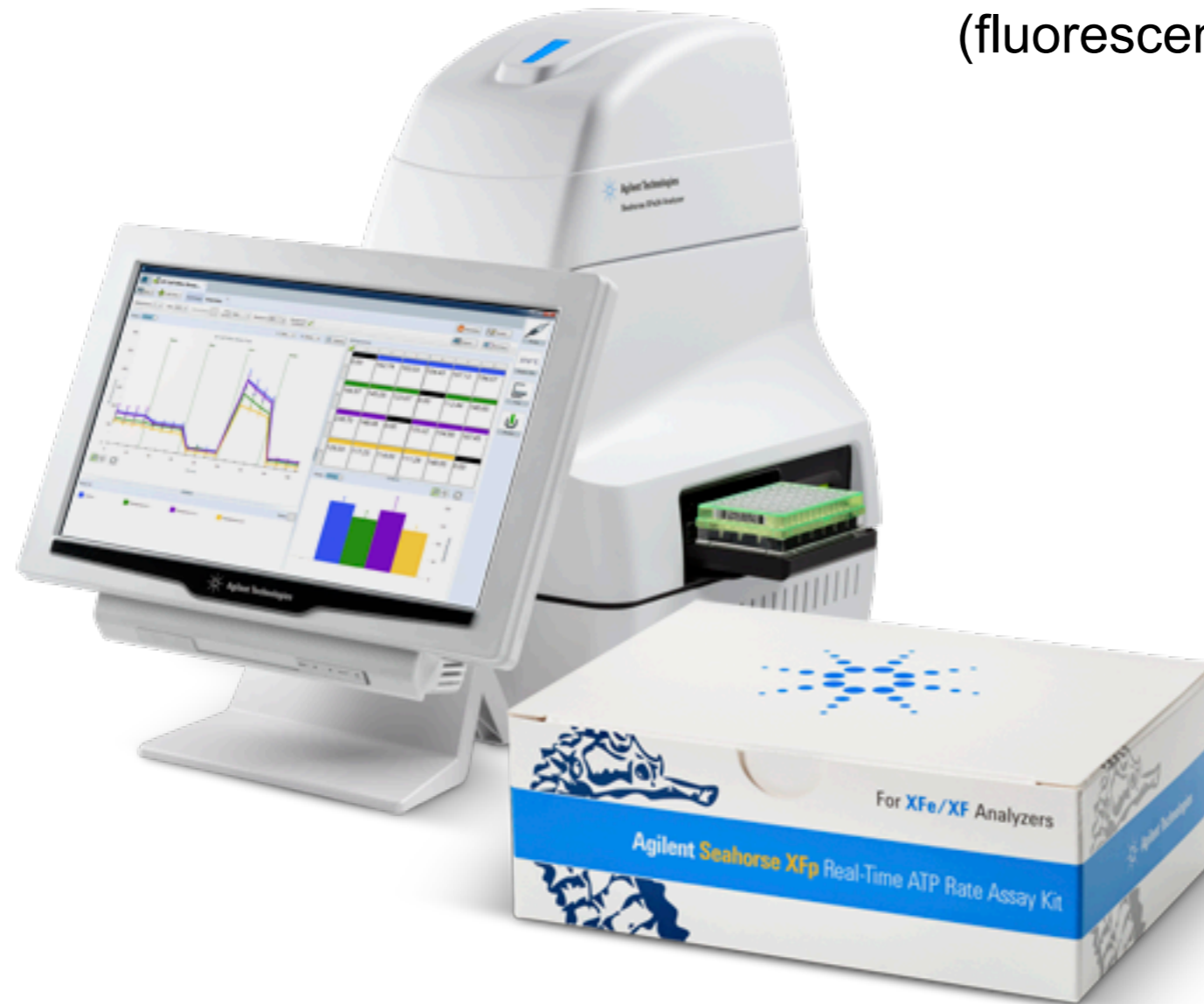
Respirometry (issues)



- A** Ambiguous; mixed patterns of substrate oxidation
- B** Ambiguous; subject to complex caveats
- C** Ambiguous; lacks information about non-oxphos-linked respiration
- D** Non-physiological; may interfere with transport processes
- E** Ambiguous; may change as a result of conditions
- F** Non-physiological; likely limited to very specific cell/tissue types

Respirometry: SeaHorse®

Based on different technology
(fluorescence analyzers)



PRO: easy to use

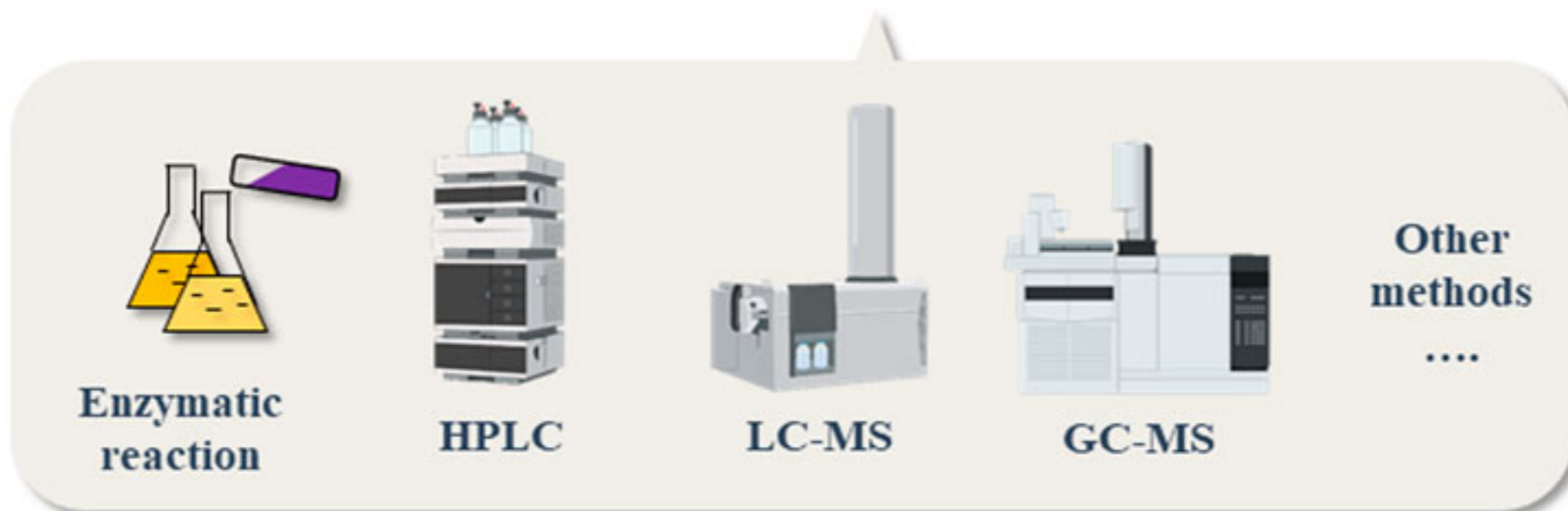
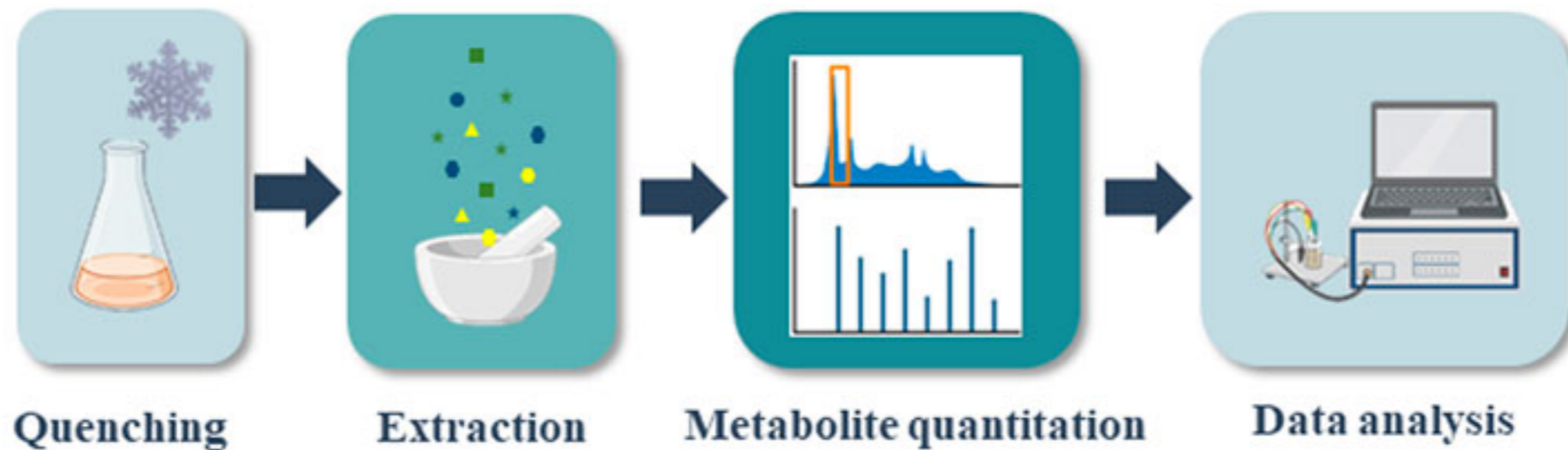
Oxygen consumption + extracellular acidification rate (EACR)

CON: not a direct measure

Works best on intact cells

Measure metabolites and macromolecules

Quantitative measures rely on biochemical analytical approaches:

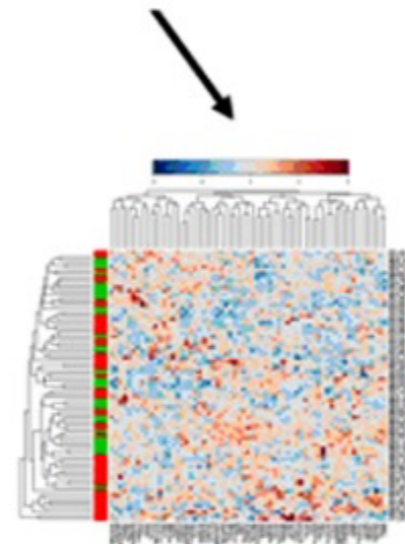
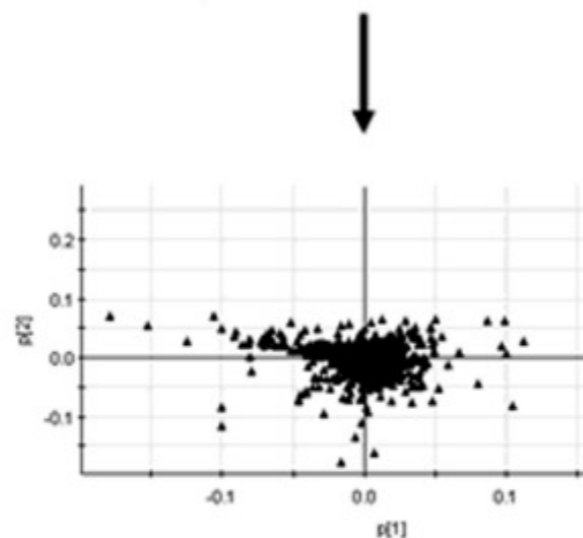
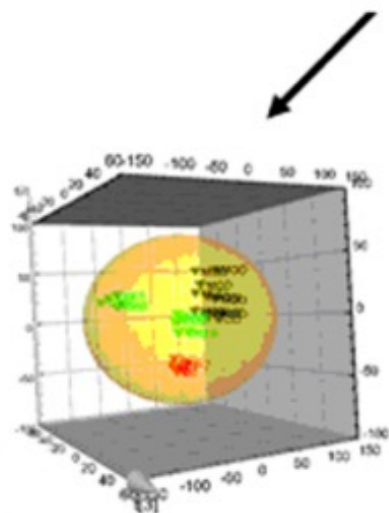
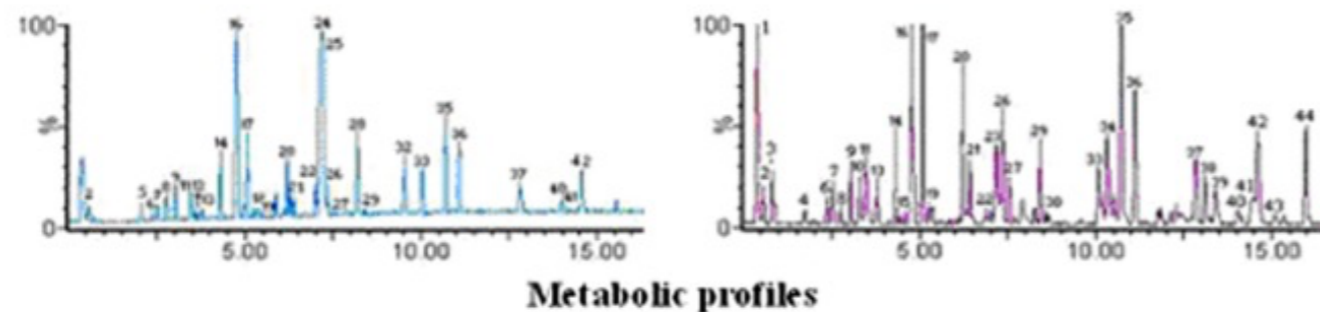


Spectrometry (NMR or MS)

Analytical approaches that resolve a mixture of components into spectra defined by multiple peaks (where each peak correspond to a different molecule).

These peaks are separated according to different physical properties (mass, charge, solubility, etc).

You obtain a “fingerprint” that is a snapshot of cell metabolism at a given time.



Common types of analysis include those that quantify principal components, associate hierarchical clusters, create partial least squares, discriminant function, or even form artificial neural networks. Collectively, this analysis helps identify and discriminate the function of the metabolites in the sample, where databases can secondarily be used to validate specific pathway activity.

Spectrometry (NMR or MS)

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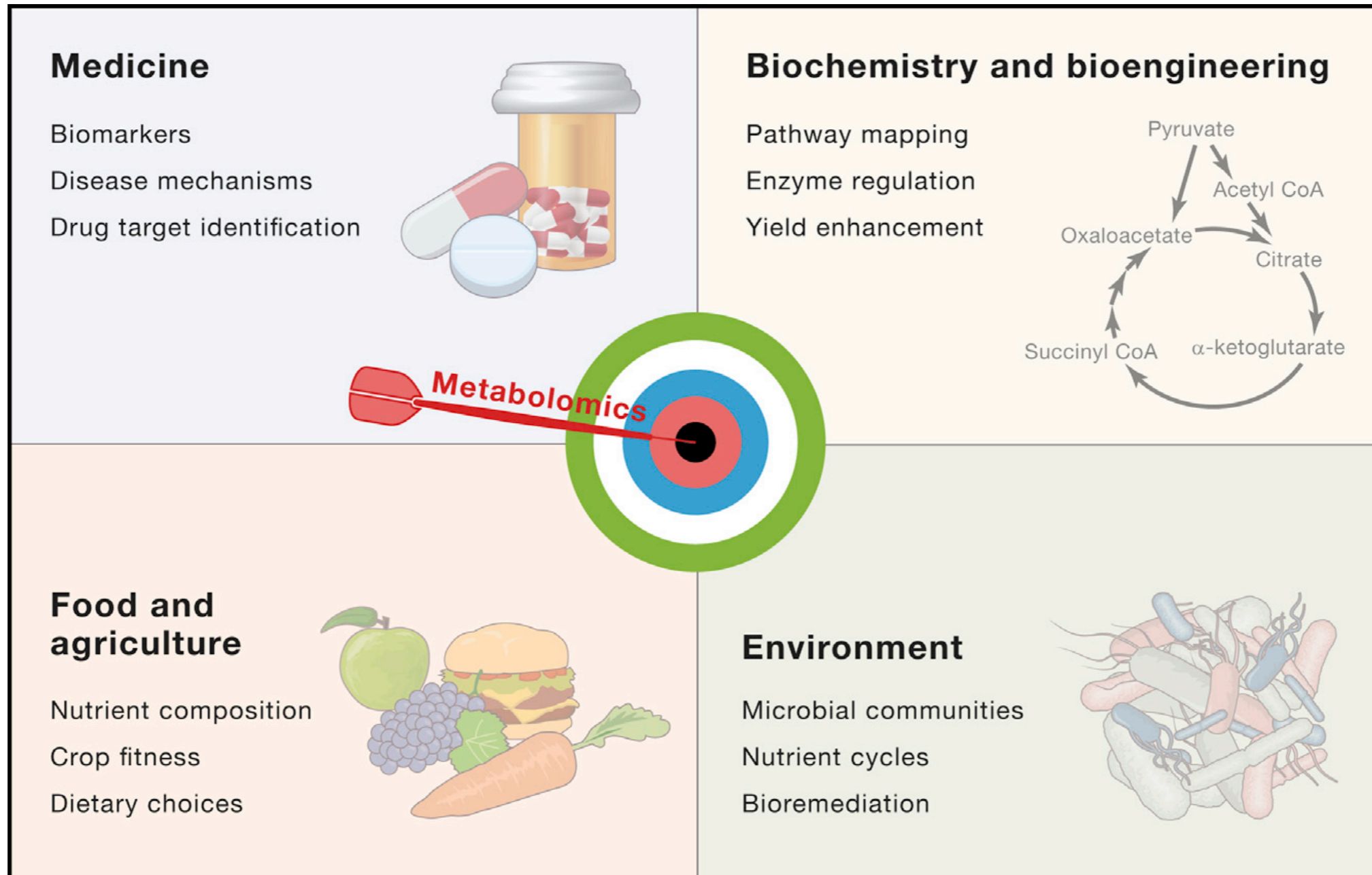
Pros:

- Sensible
- Robust
- Large-scale approach (METABOLOMICS)

Cons:

- Difficult (requires extensive training)

Metabolomics



Metabolism plays a central role in all areas of biology, from ecology to bioengineering to cancer. Each of these areas is now being increasingly examined from a metabolic viewpoint and there is high value to taking a big-picture perspective. This is feasible due to advances in metabolite measurement technologies like NMR and mass spectrometry (Fiehn, 2002; Beckonert et al., 2007).

Metabolic flux analysis

Measurement of metabolite concentrations by metabolomics, however, tells only half the story. Equally important is understanding pathway activity, which can be quantified in terms of material flow per unit time, i.e., metabolic flux.

Concentrations and fluxes do not reliably align.

This is intuitive to drivers: although flux increases with car density until traffic slows, a high concentration of cars on the road does not reliably indicate high flux. Similarly, in metabolism, metabolite build-up can occur not only due to increased production, but also due to decreased consumption.

Metabolomics
→ measures concentration

Isotope tracing
→ probes flux



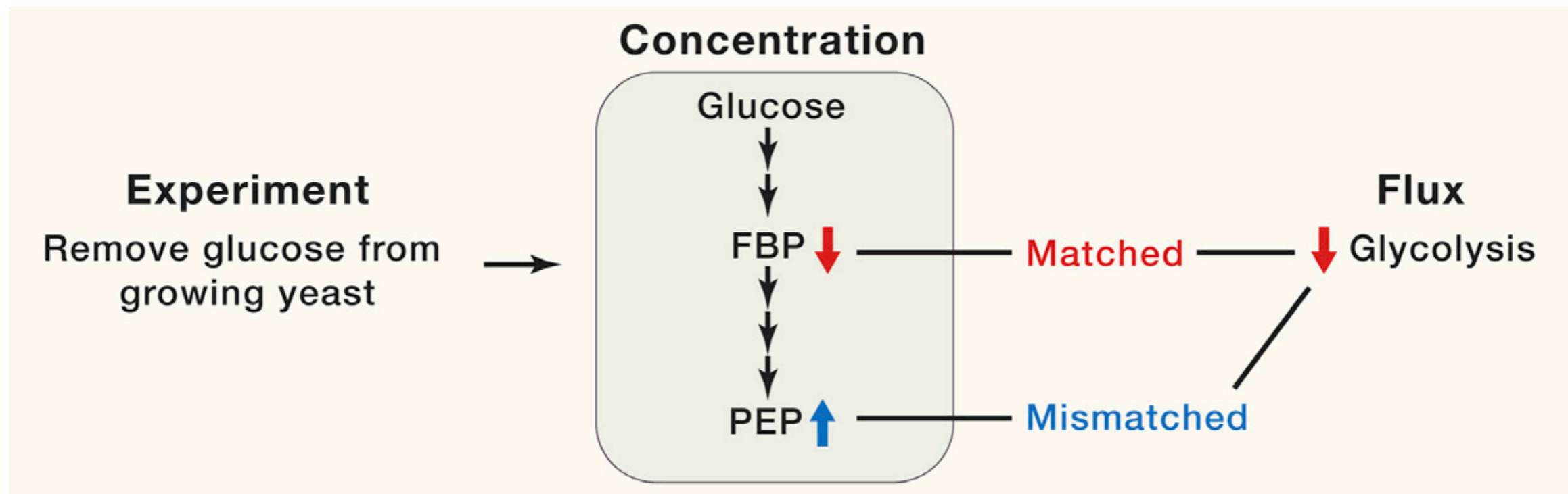
Flux increases with car density (concentration) until traffic slows



Very high car density but low flux

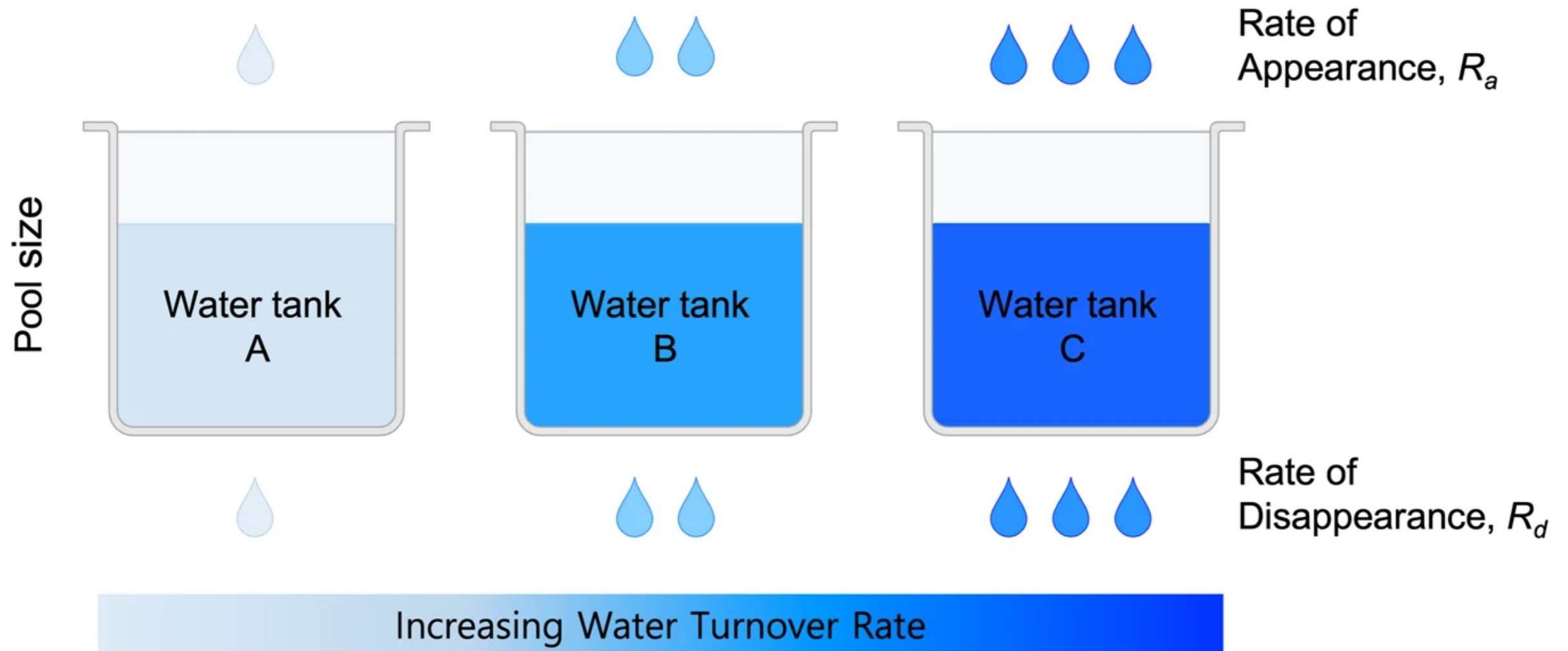
Metabolic flux analysis

For example, when glucose is removed from yeast, glycolytic efflux drops sharply, leading to build-up of lower glycolytic intermediates even though pathway influx is decreased (Lowry et al., 1971; Xu et al., 2012).



Because metabolite levels and fluxes provide complementary information, metabolic understanding is best achieved by investigating both.

Metabolic flux analysis



While the water pool size does not change if the two rates are identical, regardless of their absolute rates, differences in the water turnover rate may affect the quality of the water.

Metabolic tracing

Metabolomics measures metabolite abundances. While informative, metabolite abundances do not reveal pathway activities: metabolite levels are determined by the balance of production and consumption in a nonlinear way. Accordingly, **there is great value in probing pathway fluxes with isotope tracers.**

This can be achieved by introducing the tracer and measuring the dynamics of downstream metabolite labeling.

What is a tracer?

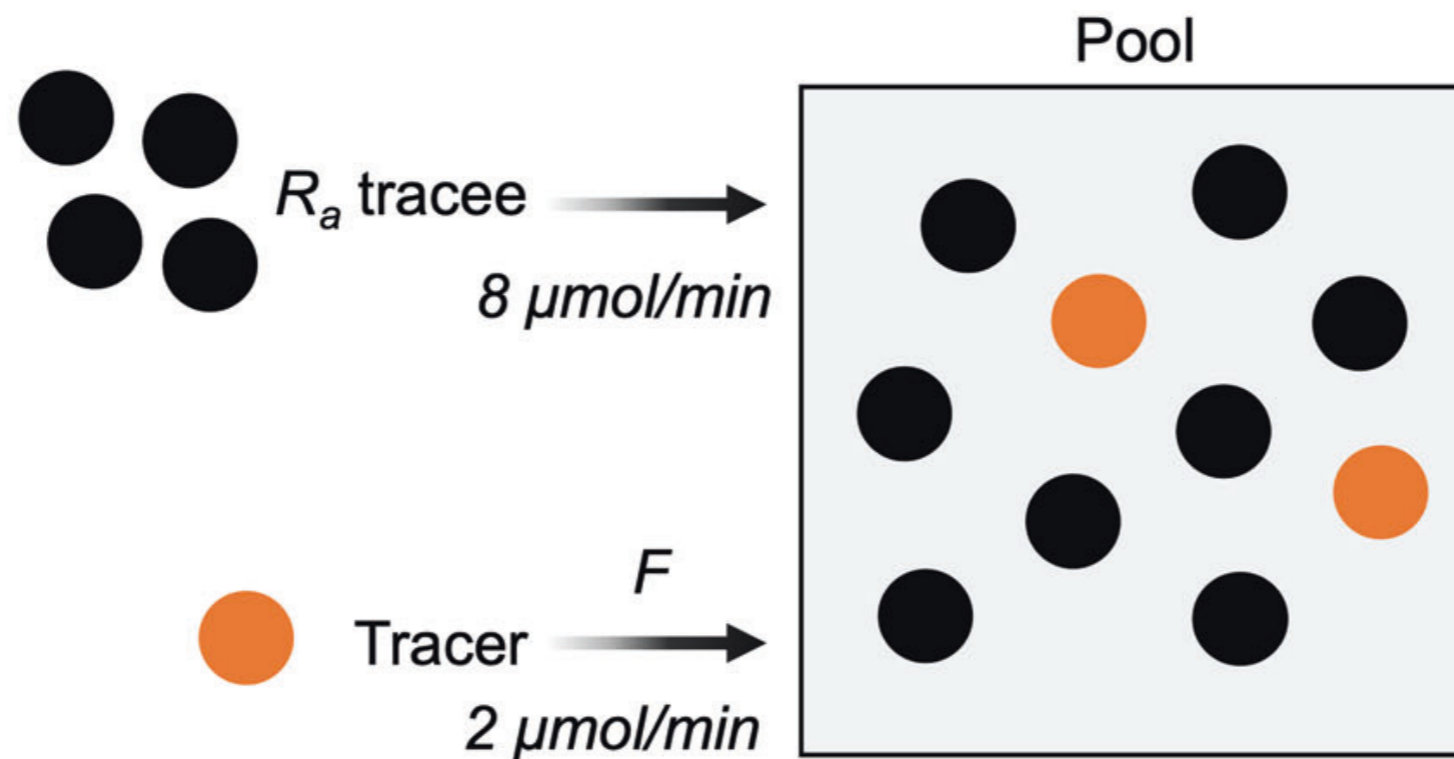
Metabolic tracers are molecules that can be introduced into a biological system, enters the metabolite pool and is processed by metabolic enzymes.

These molecules and their derivatives can be measured (imaging, MS, spatial MS).

This allows the monitoring of metabolic fluxes. Intuitively, faster labeling implies higher flux. Indeed, for a metabolite made directly from the tracer, initial rate of label accumulation (measured in molarity or moles per cell, not labeling fraction) equals the reaction's flux.

Metabolic tracing

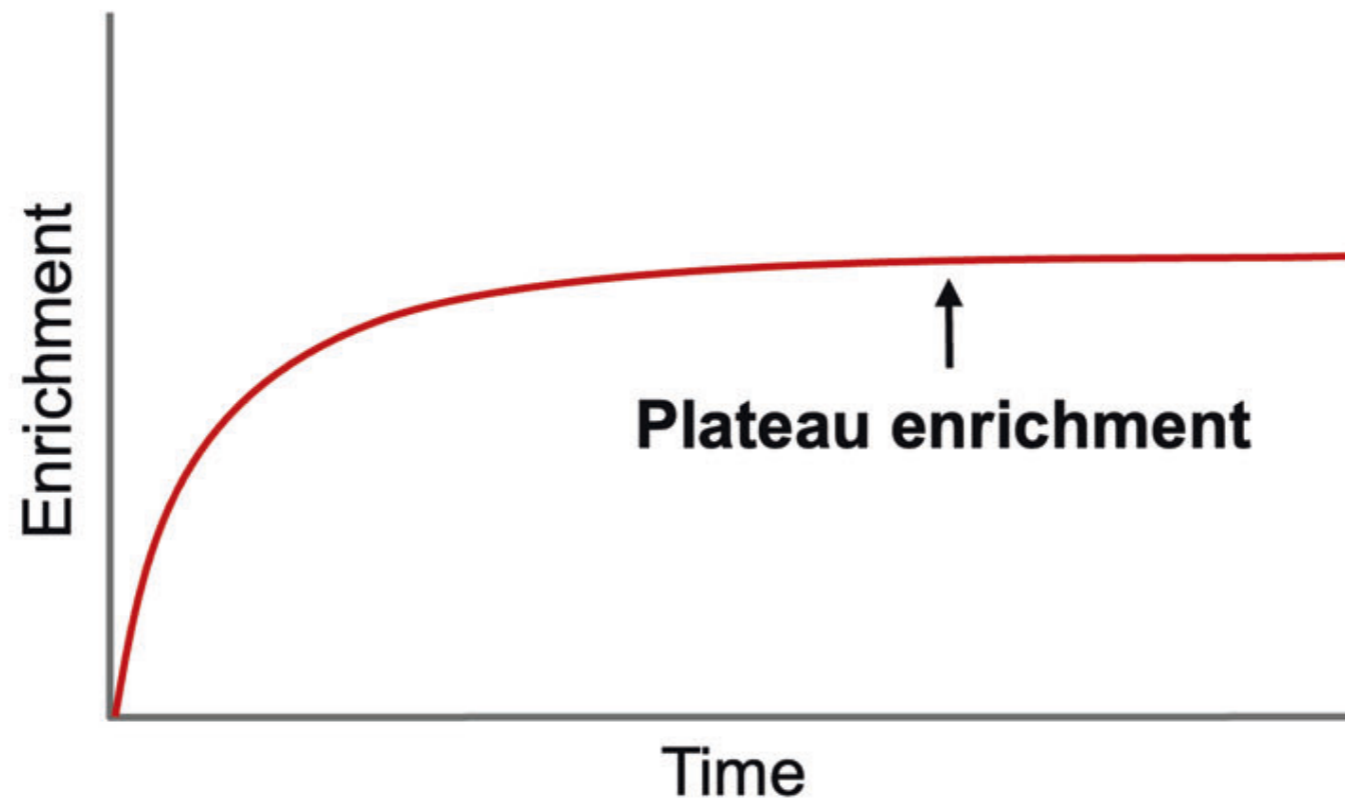
The calculation of substrate kinetics is predicated on two basic tracer models: (1) tracer dilution and (2) tracer incorporation.



Models of tracer introductions:

- Pulse administration (decreases w/ its uptake)
- Constant infusion (constant over time)

Metabolic tracing

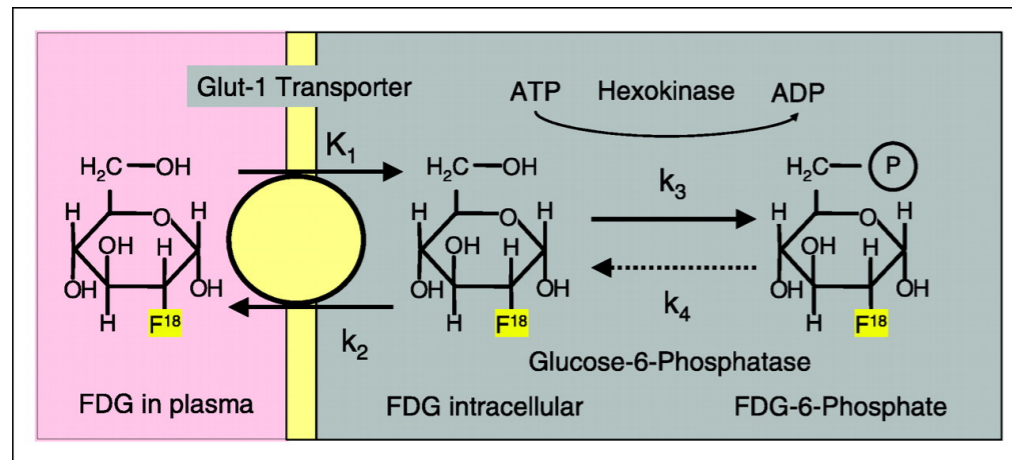


The tracer dilution model is based on the dilution of tracer administered into the system by the appearance in the same pool of unlabeled tracees. When an isotopic steady state is achieved, meaning that the rates of tracer and tracee appearance are constant over time and that there is a steady-state enrichment of the tracer in the body pools of the tracee, substrate kinetics can be calculated by the same method, regardless of the number of metabolic pools.

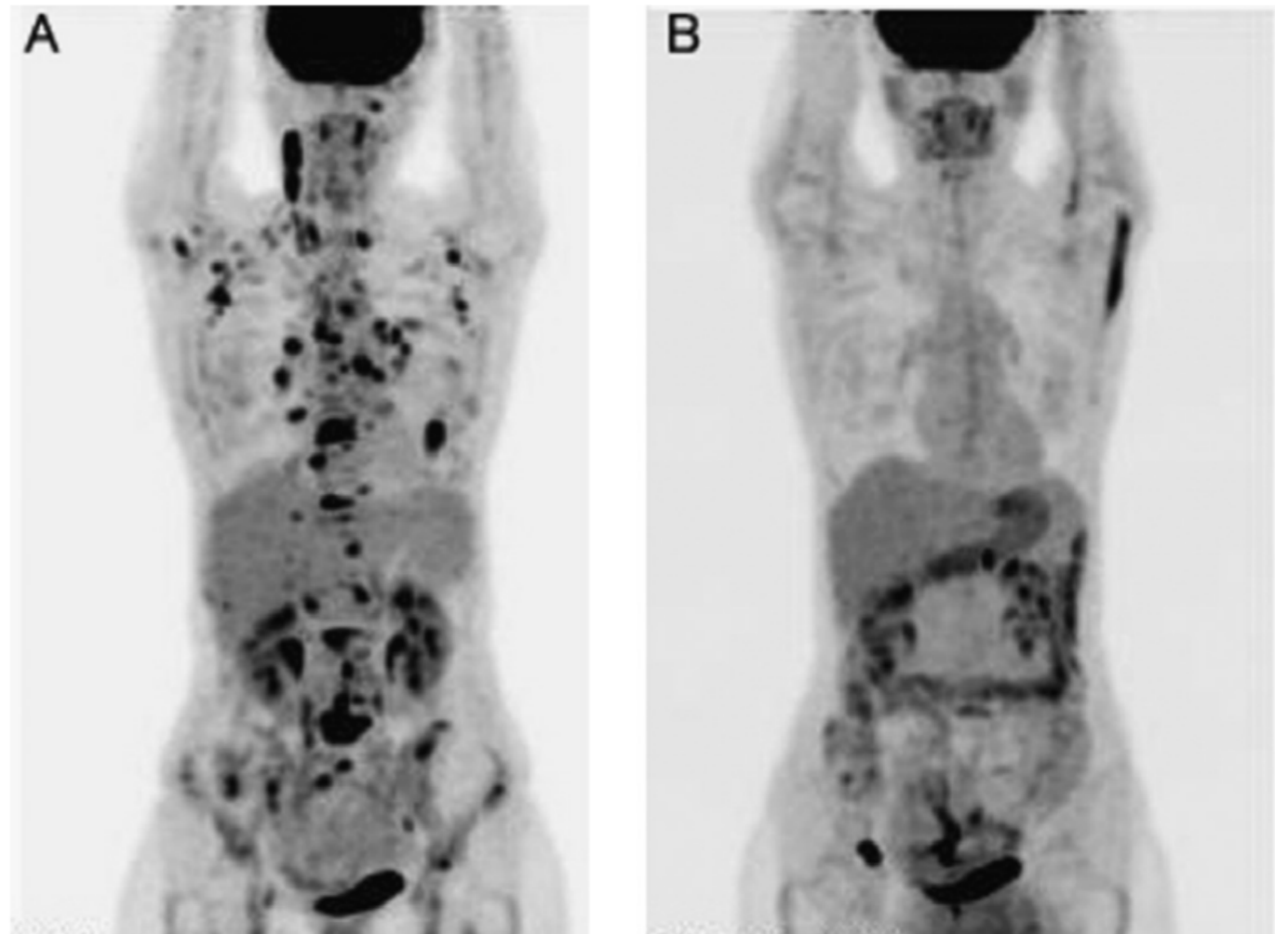
Metabolic tracing

Several types of molecules monitor the metabolic activity of the cell.

FDG-sensible glucose entered the clinical practice long time ago.



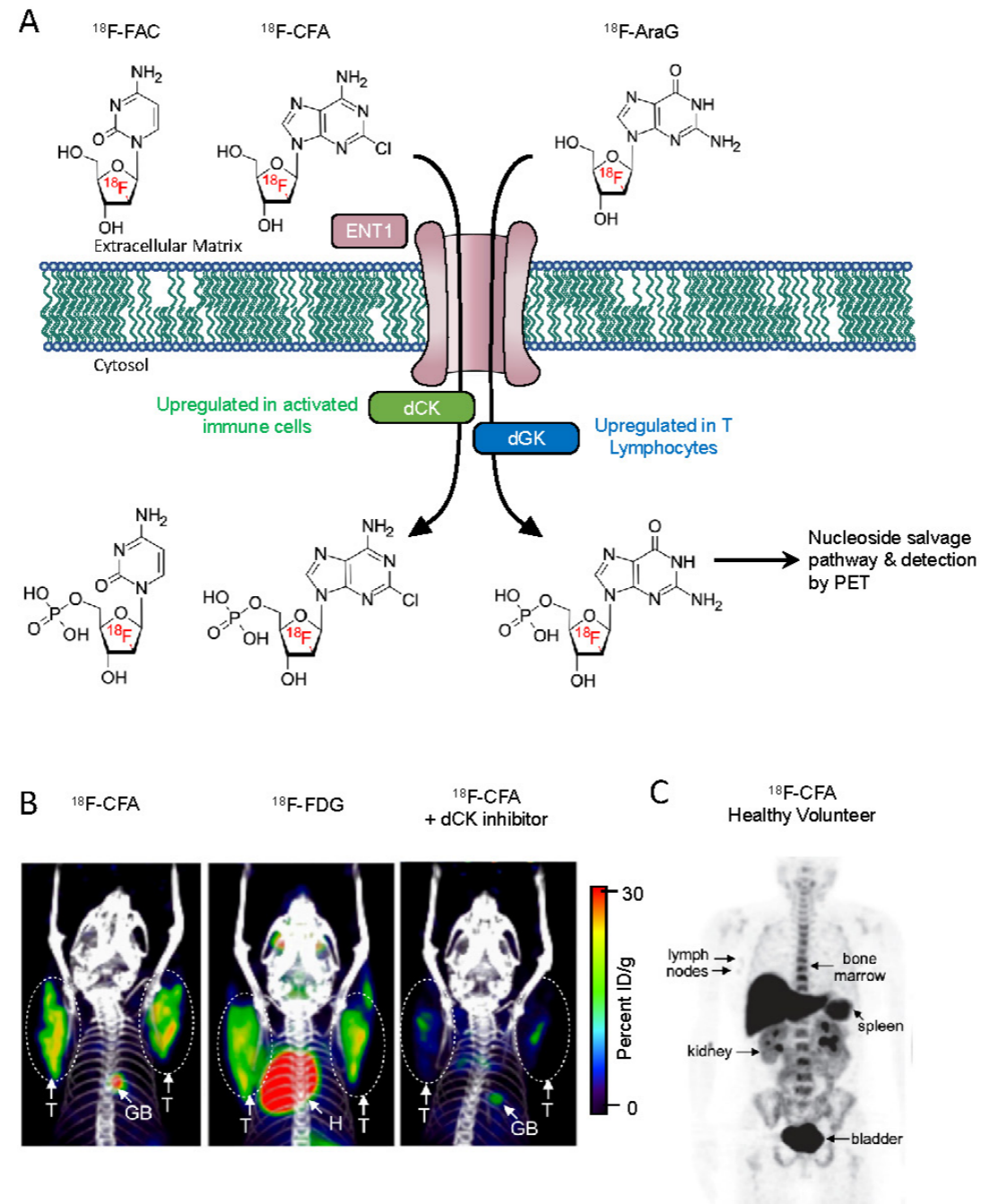
Fluoro(18F)-deoxyGlucose



Kimura H et al, *Lung Cancer*,

Positron-emitting glc analog to visualize neoplastic lesions in the body using PET.

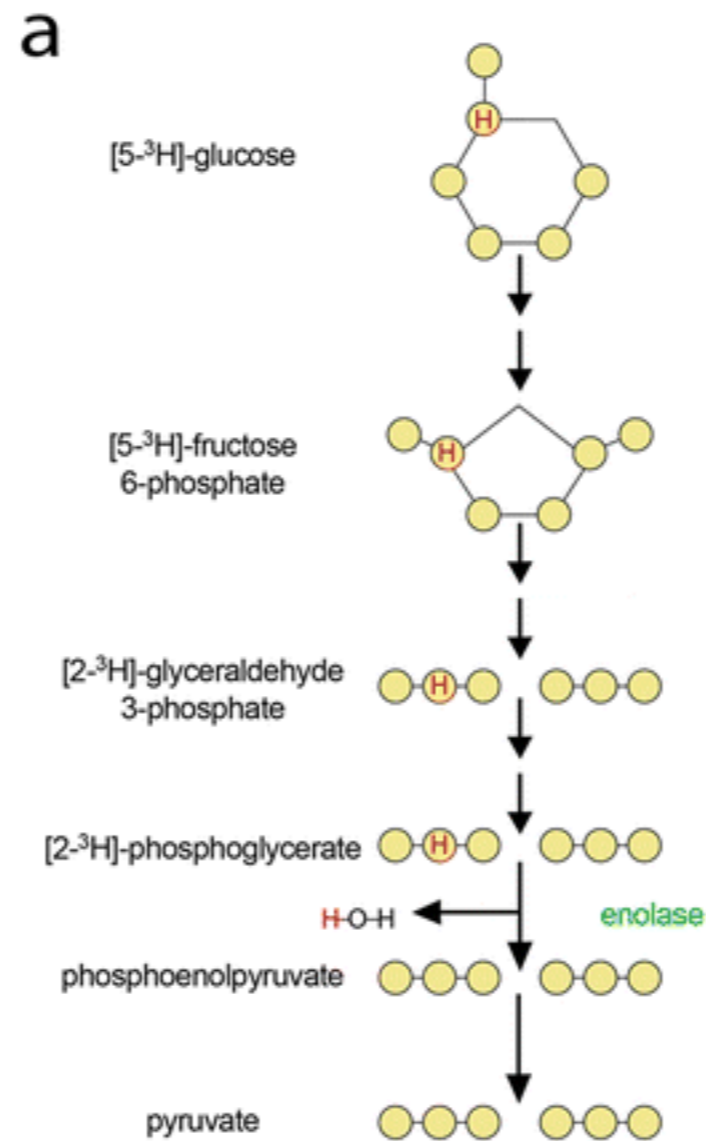
Metabolic tracing



Nucleoside analog-based PET imaging. (A) PET tracers ^{18}F -AraG and ^{18}F -CFA are transported intracellularly by equilibrative nucleoside transporter 1 (ENT1). The tracers are then phosphorylated by their targets deoxyguanosine kinase and deoxycytosine kinase, trapping them intracellularly within cells. The tracers are then further metabolized along the nucleoside salvage pathway and incorporated into newly synthesized DNA. (B) PET/CT images of mice bearing CEM tumors, a human lymphoblastic leukemia, (circled) transduced to express Cytidine Deaminase (CDA). ^{18}F -CFA was used in the left and right images, while ^{18}F -FDG was used for the center image. A small molecule inhibitor of dCK, DI-82, was used in the right image to confirm the specificity of ^{18}F -CFA for dCK. Adapted from. (C) ^{18}F -CFA PET of a healthy human volunteer. Organs with high uptake are indicated with arrows.

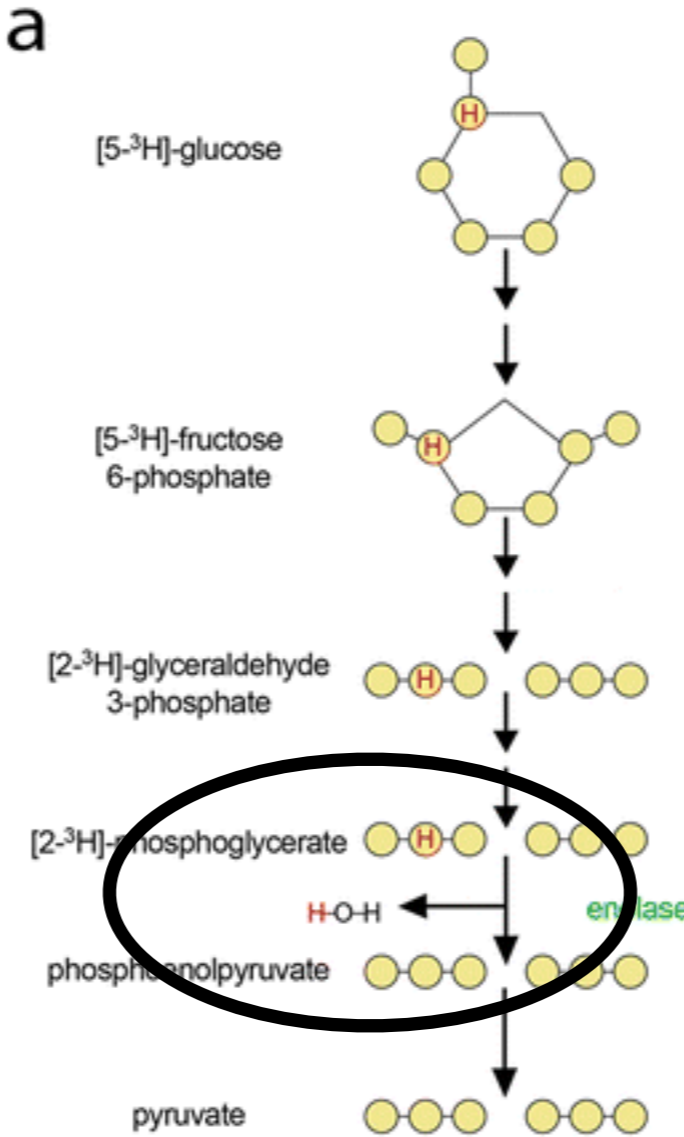
Metabolic tracing

Radioactive isotopes have been used to study metabolic activity of the cells



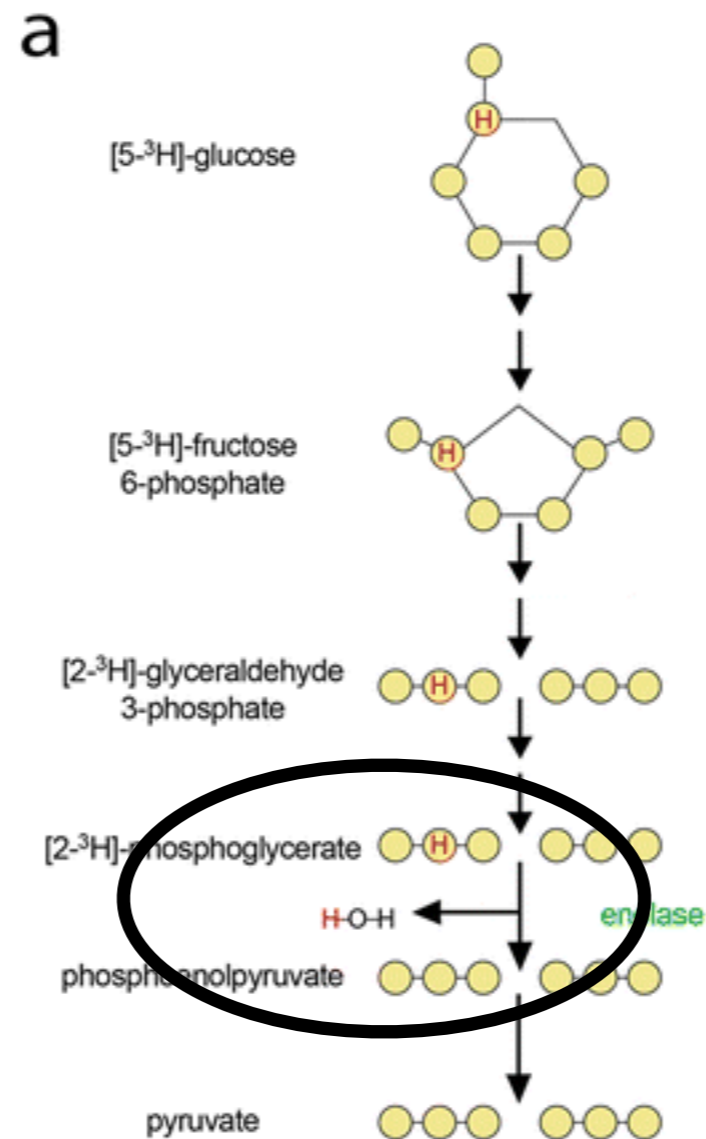
Metabolic tracing

Radioactive isotopes have been used to study metabolic activity of the cells



Metabolic tracing

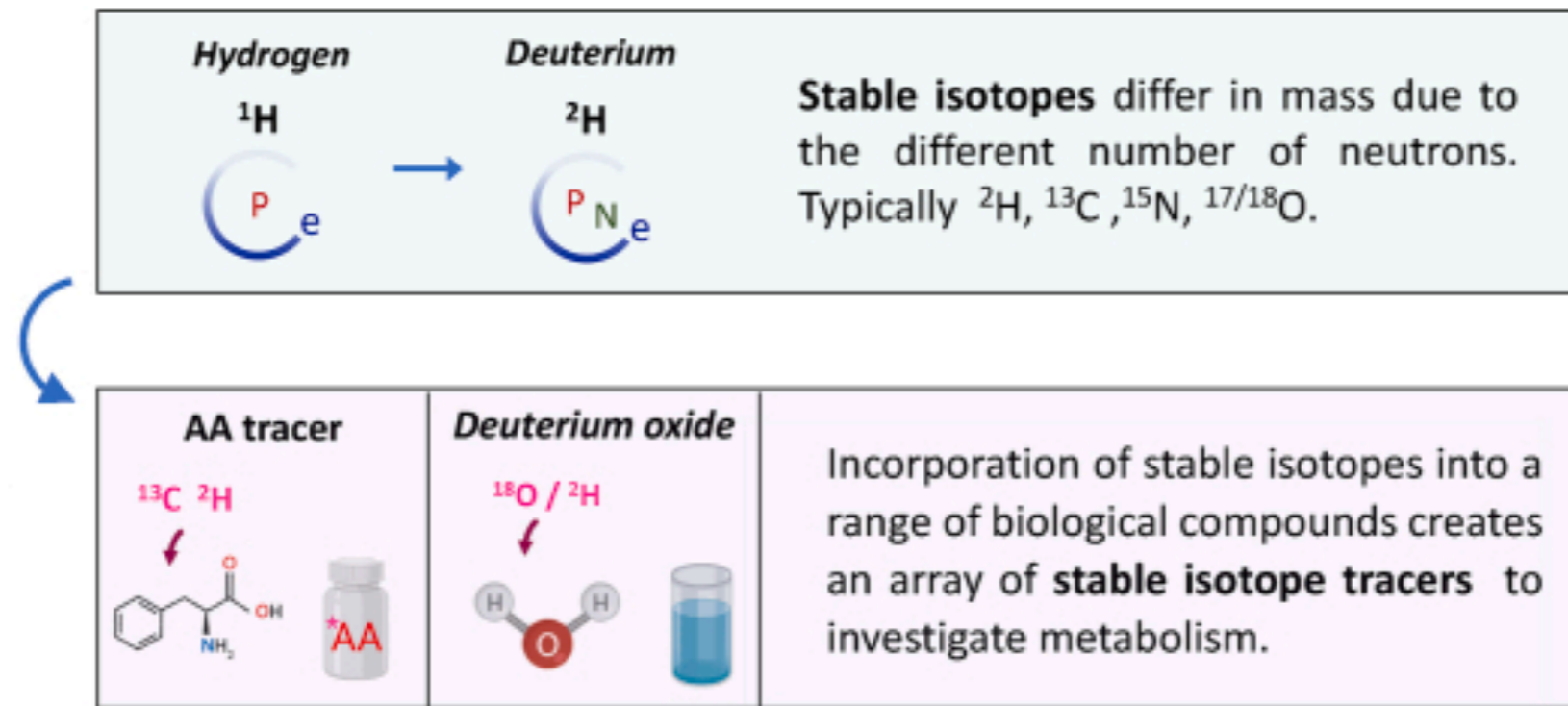
Radioactive isotopes have been used to study metabolic activity of the cells



Radio-emission in culture broth can be measured with a Geiger machine

Metabolic tracing

Stable isotopes are species of an element which whilst chemically and functionally identical, differ in mass due to the different number of neutrons in the atomic nucleus. This difference in mass, measured using mass spectrometry, makes them analytically distinguishable from each other and allows them to be used to 'trace' metabolism.



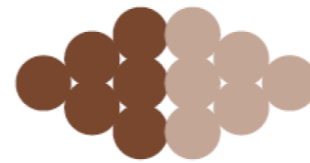
Stable isotopically labeled tracers are any molecules with one or more heavier stable isotopes (e.g., ${}^{13}\text{C}$, ${}^2\text{H}$, or ${}^{15}\text{N}$ isotopes) incorporated somewhere in the molecule. Stable isotope tracers may be administered in the chemical form of the tracer (e.g., ${}^{13}\text{C}$ glucose) or as heavy water (deuterium oxide, ${}^2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) that will produce the desired metabolic tracer in vivo.

Carbon isotope tracing

A

Isotopes of Carbon

● proton ● neutron



^{12}C



^{13}C

Mass Isotopologues of Glucose due to Carbon Isotope Incorporation

○ ^{12}C ● ^{13}C



m+1



m+1



m+2



m+2



m+4

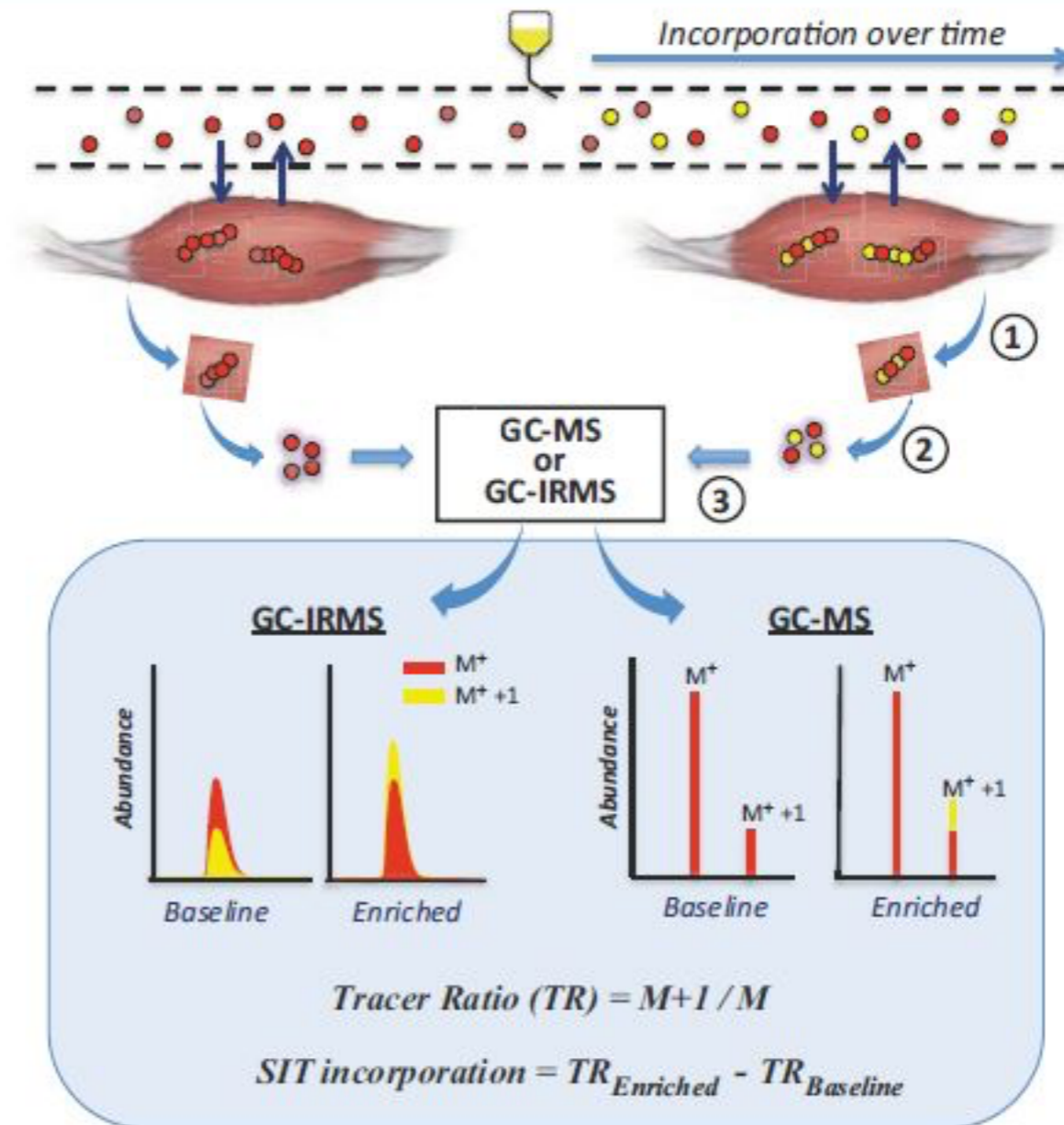


m+4

Use of [13]-Carbon isotopes creates multiple isotopologues of carbon-containing molecules (most nutrients)

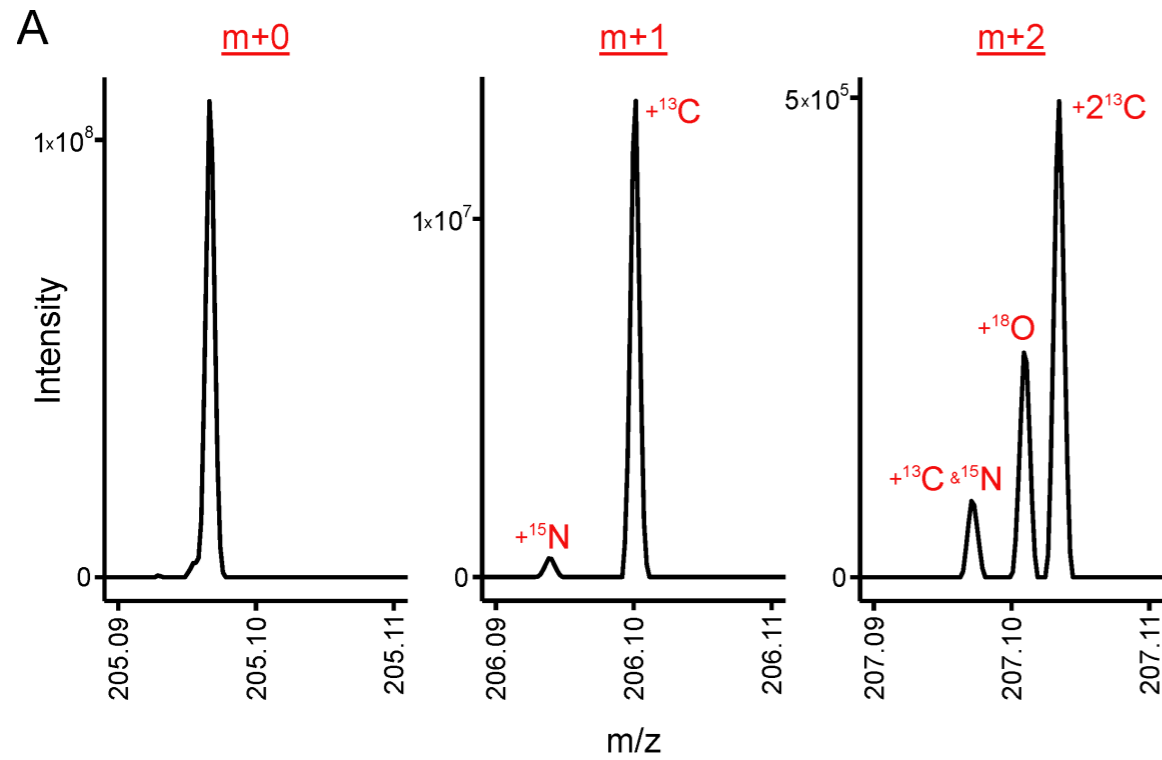
Stable isotope tracing

Figure 2. The rate of biosynthetic pathways can be calculated by acquiring a muscle biopsy both before (baseline) and after (enriched) the incorporation of a SIT (1). After hydrolysis, purification and derivatisation (2) substrates can be measured using GC-MS techniques (3). GC-MS measures the molecular mass (M) and the abundance of that molecule containing heavier isotopes ($M+1$). Comparatively IRMS combusts the whole molecule and measures the lighter and heavier isotope in the resulting gas produced e.g. $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ vs. $^{12}\text{CO}_2$. After SIT infusion, the 'heavier' isotope is increased more than what occurs naturally and the resulting difference represents the rate of SIT incorporation over that time.



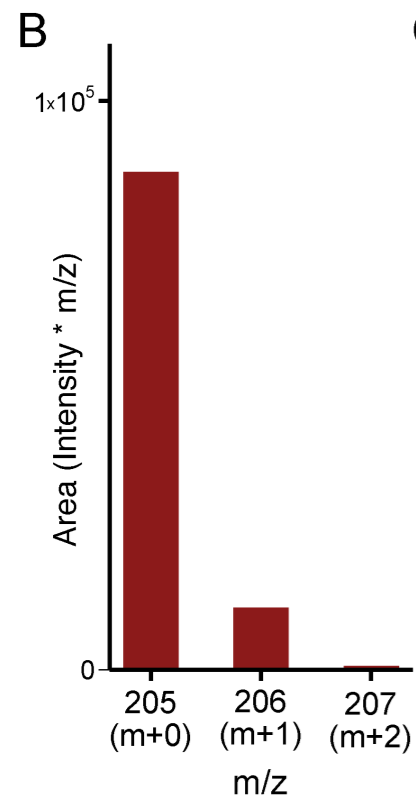
Stable isotopically labeled tracers are metabolized (as normal nutrients) inside cells and generate heavy ($M+1$, $M+2$, $M+3$,...) metabolites that can be measured analytically.

Stable isotope tracing



Heavier isotopologues have distinctive spectra

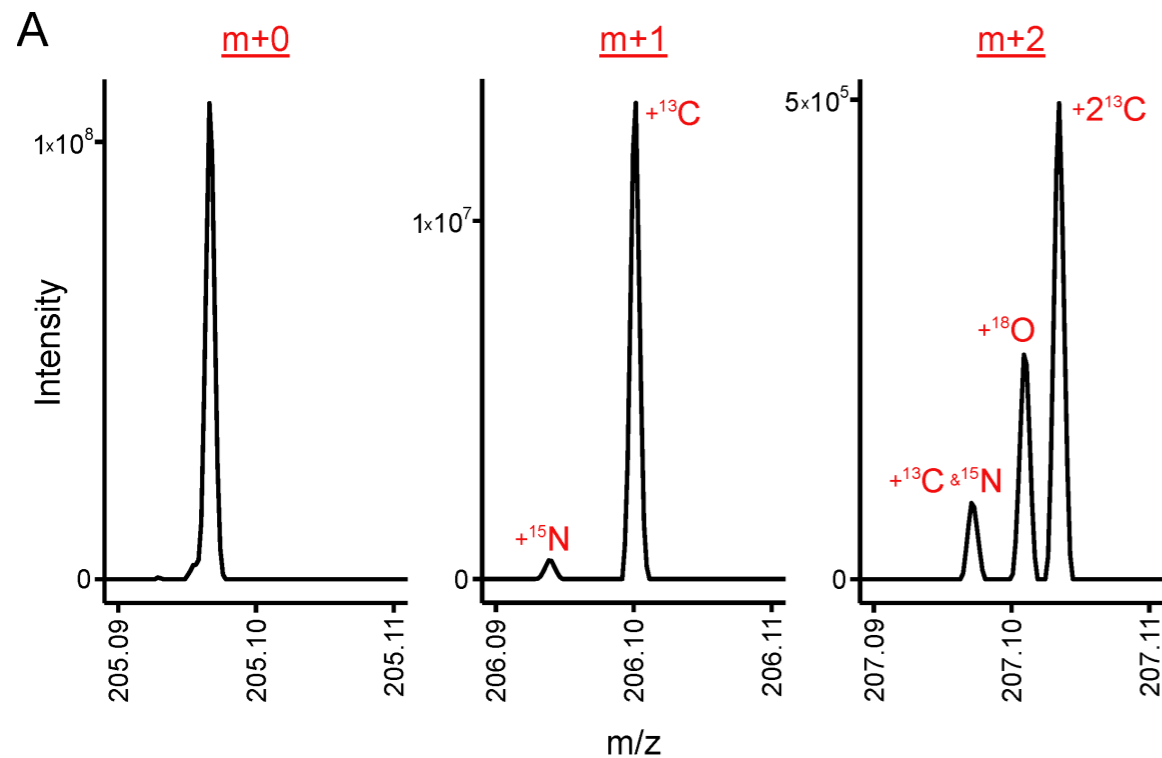
e.g.: (M+1) is 1 Da heavier = contains extra 1 proton



C

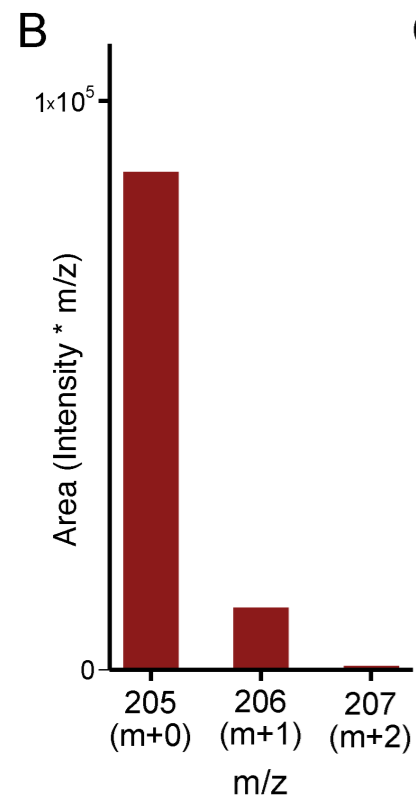
mass	High Resolution		Low Resolution	
	meas	corr	meas	corr
m+0	0.889	1.000	0.882	1.007
m+1	0.107	0.001	0.111	-0.003
m+2	0.004	-0.002	0.007	-0.003
m+3	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+4	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+5	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+6	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+7	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+8	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+9	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+10	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+11	-	0.000	-	0.000

Stable isotope tracing



Heavier isotopologues have distinctive spectra

e.g.: (M+1) is 1 Da heavier = contains extra 1 proton



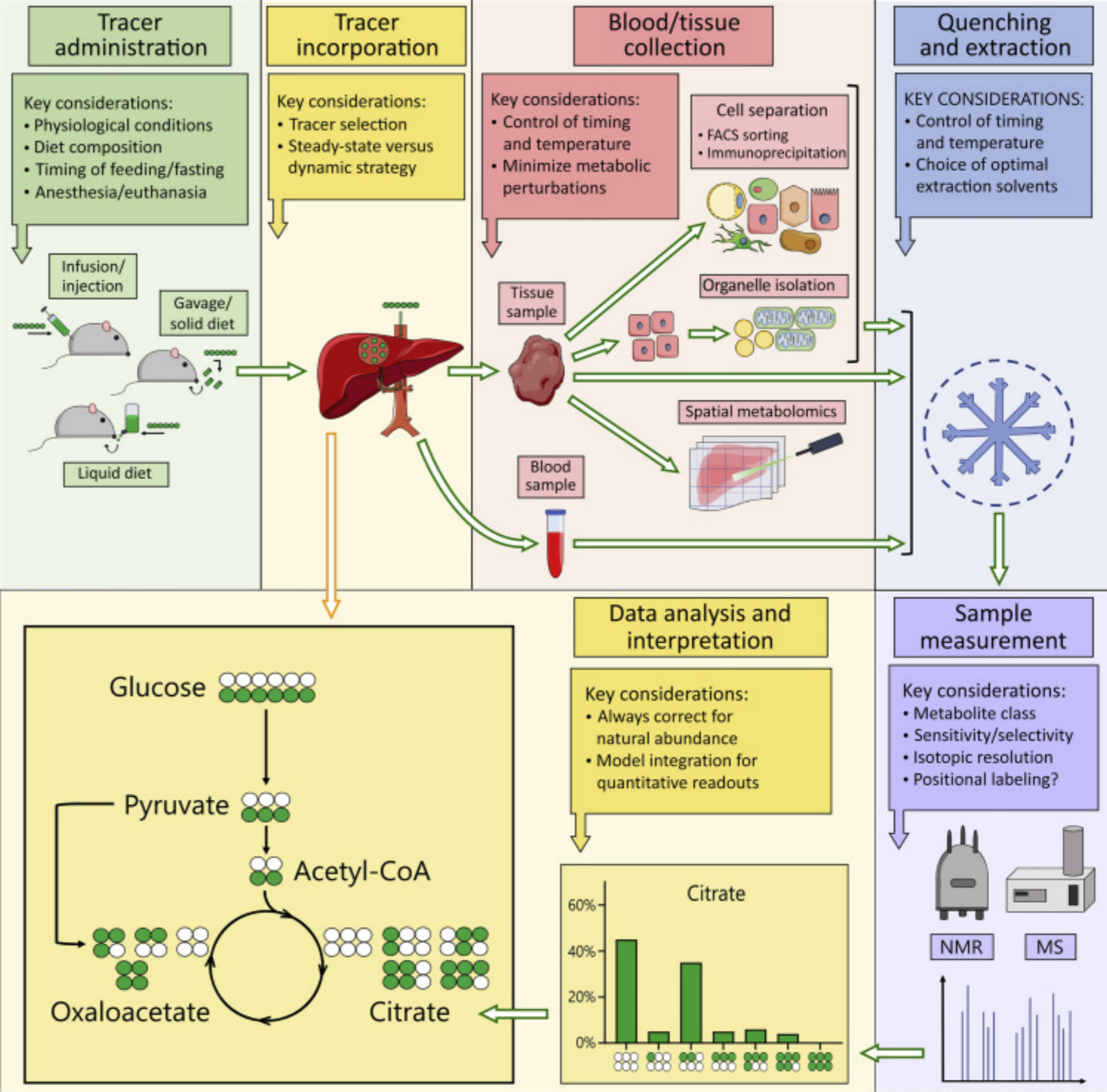
C

mass	High Resolution		Low Resolution	
	meas	corr	meas	corr
m+0	0.889	1.000	0.882	1.007
m+1	0.107	0.001	0.111	-0.003
m+2	0.004	-0.002	0.007	-0.003
m+3	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+4	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+5	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+6	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+7	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+8	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+9	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+10	-	0.000	-	0.000
m+11	-	0.000	-	0.000

Heavier isotopologues are naturally occurring in nature.

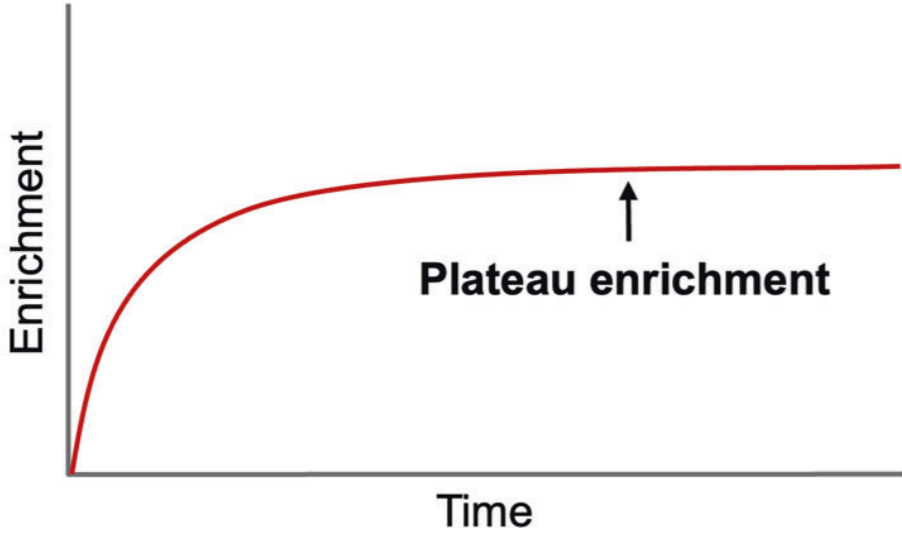
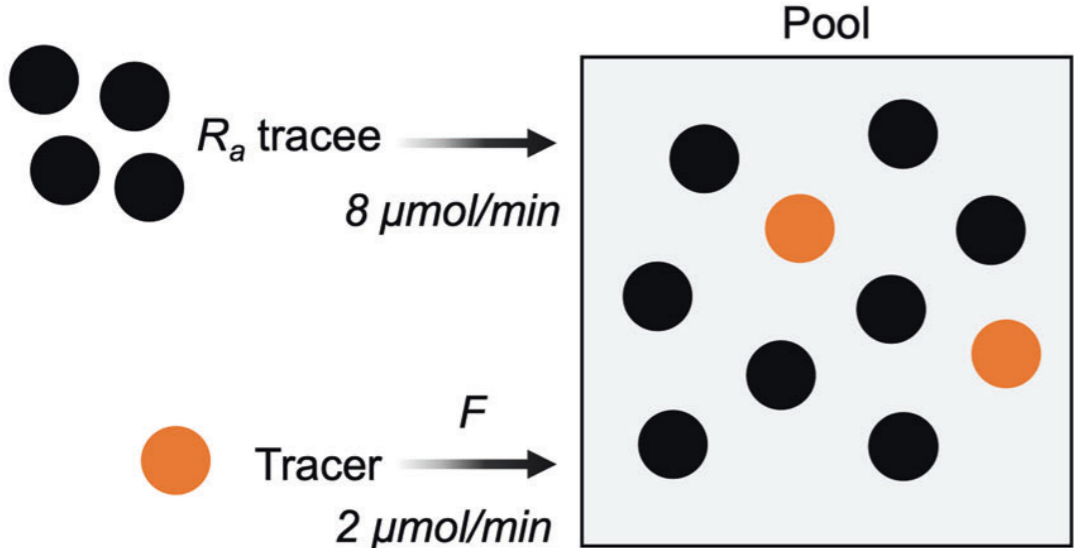
Always present in MS spectra (normalization)

Stable isotope tracing

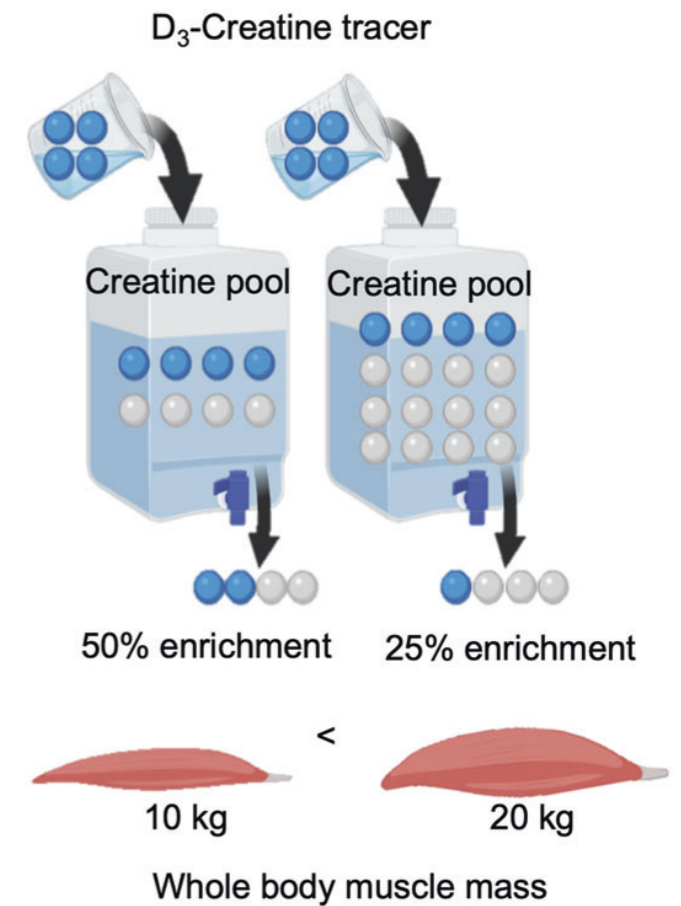
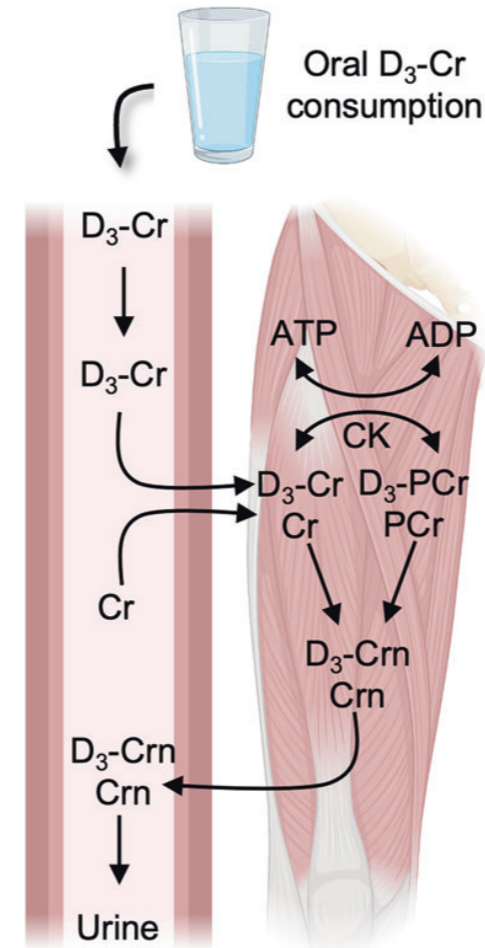
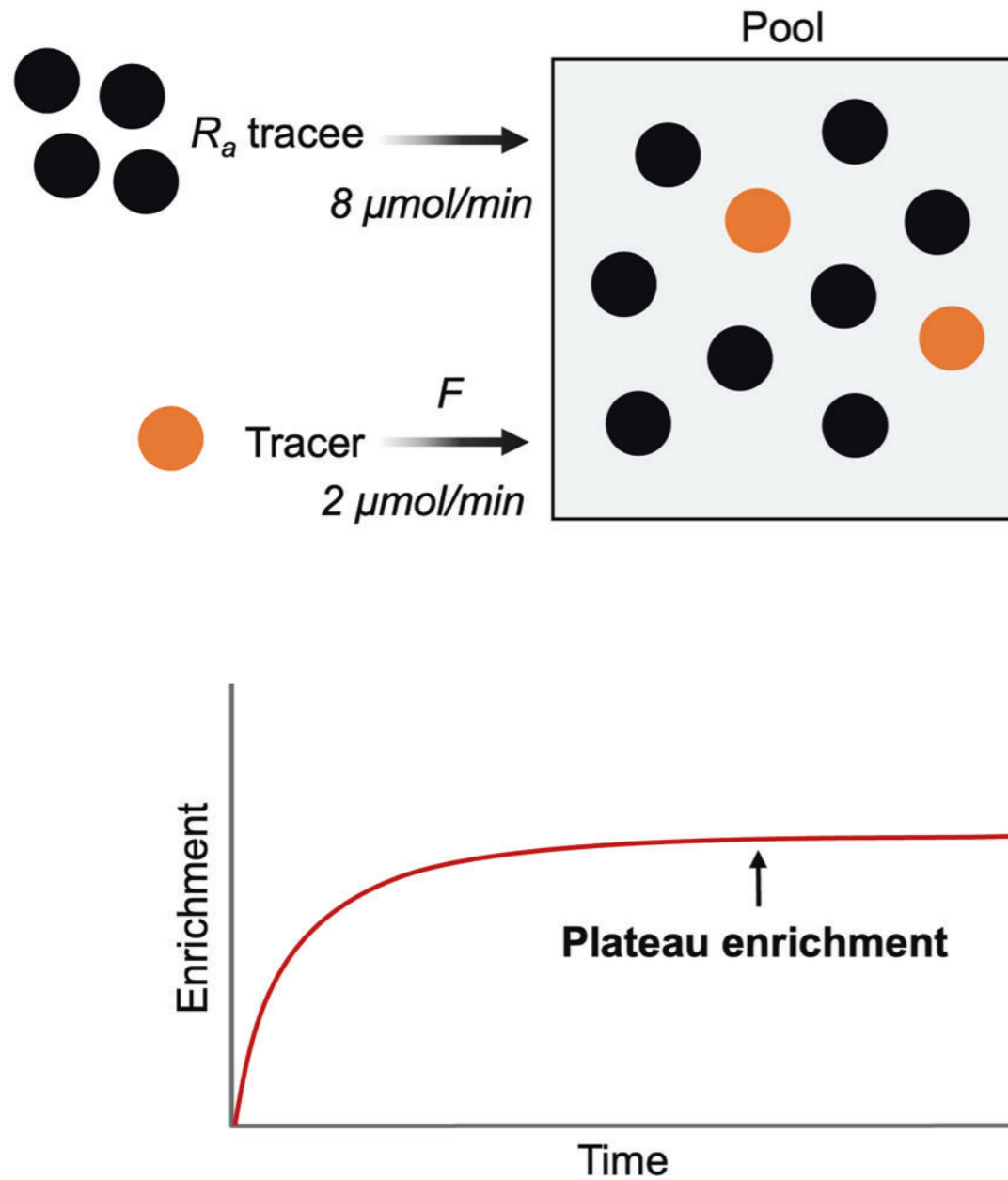


Fernandez-Garcia et al, *TIBS*, 2020

Molar enrichment

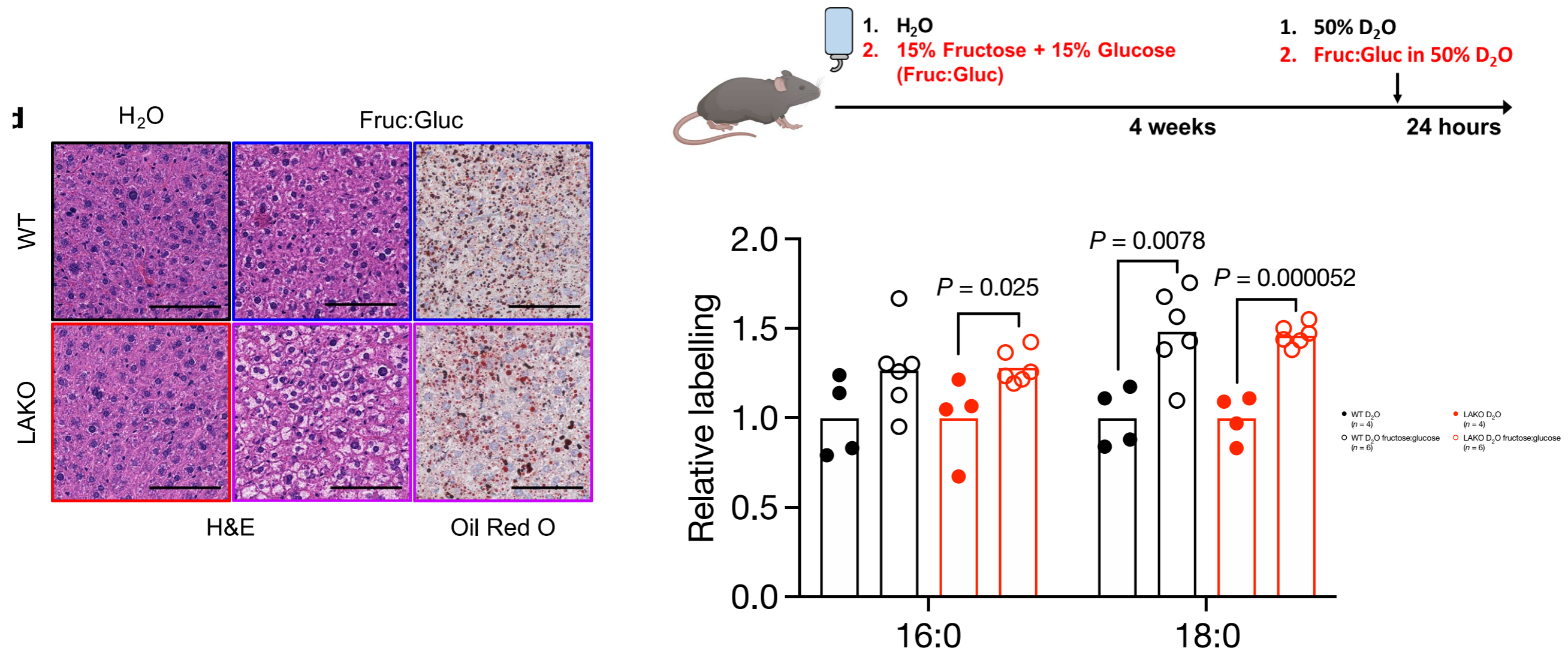


Molar enrichment



Deuterium tracing

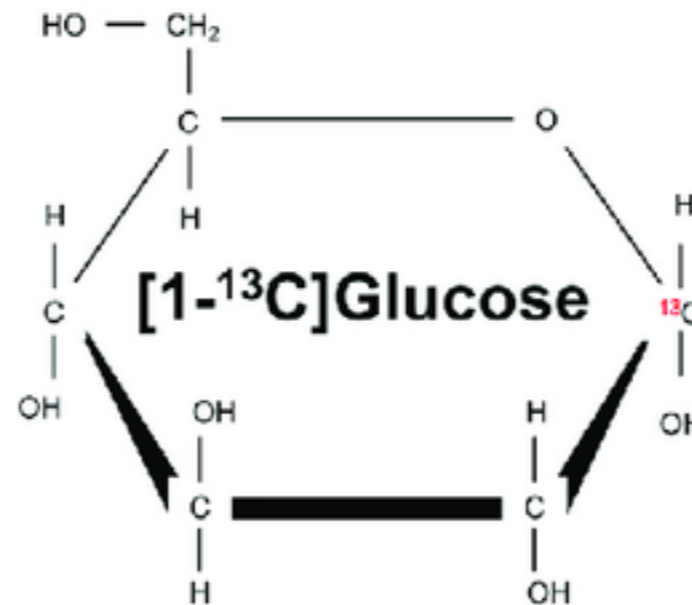
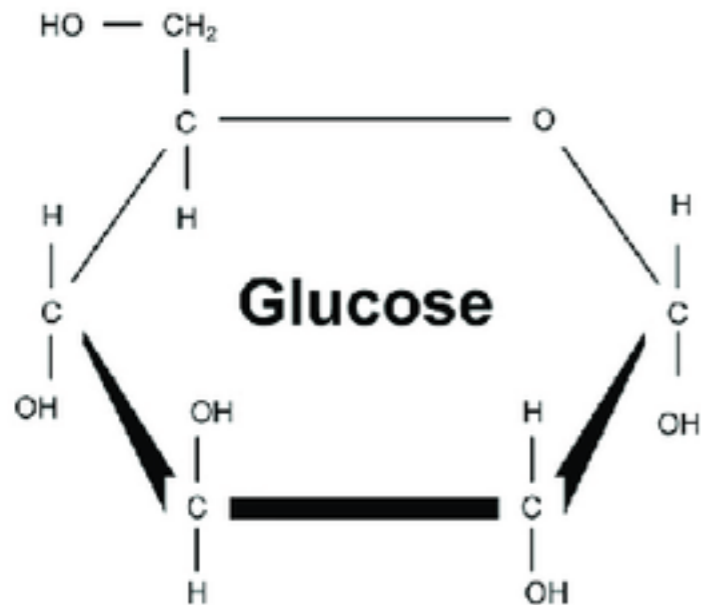
Using deuterium as tracer is useful to quantify the synthesis rate of macromolecules



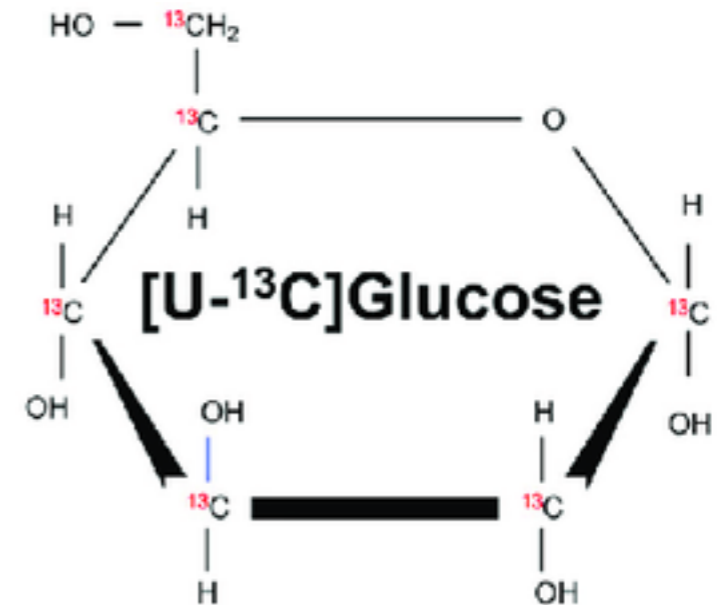
The heavy water labeling of precursors has several potential advantages over the substrate-labeled tracer infusion method. Most notably, heavy water labels a number of different precursors, which enables the simultaneous determination of *FSRs* of a variety of polymers with repeating (mono or multiple) precursor molecules, such as DNA, fatty acids (de novo lipogenesis), and glucose (i.e., gluconeogenesis) in free-living conditions. Water moves rapidly and freely throughout the body, including across cell membranes, and equilibrates with all of the body fluid within ~30 min after administration

Carbon isotope tracing

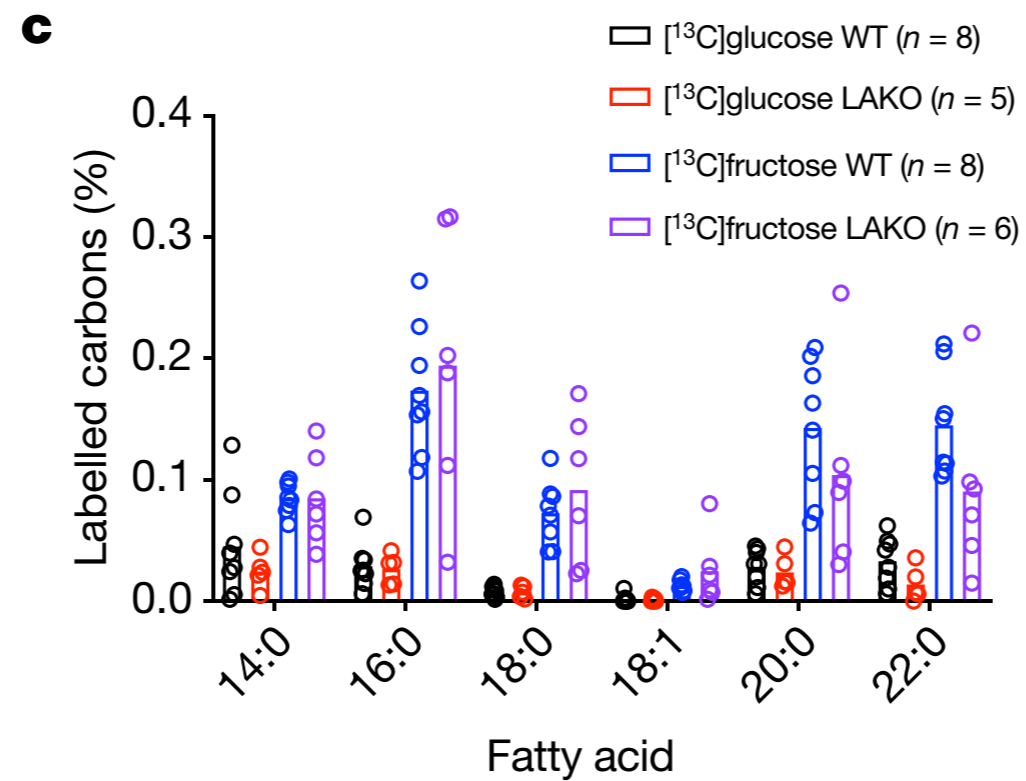
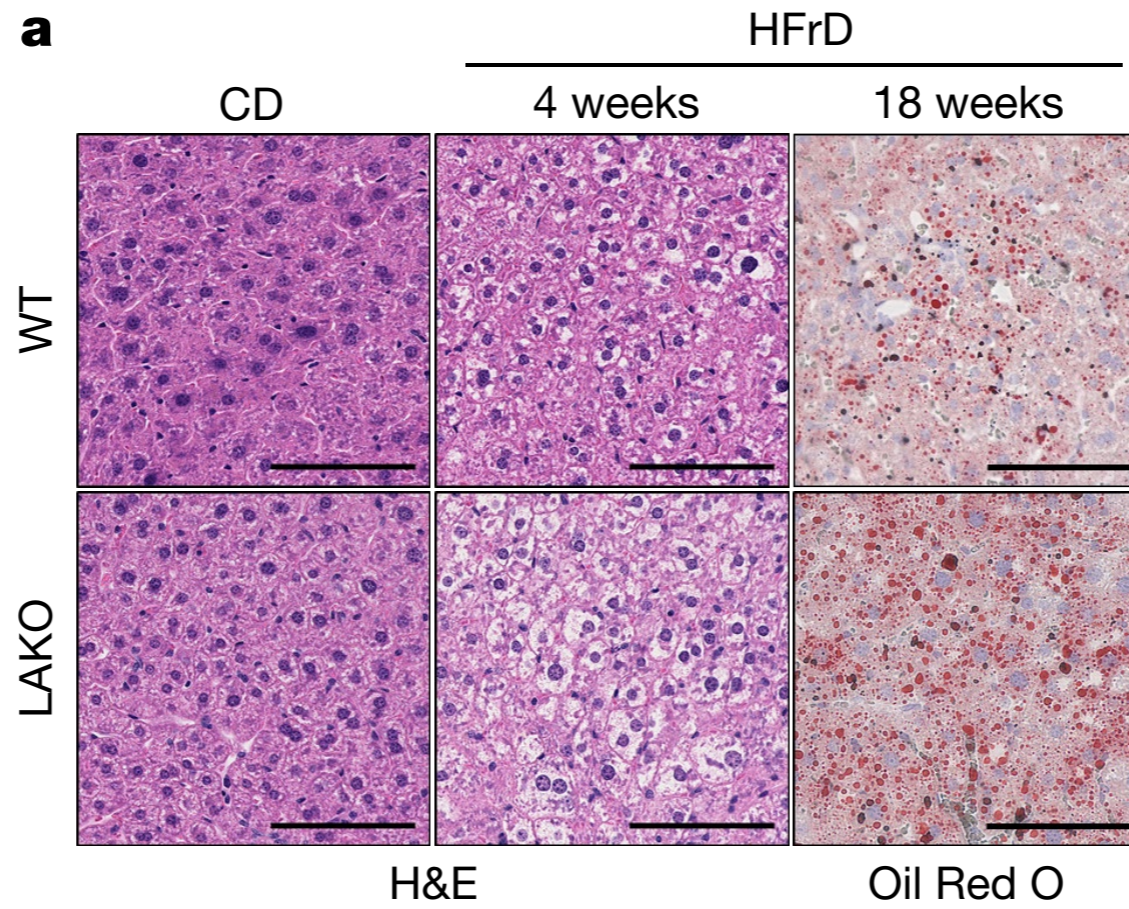
[13]-Glucose is often used as a tracer



Positionally-labeled

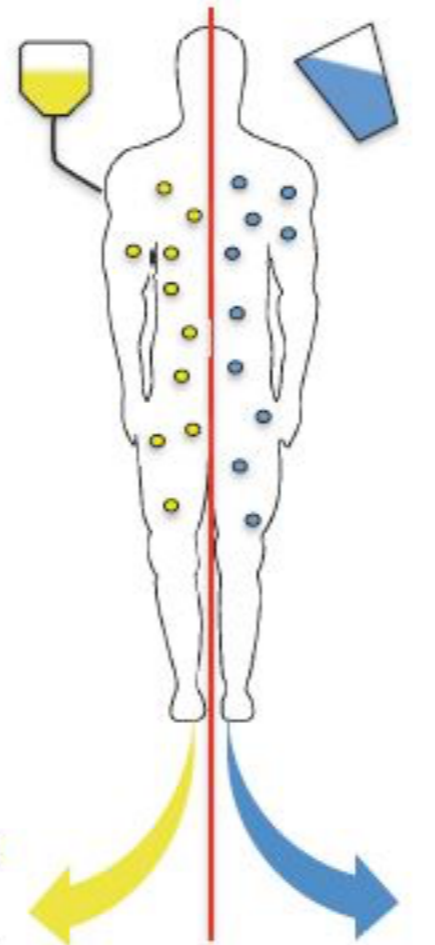


Uniformly-labeled



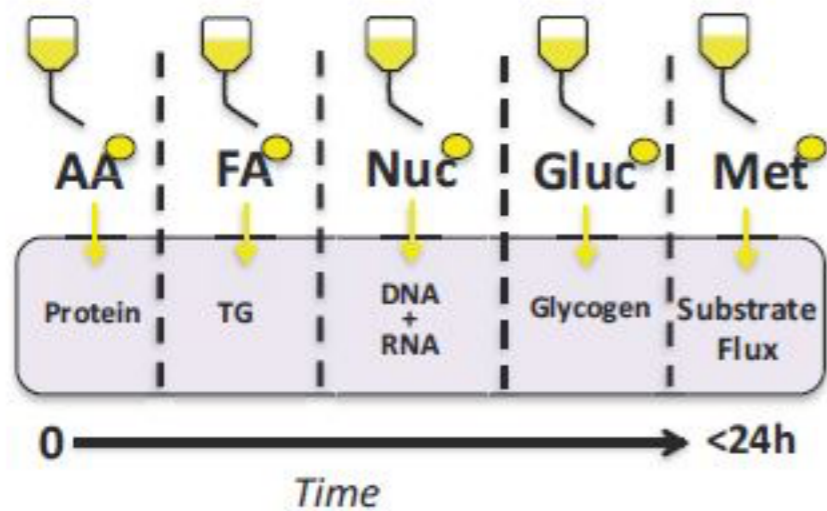
Stable Isotope labeled compound

- Restricted by time <24h
- Excellent resolution
- Individual tracers required
- Controlled environment
- Sterile I.V infusions



Deuterium oxide 'D₂O'

- Long term Days-Weeks-Months
- Integrated measure
- Multi substrate tracer
- 'Free living'
- Less Invasive



Tissues and Organs

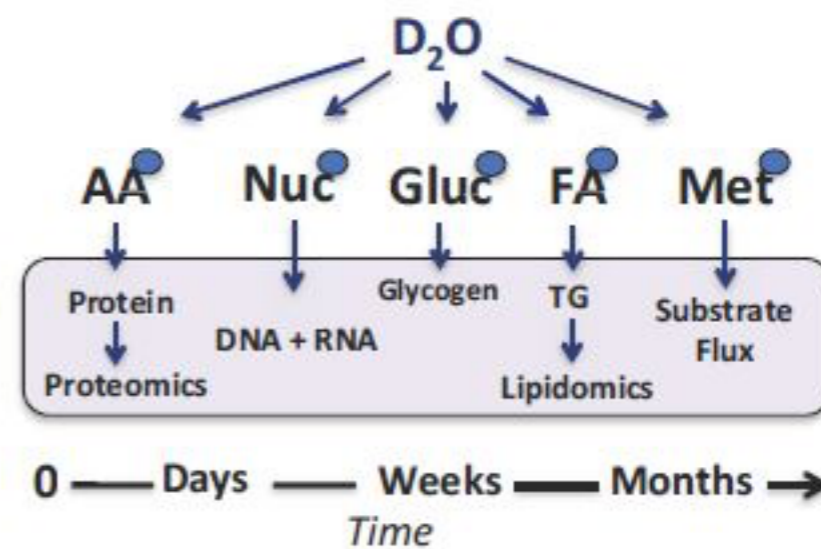


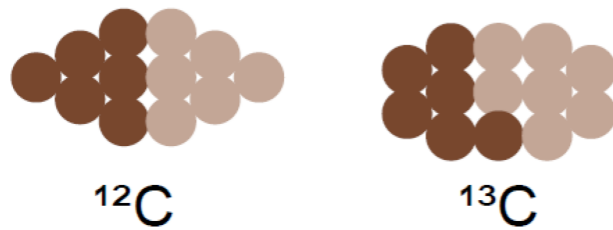
Figure 3. Representative diagram of the differences between the uses of substrate specific stable isotope labeled compounds and deuterium oxide 'D₂O'. **AA** – amino acid. **FA** – fatty acid. **Nuc** – nucleotide. **Gluc** – glucose. **Met** – metabolite. **TG** – triglyceride.

Carbon isotope tracing

A

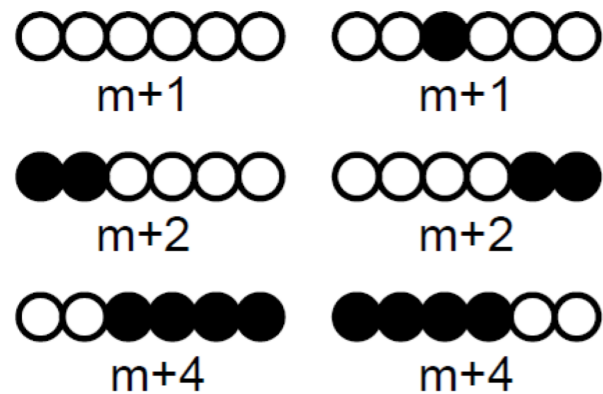
Isotopes of Carbon

● proton ● neutron



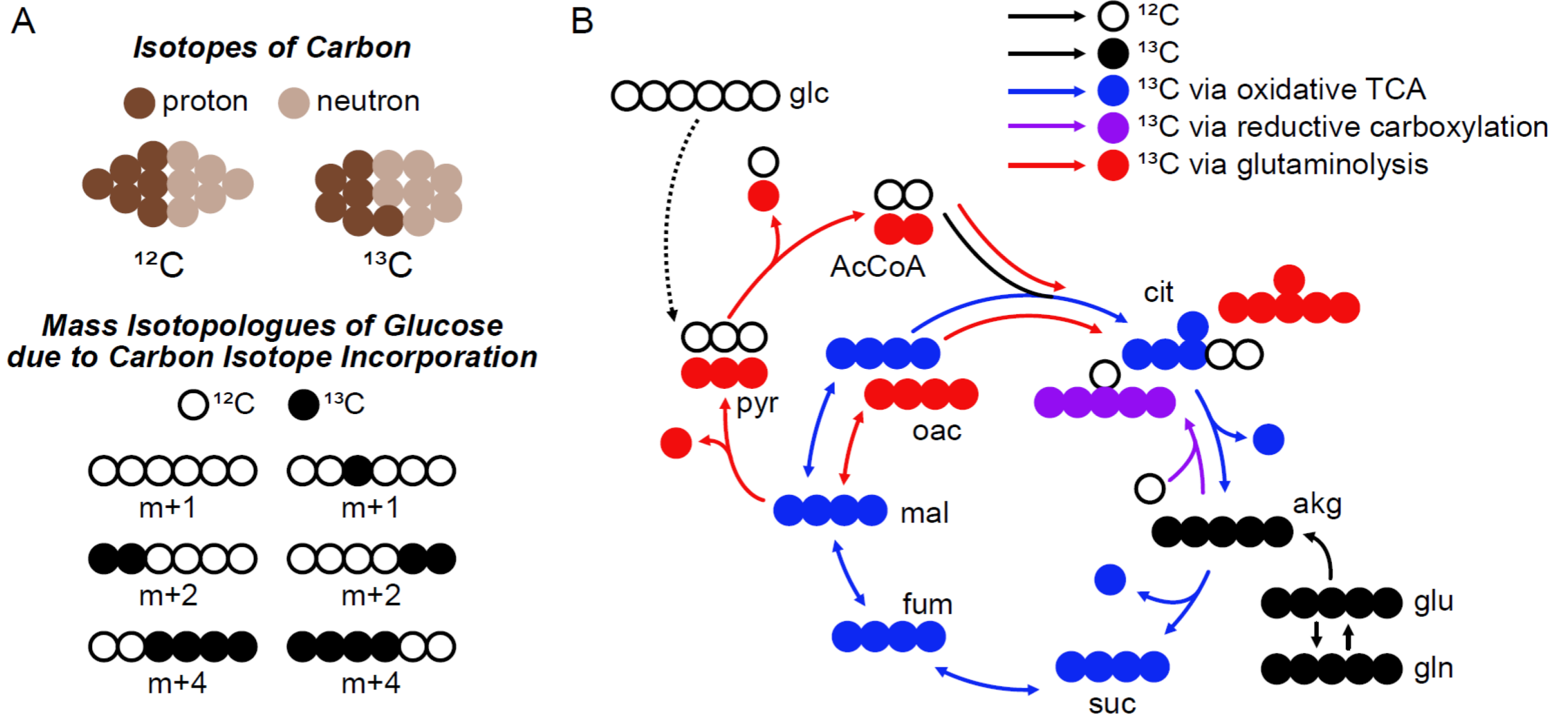
Mass Isotopologues of Glucose due to Carbon Isotope Incorporation

○ ^{12}C ● ^{13}C



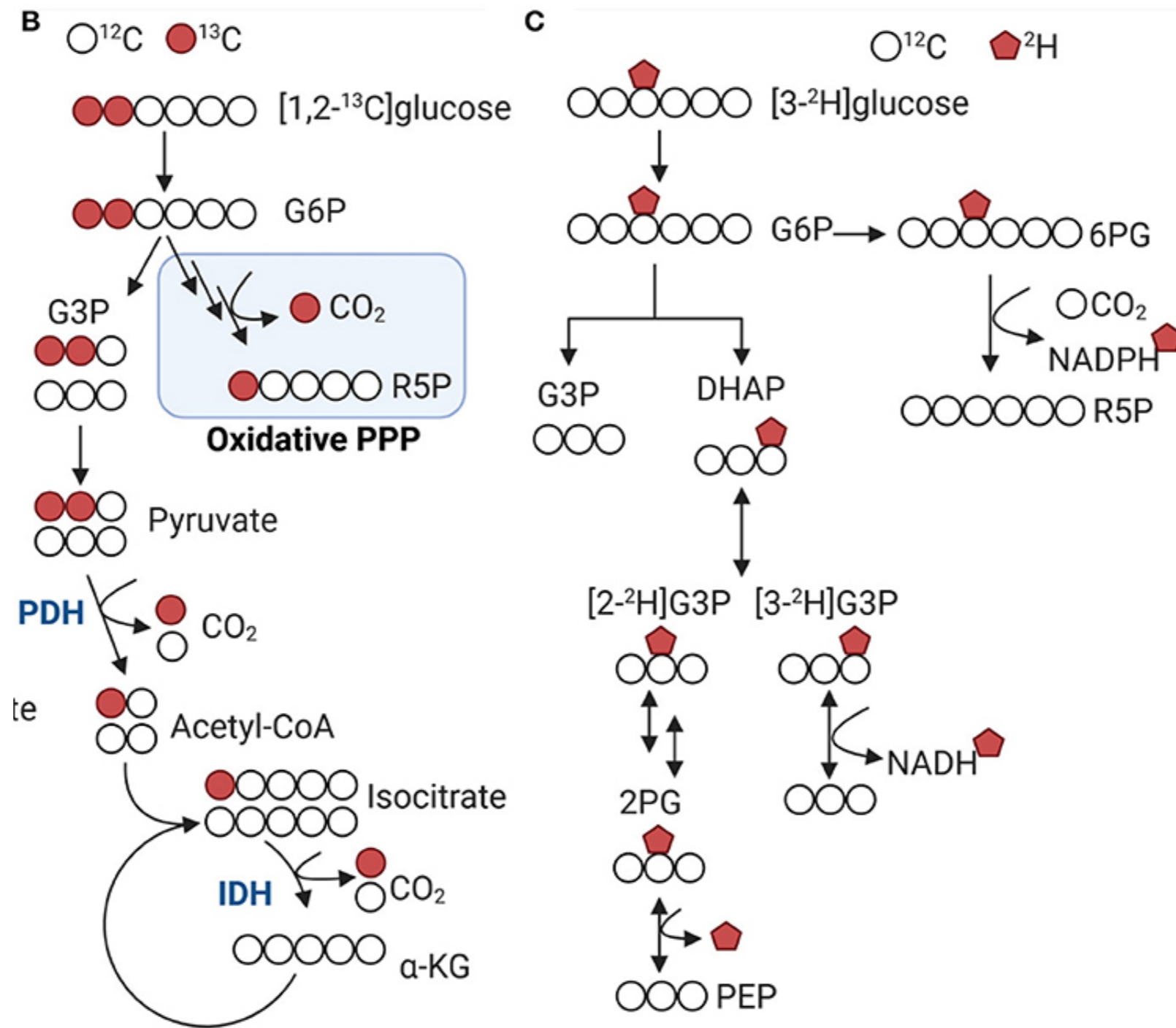
Molar enrichment is an indirect measure of metabolic flux

Carbon isotope tracing



Molar enrichment is an indirect measure of metabolic flux

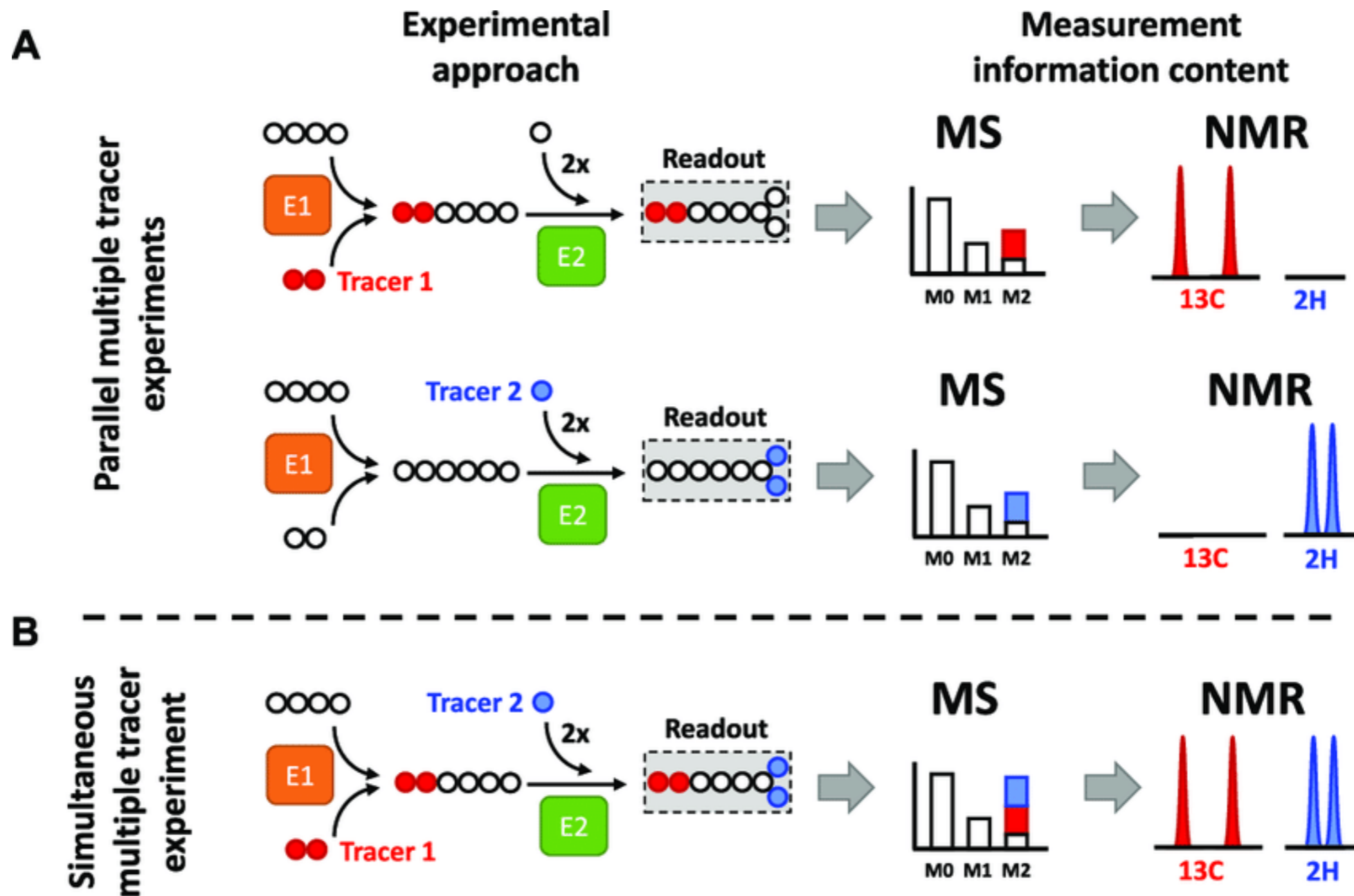
Carbon isotope tracing



Molar enrichment depends on:

- 1) Target metabolite
- 2) Position on nutrient

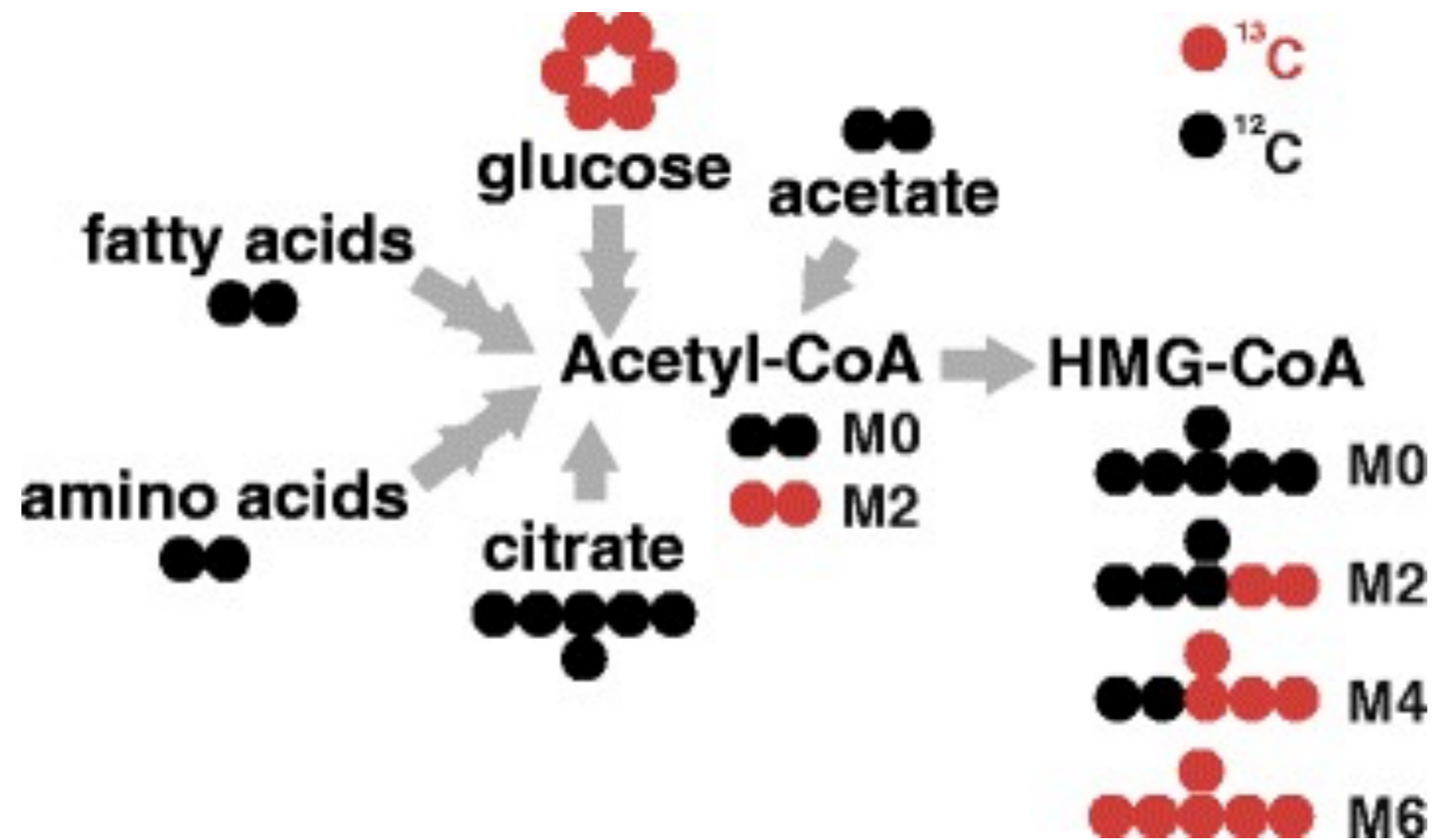
Carbon isotope tracing



Multiple tracers can be used (in parallel or simultaneously) to infer:

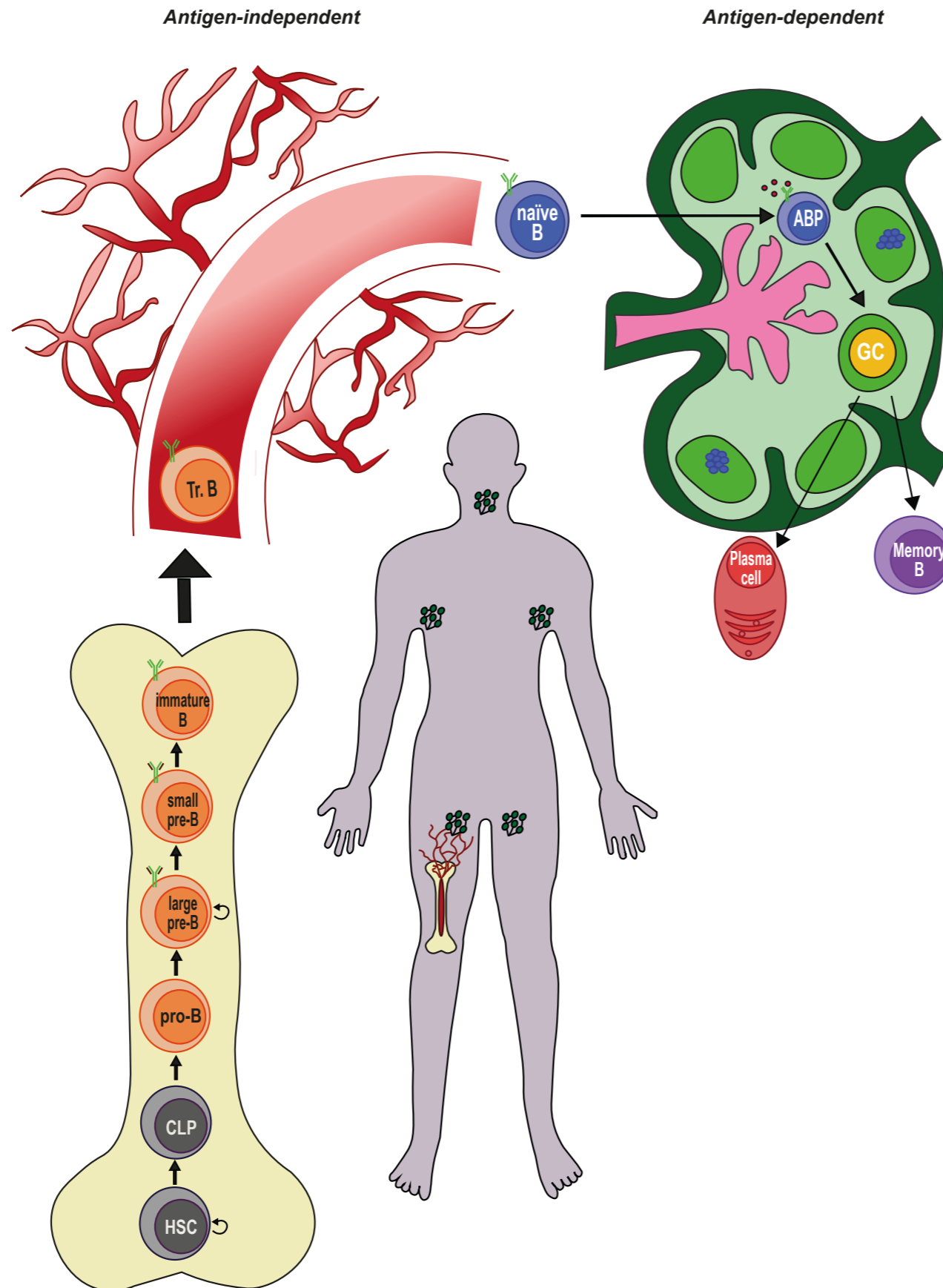
- 1) Nutrient preference
- 2) Pathway utilization

Carbon isotope tracing

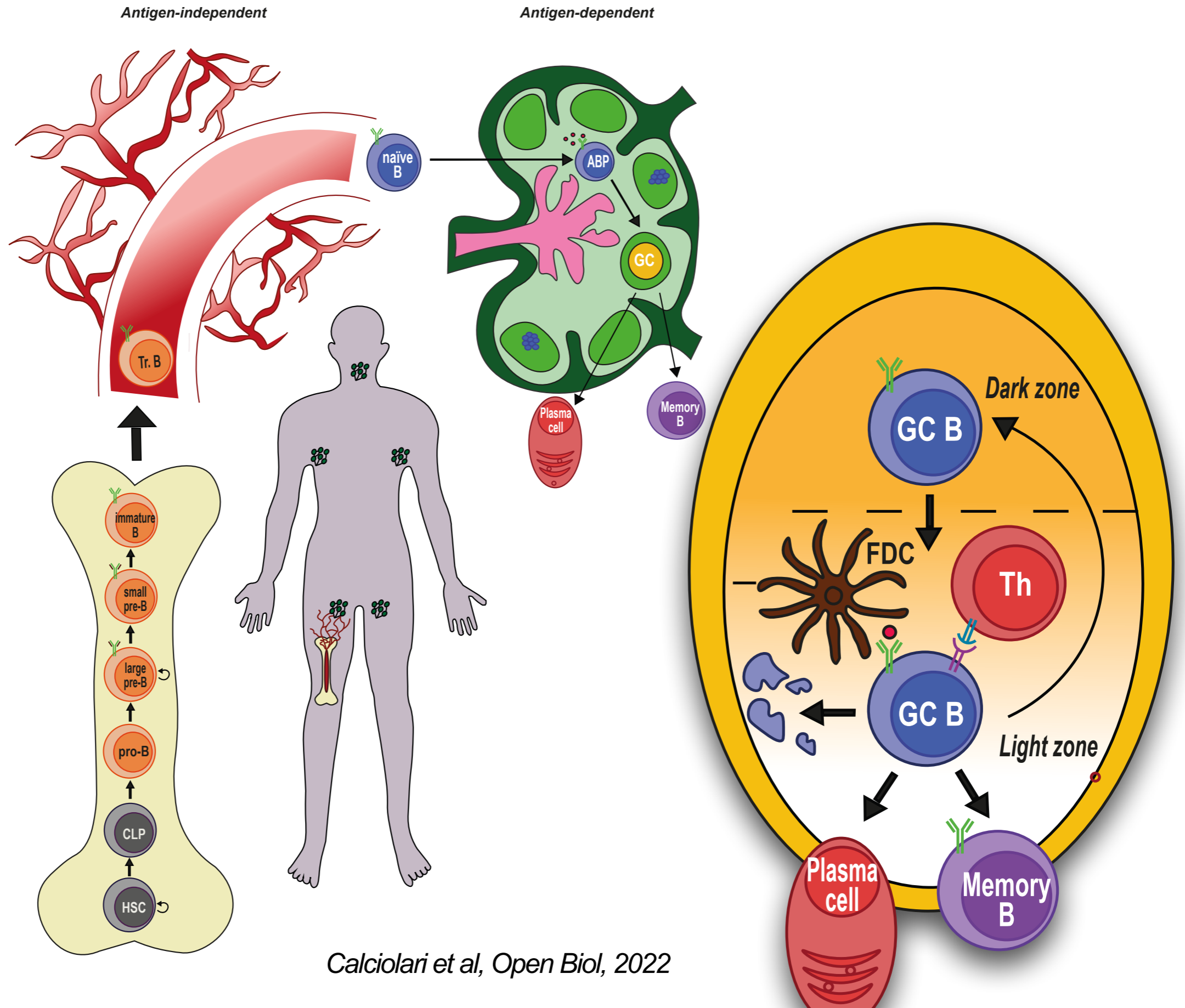


Acetyl-CoA can be generated from multiple carbon sources.
Which one is predominant and in which conditions can be important

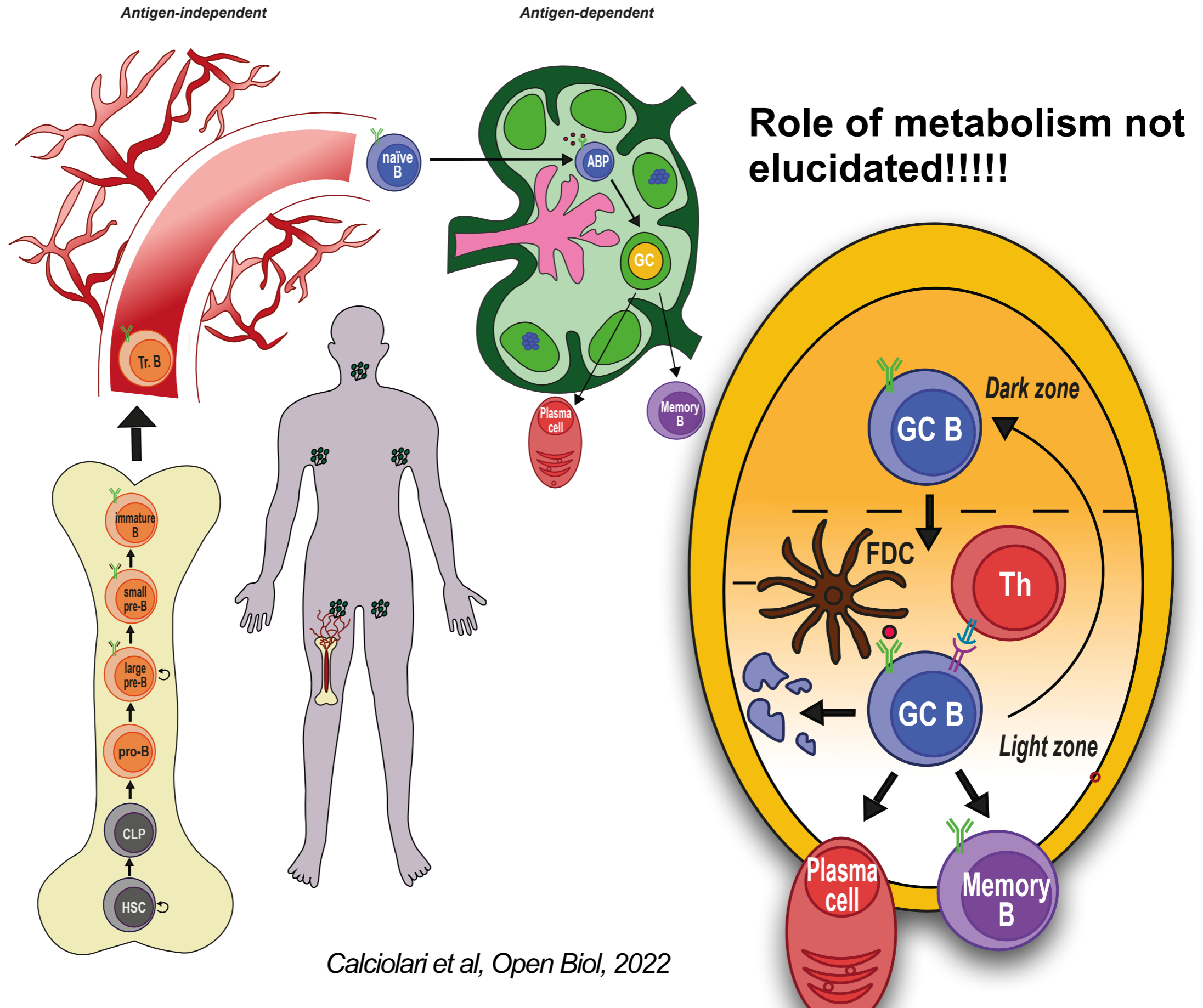
B cell maturation and Germinal Center (GC) reaction



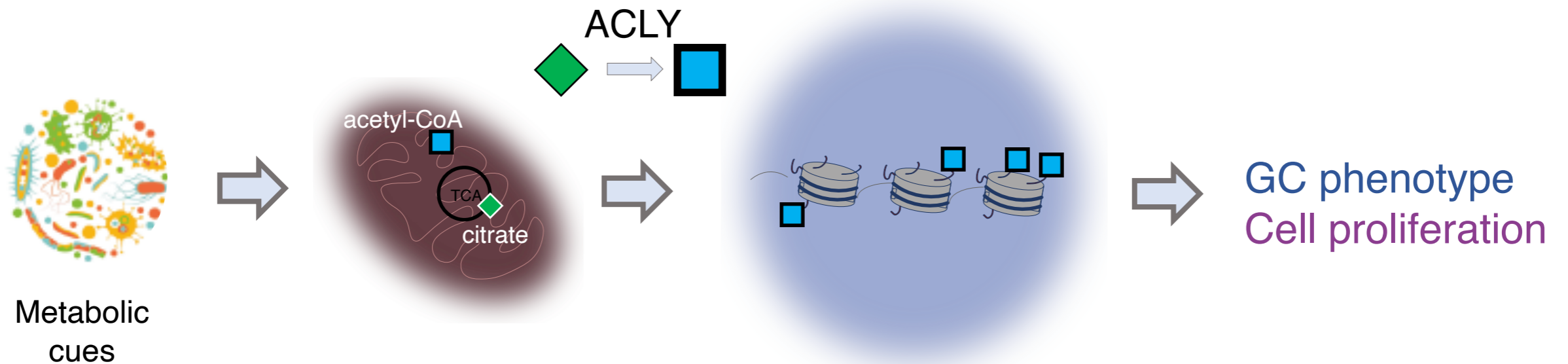
B cell maturation and Germinal Center (GC) reaction



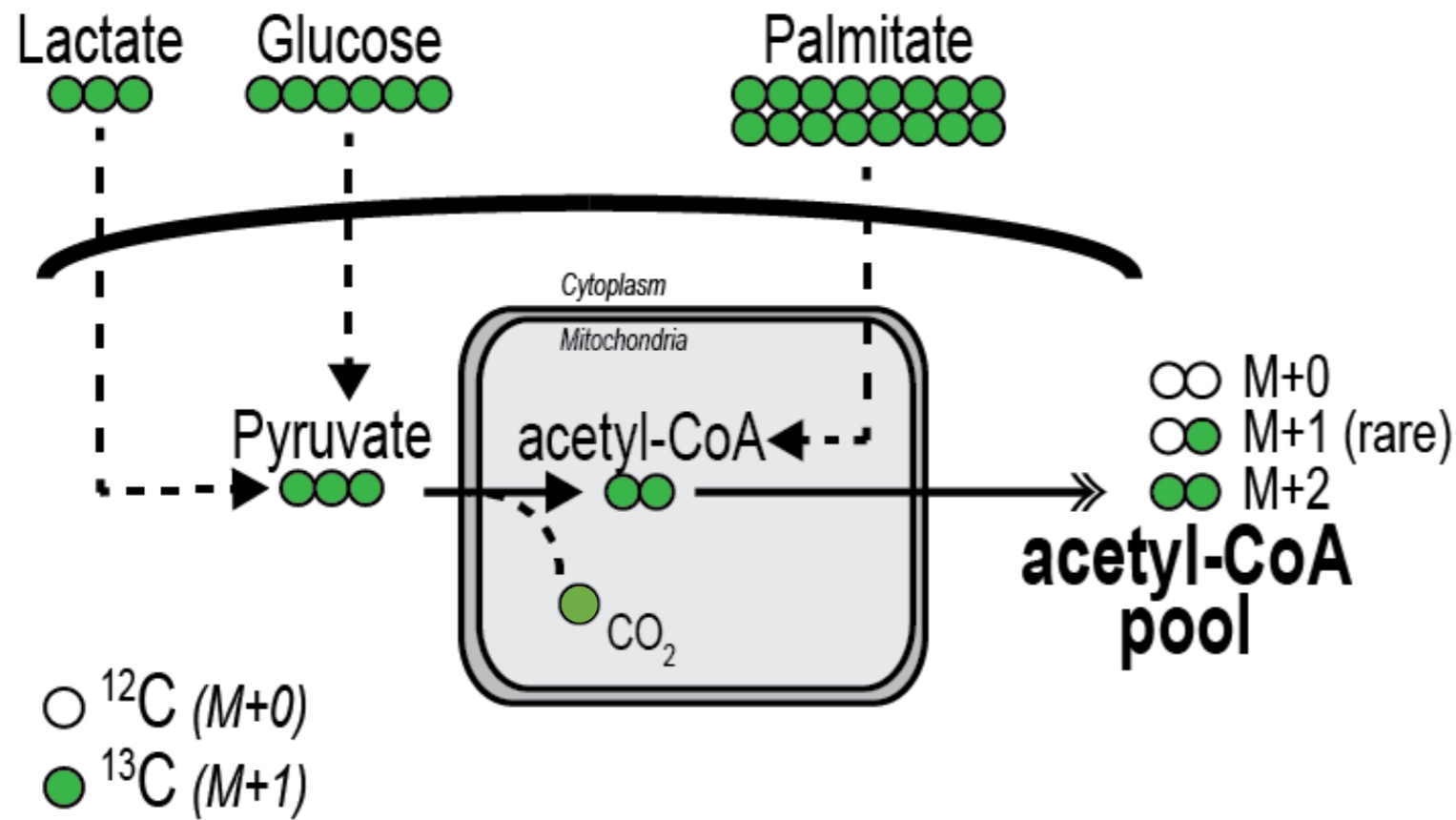
B cell maturation and Germinal Center (GC) reaction



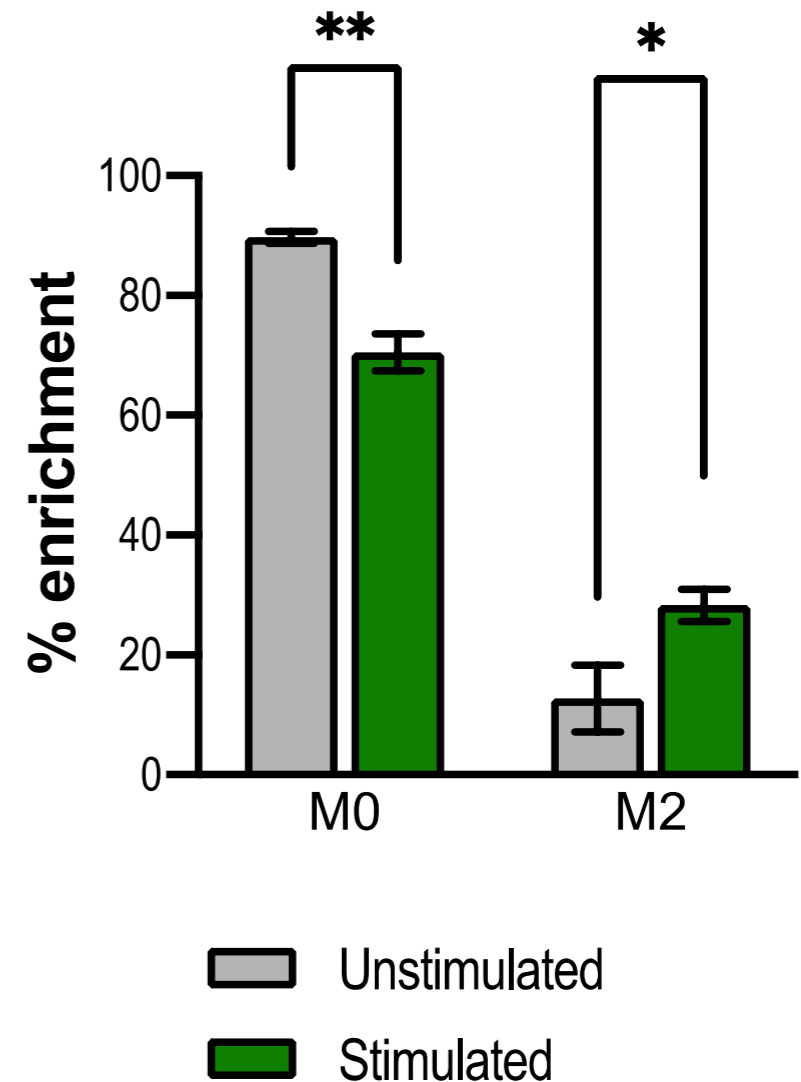
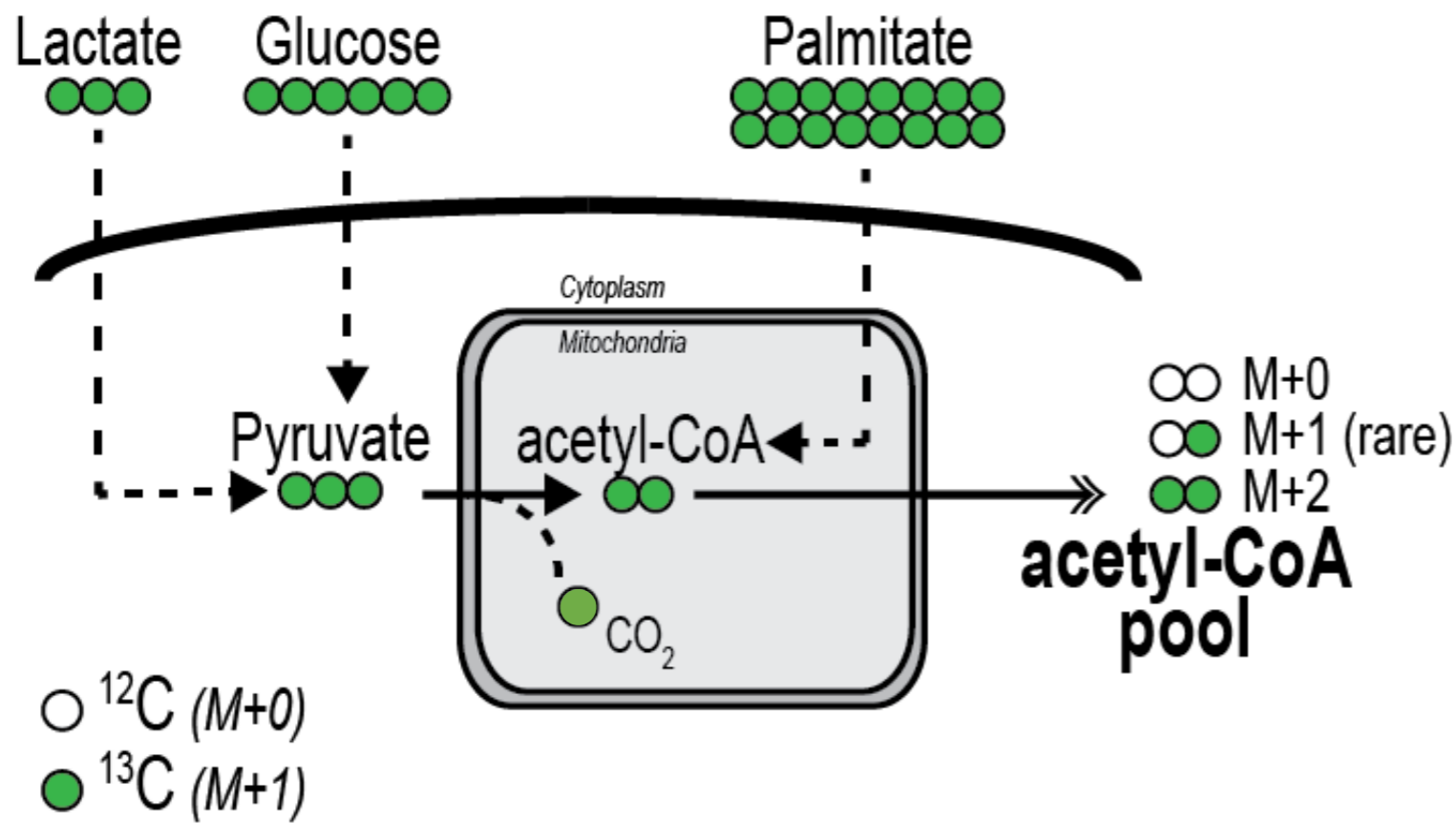
WORKING HYPOTHESIS: ACLY INTEGRATES NUTRIENT SENSING INTO THE EPIGENOME



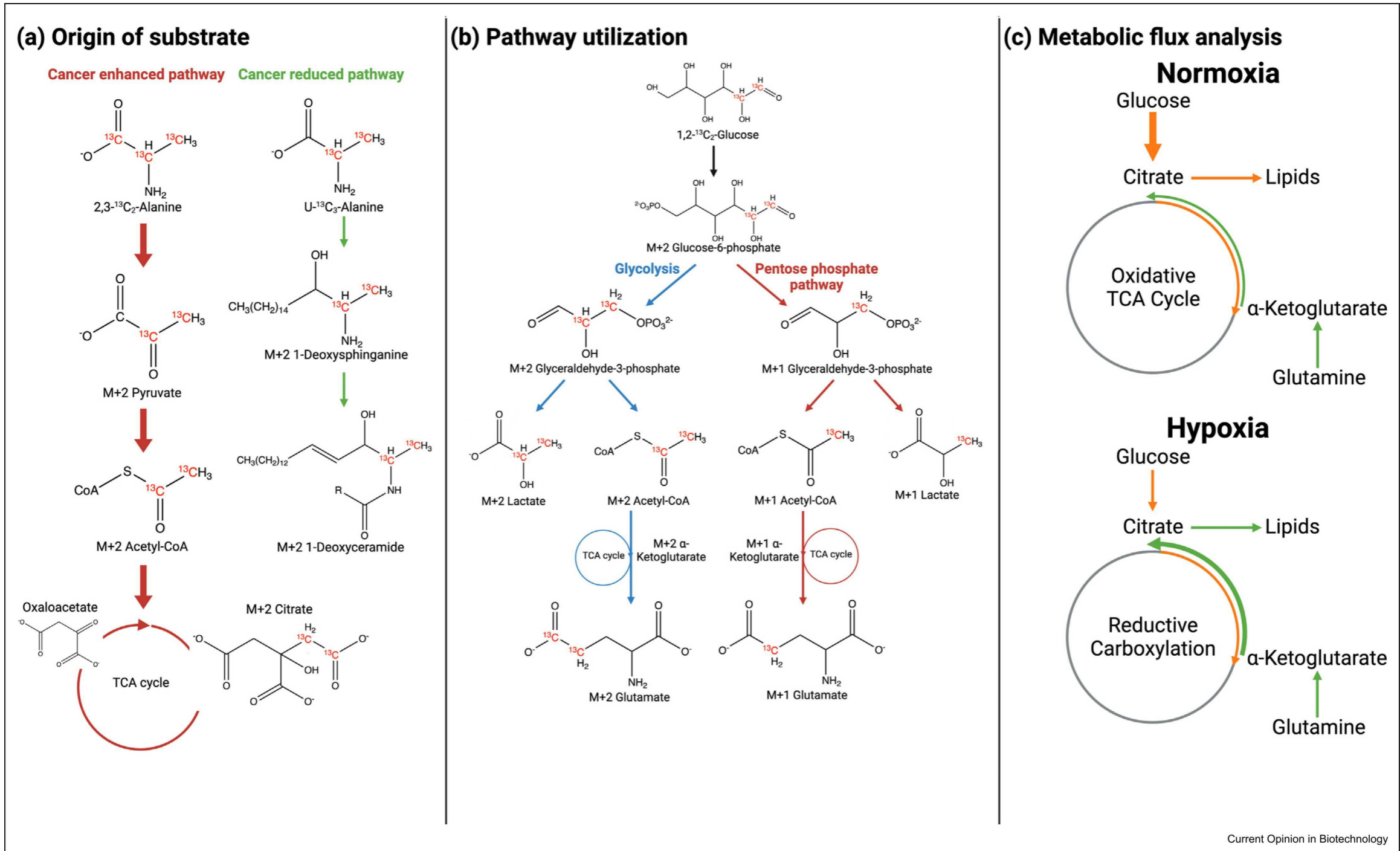
ISOTOPE TRACING SHOWS ELEVATED DE NOVO PRODUCTION OF ACETYL-COA

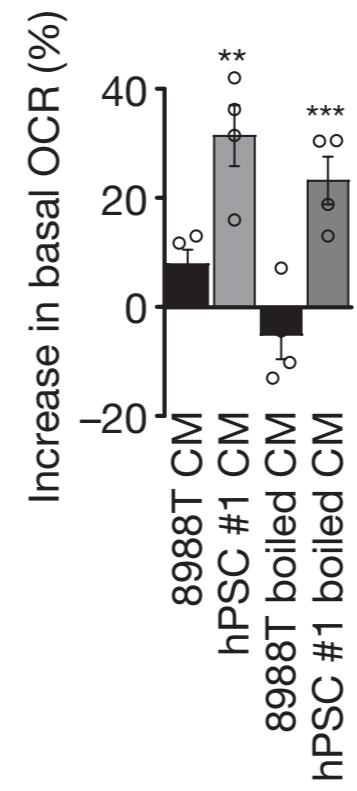
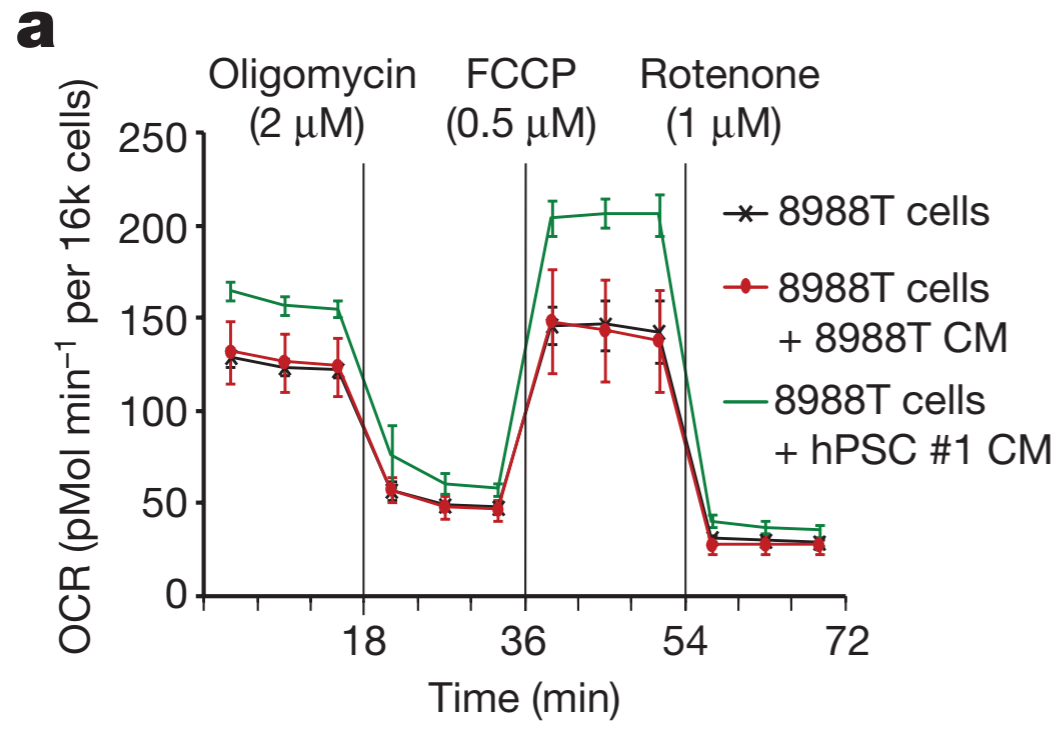


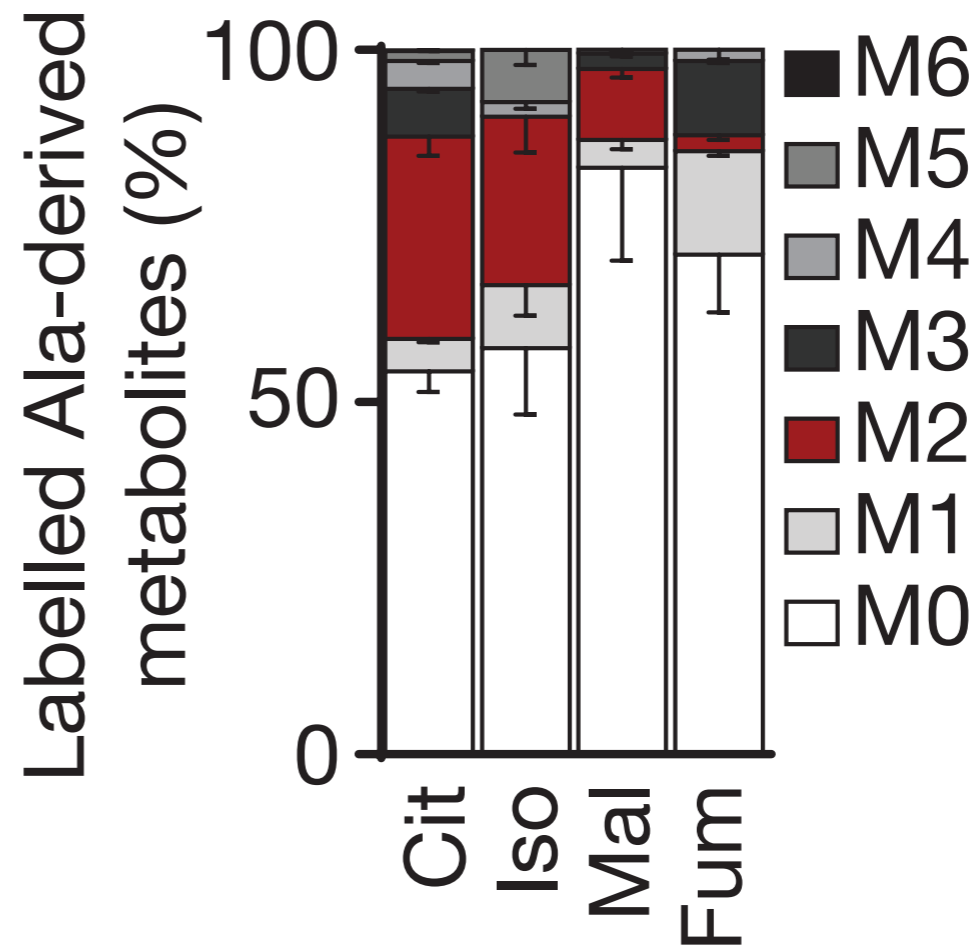
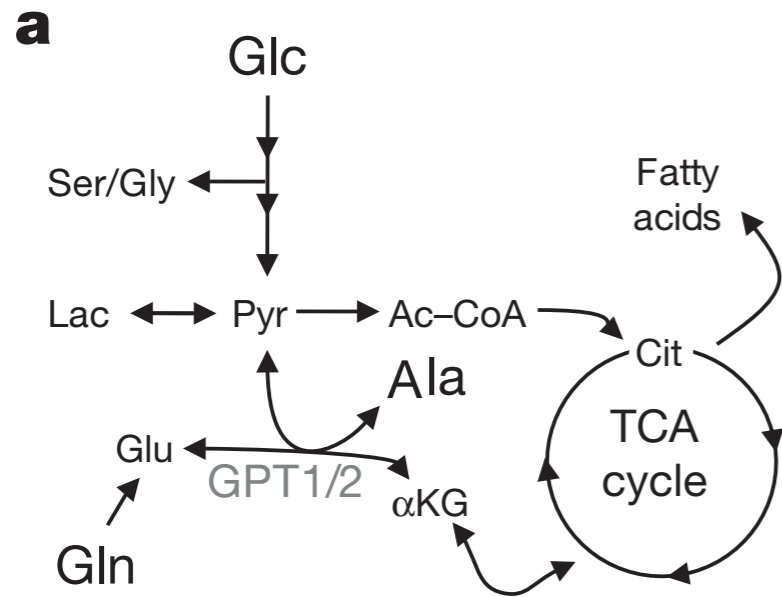
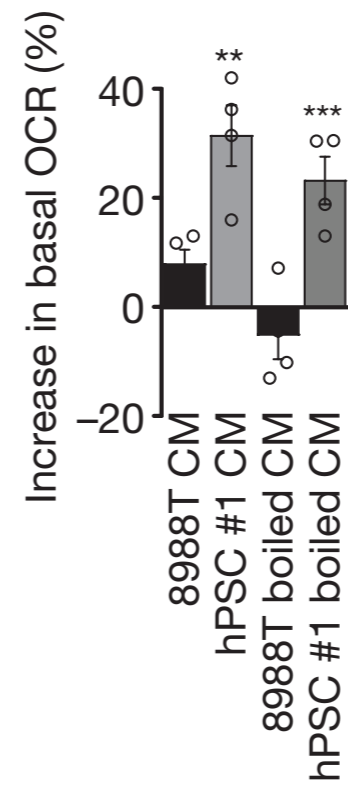
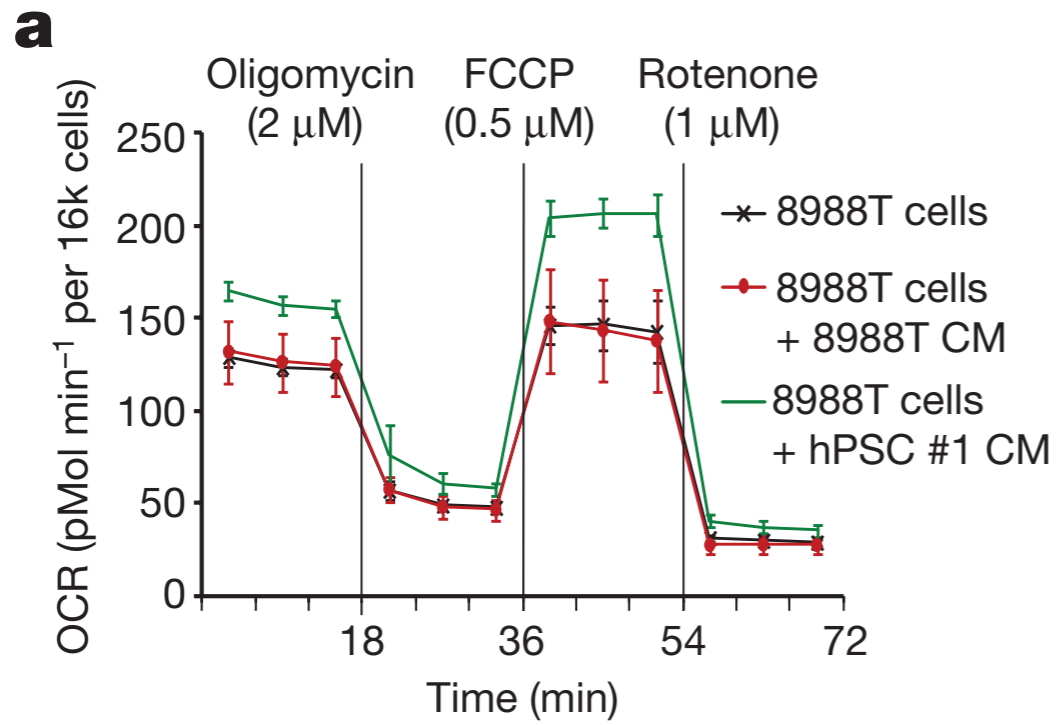
ISOTOPE TRACING SHOWS ELEVATED DE NOVO PRODUCTION OF ACETYL-COA

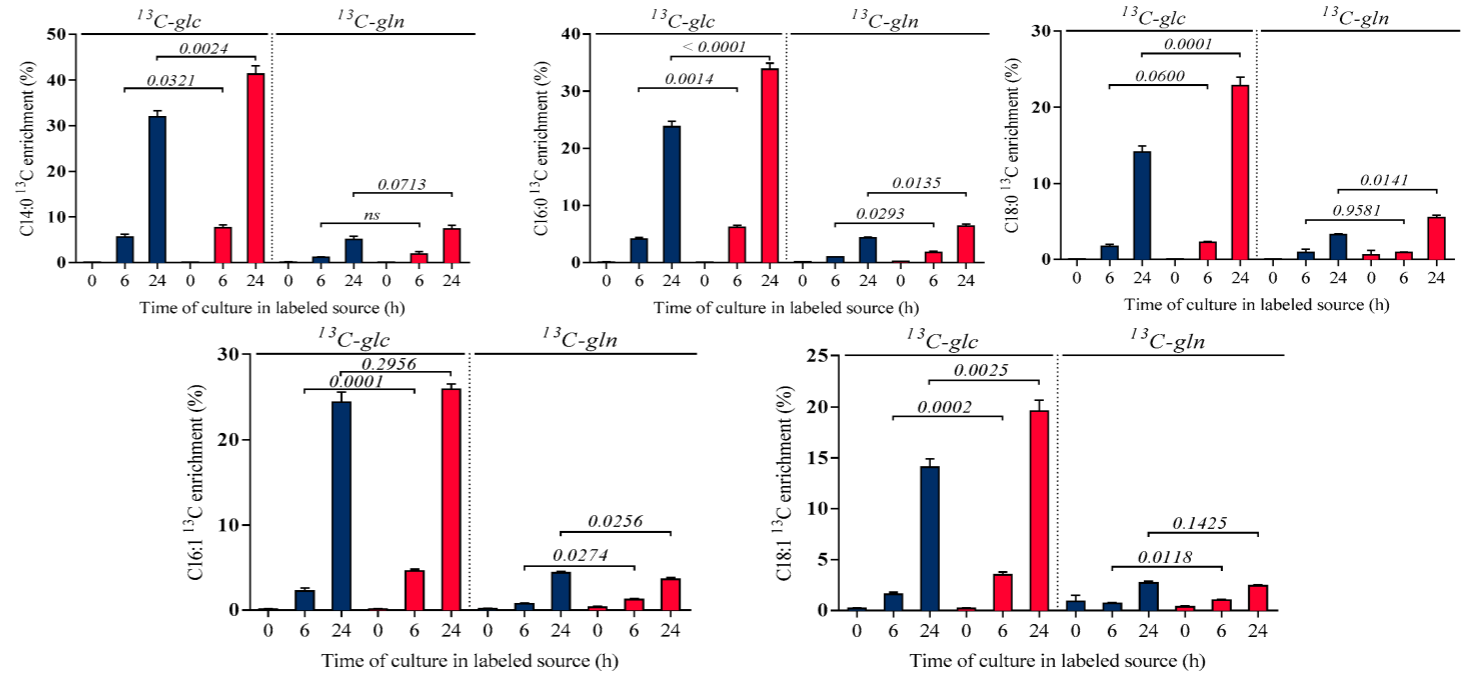
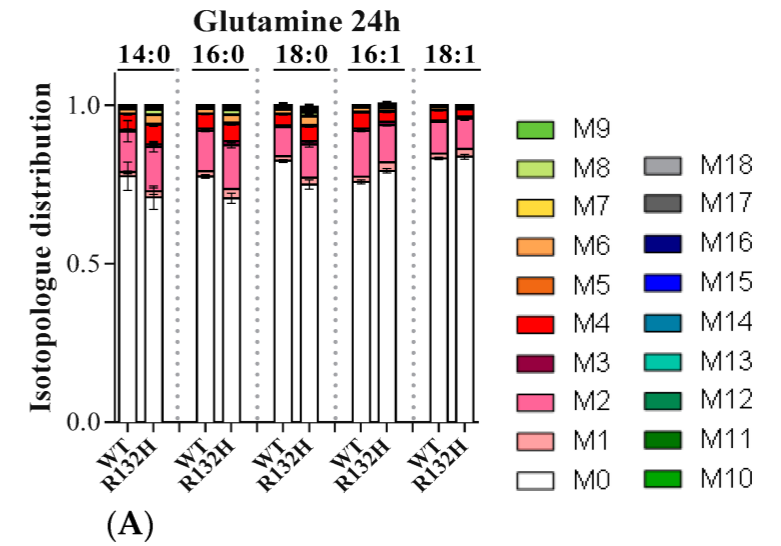
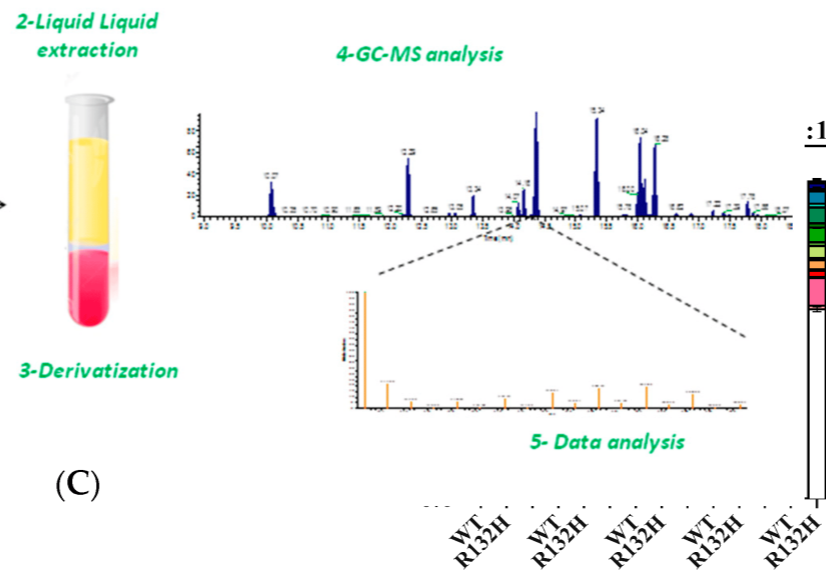
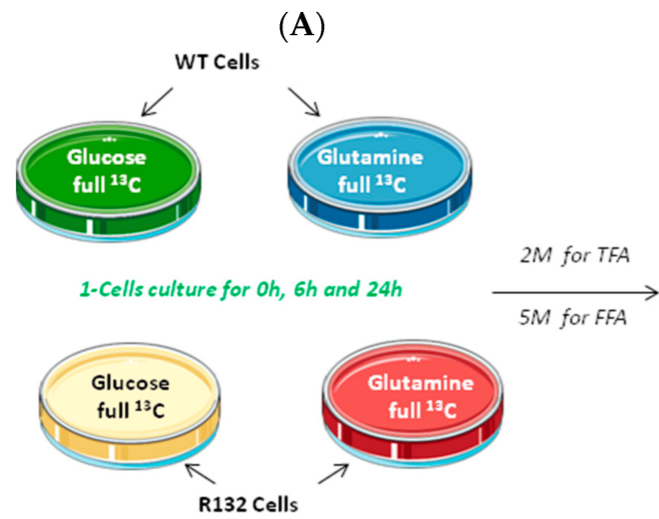
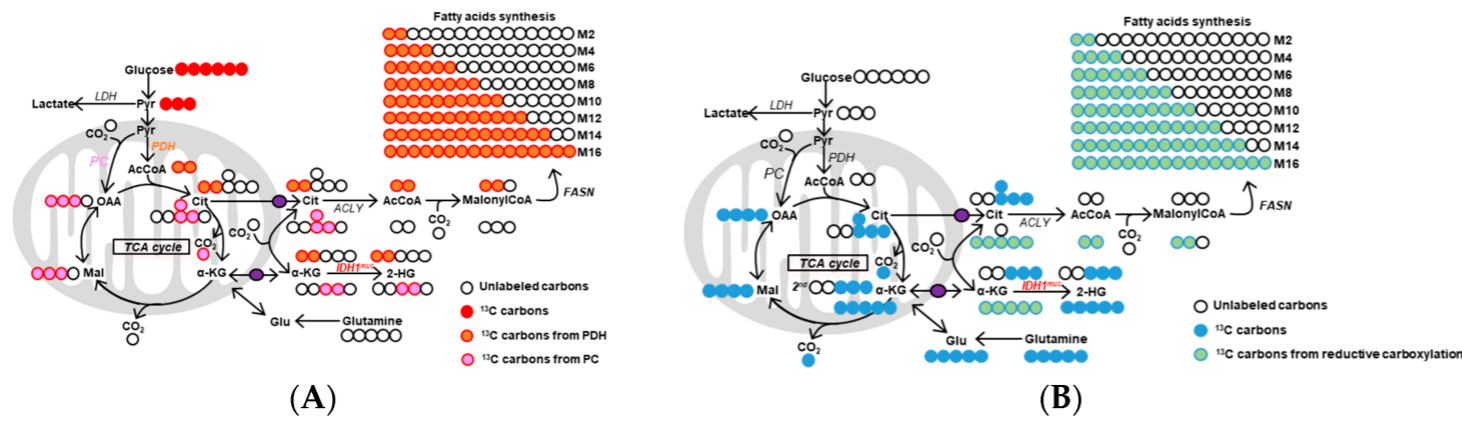


Carbon isotope tracing

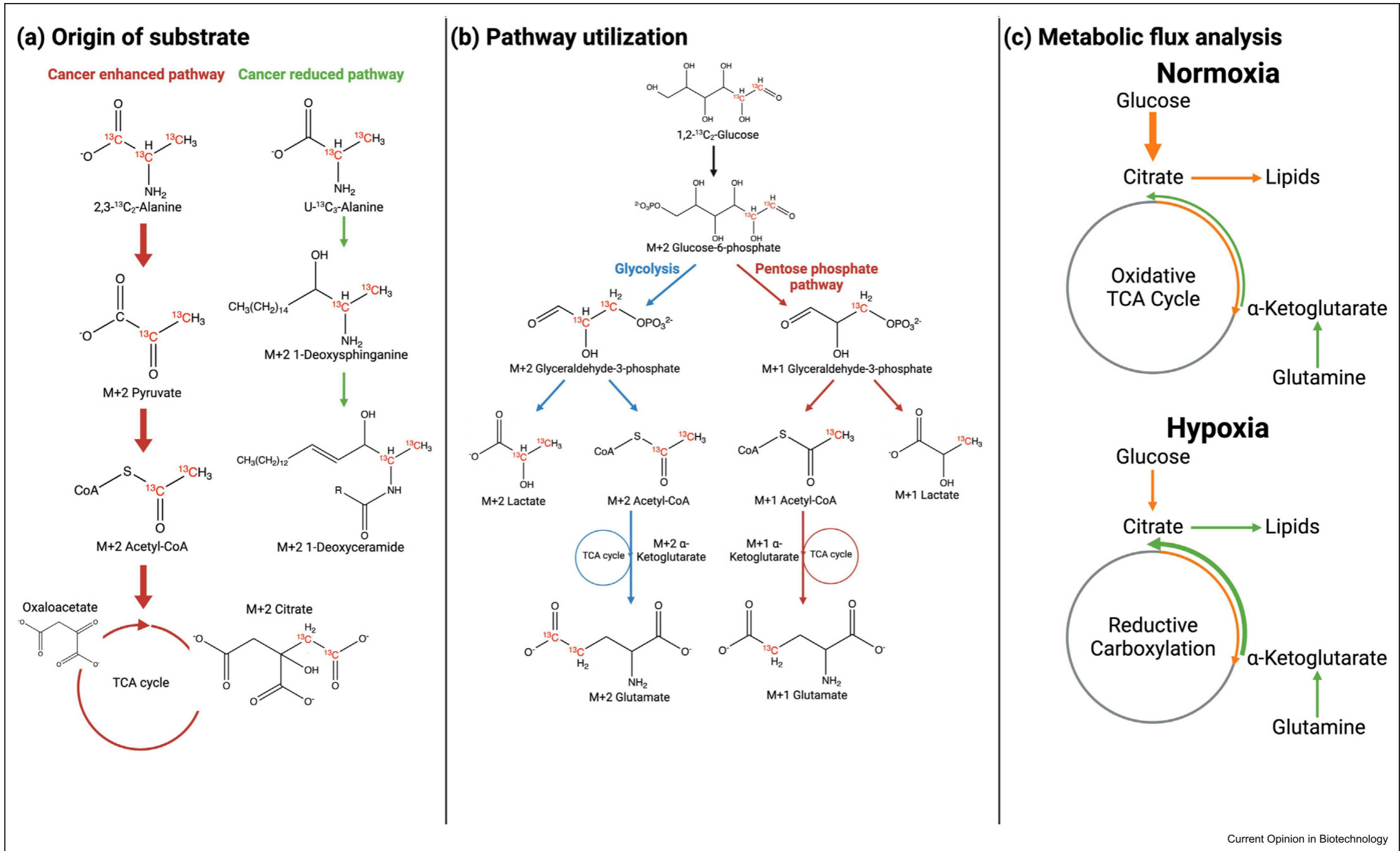




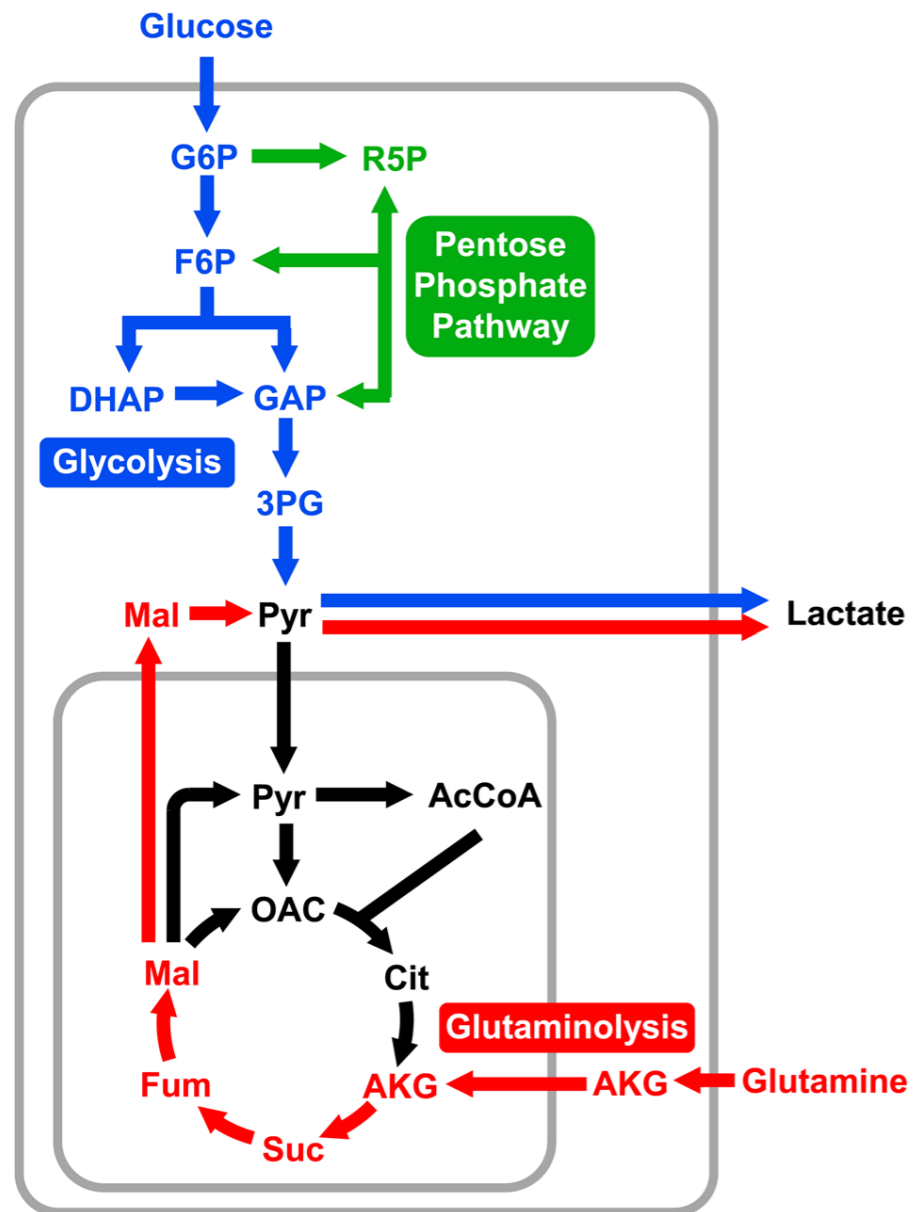




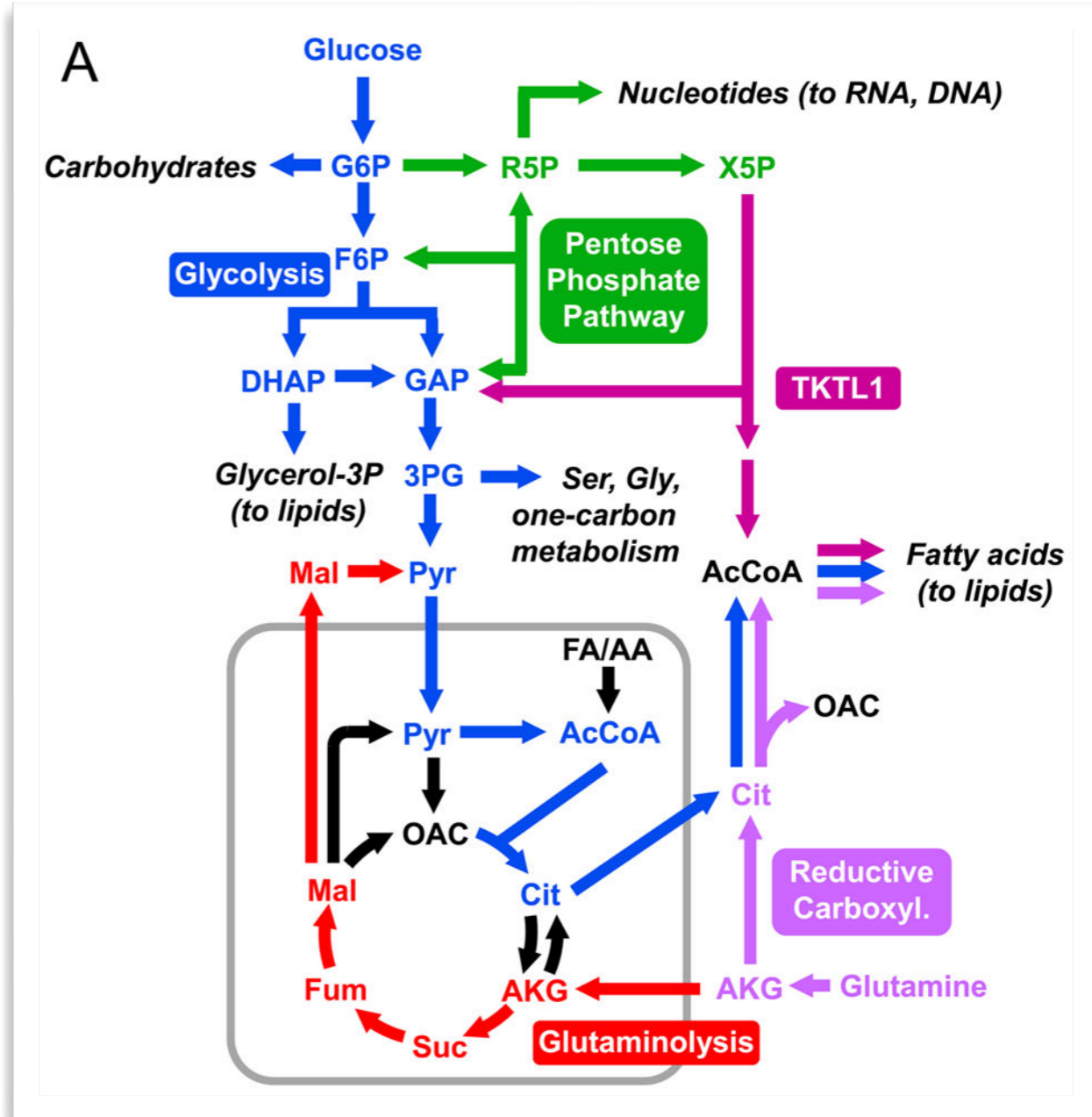
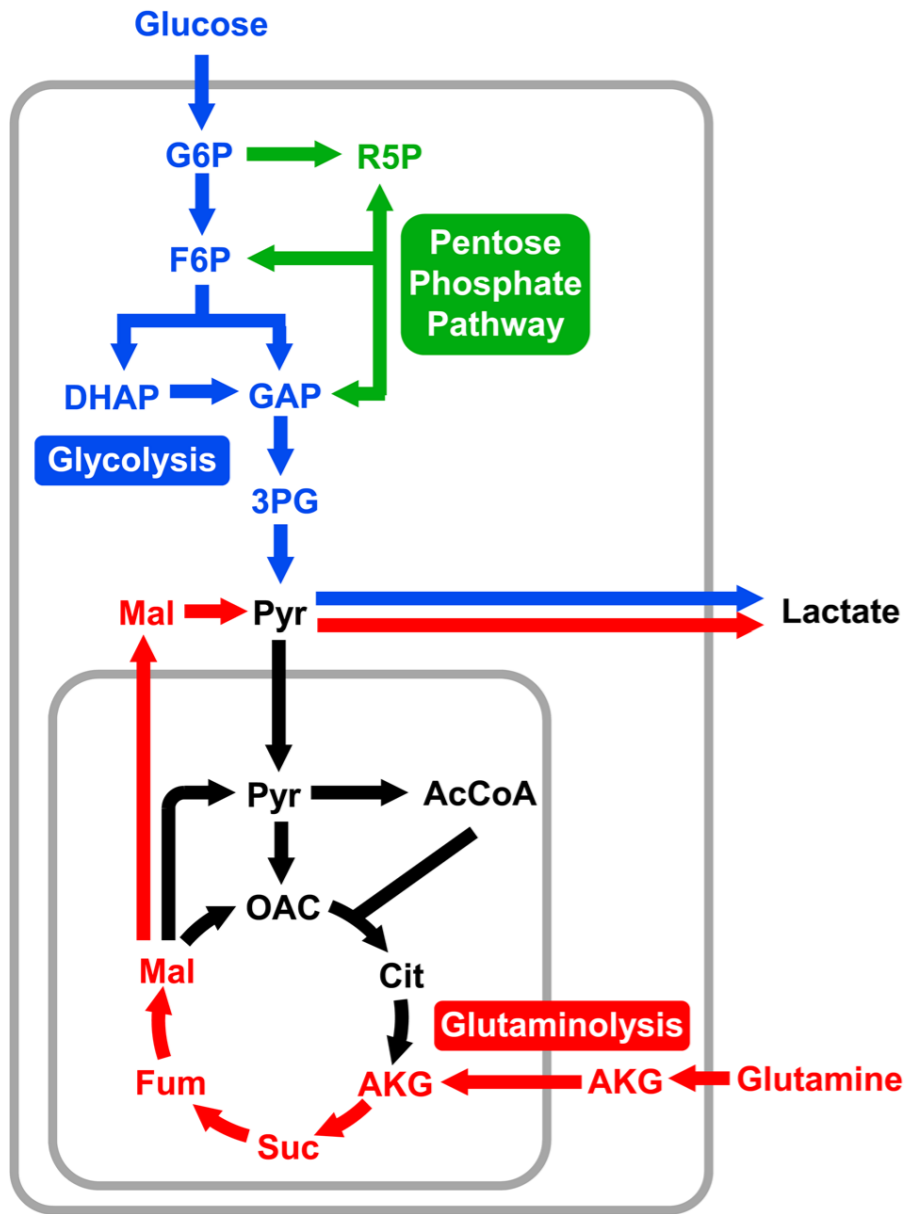
Carbon isotope tracing



Tracing can reveal nutrient utilization pathways



Tracing can reveal nutrient utilization pathways



Reductive carboxylation supports growth in tumour cells with defective mitochondria

Andrew R. Mullen¹, William W. Wheaton^{2,3}, Eunsook S. Jin^{4,5}, Pei-Hsuan Chen¹, Lucas B. Sullivan^{2,3}, Tzuling Cheng¹, Youfeng Yang⁶, W. Marston Linehan⁶, Navdeep S. Chandel^{2,3} & Ralph J. DeBerardinis^{1,7,8}

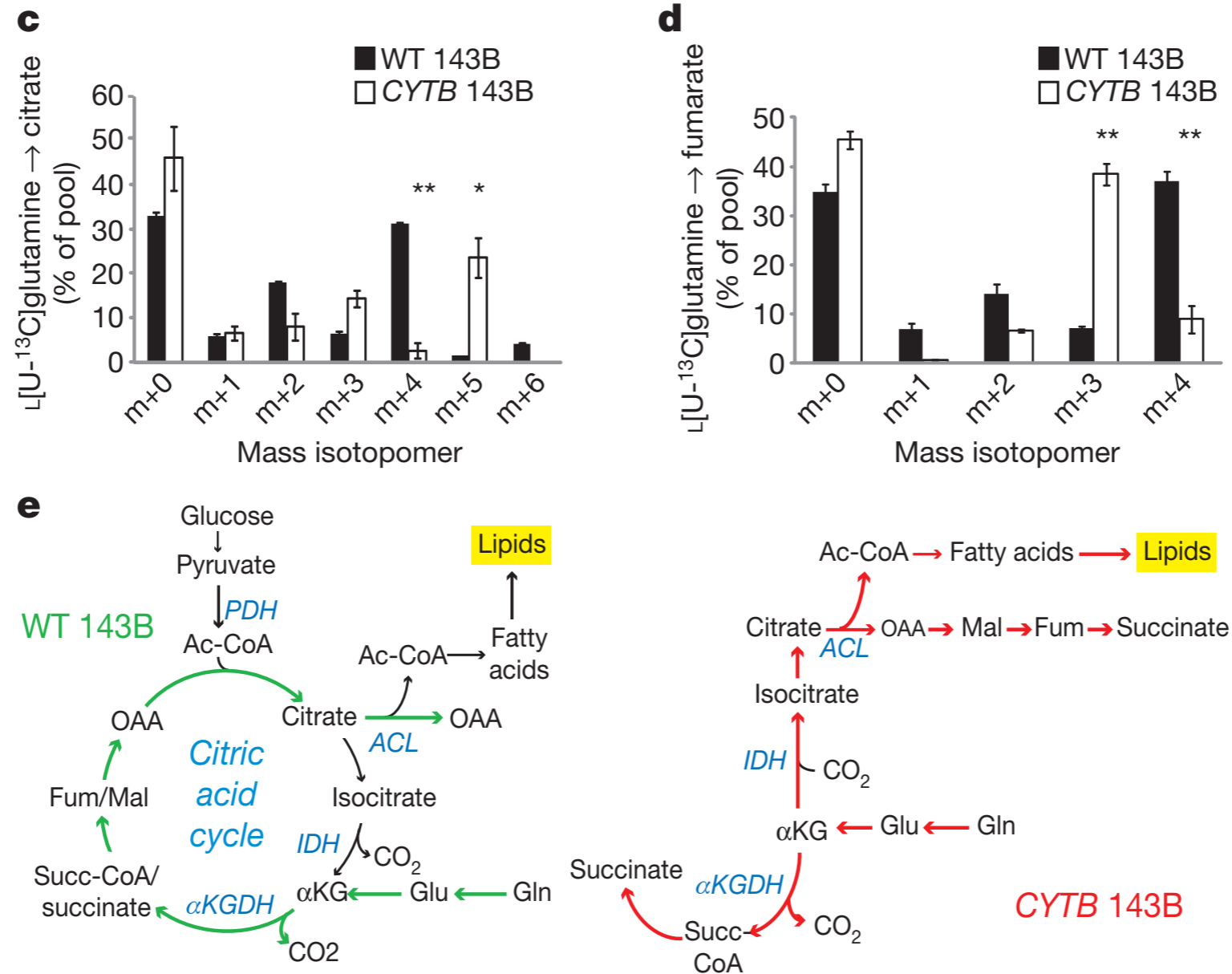
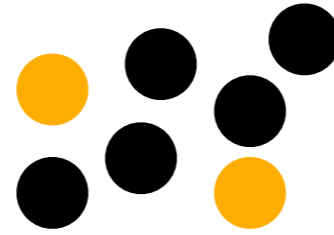


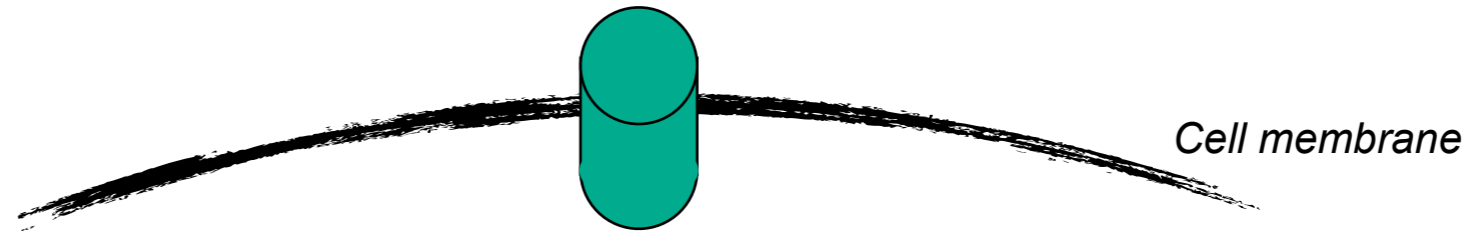
Table 2. Isotopic Tracers for Measuring Pathway Activities

Application	Tracer	Metabolite readouts	Interpretation
Pentose phosphate pathway (PPP)			
PPP overflow	[1,2- ¹³ C]glucose	Lactate M+1, M+2	Flux through the combined oxidative and non-oxidative PPP generates M+1 lactate from [1,2- ¹³ C]glucose, while glycolysis generates only M+2 lactate (Lee et al., 1998). LacM+1 / LacM+2 reflects ratio of PPP overflow to glycolysis.
Source of ribose (oxidative versus non-oxidative branch of PPP)	[1,2- ¹³ C]glucose	Ribose phosphate M+1, M+2	The oxPPP make M+1 ribose phosphate; the non-oxPPP makes M+2. Ratio of M+1/M+2 depends on the gross flux (net flux + exchange flux) of each branch: Reversibility of the non-oxPPP can make M+2 even if all net ribose production is by oxPPP.
Glycolysis, TCA and gluconeogenesis			
Glycolytic rate	[U- ¹³ C]glucose	FBP Dihydroxyacetone phosphate 3-phosphoglycerate	Higher flux yields faster labeling. Labeling results should be confirmed by glucose uptake and lactate excretion measurements.
Reversibility of glycolysis	50%: 50% mix of [U- ¹² C]: [U- ¹³ C] glucose	Glucose-6-phosphate M+3 FBP M+3	Feeding a mixture of labeled and unlabeled glucose results in unlabeled and M+3 triose phosphates. Reversibility of aldolase produces M+3 FBP. Fructose biphosphatase activity yields M+3 glucose-6-phosphate (Park et al., 2016).
Gluconeogenesis	[U- ¹³ C]lactate [U- ¹³ C]glutamine	Glucose M+2, M+3 Glucose-6-phosphate M+2, M+3 3-phosphoglycerate M+2, M+3	Lactate and glutamine are major TCA feedstocks. Flux from TCA to glycolysis catalyzed by PEPCK results in triose phosphate labeling. Fructose biphosphatase activity then makes labeled hexose phosphates.
Pyruvate carboxylase contribution to TCA	[3- ¹³ C]glucose [1- ¹³ C]pyruvate	Aspartate M+1 Malate M+1	C1 of pyruvate comes from glucose C3/C4. Pyruvate C1 is lost in making acetyl-CoA, but can enter TCA via pyruvate carboxylase which makes M+1 oxaloacetate and thus M+1 aspartate and M+1 malate (Sellers et al., 2015).
Reductive carboxylation (“backwards” TCA flux)	[U- ¹³ C]glutamine [1- ¹³ C]glutamine	Citrate M+5, Malate M+3 or Citrate M+1, Malate M+1	Reductive carboxylation of α -ketoglutarate (derived from labeled glutamine) produces M+5 citrate from [U- ¹³ C]glutamine and M+1 citrate from [1- ¹³ C]glutamine, and subsequent ATP citrate lyase produces M+3 or M+1 malate, respectively (Yoo et al., 2008)
TCA carbon sources	[U- ¹³ C]nutrients	Succinate Malate Citrate α -ketoglutarate	Carbon enrichment (number of ¹³ C atoms versus total carbon atoms) reflects carbon contribution from the nutrient; useful <i>in vivo</i> with correction for circulating nutrient enrichment (Davidson et al., 2016; Faubert et al., 2017; Hui et al., 2017)

Nutrient availability

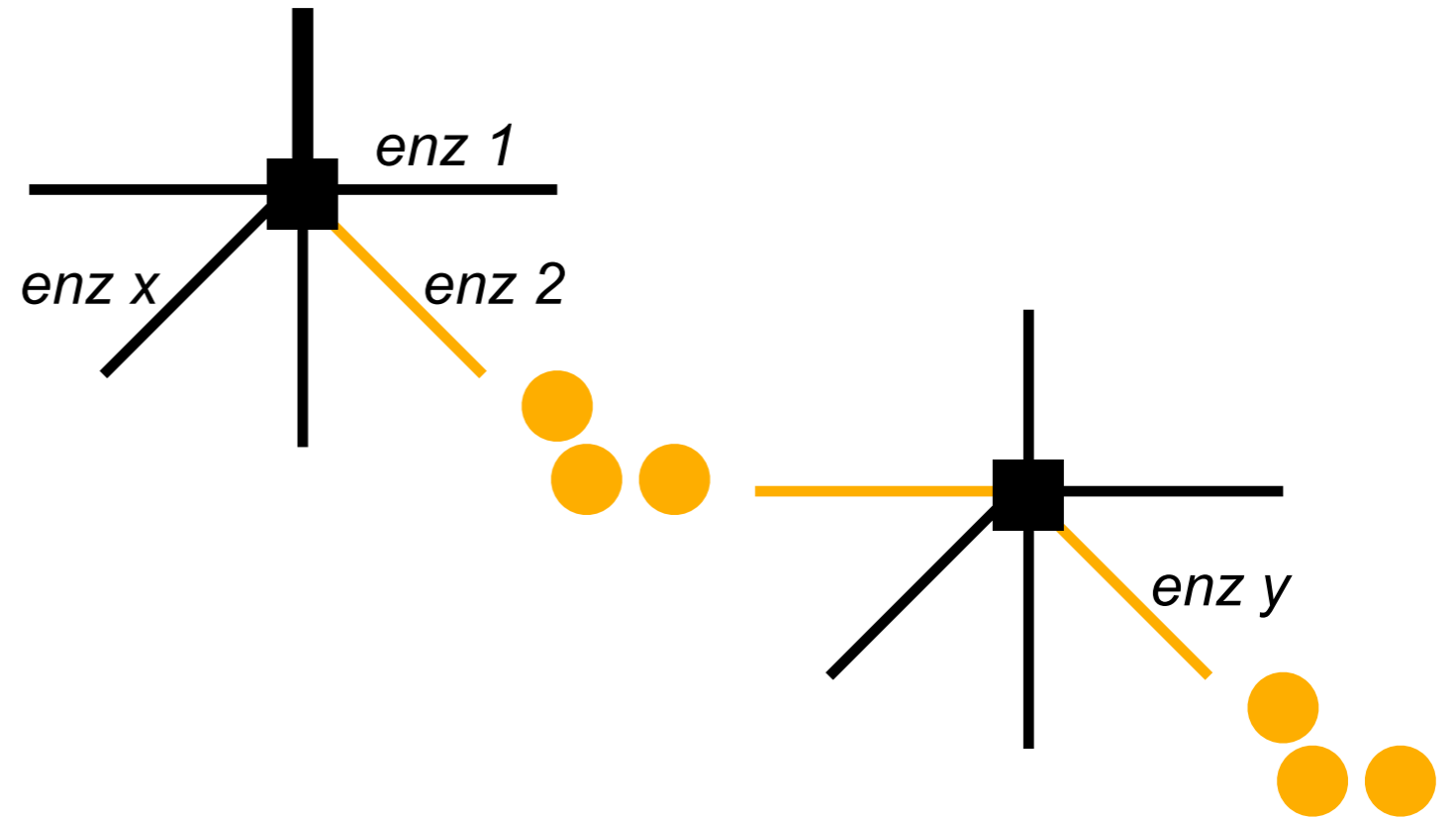


Nutrient uptake



Cell membrane

Nutrient channeling (wiring)

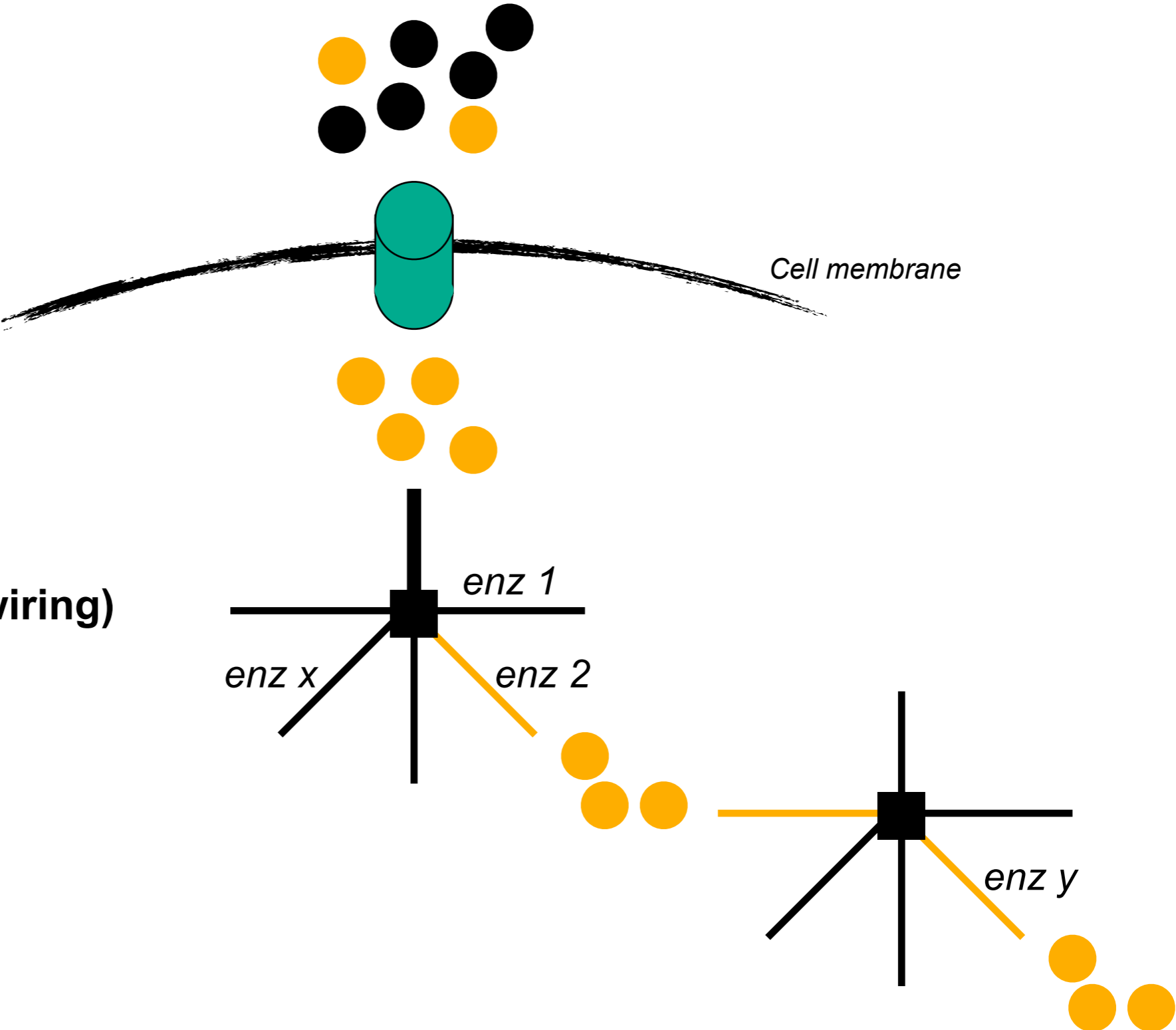


Multi-level regulation of intracellular metabolism

Nutrient availability

Nutrient uptake

Nutrient channeling (wiring)



Measuring nutrient availability

Systemic metabolism

Study absorption mechanisms

Assess what liver does

Circulating levels of nutrients

Tissue metabolism

Study local nutrient availability

Assess “tug war” between cell types

Cell metabolism

Quantify metabolite abundance

Assess nutrient uptake

Assess carbon usage

Profile compartmentalization

Evaluate energy storage

Major challenges of analytical methods

Compartmentalization

Analyses on whole cell extracts do not capture the availability in each cellular compartment. Confined abundance extremely important for enzymatic activity.

In vivo vs in vitro/ex vivo

Analyses on purified cells do not capture the complexity of in vivo systems, which however are extremely dynamic, diverse and difficult to study.

The application of functional genomics allows to test the importance of metabolic enzymes for a certain biological readout (e.g.: tumor growth)

