High-Intensity Interval Training Remodels the Proteome and Acetylome of Human Skeletal Muscle

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Abstract

Exercise is an effective strategy in the prevention and treatment of metabolic diseases. Alterations in the skeletal muscle proteome, including post-translational modifications, regulate its metabolic adaptations to exercise. Here, we examined the effect of high-intensity interval training (HIIT) on the proteome and acetylome of human skeletal muscle, revealing the response of 3168 proteins and 1263 lysine acetyl-sites on 464 acetylated proteins. We identified global protein adaptations to exercise training involved in metabolism, excitation-contraction coupling, and myofibrillar calcium sensitivity. Furthermore, HIIT increased the acetylation of mitochondrial proteins, particularly those of complex V. We also highlight the regulation of exercise-responsive histone acetyl-sites. These data demonstrate the plasticity of the skeletal muscle proteome and acetylome, providing insight into the regulation of contractile, metabolic and transcriptional processes within skeletal muscle. Herein, we provide a substantial hypothesis-generating resource to stimulate further mechanistic research investigating how exercise improves metabolic health.

Impact statement

Hostrup and colleagues indentify global proteomic and acetylomic adaptations to high-intensity interval training, demonstrating apaptations to processes regulating metabolism and contraction.

Introduction

Exercise training is the most effective means to improve cardiovascular fitness and metabolic health, both being predominant determinants of life expectancy and all-cause mortality (Mandsager et al., 2018). Alterations to the proteome of skeletal muscle underpin its adaptations to exercise training, including glucose and fatty acid metabolism, insulin sensitivity, mitochondrial respiration, immune function and excitation-contraction coupling (Deshmukh et al., 2021; Egan & Zierath, 2013; Gonzalez-Franquesa et al., 2021; Holloway et al., 2009; Morten Hostrup & Bangsbo, 2017; Robinson et al., 2017; Ubaida-Mohien et al., 2019). Furthermore, proteome-wide post-translational modifications play an important role in regulating metabolism via modulating signaling, protein stability and enzyme activity (Baeza, Smallegan, & Denu, 2016; Cohen, 2000), and are sensitive to exercise stimuli (Hoffman et al., 2015; Overmyer et al., 2015; Parker, Kiens, Wojtaszewski, Richter, & James, 2020).

The application of mass-spectrometry-based proteomics has vastly expanded the catalog of post-translationally modified proteins, and in doing so has revealed novel insights into both histone and non-histone acetylation (Choudhary, Weinert, Nishida, Verdin, & Mann, 2014; Hansen et al., 2019; Narita, Weinert, & Choudhary, 2019; Svinkina et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the understanding of the acetylome in human skeletal muscle is still incomplete and remains to be studied in response to exercise training. Numerous cellular processes are regulated by protein acetylation, including transcription, metabolism, apoptosis, growth and muscle contraction among others (Narita et al., 2019). Lysine acetylation is an evolutionarily conserved post-translational modification, whereby lysine acetyltransferases catalyze the transfer of an acetyl group from acetyl-CoA to the ε-amino acid side chain of lysine and deacetylases remove acetyl groups from lysine residues. Alternatively, acetyl groups can be non-enzymatically transferred to lysine from acetyl-CoA (Hansen et al., 2019; James,

Smith, Smith, Robinson, & Murphy, 2018; Pougovkina et al., 2014; Weinert, Moustafa, Iesmantavicius, Zechner, & Choudhary, 2015). In human *vastus lateralis* muscle biopsies from male athletes, 941 acetylated proteins containing 2811 lysine acetylation sites have been identified (Lundby et al., 2012). Mitochondria were the cellular component of human skeletal muscle exhibiting the greatest proportion of acetylated proteins (Lundby et al., 2012). Furthermore, the sensitivity of the acetylome to physiological stimuli has been demonstrated in rodents in response to acute fasting and chronic caloric restriction in liver (Hebert et al., 2013; Pougovkina et al., 2014; Weinert et al., 2015) as well as acute exercise (Overmyer et al., 2015) and high-fat diet (Williams et al., 2020) in skeletal muscle (Overmyer et al., 2015).

Continual advances in mass spectrometry-based proteomic technologies and approaches are increasing the depth and coverage of proteomic analyses. Nevertheless, proteome and proteome-wide post-translational modification analyses of skeletal muscle tissue remain highly challenging due to a wide dynamic range of protein abundances (Deshmukh et al., 2015). Single-shot data-dependent acquisition (DDA) analyses are often limited in their protein identifications and are characterized by relatively poor data completeness (i.e. high number of missing values) (Tabb et al., 2010). However, the relatively recent development of data-independent acquisition (DIA) is helping to vastly reduce the proportion of missing data while simultaneously improving proteome depth in single-shot analyses of complex tissues (Ludwig et al., 2018). Nonetheless, DDA in combination with peptide-level fractionation remains a useful approach to overcome sample complexity, particularly when performing post-translational modification proteomics.

In this study, untrained men undertook five weeks of high-intensity interval training (HIIT) and *vastus lateralis* muscle biopsies were collected before and after HIIT for proteomic and lysine-acetylome

analyses. We investigated the adaptation to HIIT in a deep human skeletal muscle proteome and

undertook the first investigation of the acetylomic adaptations to exercise training within human

skeletal muscle. HIIT remodeled skeletal muscle favoring mitochondrial biogenesis, but induced

changes in protein abundance indicative of reduced calcium sensitivity. Furthermore, HIIT increased

acetylation, particularly of the mitochondria and enzymes of the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle.

Results and Discussion

Physiological adaptations to HIIT

Eight untrained men (23–38 years of age) completed a HIIT regimen (Fig. 1A) that consisted of five

weeks of supervised cycling, performed as $4 - 5 \times 4$-min intervals at a target heart rate of >90%-max

interspersed by 2 mins of active recovery, undertaken three times weekly. Participants were healthy,

non-smokers and occasionally active, but otherwise untrained. Characteristics of the participants are

presented in Fig. 1B. Participants experienced a 14% and 17% improvement in maximal oxygen

consumption ($\dot{V}O_{2max}$) and incremental peak power output, respectively, during HIIT (Fig. 1B and C;

$p < 0.001$), which compares favorably to typical HIIT-induced adaptations (Wen et al., 2019). In

addition, participants gained an average of 1.0 ± 0.3 kg lean mass during HIIT training, without

changes in fat mass (Fig. 1B). The rate of fat oxidation during submaximal cycling (50-150 W)

increased following HIIT (Fig. 1D), while no apparent changes were observed for carbohydrate

oxidation (Fig. 1E).

HIIT increases mitochondrial respiratory capacity of skeletal muscle

Resting muscle biopsies were collected from the *vastus lateralis* before and three days after the final

training session. Mitochondrial respirometry analyses were immediately performed on the freshly

excised muscle samples using a substrate-uncoupler-inhibitor titration protocol (Pesta et al., 2011) on

a high-resolution O2K respirometer (Oroboros, Innsbruck, Austria). In line with previous findings (Christensen et al., 2016; Dohlmann, Hindsø, Dela, Helge, & Larsen, 2018; Granata, Oliveira, Little, Renner, & Bishop, 2016; Jacobs et al., 2013; Larsen et al., 2015; Meinild Lundby et al., 2018), HIIT increased mitochondrial respiration across a range of respiratory states, increasing CI+II coupled respiration by 30% ($p < 0.001$) and electron transport system capacity by 15% ($p = 0.049$) (Fig. 1F). Furthermore, HIIT induced a robust increase in citrate synthase activity by 42% ($p = 0.002$) (Fig. 1G), a validated marker of mitochondrial volume in human skeletal muscle (Larsen et al., 2012).

Elevated mitochondrial respiration is underpinned by increased abundance of mitochondrial proteins following HIIT

Skeletal muscle biopsy samples were prepared for liquid-chromatography tandem mass spectrometry and measured using single-shot DIA (Ludwig et al., 2018) (Fig. 1H). We obtained extensive proteome coverage identifying 3343 proteins (Table S1). After applying a filter of 4 valid values out of the 8 participants in at least one time point, 3168 proteins were quantified within skeletal muscle (Table S2). Due to the nature of DIA, few missing values required imputation in each sample (Fig. S1A; mean proteins quantified per sample: 2853 ± 33). Good correlation (median correlation: 0.88) between biological replicates (participants at the same time point) was apparent (Fig. S1B). Furthermore, the proteome contained good coverage across multiple cellular compartments (Fig. S1C). Principal component analysis demonstrated inter-sample variation, however samples did cluster by time point (Fig. S1D). Overall, our DIA proteome analysis displayed extensive coverage, demonstrated by the quantification of low abundant proteins such as transcription factors (e.g. CREB1 and TFEB) and myokines (e.g. IL18; Table S1).

HIIT regulated 126 proteins (permutation-based FDR<0.05). Of these, 102 proteins were upregulated, while 24 were downregulated (Fig. 2A, Table S2). These included the upregulation of classical endurance exercise training-responsive mitochondrial proteins (e.g. cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5b; COX5B & NADH dehydrogenase 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 7; NDUFA7), as well as proteins involved in NAD^+ metabolism (e.g. nicotinamide phosphoribosyltransferase; NAMPT), branched-chain amino acid metabolism (branched-chain alpha-ketoacid dehydrogenase kinase; BCKDK) and ubiquinone biosynthesis (5-demethoxyubiquinone hydroxylase; COQ7), the latter of which we have recently described in exercise-trained mouse skeletal muscle (Gonzalez-Franquesa et al., 2021) (Fig. 2A). We also identified novel exercise-training regulated proteins, including, but not limited to, glutaminyl-tRNA synthase (QARS) and rab GDP dissociation inhibitor alpha (GDI1). QARS, which catalyzes the glutamate aminoacylation of tRNA and thus plays a central role in translation (Deutscher, 1984), was amongst the most significantly upregulated proteins within the proteome. In addition, GDI1, which inhibits insulin-stimulated glucose uptake by preventing the dissociation of GDP from Rab10 (Y. Chen et al., 2009), was lowered, providing a novel potential mechanism for the insulin-sensitizing effects of exercise training.

After filtering for differentially regulated proteins, enrichment analysis using Fisher's exact test indicated the predominant regulation of mitochondrial proteins (e.g. GOCC: mitochondrial part and mitochondrial inner membrane) (Fig. 2B, Table S3). Hierarchical clustering analysis on z-scored differentially regulated proteins identified that the mitochondrial terms were enriched within the upregulated proteins (Fig. 2C). Summed protein abundances also demonstrated mitochondrial biogenesis (Fig. 2D), including upregulated protein content of electron transport chain complexes (Fig. 2E and S2), mitochondrially-encoded proteins (Fig. 2F) and proteins containing a mitochondria-

targeting transit peptide (Fig. 2G). Thus, the increase in the proteome mirrors the functional increase

in mitochondrial respiratory capacity of skeletal muscle after HIIT (Fig. 1F).

HIIT regulates proteins involved in skeletal muscle excitation-contraction coupling

We next investigated whether HIIT influenced the fiber-type proportions of skeletal muscle. While

HIIT did not change skeletal muscle fiber-type composition in terms of myosin heavy chain isoforms

(Fig. 3A) and myosin light chain proteins (Fig. 3B), a coordinated regulation of proteins modulating

myosin light chain phosphorylation was identified (Fig. 3C). Abundance of myosin light chain kinase

2 (MYLK2) decreased concomitantly with a reduction in smoothelin-like protein 1 (SMTNL1), an

inhibitor of the myosin phosphatase complex (Wooldridge et al., 2008) and an increase in myosin

phosphatase-targeting subunit 1 (PPP1R12A), the myosin-targeting regulatory subunit of protein

phosphatase 1 (Alessi, MacDougall, Sola, Ikebe, & Cohen, 1992) (Fig. 3C). Reduced MYLK2

abundance was confirmed by immunoblotting (Fig. S3A). Furthermore, we have previously detected

these adaptations in slow- and fast-twitch muscle fibers following moderate-intensity continuous

cycling training (Deshmukh et al., 2021). Given that phosphorylation of myosin light chains promotes

myofibrillar calcium sensitivity (Davis et al., 2001), the reduction in both MYLK2 and SMTNL1

alongside an increase in PPP1R12A indicates an adaptation towards reduced myosin phosphorylation

and lowered calcium sensitivity following exercise training. Indeed, myofibrillar calcium sensitivity

decreases following high-intensity sprint training in untrained males, particularly at a low pH

representing physiological exercising conditions (Lynch, McKenna, & Williams, 1994). Although

the functional importance of such adaptations remains elusive, knockdown of Smtnl1 augments

exercise training-induced improvements in endurance performance, while sedentary Smtnl1^{-/-} mice

display a fiber-type switch mimicking endurance exercise training (Wooldridge et al., 2008). While

we did not observe any concomitant myosin fiber-type switching (Fig. 3A), the changes observed in

proteins regulating myosin phosphorylation following HIIT could result in a right-shift of the Ca^{2+}-

force relationship, meaning that a higher myoplasmic calcium concentration would be required for a

given force production. This decline in myofibrillar calcium sensitivity may, however, support faster

off-kinetics of calcium from troponin-C to be re-sequestered in the sarcoplasmic reticulum.

Therefore, the changes observed in proteins regulating myosin phosphorylation following HIIT

provide an intriguing mechanism for a HIIT-induced reduction in calcium sensitivity and warrants

further attention.

Providing a further link to the altered calcium handling following HIIT (Lynch et al., 1994), we

identified a downregulation of L-type calcium channel subunits, otherwise known as the

dihydropyridine receptor (DHPR) (Figs. 3 D and E). DHPR controls the coupling of membrane

depolarization and sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+}-release in skeletal muscle via its interaction with

ryanodine receptor 1 (RYR1) (Flucher & Franzini-Armstrong, 1996). Conversely to DHPR, HIIT did

not influence the abundance of RYR1 (Fig. 3F) or the sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium

ATPases 1-3 (ATP2A1-3 (SERCAs); Fig. S3B). The observation that DHPR abundance declined

following HIIT points to a 'slowing' of muscle fibers. Indeed, a period of training can induce rapid

changes in the abundance of proteins with importance for calcium handling, irrespective of changes

in fiber type distribution (M. Hostrup et al., 2019; M. Hostrup, Onslev, Jacobson, Wilson, & Bangsbo,

2018; Majerczak, Karasinski, & Zoladz, 2008; Munkvik et al., 2010; Ortenblad, Lunde, Levin,

Andersen, & Pedersen, 2000). Fast-twitch fibers have greater sarcoplasmic reticulum volume, faster

calcium release and re-uptake kinetics, and a greater content of DHPR than slow-twitch fibers (Banas,

Clow, Jasmin, & Renaud, 2011; Deshmukh et al., 2021; Murgia et al., 2017). Thus, the HIIT-induced

reduction of DHPR abundance may represent a slowing of muscle fibers independently of their

myosin heavy chain abundance.

Lysine acetylomics of skeletal muscle identifies the predominant acetylation of mitochondrial and acetyl-coA metabolic proteins

Skeletal muscle biopsy samples were prepared for lysine acetylomics using a PTMscan Acetyl-Lysine Motif kit (Cell Signaling Technology) (Svinkina et al., 2015) and measured via liquid-chromatography tandem mass spectrometry using DDA. Due to limited sample availability from one participant, lysine acetylomics was performed for 7 of the participants. We identified a total of 1990 acetyl-sites on 664 proteins (Table S4). While this is fewer than the 2811 acetyl-sites on 941 proteins identified in the largest human skeletal muscle acetylome to date (Lundby et al., 2012), we identified 1073 acetyl-sites that were not identified in the analysis of Lundby et al (Fig. S4A). The difference in acetyl-sites identified between the two studies likely reflects a combination of exercise-induced acetylation revealing novel-acetyl sites, and the stochastic nature of data-dependent acquisition, the different LC-MS/MS instruments employed, and the use of updated FASTA files. Nonetheless, we substantially extend the human skeletal muscle acetylome. After applying a filter of 4 valid values out of the 7 participants in at least one time point we quantified 1263 acetylated sites on 464 proteins within skeletal muscle (Figs. 1G & 4A, Table S5). Six and 42 acetyl-sites were quantified exclusively in the pre- and post-HIIT samples, respectively. The mean number of acetyl-sites quantified in each sample was 976 (Fig. S4B). Median correlation between biological replicates (between participants at the same time point) was 0.76 (Fig. S4C), indicating greater variation in the human acetylome than the proteome, as would be expected (Lundby et al., 2012). The acetylome also displayed extensive coverage across multiple cellular compartments (Fig. S4D), which largely reflected the abundance distribution of the proteome (Fig. S1C), albeit with a slight relative increase in the mitochondrial identifications. Principal component analysis identified variation in the acetylome between samples (Fig. S4E). Although there was no clear separation of samples by time point, a leftward shift is

apparent on component 1 from pre to post samples for almost all participants (six out of seven). There

was considerable overlap with proteins quantified in the proteome, with 421 proteins quantified in

both (Fig. 4A). Of the quantified acetylated sites (1263), the majority (1232) were located on these

421 proteins (Fig. 4A). Single acetyl-sites were quantified on the majority of proteins, with a trend

for decreasing frequency with additional acetyl-sites (Fig. 4B). However, several proteins were

quantified with a large number of acetylation sites (e.g. $\geq$ 15 acetyl-sites) (Fig. 4B), examples of

which include the contractile proteins titin (TTN) and slow-twitch myosin beta (MYH7).

After summing the median intensities of acetyl peptides from each protein in the pre-HIIT samples,

we ranked the abundance of acetylated proteins within skeletal muscle (Table S6) and highlighted

the top 10 proteins with the highest acetyl-intensity (Fig. 4C). Histone H4 (HIST1H4A) had the

highest acetylation intensity, making up approximately 10% of the total acetylome intensity,

supporting the regulatory role of histone acetylation in modulating transcription (Sterner & Berger,

2000; Strahl & Allis, 2000). The majority of the remaining top acetylated proteins were metabolic

enzymes, including the TCA cycle proteins malate dehydrogenase (MDH2) and fumarate hydratase

(FH), as well as subunits of complex V (ATP5H and ATP5O) within the electron transport chain.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD2), a canonical acetylated enzyme involved in mitochondrial reactive

oxygen species handling (St Clair, Wan, Oberley, Muse, & St Clair, 1992; Z. Tao, Gao, & Liu, 2009),

also displayed high acetylation intensity. We further compared the protein abundance rank for these

high-intensity acetylated proteins within the proteome (Fig. 4D). These proteins did not appear to be

the highest intensity acetylated proteins simply due to their relative protein abundance. While they

all fell within the top 318 proteins in the proteome, they did not make up the most abundant proteins,

except for creatine kinase M-type (CKM), which is extremely abundant in skeletal muscle (Fig. 4D).

To identify systematic trends in protein acetylation, we performed a one-dimensional enrichment

analysis (Juergen Cox & Mann, 2012) on the summed protein acetylation intensities, which ranked the proteins by acetylation intensity and identifies Gene Ontology (GO) annotations that are systematically over-represented with higher intensities (positive enrichment factor) and lower intensities (negative enrichment factor). This identified mitochondrial terms (e.g. GOCC: mitochondrial part and mitochondrial matrix) as enriched for high acetylation intensity (Fig. 4E and Table S7). In particular, proteins of carboxylic acid metabolic processes (e.g. TCA cycle) and monovalent inorganic cation transport (e.g. electron transport chain complex V proteins) display systematically high acetylation intensity (Fig.4E and Table S7). Furthermore, the Uniprot keyword term "muscle protein" was also enriched for high acetylation intensity, a term that mainly encompasses the contractile machinery of skeletal muscle (e.g. myosins).

In order to examine acetylation stoichiometry within skeletal muscle, we estimated the relative stoichiometries of acetyl-sites using abundance-corrected intensities (ACI) (Table S8). ACIs were calculated by dividing acetyl-peptide intensities by the intensities of their corresponding protein, with ACI values correlating with stoichiometry (Hansen et al., 2019). After ranking acetyl-site ACI for the pre-HIIT samples, we highlighted the top 10 acetyl-sites with the highest ACI (Fig. 4F). Trifunctional enzyme subunit alpha (HADHA), FH, HIST1H4A and 3- ketoacyl-CoA thiolase (ACAA2), which were identified as among the highest intensity acetylated proteins (Fig. 4C), all contain high stoichiometry acetyl-sites (Fig. 4F). However, nicotinamide nucleotide transhydrogenase (NNT) K70 had the highest ACI within skeletal muscle (Fig. 4F). NNT is an inner mitochondrial membrane protein, which uses the proton motive force to maintain high levels of NADPH (Hoek & Rydström, 1988) and in doing so can regulate metabolism (Freeman, Hugill, Dear, Ashcroft, & Cox, 2006; Ho, Lin, Lin, Wu, & Cheng, 2017). NNT is also highly acetylated in cardiac muscle (Foster et al., 2013), although the effect of acetylation on NNT activity remains to be determined. Nonetheless, NNT can

regulate acetylation via NADPH-mediated regulation of histone deacetylase 1 (HDAC1) activity (Ho

et al., 2017), thus acetylation of NNT may represent a feedback mechanism controlling cellular

acetylation and metabolism.

To identify systematic trends in acetyl-site stoichiometry, we performed a one-dimensional

enrichment analysis (Juergen Cox & Mann, 2012) on acetyl-site ACI using the leading protein ID for

relative enrichment (Tyanova et al., 2016). We identified the mitochondria (e.g. GOCC:

mitochondrial part and mitochondrial inner membrane) and carboxylic acid catabolic processes to be

enriched within higher stoichiometry acetylated proteins (Figs. 4G, 4H & Table S9). This extends

previous analyses by not only showing that mitochondrial proteins make up the majority of acetylated

proteins in skeletal muscle (Lundby et al., 2012), but also by identifying mitochondrial proteins as

having relatively high stoichiometry acetyl-sites – an observation that is consistent with analyses in

HeLa cells, rodent liver and yeast (Hansen et al., 2019; Weinert et al., 2014; Weinert et al., 2015).

Enriched for proteins with low stoichiometry acetyl-sites were proteins involved in contraction (e.g.

GOCC: contractile fiber part; Figs. 4G, 4H & Table S9), including the Uniprot keyword term "muscle

protein" (Fig. 4G), which, conversely, was enriched for high protein acetylation intensity (Fig. 4E).

Myosin displayed the greatest enrichment for low acetylation stoichiometry (Fig. 4G). Thus, despite

contractile proteins displaying high protein acetylation intensity and making up a substantial number

of known acetylated proteins within skeletal muscle (Lundby et al., 2012), they contain acetylation

sites of relatively low stoichiometry. The high acetylation intensity of these proteins is therefore likely

due to high protein abundance and a large number of acetylation sites per protein. Proteins annotated

to the cytosol and plasma membrane also displayed low acetyl-site ACI (Fig. 4G). This highlights

differences in the inter-organelle acetylation levels of skeletal muscle and can likely be explained by

subcellular compartmentalization of acetyl-CoA (Pietrocola, Galluzzi, Bravo-San Pedro, Madeo, &

Kroemer, 2015).

HIIT induces acetylation of mitochondrial and TCA cycle proteins

HIIT increased the mean number of acetyl-sites quantified per sample by over 100 sites (Pre: 915 ±

44, Post: 1037 ± 51; $p = 0.015$; Fig. S4B). Using a stringent statistical approach of permutation-based

FDR corrected paired t-tests, we identified 20 upregulated acetyl-sites and 1 downregulated site (FDR

< 0.05; Fig. 5A). In addition, by applying a validated, albeit less stringent, significance score (Π-

value), which combines the statistical significance (p-value) with the fold change (Xiao et al., 2014),

we extended this to identify 257 upregulated and 26 downregulated acetyl-sites following HIIT (Π <

0.05; Fig. 5A and Table S5). In general, there was a trend for increased acetylation following HIIT

(Fig. 4A), which could not be explained by changes in protein content as the fold changes in

acetylation generally exceeded those of protein abundance (Fig. 5B). Therefore, we did not normalize

the acetylome data to protein abundance. The increase in protein acetylation was subsequently

validated via immunoblotting (Fig S4F). Within the increased sites, acetyl-sites on metabolic

enzymes isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH2), pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 component subunit alpha

(PDH1A), succinate CoA ligase subunit alpha (SUCLG1) and ATP synthase coupling factor 6

(ATP5J) were apparent (Fig. 5A), while hyperacetylation of SOD2 occurred at K68, 75, 122 and 130

in response to HIIT (Fig. 5A). Included within the downregulated sites were acetyl-sites on annexin

A6 (ANXA6), laminin (LMNA) and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase γ (MAPK12) (Fig. 5A).

Interestingly, Histone H1.5 (HIST1H1B) K48 showed increased acetylation, despite significantly

reduced protein abundance (Fig. 5B).

A Fisher's exact test of HIIT-regulated acetyl-sites ($\Pi < 0.05$), using leading protein ID for relative enrichment, indicated the predominant regulation of the TCA cycle pathway, mitochondrial proteins (e.g. GOCC: mitochondrial part and mitochondrial inner membrane) and, in particular, electron transport chain complex V proteins (GOCC: mitochondrial proton-transporting ATP synthase complex) (Fig. 5C, Table S10). These GO terms were strikingly similar to the terms enriched for high acetylation intensity and stoichiometry in the pre-HIIT samples (Figs. 4E and G), indicating that proteins that are highly acetylated in the basal state are most susceptible to increased acetylation following HIIT. To further explore the regulation of HIIT-induced acetylation in skeletal muscle, we looked for consensus sequences around the acetylated lysine residues using iceLogo (Colaert, Helsens, Martens, Vandekerckhove, & Gevaert, 2009). We identified a sequence with a predominance of proximal cysteine residues as well as an aspartic acid residue in the +1 position (Fig. 5D). The aspartic acid at +1 is a feature of mitochondrial acetylated proteins (Lundby et al., 2012) and its enrichment is likely due to the over-representation of mitochondrial proteins in the upregulated acetyl-sites (Fig. 5C). Proximal cysteine residues are associated with promoting non-enzymatic lysine acetylation (Hansen et al., 2019; James et al., 2018) via initial cysteine acetylation followed by transfer of the acetyl group to lysine (James et al., 2018). Indeed, non-enzymatic acetylation increases alongside elevated fatty acid oxidation (Pougovkina et al., 2014), as is apparent in skeletal muscle mitochondria after HIIT (Figs. 1E). This likely occurs through changes in acetyl-CoA concentration and/or increased acetyl-CoA flux (Pougovkina et al., 2014). Although acetyl-CoA content within resting skeletal muscle does not change in response to exercise training (Putman et al., 1998), acetyl-CoA levels and TCA cycle flux increase during exercise (Constantin-Teodosiu, Carlin, Cederblad, Harrist, & Hultman, 1991; Gibala, MacLean, Graham, & Saltin, 1998; Howlett et al., 1998; Putman et al., 1998), which may result in an accumulation of lysine acetylation during repeated bouts of exercise. Conversely, acute exercise decreases skeletal muscle acetylation in exercising rats

(Overmyer et al., 2015), but whether this is the case for humans remains to be determined.

Nonetheless, we identify a robust increase in skeletal muscle acetylation, predominantly of

mitochondrial proteins, following five weeks of HIIT in humans.

Because HIIT altered the skeletal muscle acetylome, we examined proteins regulating acetylation in

skeletal muscle. A subset of sirtuins (SIRT2, SIRT3, and SIRT5), a family of protein deacetylases,

were quantified in the proteome. SIRT3, a mitochondrial-localized deacetylase, displayed a small but

non-significant trend for increased abundance following exercise training (Table S2). To further

investigate this, we immunoblotted for SIRT1, SIRT3, SIRT5 and SIRT6. Of the cystosolic and

nuclear-localized SIRTs, the abundance of SIRT1 did not change, while SIRT6 increased by 27%.

The mitochondrial-localized SIRT3 and SIRT5 increased in abundance by 61% and 32%,

respectively, following HIIT (Fig. 5E). Thus, mitochondrial acetylation increased concomitantly with

an increase in the abundance of mitochondrial sirtuins (Figs. 5B and 5E). Conversely, the protein

abundance of the mitochondrial acetyltransferase general control of amino acid synthesis 5 like-1

(GCN5L1) was unchanged by exercise training (Fig 5E). SIRT3 appears to play a major role in

suppressing non-enzymatic mitochondrial acetylation (Weinert et al., 2015). Therefore, the elevated

mitochondrial deacetylase abundance following exercise training might be interpreted as a

mechanism to suppress excess acetylation, either to preserve the activity of mitochondrial enzymes

(Hirschey et al., 2010; R. Tao et al., 2010; Vassilopoulos et al., 2014) or to scavenge acetyl groups

for reintegration into acetyl-CoA and energy production.

Given the enrichment of mitochondrial terms and particularly of complex V proteins in the HIIT-

regulated acetylated proteins, we filtered for proteins annotated to the different complexes of the

electron transport chain using the HUGO database (Braschi et al., 2019) and highlighted the

regulation of each acetyl-site on these proteins alongside the changes in protein abundance (Fig. 6A).

While proteins of complexes I, II, III and IV showed a mixed acetylation response to exercise training,

almost every quantified complex V protein had at least one acetyl-site that increased following HIIT

(Fig. 6A). In fact, ATPase inhibitor (ATPIF1), one of the two complex V proteins that do not show

elevated acetylation, is a negative regulator of complex V and is unlikely to be constitutively bound

to the ATP synthase complex (Campanella et al., 2008). Why complex V displays elevated

acetylation levels both in the basal (Fig. 4E) and exercise trained states is unclear (Figs. 5C and 6A).

However, as a large proportion of ATP synthase extends into the mitochondrial matrix, many subunits

are likely to be more exposed to acetyl-CoA than other membrane-embedded electron transport chain

complexes. In support, we detected acetylation on all of the subunits of complex V that reside or

extend into the mitochondrial matrix (ATP5A1, ATP5B, ATP5C1, ATP5D, ATP5E, ATP5F1,

ATP5H, ATP5J and ATP5O), while we only detect acetylation on two of the membrane-embedded

subunits (ATP5L and MT-ATP8), despite detecting a further four membrane-embedded subunits in

the proteome (ATP5I, ATP5J2, MT-ATP6 and USMG5). Indeed, the majority of acetylated proteins

quantified on each electron transport chain complex (CI-CV) are exposed to either the mitochondrial

matrix or the intermembrane space. Similarly, TCA cycle enzymes, which are localized to the

mitochondrial matrix, displayed high acetylation intensity and stoichiometry in the basal state and

HIIT augmented levels of acetylation at every stage of the cycle (Fig. 6B), again likely due to their

proximity to acetyl-CoA. Conversely, cytosolic proteins regulating skeletal muscle contraction

showed fewer upregulated acetyl-sites with a number of downregulated sites following HIIT (Fig.

6C). Thus, proteins in close proximity to acetyl-CoA appear to be more susceptible to acetylation.

Despite widespread HIIT-induced acetylation of mitochondrial proteins, these data should be

considered in the context of acetylation stoichiometry, which is generally low (Weinert et al., 2015).

Median acetylation stoichiometry in rodent liver has been calculated at only 0.05%, which increases slightly to 0.11% for mitochondrial proteins (Weinert et al., 2015). Although acetylation is tissue-dependent (Lundby et al., 2012), skeletal muscle levels are unlikely to be vastly different. The median $\log_2$-fold change for mitochondrial acetyl-sites following HIIT was 0.9 (the corresponding value in the proteome was 0.3), indicating that median post-HIIT stoichiometry would have remained at less than 1%. Thus, the levels of HIIT-induced changes in acetylation may not be large enough to influence gross activity on most metabolic enzymes. Nonetheless, physiological acetylation may be high enough to be regulatory on some proteins. For example, acetylation of mitochondrial malate dehydrogenase (MDH2) negatively correlates with its enzyme activity (Overmyer et al., 2015). Another such enzyme could be pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH), whose E1 component subunit alpha (PDHA1) is within the top 25 most acetylated proteins (Table S6), whilst PDHA1 Lys 336 was within the top 5 most upregulated acetyl-sites with exercise training (Fig. 5A). Increased acetylation of PDHA1 occurs alongside suppressed enzyme activity in SIRT3 knockout mice (Jing et al., 2013). By catalyzing the reaction between pyruvate and acetyl-CoA, PDH provides the link between glycolysis and the tricarboxylic acid cycle (Constantin-Teodosiu, Constantin, Stephens, Laithwaite, & Greenhaff, 2012). Thus, exercise-induced hyperacetylation of PDH could play a role in the metabolic switch towards elevated fat oxidation following exercise training. Furthermore, mitochondrial hyperacetylation increases fatty acid-supported respiration (Williams et al., 2020). These data are consistent with the concomitant increase in acetylation (Fig. 5A) and mitochondrial respiratory capacity and fat oxidation (Fig. 1F) following HIIT, suggesting that hyperacetylation of mitochondrial proteins following exercise training may support the bioenergetic adaptations to exercise.

HIIT increases histone acetylation

Aside from metabolic enzymes and contractile proteins, histones are regulated by acetylation (Sterner & Berger, 2000; Strahl & Allis, 2000) and may represent a more specifically regulated pool of proteins, owing to the nuclear localization of acetyltransferases (Hendzel, Sun, Chen, Rattner, & Davie, 1994). Increases in certain acetylated histone residues are well characterized to augment transcription, with exercise known to acutely regulate H3 acetylation (e.g. H3 K4, H3 K9/14 & H3 K36) (Joseph, Ayeleso, & Mukwevho, 2017; Lochmann, Thomas, Bennett, & Taylor, 2015; McGee, Fairlie, Garnham, & Hargreaves, 2009; Smith, Kohn, Chetty, & Ojuka, 2008). Here we identified 18 distinct acetylated peptides from histones, with acetylated peptides from H1.5 (HIST1H1B K48), H2B type 2F (HIST2H2BF K16/20) and H3.3 (H3F3B K23) being elevated following HIIT (Figs. 7A-D). H1.5 K48 was exclusively quantified in post-HIIT samples, however, it was only quantified in 4 out of 7 of the post-HIIT samples, which is our minimum cut-off for valid values. The regulatory roles of these HIIT-regulated histone acetyl-sites are unknown. However, acetylation of the N-terminal of H2B, including K16 & K20, has been linked to transcriptional activation (H. Chen et al., 2014; Parra, Kerr, Fahy, Pouchnik, & Wyrick, 2006), including the expression of NAD-metabolic genes in yeast (Parra et al., 2006). The role of H3 K23 is also obscure, however, its acetylation contributes to the development of cancer through the recruitment of the transcription factor transcription intermediary factor 1-alpha (TRIM24) and the nuclear receptor estrogen receptor alpha (ERS1) (Lv et al., 2017; Tsai et al., 2010), augmenting expression of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-biphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (PIK3CA), a subunit of phosphoionositide-3-kinase (PI3K), and phosphorylation of protein kinase B (AKT1) (Lv et al., 2017). Indeed, TRIM24 promotes the abundance of glycolytic and TCA cycle genes in transforming human mammary epithelial cells (Pathiraja et al., 2015), while ERS1 regulates mitochondrial biogenesis in skeletal muscle (Ribas et al., 2016). Whether H3 K23 regulates TRIM24, ERS1, PI3K, and AKT1 activity and influences metabolism in skeletal muscle remains unclear. Further studies are warranted to understand the

transcriptional and metabolic implications of exercise training-induced acetylation on these histone

sites.

To investigate the potential regulatory role of the nuclear-localized histone acetyltransferase p300

(EP300) in the acetylation of these exercise-responsive histone sites, we knocked down EP300 in

C2C12 myotubes and assessed the acetylation of H2B K20 and H3 K23 via immunoblotting.

Knockdown of EP300 reduced acetylation of H2B K20 by 48%, whilst acetylation of H3 K23 was

unaffected (Fig 7E). These analyses identify EP300 as an acetyltransferase responsible for the

acetylation of H2B K20 in skeletal muscle.

Conclusion

Here, we leveraged advances in DIA mass spectrometry to produce a deep human skeletal muscle

proteome and applied this approach to ascertain exercise training adaptations. Furthermore, we

provide the first investigation of the human acetylome in response to exercise training. In the

proteome, we highlight known and novel exercise-responsive proteins, including a potential

mechanism to explain altered skeletal muscle calcium sensitivity following HIIT. In the acetylome,

we describe the predominant acetylation of mitochondrial proteins after HIIT, particularly of TCA

cycle proteins and subunits of electron transport chain complex V, as well as highlighting the

regulation of novel exercise-responsive histone acetyl-sites. Altogether, we provide a substantial

hypothesis-generating resource, identifying novel exercise-regulated proteins and acetyl-sites with

the aim of stimulating further mechanistic research investigating how exercise improves metabolic

health.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Participants were enrolled by AKL and MH between August and September 2017. Eight men were assessed for eligibility. All eight men were eligible and gave their informed consent after receiving written and oral information about the study and potential risks associated with the experimental procedures (Fig. S5). Inclusion criteria were healthy males, 18-40 years old, $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ between 45-55 mL·min^{-1}·kg^{-1} or 3000-4000 mL·min^{-1} and BMI between 19-26 kg·m^{-2}. Exclusion criteria were abnormal electrocardiogram, chronic disease, ongoing medical treatment, and smoking. Subject characteristics are presented in Table 1. The study was approved by the National Committee on Health Research Ethics (H-17004045) and registered at clinicaltrials.gov (NCT03270475). The study complied with the Declaration of Helsinki (2013).

Study outcomes

The pre-determined primary outcome was the change from baseline in the skeletal muscle proteome. Secondary outcomes were changes from baseline in the skeletal muscle acetylome, skeletal muscle mitochondrial respiration and whole-body maximal oxygen consumption ($\dot{V}O_{2max}$).

Experimental trials

The study consisted of two experimental days separated by five weeks of high-intensity interval training (HIIT). At each experimental day, body composition was measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) scans (Lunar iDXA, GE Healthcare, GE Medical systems, Belgium). Then, subjects rested in a supine position for 15 min and two 4 mm incisions separated by 2 cm were made in the above the *vastus lateralis* muscle under local anaesthesia (Xylocaine 20 mg·mL^{-1} without epinephrine, AstraZeneca, London, UK) and a muscle biopsy was taken from each incision using a Bergström needle with suction. Afterwards, $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ was determined by indirect calorimetry using a

breath-by-breath gas analyser (Oxycon Pro, CareFusion, San Diego, USA) during an incremental test

on a bike ergometer (Monark LC4, Monark Exercise, Vansbro, Sweden). The incremental test

consisted of 5 min rest followed by 4 min stages at 50, 100, 150 W, after which the resistance was

increased in increments of 30 W·min^{-1} until exhaustion. Time to exhaustion was used to calculate

incremental peak power output (iPPO) accounting for time spent at the last increment. Subjects

completed the experimental protocol the same time of day before and after the intervention and were

instructed to eat a small meal with 500 mL water two hours before arriving at the laboratory. In

addition, subjects abstained from alcohol, caffeine, and physical activity for 48 h before each

experimental day and were instructed to maintain their activity level and diet during the study. The

experimental days were performed three days before and after the first and last training, respectively.

All experimental trials were performed at the Department of Nutrition, Exercise and Sports,

University of Copenhagen. Experimental trials were completed in October 2017.

Body composition

At each experimental day, two scans were performed to reduce scan-to-scan variation (Nana, Slater,

Hopkins, & Burke, 2012). Before the first scanning, subjects rested in a supine position for 10 min to

allow fluid distribution reducing intra-scan variation (Berg, Tedner, & Tesch, 1993; Cerniglia,

Delmonico, Lindle, Hurley, & Rogers, 2007). Whole-body and leg composition were calculated using

software (enCORE Forma v. 15, GE Healthcare Lunar, Buckinghamshire, UK).

Substrate utilization

Gas exchange measurements during rest and submaximal exercise were used to calculate fat and

glucose oxidative as previously described (Jeukendrup & Wallis, 2005) and corrected for protein

oxidation (Lee, Day, Greenfield, & Ho, 2013). Fat oxidation and carbohydrate oxidation were calculated as:

$$Fat\ Oxidation\left(\frac{mg}{min}\right) = \left(1.695 \cdot \dot{V}O_2 - 1.701 \cdot \dot{V}CO_2\right) - \frac{1.92 \cdot 0.14 \cdot BM}{1440}$$

$$Carbohydrate\ Oxidation\left(\frac{mg}{min}\right) = \left(4.344 \cdot \dot{V}CO_2 - 3.061 \cdot \dot{V}O_2\right) - \frac{2.87 \cdot 0.14 \cdot BM}{1440}$$

where $\dot{V}O_2$ and $\dot{V}CO_2$ are in L·min^{-1} and *BM (Body mass)* is in kg.

Muscle biopsies

Immediately after collection, muscle biopsies were rinsed in ice-cold saline. A small piece (~15 mg) of the muscle was transferred into ice-cold preservation solution (BIOPS) for analysis of mitochondrial respiratory capacity. The remaining muscle tissue was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at −80°C. The frozen muscle samples were freeze-dried for 48 h and dissected free from connective tissues, fat and blood under a microscope in a humidity-controlled room (~25% humidity) before storage at −80°C for later analyses.

High intensity interval training

Subjects underwent a five-week high-intensity interval training intervention consisting of three weekly training sessions with 4-5 × 4 min intervals interspersed by two min active recovery on indoor spinning bikes. The training volume increased from four intervals during the first two weeks to five intervals during the last three weeks. During each interval, subjects were instructed to reach >90% of maximal heart rate (HR$_{max}$). All training sessions were supervised and subjects received verbal encouragement during all intervals. The mean HR$_{max}$ during intervals was 96 ± 1% of HR$_{max}$.

Mitochondrial profiling

Mitochondrial respiratory capacity was determined in duplicate by high-resolution respirometry

(Oxygraph-2k, Oroboros Instruments, Innsbruck, Austria) at 37°C using 1-3 mg wet weight muscle

fibers per chamber in MiR06. Oxygen concentrations were kept between 200 and 450 µM throughout

the experiment. The muscle sample in BIOPS was prepared for high-resolution respirometry as

previously described (Pesta & Gnaiger, 2012). In short, muscle fibers were dissected free from

connective tissue and fat followed by permeabilization in BIOPS with saponin and washed in

mitochondrial respiration buffer (MiR06). A substrate-uncoupler-inhibitor titration protocol was used

to assess different respiratory states as previously described (Pesta et al., 2011). Leak respiration (L_N)

in the absence of adenylates was induced by the addition of malate (2 mM) and octanoylcarnitine (0.2

mM). Fatty acid oxidation (FAO) was determined after titration of ADP (2.5 mM). Submaximal CI

and CI+II-linked respiration (CI_D & P_D) was measured in the presence of glutamate (10 mM) and

succinate (10 mM), respectively. Oxidative phosphorylation capacity (P) was assessed after another

titration of ADP (2.5 mM). The mitochondrial outer membrane integrity was then tested with the

addition of cytochrome C (10 µM). The average change in oxygen flux was 3.8% (range: 0.2-9.4%).

Respiratory electron transfer-pathway capacity (E) was measured during step-wise (0.5 µM) titration

of carbonyl cyanide p-trifluoro-methoxyphenyl hydrazine (FCCP). Succinate-supported electron

transfer-pathway capacity (E_{CII}) was assessed by the addition of rotenone (0.5 µM). Residual oxygen

consumption was determined after the addition of malonic acid (5 mM), myxothaizol (0.5 µM) and

antimycin A (2.5 µM) and subtracted from each respiratory state.

Maximal enzyme activity of citrate synthase was determined from muscle homogenate using

fluorometry (Fluoroscan Ascent, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) at 25°C as previously

described (Lowry, 2012).

Proteomic sample preparation

Human skeletal muscles were lysed in a buffer consisting of 1% Sodium Deoxycholate (SDC), 10 mM Tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine (TCEP), 40 mM Chloroacetamide (CAA) and 100 mM of Tris (pH 8.5). The muscles were homogenized with an Ultra Turrax homogenizer (IKA). Lysates were boiled at 95°C for 10 min and sonicated using a tip sonicator. Lysates were then centrifuged at 16000g for 10 min. Proteins were digested using the endoproteinases LysC and trypsin (1:100 w/w) at 37°C overnight with shaking. Digested peptides were acidified using 1% Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and precipitated SDC was removed by centrifugation. Peptides were purified using Sep-pak C18 cartridges (Waters) and were eluted in 50% acetonitrile. 20 µg of peptides were saved for total proteome analysis while 3 mg peptides were saved for enrichment of acetylated peptides.

Acetylated peptide enrichment

The acetyl peptide enrichment was performed on 3 mg of digested peptides using PTMscan Acetyl-Lysine Motif kit (Cell Signaling #13416). The peptides were mixed with 100 µL of 10x IP buffer (500 mM MOPS, pH 7.2, 100 mM Na-phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 5% NP-40). The acetonitrile was removed and the volume was reduced to ~1mL by vacuum centrifugation. The final volume was adjusted with water to a concentration of 3 mg·mL^{-1}. The peptides were clarified by centrifugation at 20000g for 5 min. 20 µL of anti-acetylated lysine antibody was washed 3 times in 1 mL IP buffer and then mixed with the peptides. Peptides were enriched overnight at 4°C, washed 3 times in 1 mL ice-cold (4°C) IP buffer, 4 times in 1 mL ice-cold IP buffer without NP-40, and once in 1 mL water. All wash buffer was removed via aspiration. Acetylated peptides were eluted with 100 µL 0.15% TFA. The elution procedure was repeated three times. The eluted peptides were de-salted on C18 stage-tips (Rappsilber, Mann, & Ishihama, 2007), vacuum concentrated and resuspended in buffer A* (5% acetonitrile, 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid).

High pH reversed-phase fractionation

To generate a deep proteome library for data-independent acquisition (DIA), 50 μg of peptide was pooled from pre- and post-HIIT samples, separately, and fractionated using high pH reversed-phase chromatography (Kulak, Geyer, & Mann, 2017). 24 fractions (per pool) were automatically concatenated using a rotor valve shift of 90 s. Approximately 0.3 μg of each fraction were subjected to LC-MS/MS measurements via data-dependent acquisition (DDA). To obtain comprehensive coverage of the acetylome, acetylated peptides from each sample were fractionated into 8 fractions using a rotor valve shift of 90 s. For the first subject (both pre and post samples) all 8 fractions were analysed separately. After observing lower than expected peptide intensities for the first subject, the neighboring two factions were pooled together for each of the remaining samples (total four fractions/subject/timepoint) before LC-MS analysis.

Mass spectrometry

Peptides were measured using LC-MS instrumentation consisting of an Easy nanoflow HPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) coupled via a nanoelectrospray ion source (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Bremen, Germany) to a Q Exactive HF-X mass spectrometer. Purified peptides were separated on a 50 cm C18 column (inner diameter 75 μm, 1.8 μm beads, Dr. Maisch GmbH, Germany). Peptides were loaded onto the column with buffer A (0.5% formic acid) and eluted with a 100 min linear gradient increasing from 2-40% buffer B (80% acetonitrile, 0.5% formic acid). After the gradient, the column was washed with 90% buffer B and re-equilibrated with buffer A. Peptides were measured in singleton.

For the deep proteome library generation, mass spectra were acquired from each fraction via DDA with automatic switching between MS and MS/MS using a top 15 method. MS spectra were acquired in the Orbitrap analyzer with a mass range of 300-1750 m/z and 60,000 resolutions at m/z 200 with a target of 3×10^6 ions and a maximum injection time of 25 ms. HCD peptide fragments acquired at 27 normalized collision energy were analyzed at 15000 resolution in the Orbitrap analyzer with a target of 1×105 ions and a maximum injection time of 28 ms. The mass spectra for the acetylome experiments were also acquired from each fraction via DDA with a similar MS method used for deep proteome library generation, except the maximum injection time for the fragment ion spectra was set to 250 ms. A DIA MS method was used for the total proteome measurements in which one full scan (300 to 1650 *m/z*, resolution = 60,000 at 200 *m/z*) at a target of 3×10^6 ions was first performed, followed by 32 windows with a resolution of 30000 where precursor ions were fragmented with higher-energy collisional dissociation (stepped collision energy 25%, 27.5%, 30%) and analyzed with an AGC target of 3×10^6 ions and maximum injection time at 54 ms in profile mode using positive polarity.

Data processing

Raw MS files from the experiments measured in DDA mode (muscle proteome library & acetylome), were processed using MaxQuant (J. Cox & Mann, 2008). MS/MS spectra were searched by the Andromeda search engine (integrated into MaxQuant) against the decoy UniProt-human database (downloaded in December 2017) with forward and reverse sequences. In the main Andromeda search precursor, mass and fragment mass were matched with an initial mass tolerance of 6 ppm and 20 ppm, respectively. The search included variable modifications of methionine oxidation and N-terminal acetylation and fixed modification of carbamidomethyl cysteine. For the raw files from the acetylome experiments, acetylated lysine was also added as a variable modification. Acetylated

peptides were filtered for a minimum Andromeda score of 40, as per the default settings for modified

peptides. The false discovery rate (FDR) was estimated for peptides and proteins individually using

a target-decoy approach allowing a maximum of 1% false identifications from a revered sequence

database. Raw files acquired in the DIA mode (total proteome) were processed using Biognosys

Spectronaut software version 13 (Bruderer et al., 2015). A single peptide library was generated in

Spectronaut using the combined MaxQuant search results for the DDA runs from both of the

fractionated muscle samples. The experimental DIA runs were then analyzed in Spectronaut using

default settings.

Bioinformatics

Bioinformatic analyses were performed in the Perseus software (Tyanova et al., 2016). Categorical

annotations were supplied in the form of Gene Ontology (GO) biological process (BP), molecular

function (MF), and cellular component (CC), as well as UniProt Keywords, KEGG and REACTOME

pathways. All annotations were extracted from the UniProt database. Quantified proteins were filtered

to have at least 4 valid values in at least one time point. Missing data were imputed by drawing

random numbers from a Gaussian distribution with a standard deviation of 30% and a downshift of

1.8 standard deviations from the mean. The imputed values have been tuned in order to simulate the

distribution of lowly abundant proteins. To identify differentially regulated proteins and acetyl-sites,

two-tailed paired *t*-tests were performed with a permutation-based false discovery correction applied

(FDR = 0.05). In the acetylome, an additional analysis was performed to expand the identification of

differentially expressed proteins, whereby an *a posteriori* information fusion scheme combining the

biological relevance (fold change) and the statistical significance (p-value), was implemented, as

previously described (Xiao et al., 2014). A Π-value significance score cut-off of 0.05 was selected.

Alterations to organelles were assessed using summed total protein abundances (Wisniewski, 2017)

and two-tailed paired t-tests ($p < 0.05$). Comparisons between individual proteins measured via

immunoblotting were performed using two-tailed paired t-tests ($p < 0.05$). Hierarchical clustering

analysis was performed on z-scored differentially regulated proteins using Euclidean distance.

Enrichment analyses were performed on differentially regulated proteins and acetyl-sites using

Fisher's exact tests and the application of a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery correction (FDR =

0.02), as is the default setting in the Perseus software (Tyanova et al., 2016). Motif enrichment was

performed on upregulated acetyl-sites using iceLogo ($p < 0.01$) (Colaert et al., 2009). One-

dimensional enrichment analyses were performed as previously described (Juergen Cox & Mann,

2012). To analyze the relative stoichiometries of acetylated proteins in Fig. 4 abundance corrected

intensities (ACIs) were calculated for each acetyl-peptide by dividing the acetyl-peptide intensity by

the intensity of the corresponding protein in the proteome. Enrichment analyses were performed

against a background of all quantified proteins or acetyl-sites, except for hierarchical clustering

analyses where clusters were compared within the z-scored differentially regulated matrix. To

visualize complexes and functional protein-interactions in Fig. 6, protein interaction networks were

mapped using the STRING database, using an overall confidence cutoff of 0.7 without limiting the

number of interactions (Szklarczyk et al., 2019), and further processed with Cytoscape

([www.cytoscape.org)](www.cytoscape.org).

Cell culture

The mouse skeletal muscle cell line C2C12 (CRL1772, ATCC) was seeded into six-well plates at a

density of 10^5 cells per well. Cells were cultured in growth medium (Dulbeccoo's modified Eagle's

medium containing 25 mM glucose, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1%.

Penicillin-streptomycin) at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Once the cells reached ~90% confluency,

differentiation was induced by replacing the FBS with 2% horse serum. On day 4 of differentiation,

cells were transfected with 25mM EP300 siRNA or scramble control siRNA via the TransIT-X2 Dynamic Delivery System (Mirus Bio), following the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were harvested in 2% SDS on Day 6. Samples were immediately boiled at 95°C, sonicated in a Diagenode Bioruptor water bath sonicator (15 x 30s intervals), and centrifuged at 16000g for 10 min. The pellet was discarded and the supernatant was taken and used for immunoblotting analyses.

Immunoblotting

For human skeletal muscle immunoblot analyses, a fresh batch of ice-cold homogenization buffer (10% glycerol, 20 mM Na-pyrophosphate, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 1% NP-40, 20 mM β-glycerophosphate, 2 mM Na_3VO_4, 10 mM NaF, 2 mM PMSF, 1 mM EDTA (pH 8), 1 mM EGTA (pH 8), 10 µg·mL^{-1} Aprotinin, 10 µg·mL^{-1} Leupeptin and 3 mM Benzamidine) was prepared and 80 µL added to 1 mg of freeze-dried and dissected muscle tissue. The tissue was homogenized for 1 min at 28.5 Hz in a TissueLyser (Qiagen TissueLyser II, Retsch GmbH, Germany) before samples were rotated end over end for 1 hour at 4°C and centrifuged at 18320g for 20 min at 4°C. The pellet was discarded and the supernatant was taken and used for immunoblotting analyses. Total protein concentration in the samples was determined with a standard BSA kit (Millipore). 15 µL of the sample was diluted with 60 µL ultrapure water in order to keep the concentration within the linear range of the calibration curve (0.2 to 2 µg·µL^{-1}). The protein concentration of each sample was adjusted by the addition of 6 × Laemmli buffer (7 mL 0.5M Tris-base, 3 mL glycerol, 0.93 g DTT, 1 g SDS and 1.2 mg bromophenol blue) and ultrapure water to reach equal concentrations (1.5 µg total protein·µL^{-1}). Human skeletal muscle standard samples (Ctrl) were obtained as a pool of all samples included in the experiment.

Equal amounts of total protein were loaded on 10% TGX Stain-Free, 4-20% TGX Stain-Free, or 16.5% Criterion Tris-Tricine/Peptide gels (Bio-Rad) alongside two protein markers (Precision plus all blue and dual color standards, Bio-Rad), three human skeletal muscle control samples and a four-point standard curve (skeletal muscle samples of increasing volume). After standard SDS-page gel electrophoresis proteins were semi-dry transferred to a PVDF membrane. Membranes were blocked with either 2% skimmed milk or 3% BSA in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) before overnight incubation with primary antibody. Afterwards, the membranes were washed in TBST, incubated for 1 hour in HRP conjugated secondary antibody at room temperature and washed 3×15 min in TBST before the bands were visualized with an enhanced chemiluminescent reaction (Immobilon Forte Western HRP substrate, Millipore) and signals recorded with a digital camera (ChemiDoc MP Imaging System, Bio-Rad). Densitometry quantification of the immunoblotting band intensities was done using Image Lab version 4 (Bio-Rad) and determined as the total band intensity adjusted for the background intensity. The standard curve on each gel was used to confirm that the loaded amount of protein in samples was capable of determining differences between samples by the signal intensity being on the linear part of the standard curve. The variation of the triplicate human standard sample signal loaded was used to evaluate equal transfer of proteins across each gel. Coomassie staining was conducted to confirm equal loading and transfer of total protein from the different samples. Immunoblotting of biological samples was performed in singleton.

Listed are the primary antibodies used and, where appropriate, their size of migration. Acetyl-lysine: #9441, Cell Signaling Technologies; EP300: #sc48343, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, 300 kDa; ac-H2B K20: #ab177430, Abcam, 14 kDa; H2B: #12364, Cell Signaling Technologies, 14 kDa; ac-H3 K23: #14932, Cell Signaling Technologies, 17 kDa; H3: #4499, Cell Signaling Technologies, 17 kDa; MYLK2: PA5-29324, Invitrogen, 65 kDa; OXPHOS antibody cocktail: ab110411, Abcam, 15-55

kDa; SIRT1: 07-131, Millipore, 80 kDa; SIRT3: #5490, Cell Signaling Technologies, 28 kDa; SIRT5:

#8782, Cell Signaling Technologies, 30 kDa; SIRT6: #12486, Cell Signaling Technologies, 36-42

kDa. The anti-GCN5L1 antibody (15 kDa) was a kind gift from Iain Scott, PhD, University of

Pittsburgh (Scott, Webster, Li, & Sack, 2012; Thapa et al., 2020). HRP conjugated goat anti-rabbit

(4010-05, SouthernBiotech) and a goat anti-mouse (P0447, DAKO Denmark) were used as secondary

antibodies.

Statistical analyses

For non-omics analyses, two-tailed paired t-tests were applied to assess the effect of HIIT, except for

substrate oxidation analyses whereby a mixed linear model was performed. Independent samples two-

tailed t-tests were used to assess the effect of EP300 KD on histone acetylation. Significance was

accepted as $p < 0.05$.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization: M.H., A.S.D., A.K.L. and J.B. **Data curation**: A.S.D., M.H., A.K.L. and B.S. **Formal analysis**: B.S., A.K.L., M.H., M.T., J.K.L. and A.S.D. **Funding acquisition**: A.S.D., M.H. and J.B. **Investigation**: B.S., A.K.L., M.H., M.T., A.G., J.K.L., J.P.Q. and A.S.D. **Methodology**: M.H., A.S.D., A.K.L., B.S., J.K.L., A.G., J.P.Q. and J.B. **Project administration**: M.H. and A.S.D. **Resources**: A.S.D., M.H. and J.B. **Supervision**: A.S.D. and M.H. **Validation**: M.T., B.S., A.K.L., M.H. and A.S.D. **Visualization**: B.S. **Writing – Original draft**: B.S., M.H., A.K.L. and A.S.D. **Writing – review and editing**: M.H., A.K.L., B.S., A.G., J.K.L., J.P.Q., M.T., B.W., J.B. and A.S.D.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials & Correspondence

Requests for reagents and resources should be directed to Atul S. Deshmukh (atul.deshmukh@sund.ku.dk).

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Identified proteins.

Table S2. Quantified proteins and their regulation by HIIT.

Table S3. Fisher's exact test of HIIT-regulated proteins (FDR < 0.05).

Table S4. Identified acetyl-sites.

Table S5. Quantified acetyl-sites and their regulation by HIIT.

Table S6. Summed acetylation intensity per protein.

Table S7. One-dimensional enrichment analysis of summed acetylation intensity.

Table S8. Abundance corrected intensities (ACIs) of acetyl-sites pre-HIIT.

Table S9. One-dimensional enrichment analysis of pre-HIIT acetyl-site ACI (Leading protein IID was used for relative enrichment).

Table S10. Fisher's exact test of HIIT-regulated ($\Pi < 0.05$) acetyl-sites (Leading protein IID was used for relative enrichment).

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/13Hx0NcA66gY6Fl-5L3NjFov0F4KoH36H?usp=sharing

    Figure Legends

Figure 1. **Physiological adaptations to HIIT**

A. Experimental overview. **B**. Subject characteristics. **C**. Five weeks of HIIT increased maximal

oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2max}$) and incremental peak power output (iPPO). **D** HIIT increased whole-body

fat oxidation during submaximal exercise (50-150 W) without altering **E**. carbohydrate oxidation. **F**.

HIIT increased mitochondrial respiration in skeletal muscle (L_N: leak respiration, FAO: fatty acid

oxidation, CI_D: submaximal CI respiration, P_D: submaximal CI+II respiration, P: oxidative

phosphorylation capacity, E: electron transport system capacity, E_{CII}: succinate-supported electron

transport system capacity). **G**. HIIT increased skeletal muscle citrate synthase (CS) activity. **H**.

Analytical workflow. Summary statistics are mean ± SEM (n = 8). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p <$

0.001.

Figure 2. **HIIT increases mitochondrial proteins and reduces a subset of contractile fiber**

associated proteins

A. Volcano plot displaying 102 upregulated and 24 downregulated proteins following HIIT (FDR <

0.05). **B**. Fisher's exact tests identified the enrichment of mitochondrial terms within the differentially

regulated proteins (enrichment analysis FDR < 0.02). **C**. Hierarchical clustering and enrichment

analysis (enrichment analysis FDR < 0.02) on differentially regulated proteins identified that

mitochondrial terms are enriched within the upregulated proteins, while cytoplasm (UniProt

Keyword) is enriched amongst the downregulated proteins. **D**. Summed total protein abundances for

different organelles (UniProt Keyword) shows upregulation of the mitochondrial protein content. **E-**

G. Summed total protein abundances display upregulation of electron transport chain complexes (**E**.),

mitochondrially-encoded proteins (**F**.) and proteins with a transit peptide (**G**.). Summary statistics are

mean ± SEM (n = 8). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 3. HIIT regulates proteins involved in skeletal muscle calcium sensitivity and handling

HIIT did not alter the abundance of myosin heavy chain (MYH1: MyHC2x, MYH2: MyHC2a, MYH4: MyHC2x, MYH7: MyHCβ; **A**.) or light chain (**B**.) isoforms. **C**. HIIT regulates proteins controlling myosin phosphorylation. **D**. HIIT reduces abundance of subunits of the dihydropyridine receptor. **E**. Summed total protein abundances display downregulation of the dihydropyridine receptor. **F**. HIIT does not alter the abundance of ryanodine receptor 1. Summary statistics are mean ± SEM (n = 8). ^ FDR < 0.05. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 4. The human skeletal muscle acetylome displays higher stoichiometry on mitochondrial proteins and lower stoichiometry on contractile proteins

A. We quantified 1263 acetyl-sites corresponding to 464 proteins (n = 7). Of these, 421 proteins were also quantified in the proteome with 1232 of the quantified acetyl-sites located on these 421 proteins. **B**. Distribution of acetyl-sites on proteins within the pre-HIIT acetylome. **C**. Top 10 highest intensity acetylated proteins (acetyl-peptide intensities were summed for each protein) within the pre-HIIT acetylome. **D**. Cumulative protein abundance and rank within the proteome (the top 10 highest intensity acetyl-proteins are highlighted). **E**. One-dimensional enrichment analysis of acetylated protein intensity identified mitochondrial proteins, particularly those involved in carboxylic acid metabolism and monovalent inorganic cation transport (e.g. complex V) as having systematically high acetylation intensities (enrichment analysis FDR < 0.02). **F**. Top 10 acetyl-sites with highest abundance-corrected intensities (ACIs). **G**. One-dimensional enrichment analysis of acetyl-site ACIs identified mitochondrial and carboxylic acid catabolic proteins as higher stoichiometry (positive enrichment factor), while contractile fiber cytosolic and plasma membrane proteins were enriched as lower stoichiometry (negative enrichment factor; (enrichment analysis FDR < 0.02; enrichment

performed on leading protein IDs). **H**. Histogram depicting the ACI distribution of the total acetylome

(blue), the mitochondrial acetyl-sites (green) and the contractile fiber acetyl-sites (yellow).

Mitochondrial proteins were distributed at higher ACI values and contractile fiber proteins at lower

ACI values than the total acetylome.

Figure 5. **HIIT increases acetylation of mitochondrial and TCA cycle proteins concomitantly**

with an increase in SIRT3 abundance

A. Volcano plot displaying 20 upregulated (filled red circles) and 1 downregulated (filled blue circle)

acetyl-sites following HIIT at an FDR < 0.05, while 257 acetyl-sites were upregulated (red circles)

and 26 downregulated (blue circles) at $\Pi < 0.05$ (n = 7). **B**. Scatter plot indicating that HIIT-induced

changes in acetyl-site intensity typically exceeded that of the corresponding protein. **C**. Fisher's exact

tests identified the enrichment of mitochondrial and TCA cycle terms within the differentially

regulated acetyl-proteins (enrichment analysis FDR < 0.02; enrichment performed on leading protein

IDs). **D**. IceLogo motif enrichment ($p < 0.01$) for the upregulated sites displayed a predominance of

proximal cysteine residues relative to the acetylated lysine (position 0). **E**. Immunoblotting analysis

identified the upregulation of the deacetylases SIRT3, SIRT5, and SIRT6, but no change in SIRT1,

whilst the mitochondrial acetyltransferase GCN5L1 remained unchanged following HIIT (n = 7-8).

Representative images confirming equal loading are displayed in Fig S5. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ***

$p < 0.001$.

Figure 6. **Individual acetyl-site regulation of mitochondrial, TCA cycle and contractile proteins**

following HIIT

Regulation of acetyl-sites on **A**. electron transport chain complex subunits (annotated by HUGO), **B**.

TCA cycle proteins (annotated by KEGG) and **C**. muscle contraction proteins (annotated by

REACTOME).

Figure 7. **HIIT increases acetylation on specific histone acetyl-sites**

HIIT increased acetylation on **A**. H1.5 K48, **B**. H2B type 2F K16/20 and **C**. H3 K23. **D**. HIIT did not

alter H4 acetylation (n = 7). **E.** Knockdown of EP300 reduces acetylation of H2B K20 but not H3

K23 in C2C12 myotubes (n = 3). Representative images confirming equal loading are displayed in

Fig S5. Summary statistics are mean ± SEM. † $\Pi < 0.05$. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure S1. **Proteome quality control**

A. Quantified proteins from each sample. **B**. Representative Pearson correlation between biological

replicates (Pre 4 v Pre 5). **C**. Cellular compartment (GOCC) coverage of the proteome. **D**. Principal

component analysis of the proteome. P: participant.

Figure S2. **HIIT increases electron transport chain subunits**

Immunoblotting analyses confirmed the upregulation of electron transport chain proteins.

Representative images confirming equal loading are displayed in Fig S5. Summary statistics are mean

± SEM (n = 8). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure S3. **HIIT decreases MYLK2 abundance**

A. Immunoblotting analysis confirms the downregulation of MYLK2. Representative images

confirming equal loading are displayed in Fig S5. **B**. No change in the abundance of

sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPases 1-3 (SERCAs). Summary statistics are mean

$\pm$ SEM (n = 8). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure S4. **Acetylome quality control**

A. Overlap between identified acetyl-site with those identified in human skeletal muscle by Lundby

et al. (2012). **B**. Quantified acetyl-sites from each sample. **C**. Representative Pearson correlation

between biological replicates (Pre 4 v Pre 5). **D**. Cellular compartment (GOCC) coverage of the

acetylome. **E**. Principal component analysis of the acetylome. P: participant. **F**. Immunoblotting

analysis confirmed the upregulation of acetylation following HIIT (n = 7). Representative images

confirming equal loading are displayed in Fig S5. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure S5. **Representative images of equal loading for immunoblot analyses**

A. Coomassie stain for n = 8 immunoblots of human skeletal muscle (Fig 5E (SIRT1-6), S2, and

S3A). **B**. Stain-free image for n = 7 immunoblots of human skeletal muscle (Fig 5E (GCN5L1), and

S4F). **C**. Stain-free image for EP300 KD immunoblots (Fig 7E).

Figure S6. **CONSORT flow diagram of enrolled participants**

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 Appendix 1 – Key Resource Table

Reagent type or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Antibody	MYLK2 Antibody	Invitrogen	Cat#PA5-29324 RRID: AB_2546800	
Antibody	Total OXPHOS Human WB Antibody Cocktail	Abcam	Cat#ab110411 RRID: AB_2756818	
Antibody	Sirt1(Sir2) Antibody	Millipore Sigma	Cat#07-131 RRID: AB_10067921	
Antibody	Sirt3 (D22A3) Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#5490 RRID: AB_10828246	
Antibody	Sirt5 Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#8782 RRID: AB_2716763	
Antibody	Sirt6 Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#12486 RRID: AB_2636969	
Antibody	Acetyl-lysine Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#9441 RRID: AB_331805	
Antibody	P300 Mouse Antibody	Santa Cruz Biotechnologies	Cat#sc48343 RRID: AB_628075	
Antibody	Ac-H2B K20 Antibody	Abcam	Cat#ab177430	
Antibody	H2B Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#12364 RRID: AB_2714167	

Antibody	Ac-H3 K23 Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#14932 RRID: AB_2798650	
Antibody	H3 Antibody	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#4499 RRID: AB_10544537	
Antibody	Goat Anti-Rabbit Ig, Human ads-HRP	Southern Biotech	Cat#4010-05 RRID: AB_2632593	
Antibody	Goat Anti-Mouse	Dako (Agilent)	Cat# P0447 RRID: AB_2617137	
Biological sample	Human skeletal muscle (*vastus lateralis*)			
Cell line	C2C12 (ATCC® CRL-1772™)	ATCC	Cat#1722	
Chemical compound, drug	Glycerol	Millipore Sigma	Cat# G5516; CAS# 56-81-5	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium pyrophosphate decahydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 221368; CAS# 13472-36-1	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium chloride	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S9888; CAS# 7647-14-5	
Chemical compound, drug	HEPES	Millipore Sigma	Cat# H3375; CAS# 7365-45-9	
Chemical compound, drug	IGEPAL CA-630, NP-40	Millipore Sigma	Cat# I8896; CAS# 9002-93-1	

Chemical compound, drug	β-Glycerophosphate disodium salt hydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# G9422; CAS# 154804-51-0	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium orthovanadate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S6508; CAS# 13721-39-6	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium fluoride	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S1504; CAS# 7681-49-4	
Chemical compound, drug	Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride	Millipore Sigma	Cat# P7626; CAS# 329-98-6	
Chemical compound, drug	EDTA (for electrophoresis)	Millipore Sigma	Cat# E5134; CAS# 6381-92-6	
Chemical compound, drug	EGTA	Millipore Sigma	Cat# E4378; CAS# 67-42-5	
Chemical compound, drug	Aprotinin from bovine lung	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A1153; CAS# 9087-70-1	
Chemical compound, drug	Leupeptin	Millipore Sigma	Cat# L2884; CAS# 103476-89-7	
Chemical compound, drug	Benzamidine hydrochloride hydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# B6506; CAS# 206752-36-5	

Chemical compound, drug	Bovine serum albumin	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A7906; CAS# 9048-46-8	
Chemical compound, drug	Trizma base	Millipore Sigma	Cat# T1503; CAS# 77-86-1	
Chemical compound, drug	DL-Dithiothreitol	Millipore Sigma	Cat# D0632 and 43819; CAS# 3483-12-3	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium dodecyl sulfate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# L3771; CAS 151-21-3	
Chemical compound, drug	Bromophenol Blue sodium salt	Millipore Sigma	Cat# B8026; CAS# 34725-61-6	
Chemical compound, drug	Tween 20	Millipore Sigma	Cat# P9416; CAS# 9005-64-5	
Chemical compound, drug	Skimmed milk powder	Easis	Cat# 801300	
Chemical compound, drug	Glycine	Millipore Sigma	Cat# G7126; CAS# 56-40-6	
Chemical compound, drug	2-propanol	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 109634; CAS# 67-63-0	

Chemical compound, drug	Ethanol 96%	Plum	Cat# 201146; CAS# 64-17-5	
Chemical compound, drug	Brilliant Blue R	Millipore Sigma	Cat# B7920; CAS# 6104-59-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Acetic acid (glacial) 100%	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 100063; CAS# 64-19-7	
Chemical compound, drug	Precision plus all blue	BioRad	Cat# 1610373	
Chemical compound, drug	Precision plus dual color	BioRad	Cat# 1610374	
Chemical compound, drug	Immobilon Forte Western HRP substrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# WBLUF 0500	
Chemical compound, drug	Bovine Serum Albumin Standard	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 23209	
Chemical compound, drug	BCA Protein Assay Reagent A	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 23223	
Chemical compound, drug	BCA Protein Assay Reagent B	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 23224	

Chemical compound, drug	Potassium phosphate dibasic trihydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# P9666; CAS# 16788-57-1	
Chemical compound, drug	Potassium dihydrogen phosphate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 1.04873; CAS# 7778-77-0	
Chemical compound, drug	BCA Protein Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 23225	
Chemical compound, drug	Trizma hydrochloride	Millipore Sigma	Cat# T3253; CAS# 1185-53-1	
Chemical compound, drug	EDTA	Millipore Sigma	Cat# E9884; CAS# 60-00-4	
Chemical compound, drug	NAD	Millipore Sigma	Cat# NAD100-RO; CAS# 53-84-9	
Chemical compound, drug	L-(−)-Malic acid sodium salt	Millipore Sigma	Cat# M1125; CAS# 68303-40-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Acetyl-Coenzyme A	Millipore Sigma	Cat# ACOA-RO	
Chemical compound, drug	L-Malate Dehydrogenase (L-MDH)	Millipore Sigma	Cat# LMDH-RO	

Chemical compound, drug	NADH	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 10107735001	
Chemical compound, drug	Sucrose	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S7903; CAS# 57-50-1	
Chemical compound, drug	Magnesium chloride hexahydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# M2670; CAS# 7791-18-6	
Chemical compound, drug	Taurine	Millipore Sigma	Cat# T0625; CAS 107-35-7	
Chemical compound, drug	Potassium Dihydrogen Phosphate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# P9791; CAS# 7778-77-0	
Chemical compound, drug	HEPES	Millipore Sigma	Cat# H3375; CAS# 7365-45-9	
Chemical compound, drug	Bovine serum albumin (fatty acid free)	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A7030; CAS# 9048-46-8	
Chemical compound, drug	Catalase from bovine liver	Millipore Sigma	Cat# C9322; CAS# 9001-05-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Lactobionic acid	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 153516; CAS# 96-82-2	

Chemical compound, drug	MES potassium salt	Millipore Sigma	Cat# M0895; CAS# 39946-25-3	
Chemical compound, drug	ATP	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A3377; CAS# 34369-07-8	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium creatine phosphate dibasic tetrahydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 27920; CAS# 71519-72-7	
Chemical compound, drug	Imidazole	Millipore Sigma	Cat# I0250; CAS# 288-32-4	
Chemical compound, drug	Potassium hydroxide	Millipore Sigma	Cat# P1767; CAS# 1310-58-3	
Chemical compound, drug	Calcium carbonate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# C4830; CAS# 471-34-1	
Chemical compound, drug	Saponin from quillaja bark	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S7900; CAS# 8047-15-2	
Chemical compound, drug	L-(−)-Malic acid sodium salt	Millipore Sigma	Cat# M1125; CAS# 68303-40-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Octanoyl-L-carnitine	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 50892; CAS# 25243-95-2	

Chemical compound, drug	ADP	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A5285; CAS# 72696-48-1	
Chemical compound, drug	L-glutamic acid monosodium salt monohydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# 49621; CAS# 6106-04-3	
Chemical compound, drug	Sodium succinate dibasic hexahydrate	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S2378; CAS# 6106-21-4	
Chemical compound, drug	Cytochrome c from equine heart	Millipore Sigma	Cat# C2506; CAS# 9007-43-6	
Chemical compound, drug	FCCP	Millipore Sigma	Cat# C2920; CAS# 370-86-5	
Chemical compound, drug	Rotenone	Millipore Sigma	Cat# R8875; CAS# 83-79-4	
Chemical compound, drug	Malonic acid	Millipore Sigma	Cat# M1296; CAS# 141-82-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Myxothiazol	Millipore Sigma	Cat# T5580; CAS# 76706-55-3	
Chemical compound, drug	Antimycin A from Streptomyces sp.	Millipore Sigma	Cat# A8674; CAS# 1397-94-0	

Chemical compound, drug	Sodium deoxycholate	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# D6750 CAS# 302-95-4	
Chemical compound, drug	Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine hydrochloride	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# C4706 CAS# 51805-45-9	
Chemical compound, drug	2-Chloroacetamide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 22790 CAS# 79-07-2	
Chemical compound, drug	Trypsin	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# T7575	
Chemical compound, drug	Lysine	Wako	Cat# 124-06871	
Chemical compound, drug	DMEM high glucose	Gibco	Cat# 41965039	
Chemical compound, drug	Fetal bovine serum(FBS)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# F7524	
Chemical compound, drug	Penicillin-Streptomycin, liquid	Gibco	Cat# 15070-063	
Chemical compound, drug	Opti-MEM™ I Reduced Serum Medium	Gibco	Cat# 31985062	

Chemical compound, drug	TransIT-X2 Dynamic Delivery System	Mirus Bio	Cat# MIR6003	
Sequence-based reagent	EP300 siRNA	Merck Sigma	Cat# SASI_Mm01_00159721	
Commercial assay, kit	PTMScan® Acetyl-Lysine Motif [Ac-K] Kit	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#13416	
Software, algorithm,	Graphpad Prism 8.0	https://www.graphpad.com/	RRID: SCR_002798	
Software, algorithm	MaxQuant 1.5.3.30	https://maxquant.org/	RRID: SCR_014485	
Software, algorithm	Spectronaut v14	https://biognosys.com/shop/spectronaut		
Software, algorithm	Perseus 1.6.10.50	http://www.coxdocs.org/doku.php?id=perseus:start	RRID: SCR_015753	
Software, algorithm	R Studio	https://rstudio.com/	RRID: SCR_000432	
Software, algorithm	Cytoscape v3.7.2	www.cytoscape.org	RRID: SCR_003032	
Software, algorithm	iceLogo	https://iomics.ugent.be/icelogoserver/	RRID: SCR_012137	

Software, algorithm	Adobe Illustrator 24.3	https://www.adobe.com/products/illustrator	RRID: SCR_010279	
Software, algorithm	Bio-Rad Image Studio	https://www.licor.com/bio/products/Software, algorithm/image_studio/	RRID: SCR_014210	
Software, algorithm	Oroboros DatLab 6 V. 6.1.0.7	https://www.oroboros.at/index.php/product/datlab/		
Other	10% Criterion TGX Stain-Free gel	BioRad	Cat# 567-8035	
Other	16.5% Criterion Tris-Tricine/Peptide gel	BioRad	Cat# 345-0065	
Other	Immobilon-P PVDF membrane	Millipore Sigma	Cat# IPVH00010	
Other	Whatman cellulose chromatography papers	Millipore Sigma	Cat# WHA3030917	
Other	Stainless Steel Beads 5mm	Qiagen	Cat# 69989	
Other	Stuart Rotator Drive STR4	Stuart-equipment	Cat# STR4	
Other	Hettich universal 320 R centrifuge	Andrea Hettich GmbH, Germany	Cat# 1406	
Other	E_{max} precision microplate reader	Molecular Devices	Cat# LR88026	
Other	PowerPac HC Power Supply	BioRad	Cat# 1645052	

Other	TE 77 ECL Semi-Dry Transfer Unit	Amersham Biosciences	Cat# 80-6211-86	
Other	ChemiDoc MP Imaging System	BioRad	Cat# 731BR00119	
Other	White 96-Well Immuno Plates	Fischer Scientific	Cat# 10415985	
Other	Fluoroskan, Microplate Fluorometer, one dispenser	Fischer Scientific	Cat# 5200111	
Other	Non-treated 96-Well Microplates	Fischer Scientific	Cat# 10252711	
Other	Multiskan FC Microplate Photometer	Fischer Scientific	Cat# 11500695	
Other	Sep-Pak C18 Cartrige	Waters	Cat# WAT054955	

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S2

A

B

CONSORT Flow Diagram