Integration of clinical data with genome-scale metabolic model of the human adipocyte

Running title: Human adipocyte metabolism at the genome-scale

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Supplementary Text

Adipocyte genome-scale metabolic model coverage on functions

The comprehensive *iAdipocytes1809* covers major known metabolism related pathways as well as extensive knowledge of lipid metabolism in human adipocytes.

Fat absorption and transport to adipocytes: The process of fat digestion is complex and involves multi coordination of lingual, gastric, intestinal, biliary and pancreatic functions. The short and medium-chain FAs resulting from the digestion process are absorbed in the gut and then transported to the liver, via the portal vein, where it is oxidized. Other yields of the digestion process including long-chain FAs, monoacylglycerol (MAG), lysophospholipids and cholesterols are combined with bile salts and absorbed by the intestine wall. The longchain FAs are converted to TAGs as well as cholesterol and lysophospholipids are converted to their esters in the intestine and recently formed TAGs, phospholipids (PLs) and esters are combined into *de novo* synthesized apolipoproteins to form chylomicrons. Produced chylomicrons in enterocytes are transported to the bloodstream via the lymph vessels and they are to be used as FA source by the adipose and other soft tissues.

Chylomicrons in the bloodstream are hydrolyzed to MAG, FAs, and glycerol by lipoprotein lipase (LPL) to be stored as TAGs in adipocytes or to be used as an energy source. Although small amount of FAs are synthesized by *de novo* FA synthesis inside the cell, most of the FAs deposited in adipocytes are taken up from two potential sources: non-esterified FAs (NEFAs) and lipoproteins (Table S5) including chylomicrons, very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), low-density lipoproteins (LDL) and high-density lipoproteins (HDL) through LPL [\(Duncan et](#page-28-1) [al., 2007;](#page-28-1) [Guilherme et al., 2008;](#page-28-2) [Large et al., 2004\)](#page-28-3). There is a clear preference for uptake of FAs from lipoproteins compared to plasma NEFAs whereas chylomicrons are a better source of FAs in the post-prandial state and VLDLs are a better source of FAs in post-absorptive state [\(Bickerton et al., 2007;](#page-28-4) [Large et al., 2004\)](#page-28-3). After the removal of the FAs in chylomicrons by adipocytes, remnants of chylomicrons are cleared from the blood by the liver LDL receptors and their related proteins. The liver catabolizes chylomicrons remnants, forms VLDL by combining resynthesized TAGs with small amounts of cholesterol and PLs and releases them into the blood to be used as FAs sources for adipocytes in the post-absorptive state. FAs in VLDL are taken up through LPL hydrolysis by adipocytes and remnants of VLDL are cleared by the liver to be transformed into intermediate-density lipoproteins (IDL) and finally into LDL.

Adipose tissue stores more than 25% of the total body cholesterol and *de novo* synthesized cholesterol and cholesterol taken up via lipoproteins are integrated into the plasma membrane and lipid droplets (LD) structure. In adipocytes, *de novo* cholesterol synthesis is limited and the greater part of the cholesterol in the cell is taken up from lipoproteins through LPL hydrolysis. LDL and HDL are the potential carriers for cholesterol and CEs from plasma to adipocytes where CEs are hydrolyzed to free cholesterols and re-esterified.

In the reconstructed GEM for adipocytes, 59 different common long and very long chain FAs (Table S4) in human plasma can be taken up as NEFAs and lipoproteins (Figure S5, S6 and

S7). Cholesterol and its 59 different CEs can also be taken up from LDLs and HDLs. In the post-prandial state, FAs and CEs can be incorporated into LD structures and in the postabsorptive state LDs can be broken down to FAs and CEs.

De novo synthesis of fatty acids: Even though factors such as background diet, physical activity, genetics and hormones can influence *de novo* FAs synthesis, synthetic processes are quite limited in adipocytes. The main sources of the glycerol-3-phosphate for FA synthesis are glucose that is taken up from blood by the insulin-regulated GLUT-4 transporter, lactate/pyruvate that can be converted to glycerol-3-phosphate via glyceroneogenesis, and from catabolism of amino acids. The synthetic process starts with the breakdown of the excess dietary carbohydrates to acetyl-CoA that is a precursor for biosynthesis of palmitic acid (C:16:0). Palmitic acid can be further elongated to longer chain saturated FAs by adding acetyl groups, through the action of FA elongation systems in the cytoplasm. In mammalian systems, desaturation of *de novo* synthesized saturated FAs stops with the formation of the n-9 series monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) performed by ∆9 desaturase. The products of *de novo* synthesis are esterified with glycerol to form TAGs and the TAGs are stored in LDs. A healthy subject has the capacity of synthesizing about 20% percent of the FAs in newly formed TAGs via *de novo* synthesis and this knowledge is used in the formation of LDs in the model [\(Strawford et al., 2004\)](#page-29-0).

In the GEM, with the uptake of the essential FAs linoleate and linolenate, 57 different long and very long chain FAs can be synthesized and can be incorporated into the formation of LDs.

Metabolism of linoleate and linolenate: linoleate (LA), unsaturated omega-6 fatty acid, and linolenate (ALA), polyunsaturated omega-3 fatty acid cannot be synthesized by mammalian systems since mammals cannot introduce double bonds between $\Delta 10$ and the methyl terminal end. LA and ALA are essential FAs for the synthesis of arachidonate (AA) and eicosapentaenoate (EPA), that serve as precursors for long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs) and eicosanoids and they must be obtained from the diet. After the uptake of LA and ALA, different steps are involved as follows: double bond is inserted at the Δ6 position of LA and ALA by the action of Δ6 desaturase, two carbon chains are elongated, another double bond is inserted at the Δ 5 position by Δ 5-desaturase to form AA (20:4n-6) and EPA (20:5n-3), two carbon chain is elongated to form 22:4n-6 and 22:5n-3, and further two carbon chains are elongated to produce 24:4n-6 and 24:5n-3, respectively. Subsequently, 24:4n-6 and 24:5n-3 are desaturated by Δ6 desaturase to yield 24:5n-6 and 24:6n-3 that are shortened two carbon chain by the beta oxidation in the peroxisome to form docosapentaenoic acid (DPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). The LA and ALA pathways are independent of each other and there are no crossover reactions between them. There is, however, a competition between the two pathways as the reactions in both pathways are catalyzed by the same enzymes (Figure S6).

In the GEM, the eicosanoids such as prostaglandins (PG), prostacyclins (PGI), thromboxanes (TX), leukotrienes (LT), hydroperoxytetraenoic acids (HPETE), hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids (HETE) and lipoxins are formed via long-chain omega-6 and omega-3 C20 PUFA. This biological function is performed by two different enzymes such as Cyclooxygenase (COX) enzyme that converts the C20 FAs to prostanoids including PG, PGI and TX and lipooxygenase (LOX) enzyme that converts the C20 FAs to HPETE and further to LT, HETE and lipoxins. There are also two isoforms of COX enzymes including COX 1 that controls the physiological roles of eicosanoids, and COX 2 which is activated by some biological processes such as inflammation. DHA-derived signaling molecules docosanoids have also been formed via LA and ALA pathways by COX-2 and 5-LOX enzymes. Docosanoids are also termed as D-series resolvins and protectins (neuroprotectins D1) that are both neuroprotective and anti-inflammatory. In addition, both the eicosanoids and the docosanoids are involved in different biological processes such as inflammation, immune response and cell growth and proliferation. Omega-3 and Omega-6 FAs regulates the enzymes that perform the lipid metabolism (i.e. inhibit FA synthesis in adipose tissue and contain transcription of the leptin gene that regulates appetite, body weight and adiposity) whereas omega-3 FAs have a number of other anti-inflammatory effects via cytokines family of proteins.

Oxidation of fatty acids: During starvation, the TAGs in which the body stores energy provide FAs as a direct energy source for other tissues and a substrate for production of ketone bodies. In the model, β -oxidation of LCFA occurs in the mitochondria and β -oxidation of VLCFA starts in the peroxisome and continues either in the peroxisome or the mitochondria. Transport of FAs (acyl-CoA) into the mitochondria requires the four step carnitine shuttle whereas transport to the peroxisome does not. In the model, phytanic acid that is taken up from the blood cannot undergo β-oxidation due to its β-methyl branch. Therefore, it is broken down into pristanic acid by removal of a single carbon from the carboxyl end via α -oxidation that takes place in the peroxisome.

Other Major Metabolic Pathways: Adipose tissue takes up glucose in the post-prandial and post-absorptive state [\(McQuaid et al., 2011\)](#page-28-5) and most of the glucose taken up by adipocytes enters glycolysis, which is an important pathway for TAGs synthesis by providing glycerol-3 phosphate necessary for FAs esterification. Some part of the glucose may also enter the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle) for energy production.

Analysis of transcriptome data for subcutaneous adipose tissue and integrated analysis Gene expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT) of subjects involved in Swedish Obese Subjects (SOS) Sip Pair Study (Table S1) was analyzed. Gene expression levels of overweight and obese groups are compared with the lean group and the Limma package was used to identify significant genes that were over- or under expressed (adjusted p-values cutoff level < 0.001). Linear models were fitted to the data using linear and robust regression separately before applying an empirical Bayes shrinkage method. Correction for multiple testing was performed using Storey's FDR procedure on the p-values of the shrunk test statistics to generate q-values. The q-values, generated for each probe set in each group were calculated using the Reporter algorithm [\(Oliveira et al., 2008;](#page-28-6) [Patil and Nielsen, 2005\)](#page-28-7) in order to summarize the transcriptional changes in terms of more general features such as biological process Gene Ontology (BP:GO) terms [\(Berardini et al., 2010\)](#page-28-8) and KEGG pathways [\(Kanehisa et al., 2012\)](#page-28-9). Figures S1 and S2 show the output for KEGG pathways for male and female subjects, respectively (cutoff p <1e-04). Figures S3 and S4 show the output for BP:GO for male and female subjects, respectively (cutoff $p < 1e-04$). During the mapping of the probe-sets to the KEGG pathways and BP:GO terms, the manufacturer mapping file was used.

Integration of clinical data into the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes

In order to reconstruct a predictive and functional model for adipocytes in white adipose tissue (WAT), it is necessary to incorporate some relevant experimental measurements (i.e. Fatty Acid (FA) composition of plasma and WAT). Mitrou et. al. [\(Mitrou et al., 2009\)](#page-28-10) investigated insulin action on glucose disposal in SAT and muscle tissue after the consumption of a mixed meal in different healthy subject groups. The study consisted of 30 obese non-diabetic women (age 34 ± 1 year, body mass index (BMI) 47 ± 1 kg/m²) and 10 lean women (age 39 \pm 4 year, BMI 23 \pm 1 kg/m²). The glucose and insulin levels were measured at the veins draining the abdominal SAT and forearm muscles and in the radial artery for 360 min. Fasting TAGs was increased in obese subjects (1.56±0.2 mmol/l) versus lean subjects $(0.93\pm0.1 \text{ mmol/l})$ and HDL-cholesterol was decreased in obese subjects $(0.95\pm0.05 \text{ mmol/l})$ versus lean subjects (1.2±0.07mmol/l). Total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol are also increased in obese subjects $(5.3\pm0.4 \text{ mmol/l}$ and $3.7\pm0.4 \text{ mmol/l}$) versus lean subjects $(4.4\pm0.2 \text{ mmol/l}$ and $2.8\pm0.2 \text{ mmol/l}$. In post-prandial state, glucose uptake in SAT in obese subjects is less than lean subjects $(0.45\pm0.1$ versus 1.1 ± 0.17 µmol/min per 100 ml tissue). However, the average glucose uptake rate in obese subjects $(0.275 \pm 0.04 \text{ mmol/min})$ is more than lean subjects $(0.12\pm0.02 \text{ mmol/min})$ when SAT glucose uptake was multiplied by tissue mass and expressed as per total fat mass. In obese subjects, plasma insulin level is increased comparing to lean subjects and the glucose uptake rate in SAT is not altered in both postprandial and post-absorptive states (approximately 0.45 µmol/min per 100 ml tissues).

Bickerton et. al. [\(Bickerton et](#page-28-4) al., 2007) probe the components of fat metabolism in postprandial and post-absorptive states by using a combination of stable isotope labeling and arteriovenous difference measurements. The uptake of the FAs derived from chylomicron-TAGs, VLDL-TAGs and circulating NEFAs are quantified in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle. In post-prandial state, the adipose tissue takes up FAs from both dietary (chylomicron) and VLDL-TAGs with greater fractional extraction of the chylomicron-TAGs. Significant amount of plasma NEFAs that are minor in comparison to chylomicron-TAGs FAs are also taken up in the post-prandial state but not in the post-absorptive state. In the late post-absorptive state (6 hours after meal), adipose tissue NEFA uptake rate of the LPLderived fatty acids (~320 nmol/min per 100 g tissues) and plasma NEFA (~-180 nmol/min per 100 g tissues) is reported and used in our study.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Clinical data for lean and obese subjects obtained from Swedish Obese Subjects (SOS) Sib Pair Study [\(Walley et al., 2012\)](#page-29-1). In the SOS Sib Pair Study, human subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT) samples are obtained from subjects in order to understand the molecular mechanism of the obesity since SAT displays obesity-related changes in gene expression [\(Wellen and Hotamisligil, 2003\)](#page-29-2). In the SOS Sib Pair Study, in post-absorptive state, the measurements of anthropometry, fat mass (FM), fat-free mass (FFM), blood pressure (BP), fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triacylglycerols, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDLcholesterol), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-cholesterol), serum insulin, serum C peptide (C-peptide), and highly sensitive Creactive protein (hs-CRP) were performed. Values are given as means \pm SD unless stated otherwise.

Table S2. Versions of the databases used in the reconstruction of the Human Metabolic Reaction (HMR) database and genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809*.

Table S3. Content of genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809,* Human Metabolic Reaction (HMR) database and previously published literature-based models.

* unique metabolites in the model.

Table S4. List of the fatty acids used in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809*.

Table S5. Lipid composition of plasma lipoproteins that are fatty acid and cholesterol source for adipocytes [\(Caballero, 2009;](#page-28-11) [Mills et al., 1984\)](#page-28-12).

Table S6. Lipid composition of lipid droplets (LDs) in adipocytes [\(Bartz et al., 2007\)](#page-28-13). LDs are rich in triacylglycerols (TAGs), cholesterol esters (CEs) and an unknown neutral lipid $(-19%)$ that migrated between CEs and TAGs, ether neutral lipid monoal $k(en)yl$ diacylglycerol (MADAG). LDs also contain phospholipids including phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylinositol (PI), ether-linked phosphatidylcholine (ePC), ether-linked phosphatidylethanolamine (ePE), lyso phosphatidylcholine (LPC), lysophosphatidylethanolamine (LPE) and small amount of phosphatidylserine (PS) or sphingomyelin (SM).

Table S7. Random sampling algorithm results for obese subjects compared to lean subjects. Reactions change both in flux and expression in the same direction. DW: Down regulated.

Reaction	RXNID	Male	Female	EQUATION	SUBSYSTEM
DW: HMR_0005	HMR_0005	0.97519		1-acylglycerol-chylomicron pool[c] + $H2O[c]$ => fatty acid- $LD-TG1 pool[c] + glycerol[c]$	Acylglycerides metabolism
DW: HMR_0002	HMR_0002	0.96473		$H2O[s] + TAG-chylomicron pool[s] \Rightarrow 1,2-diacylglycerol-$ chylomicron pool[s] + fatty acid-chylomicron pool[s]	Acylglycerides metabolism
DW: HMR_0003	HMR_0003	0.96473		1,2-diacylglycerol-chylomicron pool[s] + $H2O[s]$ => 1- acylglycerol-chylomicron pool[s] + fatty acid-chylomicron pool[s]	Acylglycerides metabolism
DW: HMR_0010	HMR 0010	0.97519		1-acylglycerol-VLDL pool $[c]$ + H2O $[c]$ => fatty acid-LD-TG1 $pool[c] + glycerol[c]$	Artificial reactions
DW: HMR_3275	HMR_3275	0.78951	0.78409	$FAD[m] + linoleoyl-CoA[m] \Rightarrow FADH2[m] + trans, cis, cis-$ 2,9,12-octadecatrienoyl-CoA[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3278	HMR_3278	0.791	0.7841	$(3S)$ -3-hydroxylinoleoyl-CoA[m] + NAD+[m] => 3- oxolinoleoyl- $CoA[m] + H+[m] + NADH[m]$	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3279	HMR_3279	0.79028	0.7841	3 -oxolinoleoyl-CoA[m] + CoA[m] => acetyl-CoA[m] + cis, cis-palmito-7, 10-dienoyl-CoA[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3280	HMR_3280	0.78951	0.78409	$FAD[m] + cis, cis-palmito-7, 10-dienoyl-CoA[m]$ => $FADH2[m] + trans, cis, cis-2, 7, 10-hexadecatrienoyl-CoA[m]$	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3277	HMR_3277	0.78682	0.7841	$H2O[m]$ + trans, cis, cis-2,9,12-octadecatrienoyl-CoA[m] => $(3S)$ -3-hydroxylinoleoyl-CoA[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3288	HMR_3288	0.72685	0.72411	$cis, cis-3, 6$ -dodecadienoyl-CoA[m] => trans,cis-lauro-2,6- dienoyl-CoA[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3282	HMR 3282	0.72685	0.72411	$(3S)$ -3-hydroxy-cis,cis-palmito-7,10-dienoyl-CoA[m] + $NAD+[m] \Rightarrow 3-oxo-cis, cis-7, 10-hexadecadienoyl-CoA[m] +$ $H+[m]+NADH[m]$	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3286	HMR 3286	0.72685	0.72411	$3(S)$ -hydroxy- $(5Z, 8Z)$ -tetradecadienoyl-CoA[m] + NAD+[m] \Rightarrow 3-oxo-cis, cis-5,8-tetradecadienoyl-CoA[m] + H+[m] + NADH[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3292	HMR_3292	0.72685	0.72411	$(3S)$ -3-hydroxydodec-cis-6-enoyl-CoA[m] + NAD+[m] => 3- $oxolaur-6-cis-enoyl-CoA[m]+H+[m]+NADH[m]$	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3298	HMR_3298	0.72685	0.72411	$(2E)$ -decenoyl-CoA[m] <=> trans-3-decenoyl-CoA[m]	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)
DW: HMR_3293	HMR_3293	0.72663	0.72411	3 -oxolaur-6-cis-enoyl-CoA[m] + CoA[m] => 4-cis-decenoyl- $CoA[m] + acetyl-coA[m]$	Beta oxidation of di-unsaturated fatty acids (n-6) (mitochondrial)

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1. Enrichment in KEGG pathways between obese, overweight and normal (lean) male subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features algorithm. Red and blue represent enrichment in up-regulated and down-regulated genes respectively. Deep red/blue represents 1e-20.

Figure S2. Enrichment in KEGG pathways between obese, overweight and normal (lean) female subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features algorithm. Red and blue represent enrichment in up-regulated and down-regulated genes respectively. Deep red/blue represents 1e-20.

21 Observals and the Updates Come Ontology (BP:GO) terms between obese,
21 Obese ormal (lean) <u>male</u> subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features algorithm.
21 Observation resent enrichment in up-regulated and down-reg **Figure S3.** Enrichment in biological process Gene Ontology (BP:GO) terms between obese, overweight and normal (lean) male subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features algorithm. Red and blue represent enrichment in up-regulated and down-regulated genes respectively. Deep red/blue represents 1e-20.

22 Produces a control of the Reporter Features ormal (lean) female subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features of blue represent enrichment in up-regulated and down-regulated genes pred/blue represents 1e-20. **Figure S4.** Enrichment in biological process Gene Ontology (BP:GO) terms between obese, overweight and normal (lean) female subjects, as calculated by the Reporter Features algorithm. Red and blue represent enrichment in up-regulated and down-regulated genes respectively. Deep red/blue represents 1e-20.

Figure S5. Illustration of omega 9 and other fatty acids metabolism in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809.*

Figure S6. Illustration of linoleate (LA), unsaturated omega-6 fatty acid and linolenate (ALA), polyunsaturated omega-3 fatty acid acids metabolism in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809.* LA and ALA are essential fatty acids and should be taken with the diet.

Figure S7. Illustration of odd chain fatty acids metabolism in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809.*

Figure S8. Reporter Metabolites obtained in the same way as in Figure 5, but using the previously published GEM, *iAB586*. Metabolites with p-values lower than 6e-3 are shown, rather than the top 20 metabolites, since there were only a few metabolites around which the genes were significantly up regulated.

Supplementary Datasets

Dataset 1a. The presence/absence of proteins encoded by 14,077 genes in adipocytes is examined based on immunohistochemistry and using antibodies generated within the Human Protein Atlas (HPA) project.

Dataset 1b. Xie et. al. [\(Xie et al., 2010\)](#page-29-3) characterized the proteome of human adipocytes and reported existence of proteins encoded by 1,574 genes in subcutaneous abdominal adipocytes taken from three healthy lean subjects.

Dataset 1c. The enzymes reported in the Human Protein Atlas database [\(http://www.proteinatlas.org\)](http://www.proteinatlas.org/) are listed.

Dataset 2a. Subcellular localization of the proteins based on the Human Protein Atlas (HPA) and Uniprot data and their assignments in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809.*

Dataset 2b. Subcellular localization of the proteins and their confidence scores in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809* based on the Human Protein Atlas (HPA) and Uniprot data. Confidence score 2 for HPA, 1 for Uniprot and 3 for both HPA and Uniprot were assigned for each protein.

Dataset 3. Enrichment of biological process Gene Ontology terms for encoded genes in here generated and previously published proteome data (assessed with DAVID [\(Huang et al.,](#page-28-14) [2009\)](#page-28-14)) are compared with the biological process Gene Ontology terms enrichment results of encoded genes in transcriptome data in male and female subjects.

Dataset 4. List of the input metabolites and inferred transport reactions in the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809,* to ensure the connectivity.

Dataset 5. Known biological function of the adipocytes and the metabolic capacity was demonstrated by the simulation of 250 metabolic functions based on the definition of functions in HepatoNet 1 [\(Gille et al., 2010\)](#page-28-15).

Dataset 6. McQuaid et al. [\(McQuaid et al., 2011\)](#page-28-5) measured the delivery and transport of fatty acids in adipose tissue using multiple and simultaneous stable-isotope fatty acid tracers in lean and obese subjects groups over a 24 hour period. Even though abdominally obese subjects have greater adipose tissue mass than lean control subjects, the rates of delivery of NEFAs are down regulated in obese subjects. In their study, uptake/secretion rates for NEFAs, TAGs and glucose in obese and lean subjects are reported. In adipose tissue, blood flow, glucose uptake, release of NEFAs and the extraction of TAGs from plasma was significantly lower in the abdominally obese subjects compared to lean subjects. Values are given as means \pm SD.

Dataset 7. Paterson et. al [\(Patterson et al., 2002\)](#page-28-16) have studied the forearm and adipose tissue amino acid metabolism in lean and obese human subjects after 22 hours of fasting. They hypothesized that greater conservation of body protein observed during fasting in obese than in lean subjects and a combination of stable isotope tracer infusion and arteriovenous balance techniques was used to quantify amino acid kinetics. In their study, local net amino acid arteriovenous differences were calculated as the amino acid concentration in arterial plasma minus the concentration in venous plasma and local net fluxes were calculated as the arteriovenous difference multiplied by local plasma flow. Plasma arterial amino acid concentrations, regional subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue arteriovenous concentration differences are adapted from the study of Paterson et. al [\(Patterson et al., 2002\)](#page-28-16) and local net fluxes for lean and obese subjects were calculated.

Dataset 8. Fatty acid (FA) composition in human plasma [\(Quehenberger et al., 2010\)](#page-29-4), adipose tissue [\(Hodson et al., 2008;](#page-28-17) Raclot [et al., 1997\)](#page-29-5) and liver tissue [\(Shorten and Upreti, 2005\)](#page-29-6) where there is not any information for adipocytes are incorporated in to the model for generation of pool reactions. Lipidomics analysis of a pooled human plasma obtained from healthy individuals after overnight fasting has been used in the model [\(Quehenberger et al.,](#page-29-4) [2010\)](#page-29-4). In their study, over 500 distinct molecular species distributed among the main lipid categories including fatty acyls, glycerolipids, glycerophospholipids, sphingolipids, sterols, and prenols were quantified. The reported 31 FAs in human plasma used in our model and normalized values are shown. In their study, some plasma FA known to exist in the structure of adipose tissue triacylglycerols and phospholipids have not been reported. These unreported FAs were included in to the structure of pool reactions by assuming their concentrations as half of the minimum concentration reported in the measurement study. Assumptions for the concentration of non reported FAs in lipidomics analysis allow us to include them into the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809*. Raclot et. al. [\(Raclot et al.,](#page-29-5) [1997\)](#page-29-5) measured the FA composition of TAG in adipose tissue and originated non-esterified FA (NEFA) concentration from adipose TAGs through lipolysis. The mobilization of 34 individual fatty acids is quantified in adipose tissue of eight healthy non-obese women and used in our model to generate the pool reactions. The reported FA content was normalized to 1 mol/mol of TAG and shown. Hodson et. al. [\(Hodson et al., 2008\)](#page-28-17) collected the data for measurements of FA composition in adipose tissue and blood lipids and their changes with different diet. The reported FA composition of NEFA is compared with the lipidomics analysis of a pooled human plasma study [\(Quehenberger et al., 2010\)](#page-29-4) and an agreement has been seen. The FA molar composition of plasma TAGs and CEs reported in the study is normalized to 1 and used in *iAdipocytes1809*.

Dataset 9a. Lipid droplet formation in adipose tissue of lean and obese subjects have been predicted with the genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809* and exchange reactions have been presented. Uptake/secretion rates for NEFA, TAG and glucose in obese and lean subjects are adapted from McQuaid et al. [\(McQuaid et al., 2011\)](#page-28-5).

Dataset 9b. Acetyl-CoA formation in the mitochondria of adipose tissue in lean and obese subjects have been predicted through the usage of our genome-scale metabolic model for adipocytes, *iAdipocytes1809* and exchange reactions have been presented. Uptake/secretion rates for NEFA, TAG and glucose in obese and lean subjects are adapted from McQuaid et al. [\(McQuaid et al., 2011\)](#page-28-5).

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