Ensemble quantitation of absolute metabolite concentrations in T cells reveals conserved features of immunometabolism

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Abstract

Cells regulate metabolite levels to efficiently utilize metabolic networks and avoid toxic buildup. In turn, metabolites dictate metabolic activity by acting as substrates, products, and effectors. Despite their foundational role in cell physiology, kinetics, and thermodynamics, absolute metabolite concentrations are seldom known. Here we develop an ensemble method for absolute metabolite quantitation and quantify 84 metabolites in T cells. Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry of metabolites co-extracted from T cells and ^{13}C-labeled reference cells reveals absolute concentrations *en masse*. Across subtypes and individuals, T cell metabolomes resemble one another. T cells possess high adenylate energy charge and favorable redox ratios for energy and biomass production without compromising the forward driving force in glycolysis. Across metabolism, metabolite concentrations exceed their associated Michaelis constants and inhibitor constants two thirds and half of the time, respectively. The conserved features of T cell metabolomes underlie a design principle: metabolite levels prime cells for adaptive immune response.

Metabolism is a key driver of biological function and cellular proliferation[1]. Mounting evidence suggests that cellular metabolism in primary cells and *in vivo* is dissimilar to that of immortalized cells *in vitro*[2-5]. In addition to the mutations that cause cells to replicate indefinitely, disparate microenvironments shape their distinct metabolic states[6]. To better understand human metabolism, metabolite measurement from the cells, tissues, and blood of human subjects[7] and animal models[8-10] has been on the rise. While relative metabolite levels point to where in metabolic networks changes occur, they do not impart much knowledge of the functional implications of those changes. Absolute metabolite concentrations, on the other hand, provide mechanistic insights and foresights because they dictate reaction kinetics and thermodynamics as well as cell physiology (e.g., signaling and osmolarity). The physiological, kinetic, and thermodynamic significance warrants comprehensive absolute metabolite quantitation in primary cells and tissues.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) has been a workhorse in metabolomics[11]; however, matrix effects pose a challenge in converting ion currents to absolute concentrations[12]. To rectify them, cellular metabolites are spiked with known concentrations of internal standards. Stable isotopes are used to distinguish between intracellular metabolites and internal standards. For instance, internal standards containing naturally abundant isotopes (e.g., ^{12}C, ^{1}H, ^{16}O, etc.) are suitable for quantifying metabolite concentrations in cells that are grown on heavy isotope-labeled nutrients (e.g., ^{13}C, ^{2}H, ^{18}O, etc.) **(Fig. 1a)**. On the other hand, if cellular metabolites cannot be labeled with heavy isotopes, internal standards harboring heavy isotopes can be used with unlabeled cells[13] albeit costly and limited in scope due to low availability of isotopically labeled standards. In either case, known concentrations of internal standards and LC-MS measurement of labeled-to-unlabeled isotope ratios for individual metabolites reveal their absolute concentrations inside the cell[14]. The present isotope ratio-based approach, while effective for a handful of metabolites, becomes laborious, costly, and thus unscalable for comprehensive absolute metabolite quantitation.

The limited availability and proliferative capability of primary cells and *in vivo* samples further constrain absolute metabolite quantitation. The present isotope ratio-based method requires many rounds of metabolite extractions, thus correspondingly large amounts of biological materials, proportional to the number of metabolites to be quantified. Moreover, metabolites in non-proliferative cells are nearly impossible to fully label with heavy isotopes because they have slow turnover of macromolecules (e.g., proteins and nucleic acids) and biomass precursors (e.g., amino acids and nucleotides). The incomplete labeling obscures the distinction between cellular metabolites and internal standards, confounding the isotope ratio-based approach.

To address these challenges, we developed an ensemble metabolite quantitation method that leverages the known concentrations of >100 metabolites in previously quantified model systems including *E. coli* and immortalized mammalian cells[15] as internal reference. The reference cells were grown on uniformly ^{13}C-labeled glucose, [U-$^{13}C_6$] glucose, and co-extracted with human primary cells whose metabolite concentrations were unknown **(Fig. 1b)**. The known concentrations of the ensemble of metabolites in the reference cell and LC-MS measurement of labeled-to-unlabeled isotope ratios revealed absolute metabolite concentrations **(Fig. 1c)**.

Using the ensemble method, we quantified the absolute concentrations of 84 metabolites totaling 130-154 mM and 221 mM in human primary T cells and Jurkat T cells, respectively. Absolute metabolite

concentrations were conserved across subtypes and individuals. Amino acids were the largest class of
metabolites in T cells with glutamate and aspartate being the most abundant metabolite in Jurkat cells and
in primary T cells, respectively. The energy status of T cells was healthy with a high adenylate energy
charge of 0.95 and favorable redox ratios NADH/NAD$^+$=~0.06 and NADPH/NADP$^+$= ~19. Thermodynamic
analysis revealed that glycolysis and glutathione reductase were moderately to strongly forward driven
with Gibbs free energy changes (ΔG) of –67 kJ/mol and –30 kJ/mol, respectively. Kinetic analysis revealed
that T cell metabolomes promoted efficient enzyme utilization and regulation. Taken together, these
findings pointed to a metabolic design principle: T cell metabolome is primed for energy generation,
antioxidant activity, and efficiency. Our ensemble method is widely applicable to manifold primary cells
and tissues to uncover the human metabolome and confer physiologically accurate insights into human
metabolism.

Results

Co-extraction enables absolute metabolite quantitation *en masse*

Absolute metabolite concentrations offer quantitative insights into metabolic regulation, thermodynamics,
and efficiency. We streamlined absolute metabolite quantitation by using isotopically labeled cellular
metabolites as internal standards and co-extracting metabolites from the cells of interest (COI) and ^{13}C-
labeled reference cells (REF). For each metabolite, ^{12}C-dominant peaks and ^{13}C-dominant ions were divided
into unlabeled and labeled groups to account for impurities in the standard and natural ^{13}C abundance in
the cells **(Fig. 1d)**. During co-extraction, two cell types were kept separate to prevent unwanted
interactions and perturbations until they were quenched **(Fig. 1b)**. By using reference cells with known
concentrations[15], the co-extraction method obviated the need for individual standards and parallelized
absolute quantitation of multiple metabolites in a single sample.

To validate our approach, we performed co-extraction with known ratios of two cultures of *E. coli* grown on
unlabeled or ^{13}C-labeled glucose in otherwise identical conditions **(Fig. 1e)**. LC-MS analysis revealed the
ratios of unlabeled to ^{13}C-labeled metabolites (U:L ratio) as expected from the ratios of extracted culture
volumes **(Fig. 1f)**. At all ratios tested (U:L ratio equal to 1:1, 4:1, and 20:1), the measurements globally
stayed near the expected ratio with R^2=0.85, R^2=0.78, and R^2=0.67, respectively. However, the distributions
of measured U:L ratios became broader as they deviated further from one due to the lower limit of
detection and ion suppression in the mass spectrometer **(Extended Data Fig. 1)**. Since one-to-one ratios of
unlabeled to ^{13}C-labeled metabolites minimized variance and error, we tuned the U:L ratios to be near one
by extracting different amounts of the COI and the REF **(Fig. 1g)**. Measured U:L ratios depend on the
intracellular aqueous volumes (V) and metabolite concentrations ([met]) in each cell type:

$$Measured\ U{:}L\ ratio = \frac{12C\ Ion\ Counts}{13C\ Ion\ Counts} = \frac{V_{COI}\times[met]_{COI}}{V_{REF}\times[met]_{REF}} \qquad \text{... Equation 1}$$

Starting from Eqn. 1, we solved for absolute metabolite concentrations in cells of interest using the known
concentrations in the reference cell, aqueous cell volume ratios, and LC-MS measurement of unlabeled-to-
labeled ion ratios.

Absolute metabolite quantitation in T cells by tailored co-extraction

We sought to comprehensively quantify absolute metabolite concentrations in human cells. Central carbon metabolites and most intermediates of amino acid and nucleotide biosynthesis pathways have turnover times ranging from a fraction of a second to minutes. Therefore, rapid quenching of metabolism and extraction of metabolites are required to minimize perturbation, accurately capture snapshots of metabolism, and quantify metabolites. Techniques for separating cells and tissues have been developed to minimize perturbations and facilitate metabolite extraction[16,17]. In the present work, we focused on quantifying absolute metabolite concentrations in human primary T cells.

We employed three quenching-extraction methods tailored to redox cofactors, metabolites present in the extracellular space (e.g., amino acids and pyruvate), and all others including central carbon metabolites **(Fig. 2a)**. Upon rapidly separating T cells in suspension by vacuum filtration, their metabolites were extracted with –20°C pre-cooled 40:40:20 acetonitrile/methanol/water and measured on LC-MS[17]. While our initial measurement was robust for many metabolites, redox cofactors were often undetectable, and amino acids were overestimated. For NAD(H) and NADP(H), we used an acidic extraction solvent, 0.1 M formic acid in 40:40:20 acetonitrile/methanol/water, followed by neutralization **(Fig. 2b** and **Extended Data Fig. 2a)**. Acidic extraction quenches residual enzymatic activity and dissociates metabolites by fully denaturing enzymes[13]. For amino acids, we found that vacuum pressure for filtration was an important variable. Pressure below –50 kPa expedited filtration, lowered amino acid levels belonging to extracellular space, and retained strictly intracellular metabolites such as nucleotides **(Extended Data Fig. 2b)**. However, amino acid signals under strong vacuum still reflected predominantly extracellular amino acids, calling for a wash step before metabolite extraction. Washing the cells and filter with ammonium acetate or PBS during the filtration step resulted in large decreases in both intracellular and extracellular metabolites, indicating cell shear and lysis **(Extended Data Fig. 2c)**. To rapidly remove extracellular metabolites and accurately measure their intracellular counterparts, we resorted to adding a centrifugation-and-wash step prior to vacuum filtration **(Fig. 2c)**. A single wash effectively removed extracellular amino acids **(Extended Data Fig. 2d)**. Our regular and acid extraction methods took a few seconds, and our amino acid extraction method incorporating the wash step took under three minutes. The fast extraction times left little time for metabolite levels to respond to any potential perturbations prior to quenching cellular activities. By combining the tailored co-extraction methods, we quantified the absolute concentrations of 68 metabolites totaling 221 mM in Jurkat cells **(Fig. 2d and Supplementary Table 1)**.

Cellular metabolome manifests genetic distance

Of the 221 mM measured metabolites in Jurkat cells, amino acids constituted the most abundant metabolite group, accounting for two thirds of known metabolome **(Fig. 2d)**. Of the remaining third (73 mM), central carbon metabolites, nucleotides, redox cofactors, and metabolites in degradation pathways made up 15%, 15%, 12%, and 18%, respectively. Glutamate was the most abundant metabolite at a concentration of 48 mM. Pyruvate and malate were the most abundant central carbon metabolites, and ATP and UTP were the most abundant nucleotides. Interestingly, 3-phosphoserine and uridine were two of the most abundant metabolites, pointing to the role of *de novo* serine[5] and pyrimidine[18] biosynthesis in T cell proliferation and development.

We compared the metabolome of Jurkat cells to those of other systems previously measured using the
traditional isotope ratio-based approach[15,19]. Metabolite concentrations were moderately correlated
between Jurkat cells and prokaryotic *E. coli* cells (R^2=0.43) **(Fig. 3a)**. Most amino acid concentrations were
higher in Jurkat cells, whereas the concentrations of select central carbon metabolites, nucleotides, and
redox cofactors were higher in *E. coli*. The Jurkat cell metabolome showed a higher correlation (R^2=0.48)
with eukaryotic *S. cerevisiae* cells than with *E. coli* **(Fig. 3b)**. Both microbes possessed greater
concentrations of glycolytic intermediates such as hexose phosphates, fructose-1,6-bisphosphate, and 3-
phosphoglycerate. Metabolite concentrations in Jurkat cells were highly correlated (R^2=0.64) with those of
another immortalized mammalian cell line (iBMK mouse kidney cells) **(Fig. 3c)**. The coefficients of
determination (R^2) indicated that 40-65% of the variance in metabolite concentrations in human T cells
could be accounted for by metabolite concentrations in other organisms. Regression analysis also revealed
that the metabolomes of eukaryotic and mammalian cells tended toward a closer resemblance. Thus, the
metabolome manifested evolutionary proximity of organisms.

Conservation of T cell metabolome across subtypes and individuals

Our ensemble method enabled absolute metabolite quantitation in human primary T cells from individual
healthy donors. To best capture *in vivo* T cell metabolism in two major T cell subtypes, we isolated CD4+
and CD8+ T cells by negative selection from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) because ligand
binding on cell surface may affect cellular metabolism[20]. To allow T cells to reach homeostasis, we
incubated them for two hours in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% dialyzed fetal bovine serum.
Within seven to nine hours of blood collection, we extracted CD4+ and CD8+ T cell metabolites using the
ensemble method **(Fig. 4a)**. The same-day measurement of T cell metabolome was chosen to minimize the
alteration of T cell proteome and study *in vivo*-like T cell metabolism before it adapted to *in vitro*
conditions.

We quantified 70 metabolites in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells from the five donors **(Fig. 4b and Supplementary**
Tables 1 and 2). A total of 154 mM and 130 mM spanning central carbon metabolites, amino acids,
nucleotides, redox metabolites, and others was measured in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, respectively.
Metabolomes of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells displayed a strikingly high correlation (R^2>0.95) **(Fig. 4c and**
Extended Data Fig. 3a). Metabolite concentrations in CD4+ and CD8+ primary T cells also correlated with
those of immortalized Jurkat cells (R^2=0.88 and R^2=0.83). Amino acids represented the highest
concentration metabolite group (73% for CD4+ cells and 67% for CD8+ cells). The most abundant
metabolite measured in primary T cells was aspartate, unlike in Jurkat cells and other previously
characterized cell types, in which glutamate was the most abundant[15]. Across individuals, we observed
highly correlated T cell metabolomes (R^2>0.79) **(Fig. 4d and Extended Data Fig. 3b)**. The correlations
observed among primary T cell metabolomes exceeded those of T cell metabolomes compared with other
cell types (R^2=0.4-0.6) **(Extended Data Fig. 4)**. Thus, our observations pointed to the conservation of the T
cell metabolome among subtypes and individuals.

Energetics of T cell metabolism revealed by absolute concentrations

We sought to gain energetic and thermodynamic insights into T cell metabolism using absolute metabolite
concentrations. ATP is the cellular energy currency. Exergonic ATP hydrolysis drives reactions, which are
otherwise thermodynamically unfavorable, and produces ADP in the process. Thus, maintaining a high

ATP/ADP ratio favors proper cellular function. In both primary and immortalized T cells, ATP/ADP ratios
were consistently high with an interquartile range of 16.8–20.3 **(Fig. 5a)**, which is higher than those of
other eukaryotes yeast and iBMK cells (~3.95 and ~8.21, respectively)[15]. The high ATP/ADP ratio in
resting T cells may prime them for a rapid switch to proliferation and cytokine synthesis upon activation.
To fully account for cellular energetics, we quantified the adenylate energy charge, which reflects the total
energy stored in the adenylate pool.

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$$Adenylate\ Energy\ Charge\ = \frac{[ATP] + {}^{1}\!/_{2}[ADP]}{[ATP] + [ADP] + [AMP]} \qquad \text{... Equation 2}$$

The adenylate energy charge was 0.93-0.96, tightly conserved across all T cell types **(Fig. 5b)**. It was on the
higher end of the physiological range previously observed in mammalian cells (0.7 to 0.96)[15,21].

Oxidative phosphorylation is the main source of ATP for many organisms including humans. Using the
proton motive force due to electron transport from electron carriers such as NADH and $FADH_2$ to an
electron acceptor O_2, oxidative phosphorylation generates ATP. The $NADH/NAD^+$ ratio in T cells was
0.06±0.01 **(Fig. 5c)**. The ATP/ADP and $NADH/NAD^+$ ratios affect the thermodynamic driving force of
glycolysis, which generates two ATP and two NADH molecules for each glucose molecule **(Fig. 5d)**. We
determined the Gibbs free energy change (ΔG) across glycolysis to range from –60 kJ/mol to –77 kJ/mol
(Fig. 5e and Supplementary Table 3). The majority (~75%) of Gibbs free energy drop occurred in upper
glycolysis **(Fig. 5f)**. Thus, the low $NADH/NAD^+$ ratio played dual roles of driving glycolysis forward (despite
the high ATP/ADP ratio) and preventing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production.

Redox pairs also play a vital role of providing reducing power for scavenging ROS and anabolism.
Glutathione and NADPH are primary reducing agents in the cell. We observed that T cells have the ratios of
antioxidant glutathione (GSH) to its oxidized counterpart glutathione disulfide (GSSG) to range from 4 to 12
(Fig. 5g), which were in line with healthy erythrocytes which have GSH/GSSG=~5.88 (ref. [22]) but not as
high as those observed in human tissues[15,23] and whole blood[24]. For $NADPH/NADP^+$, we observed large
variations, but they were mostly high between 10 and 25 in T cells **(Fig. 5h)**. These values were consistent
with prior observations of $NADPH/NADP^+$ ratios of 2.30 in iBMK cells[15] and ~30 in immortalized mouse
embryonic fibroblasts[25]. In addition to benefiting anabolism, the high $NADPH/NADP^+$ ratio provided a
driving force for the glutathione reductase reaction with ΔG= –30±7 kJ/mol **(Fig. 5i)**. T cell energetics and
thermodynamics were conserved across all three T cell types.

Efficient utilization and regulation of enzymes by T cells

Metabolites serve as both substrates and effectors for enzymes. Enzyme-catalyzed reactions display
saturable kinetics with respect to metabolite concentrations, also known as Michaelis-Menten kinetics. As
the substrate and the effector increasingly occupy the active site and the effector binding site of an enzyme,
their influences on the reaction rate contract. Across all three T cell types, two thirds of substrate-enzyme
pairs displayed metabolite concentrations exceeding their corresponding Michaelis constants (K_m) **(Fig. 6a**
and Supplementary Tables 4, 5 and 6). On the other hand, metabolites as inhibitors had their
concentrations exceed the corresponding dissociation constants of the enzyme-inhibitor complex (K_i) for
half of inhibitor binding interactions **(Fig. 6b and Supplementary Tables 7, 8 and 9)**. The distributions of
log ratios of metabolite concentrations to corresponding K_m values were similarly left-skewed, whereas log
ratios of metabolite concentrations to corresponding K_i values appeared more symmetrical **(Extended**

Data Fig. 5). In each of the three T cell types, the former distribution of ln [met]/K_m leaned to the right
compared to the latter distribution of ln [met]/K_i **(Fig. 6c and Supplementary Table 10)**. On the
individual metabolite level, ATP and glutathione saturated the majority of enzyme binding sites as either
substrates or inhibitors, whereas cyclic AMP and $NADP^+$ hardly occupied enzyme binding sites **(Extended**
Data Fig. 6). Non-saturating metabolites like cyclic AMP and $NADP^+$ may influence reaction rates through
mass action. On the other hand, saturating metabolites like ATP and glutathione would have to decrease
their concentrations drastically to influence reaction rates. Nonetheless, they may still influence reaction
rates by modulating ATP/ADP and GSH/GSSG ratios and shifting ΔG of near-equilibrium reactions[26,27]. The
concentrations of central carbon metabolites, amino acids, and nucleotides were distributed evenly around
the respective K_m and K_i values. Collectively, these observations manifested efficient utilization of enzymes
and modulation of enzyme activity by metabolite concentrations and reaction thermodynamics.

Discussion

The governing equations of biochemical systems mathematically describe, at the local level, the kinetics
and energetics of biochemical reactions, and at the systems level, the laws of conservation of mass and
energy. Absolute metabolite concentrations are integral elements of the governing equations. Since
analytical instruments have varying sensitivities and responses to disparate analytes, absolute metabolite
quantitation has remained an onerous task that requires large sample sizes. In particular, absolute
metabolite concentrations in primary cells and tissues have been inaccessible due to low availability of
biological materials. To solve this problem, we developed the ensemble method for quantifying absolute
metabolite concentrations *en masse*.

With our ensemble quantitation method in hand, we quantified absolute metabolite concentrations in
human T cells for the first time. T cell metabolism underlies adaptive immunity by supplying cellular
energy and biochemical building blocks for activation, differentiation, and proliferation[28-31] as well as
production of cytokines and cytotoxic granules[32-36]. Thus, knowledge of absolute concentrations provides a
quantitative and mechanistic understanding of T cell metabolism and establishes a solid foundation for
promoting immunity[37,38] and developing immunotherapy for cancer[20,39-41] and autoimmune diseases[42-45].

A key finding from our ensemble quantitation in human primary T cells is the conservation of metabolome
across subtypes and individuals. Between five individuals and their helper (CD4+) and killer (CD8+) T cells,
the lowest R^2 observed was 0.8. Despite helper and killer T cells carrying out distinct functions in the
adaptive immune system, their basal metabolic profiles resemble each other and indicate energy and redox
homeostasis. On the one hand, the high metabolic similarity across individuals implies that metabolic
variability may not stand in the way of allogeneic immunotherapy. On the other hand, ensemble absolute
metabolite quantitation across a larger number of individuals may reveal the unique metabolic features of
a "super donor," whose cells would lead to successful treatment of many patients. Thus, our data provides a
baseline for healthy T cell metabolism, opening the door to biomarker discovery.

The observed conservation of metabolite concentrations manifests a metabolic design principle: cells
prioritize concentration homeostasis despite a high turnover of metabolites. How can metabolites exert
control of metabolic activity without substantial change in concentrations? In reactions that are reversible
or moderately forward driven, small changes in metabolite concentrations lead to large changes in reaction
rates[26,46]. Furthermore, since each metabolite is involved in multiple reactions and pathways as substrates,

products and effectors, a substantial change in a single metabolite's concentration may have multiple
unintended consequences throughout metabolism[47]. Therefore, small variations across multiple
metabolites, rather than large variations of few metabolites, may better exercise precise pathway-level
modulation of metabolic activity. Caution should be taken, however, not to misconstrue the overall
similarity as lack of unique metabolic features.

The most notable difference between primary and immortalized T cells was the abundance of aspartate. In
primary T cells, aspartate is the most abundant metabolite at 35-39 mM, whereas in Jurkat cells it just
makes the top ten with 6.9 mM. Besides protein synthesis, aspartate serves three important functions: i)
electron translocation from the cytosol to the mitochondrial matrix as part of the malate-aspartate shuttle;
ii) biosynthesis of asparagine and nucleotides; and iii) anaplerosis. In T cells, both aspartate and asparagine
have been linked to stress response pathways and effector function. Aspartate deficiency is a biomarker of
autoimmune T cells from rheumatoid arthritis patients[42]. Aspartate deficiency lowers NAD^+/NADH and
ADP-ribosylation of GRP78/BiP, a regulator of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress, causing the expansion of
ER membrane and the biogenesis of a proinflammatory cytokine tumor necrosis factor (TNF). Aspartate
supplementation was sufficient to recover healthy T cell function. Furthermore, asparagine availability and
asparagine synthetase (ASNS) activity modulate T cell metabolism, effector function, and antitumor
response[48-50]. Thus, aspartate is a key regulator of T cell inflammatory response (*cf.* succinate and itaconate
in macrophages[51-53]) and we surmise that a high aspartate concentration is a hallmark of healthy T cells.

Besides uncovering the conserved features of T cell metabolism, a key contribution of this work is the
ensemble method for absolute metabolite quantitation, which standardizes metabolomics, augments its
utility and applicability, and engenders kinetic and thermodynamic insights. Knowledge of absolute
metabolite concentrations transcends the boundaries of individual metabolomics studies and lays the
foundation for cumulative knowledgebase of metabolism. Knowledge of absolute metabolite
concentrations is indispensable for quantifying fluxes in non-steady-state conditions[54,55]. The ensemble
method can be applied to not only suspension cultures but also adherent cell cultures and in *in vivo* tissue
extractions **(Extended Data Fig. 7)**. It would also facilitate organelle-specific metabolite quantitation[56],
uncover metabolite-protein interactions[57,58], and integrate multi-omic datasets[59]. We envision our
ensemble quantitation method being applied to the >400 major cell types in the human body[60] to create an
atlas of human metabolome. The resulting knowledge will serve as a conduit for connecting biochemistry
to mathematical modeling, advance model-based predictive biology, and reveal master regulators of
metabolism.

Online Methods

Negative selection of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells

CD4+ and CD8+ primary T cells were isolated from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) of healthy donors by magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS). PBMCs were isolated from healthy donor blood (courtesy of the UCLA Blood and Platelet Center) by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque PLUS (Cytiva) (courtesy of the UCLA Virology Core Laboratory). To prevent unintended metabolic reprogramming due to the binding of antibodies to the surface antigens of T cells[20,61], negative selection strategies for CD4+ and CD8+ were employed. Manufacturer protocols for CD4+ and CD8+ negative selection kits (Miltenyi Biotec) were followed. PBMCs were spun down, rinsed with PBS, and resuspended in PBS containing 0.5% BSA and 2 mM EDTA (Miltenyi Biotec) at a concentration of 40 μL buffer per 10^7 cells. Then 10 μL of biotin-conjugated antibodies (Miltenyi Biotec) were added per 10^7 cells, and the cells were incubated for 5 minutes in the refrigerator (2-8°C). After allowing antibodies to bind to cognate antigens, 30 μL of buffer per 10^7 cells was added along with 20 μL of MicroBead Cocktail (Miltenyi Biotec) per 10^7, and the cells were incubated for 10 minutes in the refrigerator (2-8°C). For negative selection of CD4+ T cells, biotin-conjugated antibody cocktail included antibodies against CD8, CD14, CD15, CD16, CD19, CD36, CD56, CD123, TCR γ/δ, and CD235a (Glycophorin A), and MicroBead Cocktail included MicroBeads conjugated to anti-biotin antibody and anti-CD61 antibody to remove CD8+ T cells, monocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, B cells, dendritic cells, NK cells, granulocytes, γ/δ T cells, erythroid cells, megakaryocytes, and platelets. For negative selection of CD8+ T cells, biotin-conjugated antibody cocktail included antibodies against CD4, CD15, CD16, CD19, CD34, CD36, CD56, CD123, TCRγ/δ, and CD235a (Glycophorin A), and MicroBead Cocktail included MicroBeads conjugated to anti-biotin antibody, anti-CD14 antibody, and anti-CD61 antibody to remove CD4+ T cells, monocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, B cells, stem cells, dendritic cells, NK cells, granulocytes, γ/δ T cells, erythroid cells, megakaryocytes, and platelets.

LS columns (Miltenyi Biotec) were rinsed with buffer, and then the cells were added to the columns. The initial flow through represented the enriched CD4+ or CD8+ population. Once isolated, the cells were spun down at 200g for 10 minutes, the supernatant was decanted, and the cells were resuspended in RPMI supplemented with 10% dialyzed fetal bovine serum (dFBS). CD4+ or CD8+ T cells were cultured in an incubator at 37°C for 1-2 hours before extraction. For amino acid measurement, cells from Donor E and Donor F were cultured for two hours in standard RPMI 1640 media diluted threefold with amino acid deprived RPMI media supplemented with 10% dFBS.

Population purity was verified with flow cytometry **(Extended Data Fig. 8)**. To confirm the purity of isolated CD4+ and CD8+ T cells from PBMCs, cells were stained with the following antibodies: CD3 (APC, clone REA613, Miltenyi Biotec), CD4 (VioBlue, clone REA623, Miltenyi Biotec), and CD8 (FITC, clone REA715, Miltenyi Biotec). A suspension of 5×10^5 cells in 100 μL of PBS containing 0.5% BSA and 2 mM EDTA was prepared. After 2 μL of each antibody solution was added, the cells were incubated on a shaker at room temperature in the dark for 10 minutes, washed with 1 mL of buffer, centrifuged at 300g for 5 minutes, and resuspended to a volume of 0.5 mL of staining buffer. Samples were moved to a flow cytometry tube and stored cold (2-8°C) in the dark until transport. Unstained and fluorescence minus one (FMO) control samples were prepared similarly. Single color controls were prepared following the same

330 protocol with positive and negative compensation beads (Miltenyi Biotec) with the same concentration of
331 antibodies added (2 μL antibody solution per 100 μL PBS containing 0.5% BSA and 2 mM EDTA. Cells were
332 analyzed using an LSRFortessa flow cytometer (BD Biosciences), and data were gated and analyzed with
333 Floreada.io.

Cell lines and culture conditions

All cells were cultured in nutrient replete conditions. Jurkat cells (Jurkat clone E6-1, ATCC) were cultured
in RPMI 1640 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% dFBS at 37°C. For Jurkat cells, partial media change,
replacing one third of the cell-free culture volume, was performed every 24 hours and three hours prior to
metabolite extraction. Primary T cells were seeded into RPMI 1640 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% dFBS
at 37°C after negative selection, and their intracellular metabolites were extracted within one to two hours.
The cells designated for intracellular amino acid quantification and from Donor E were seeded into a
medium with one-third diluted amino acids but otherwise identical to RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10%
dFBS. *E. coli* strain NCM3722 was grown in Gutnick minimal medium[62] containing 2 g/L [U-^{13}C$_6$] glucose
and 10 mM NH$_4$Cl at 37°C. *E. coli* cells were cultured in the ^{13}C-labeled medium starting from the
inoculation of overnight cultures. Cells were reinoculated from the overnight culture into beveled flasks
and grown for four to five hours to the mid-exponential phase before metabolite extraction. *BAX$^{-/-}$/BAK$^{-/-}$*
immortalized Baby Mouse Kidney cells (iBMK)[63] cells were cultured in DMEM without glucose, pyruvate,
and glutamine (Gibco) supplemented with 4.5 g/L [U-^{13}C$_6$] glucose, 584 mg/L [U-^{13}C$_5$] glutamine (99%,
Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) and 10% dFBS in six-centimeter plates for 72 hours. Fresh medium was
replenished every 24 hours and three hours (2 g/L [U-^{13}C$_6$] glucose but otherwise the same medium) prior
to metabolite extraction.

Co-extraction of metabolites from two cell types

Jurkat, *E. coli*, and iBMK cells were all extracted when they were exponentially growing. Jurkat cells were
extracted when culture density was between 1×10^6 cells/mL to 3×10^6 cells/mL. *E. coli* cells were extracted
in the mid-exponential phase at OD$_{600}$ between 0.3 and 0.6. iBMK cells were extracted when cultures
reached 60-80% confluence. Primary T cells were extracted one to two hours after isolation from PBMCs,
after incubating in RPMI 1640 + 10% dFBS. Viability and growth of mammalian cells were measured by
mixing cell suspension with Trypan Blue at a 1:1 ratio and using the Countess II FL Cell Counter (Thermo).

For co-extraction of T cells and *E. coli* cells, the two cultures were simultaneously vacuum filtered by
pipetting them onto distinct regions of a 47-mm nylon membrane (0.20-μm pore size). Care was taken to
ensure that the two cultures did not come in contact. Once the cells were separated from the media, the
filter was placed cell-side down onto a 6-cm plate containing 1 mL of pre-cooled (−20°C) 40:40:20 LC-MS
grade methanol/acetonitrile/water. Extraction continued in a −20°C freezer for 15-20 minutes. The filter
was flipped so that the cell side was facing up. The extract solution was mixed well, transferred to an
Eppendorf tube, and spun down at 17,000g and 4°C for 10 minutes. For measuring NAD(P)(H), an acidic
extraction solvent containing 0.1 M formic acid was used[64], and prior to centrifugation, the extract was
neutralized with 15% NH$_4$HCO$_3$. The supernatant was dried under nitrogen gas and reconstituted in LC-MS-
grade water for LC-MS analysis.

Measurement of intracellular amino acids in T cells required rapidly washing cells to minimize the
perturbation of cellular metabolism. Initially, two washing methods, in which 150 mM ammonium acetate
at a pH of 7.4 or PBS (Corning) was pipetted onto cells on nylon filter immediately after vacuum filtration,
were tested; however, both led to cell lysis and loss of metabolites. Instead, a combination of centrifugation
and vacuum filtration was used for rapid washing and extraction. T cells were first separated from media
by centrifuging 1 mL of culture at 500g for 2 minutes. The supernatant was removed and replaced with 1
mL of amino acid-free RPMI 1640 before rapid vacuum filtration and co-extraction as described above. For
Jurkat cells, which secreted substantial amounts of pyruvate, pyruvate measurement also followed rapid
washing and extraction steps as with amino acids.

For co-extraction of T cells and iBMK cells, both culture plates were removed from the incubator
simultaneously. Media was aspirated from the D3 plate, extraction solvent was placed on it, the plate was
placed on a cold plate. Jurkat cell culture was vacuum filtered on a nylon filter membrane, and the filter was
placed onto the iBMK extraction plate with the cell side facing down onto the extraction solvent **(Extended**
Data Fig. 7a). The plate was placed in the –20°C freezer for 15-20 minutes. The adherent cells were
detached using a cell lifter, the filter was flipped cell-side up, and the extract solution was mixed well. The
metabolite extract was collected, spun down at 17,000g and 4°C for 10 minutes. The supernatant was dried
under nitrogen gas and reconstituted in LC-MS-grade water for LC-MS analysis.

Metabolite measurement

The metabolite extracts were analyzed by LC-MS, a Vanquish Duo UHPLC (Thermo) coupled to a Q Exactive
Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo). The LC separation was achieved using a hydrophilic interaction
chromatography column (XBridge BEH Amide Column, 130 Å, 2.5 μm, 2.1 mm × 150 mm, Waters). The A
and B solvents were 95:5 water/acetonitrile with 20 mM ammonium acetate, 39 mM ammonium hydroxide
(pH 9.4) and 99:1 acetonitrile/water, and the gradient was the same as previously reported[20,65]. MS was
performed in positive and negative ion mode with a mass resolution of 140,000 at 200 m/z (mass-to-
charge ratios). LC-MS data were processed using the Metabolomic Analysis and Visualization Engine
(MAVEN)[66]. The m/z values from monoisotopic masses and the retention times from authenticated
standards were used to identify peaks. For isomers glucose-6-phosphate and fructose-6-phosphate, which
were not separated by the LC method, the ratio of isomers in the cells of interest was assumed to be the
same as in the reference cells, and a single peak and U/L ratio were taken for both isomers. For arginine
and glycine, whose concentrations could not be reliably obtained from co-extraction, known concentrations
of arginine and glycine standards were spiked into cellular extracts, and cellular arginine and glycine
concentrations were computed using the increase in the ion counts relative to the unspiked aliquots and
the ion counts in the unspiked aliquots. A previously reported concentration value for dTTP concentration
in *E. coli* was inaccurate. To measure the correct absolute concentration of dTTP in *E. coli*, *E. coli* strain
NCM3722 was grown in Gutnick minimal medium[62] containing 2 g/L [U-^{13}C$_6$] glucose and 10 mM NH$_4$Cl at
37°C , and metabolites were extracted using 40:40:20 methanol/acetonitrile/water containing a known
amount of unlabeled dTTP. The samples were prepared and analyzed as described above, and the new
dTTP concentration was calculated from the ratio of unlabeled to labeled dTTP. The new dTTP
concentration in *E. coli* was 1.81×10^{-4} M with the 95% confidence interval [1.54×10^{-4} M, 2.13×10^{-4} M]. Using
this new reference concentration, dTTP concentrations in T cells were determined using the co-extraction
method.

Absolute metabolite quantitation and statistical analysis

Absolute metabolite concentrations were determined by the ratio of unlabeled to ^{13}C-labeled metabolites, the ratio between aqueous cell volumes of cells of interest and reference cells, and the known absolute concentration in the reference cells. The concentration of each metabolite was calculated by:

$$\ln[met]_{COI} = \ln\frac{U}{L} + \ln\frac{V_{REF}}{V_{COI}} + \ln[met]_{REF} \qquad \text{... Equation 3}$$

Where $[met]_{COI}$ and $[met]_{REF}$ is the metabolite concentration in the cells of interest (COI) and reference cells (REF) , $\frac{U}{L}$ is the ratio of unlabeled ions to labeled ions, V_{COI} and V_{REF} are the aqueous cell volumes of COI and REF. For *E. coli*, culture density (OD$_{600}$) was measured using a spectrophotometer and converted to aqueous cell volume using the conversion[15] $1\ OD_{600} = \frac{7\times10^{-16}\ L\ (aqueous\ vol)}{1\ cell} \frac{1\ cell}{3\times10^{-13}\ gCDW} \frac{0.47\ gCDW}{1\ L\ (culture)}$. For primary T cells, Jurkat cells, and iBMK cells, packed cell volume was measured and converted to the aqueous cell volume using the conversion $1\ \mu L\ (PCV) = 0.7\ \mu L\ (aq\ vol)$.

Once metabolites concentrations were determined using **Eqn. 3** for individual samples, average levels and confidence intervals for metabolites were derived by bootstrapping. Since $\frac{U}{L}$ values influenced the accuracy of metabolite concentration measurement **(Fig. 1f)**, bootstrapping was carried out by weighting metabolite concentrations based on $\frac{U}{L}$. The weights were derived from the relationship between $\frac{U}{L}$ and the corresponding R^2 values across the metabolome in the co-extraction validation study **(Fig. 1f)**.

$$R^2(k) = 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} = 1 - \frac{\sum_i(\log U_i - \log kL_i)^2}{\sum_i(\log U_i - \overline{\log U})^2} \qquad \text{... Equation 4}$$

k represents expected $\frac{U}{L}$ ratio (1, 4, and 20 in the validation study), i represents metabolite index, and U$_i$ and L$_i$ represent ion counts for unlabeled and ^{13}C-labeled metabolite i.

The weights for individual metabolite concentrations in bootstrapping were determined by the likelihood of the measurements given their $\frac{U}{L}$ values accurately capturing the true concentrations, which were represented by R^2. To determine weights for the individual samples whose metabolites were extracted from various $\frac{U}{L}$ values, the known k and R^2 values were fitted to a gaussian curve using nonlinear regression **(Extended Data Fig. 9)**. The resulting weight function $w\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)$ was used to determine probabilities for weighted bootstrapping of T cells concentrations measurements.

$$w\left(\frac{U}{L}\right) = a \times e^{-\frac{\left(\ln\frac{U}{L}\right)^2}{2c^2}} \qquad \text{... Equation 5}$$

The values a = 0.831451 and c = 4.575862 were determined by non-linear least squares fitting. Each $\frac{U}{L}$ ratio was converted to a weight value w_i using **Eqn. 5**. For each metabolite, the probability of selecting a measurement in weighted bootstrapping was computed by dividing its weight by the sum of the weights of all measurements:

$$P(i) = \frac{w_i}{\sum_j w_j} \qquad \text{... Equation 6}$$

For each metabolite, the log-concentration ($\ln[met]_{COI}$) distribution was bootstrapped by resampling
10,000 means, each of which was calculated from n (number of samples) log-concentration measurements
selected according to $P(i)$ with replacement **(Extended Data Fig. 9)**. The standard error s_{met} of log-
concentrations from the bootstrapped distribution was obtained by dividing the range of the 95%
confidence interval by 4. However, this error represented a compounding effect of independent random
errors from both COI (T cells) and REF cells. The errors for metabolites specifically in COI (T cells) were
propagated using the compound standard error s_{met} and the standard error of $[met]_{REF}$ ($s_{[met]_{REF}}$):

447
$$s_{[met]_{COI}} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{s_{met}^2 - s_{[met]_{REF}}^2} & s_{met}^2 > s_{[met]_{REF}}^2 \\ s_{[met]_{REF}} & s_{met}^2 \leq s_{[met]_{REF}}^2 \end{cases} \qquad \text{... Equation 7}$$

448   The 95% confidence interval of each metabolite was determined as the mean ± 2 $s_{[met]_{COI}}$ in logarithmic
449   space:

450
$$\ln[met]_{COI} \in [\overline{\ln[met]_{COI}} - 2s_{[met]_{COI}}, \overline{\ln[met]_{COI}} + 2s_{[met]_{COI}}] \qquad \text{... Equation 8}$$

Michaelis constants (K_m) and inhibitor dissociation constants (K_i)

Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared to previously published Michaelis constants (K_m) and
inhibitor dissociation constants (K_i). K_m and K_i values in *Homo sapiens* were extracted from BRENDA using
the Python 3 implementation of the Simple Object Access Protocol (SOAPpy)[67]. Entries corresponding to
mutant enzymes were removed. When multiple entries for the same enzyme-metabolite pair were
available, K_m or K_i was represented by the geometric mean. The $\ln([met]/K_m)$ and $\ln([met]/K_i)$
distributions were compared using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The skewness of each distribution was
represented by the Fisher-Pearson coefficient of skewness (g_1).

Gibbs free energy of reaction

Gibbs free energies of lumped glycolytic steps and glutathione reductase were calculated using the
eQuilibrator API[68] by inputting the measured absolute concentrations of glycolytic intermediates, ATP,
ADP, inorganic phosphate, NAD(H), NADP(H), glutathione, and glutathione disulfide. Inorganic phosphate
concentration was set to the geometric mean of the range 2.5-5 mM based on the phosphate concentration
in RPMI 1640 of 5.6 mM (Gibco) and previous measurements in mammalian cells[69,70]. Intracellular glucose
concentration was set to the geometric mean of the range 0.1-6 mM based on previous measurements in
mammalian cells[71-73]. For intracellular inorganic phosphate and glucose, the standard errors of their log-
concentrations were obtained by dividing the reported range in logarithmic space by 4.

Gibbs free energy changes for lumped reactions were calculated when intermediate metabolite
concentrations were unknown. Gibbs free energy changes for the following reactions and lumped reactions
were calculated.

Hexokinase (HK) reaction:

472
$$Glucose \ + \ ATP \ \rightarrow \ G6P \ + \ ADP$$

Phosphoglucoisomerase (PGI) reaction:

$$G6P \rightarrow F6P$$

Phosphofructokinase (PFK) reaction:

$$F6P + ATP \rightarrow FBP + ADP$$

Lumped fructose-bisphosphate aldolase (FBA), triosephosphate isomerase (TPI), glyceraldehyde-3-
phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) reactions:
479
$$FBP + 2\ NAD + 2\ Pi + 2\ ADP \rightarrow 2\ 3PG + 2\ NADH + 2\ ATP$$

Lumped phosphoglycerate mutase (PGAM), enolase (ENO) reactions:

$$3PG \rightarrow PEP + H_2O$$

Pyruvate kinase (PYK) reaction:

$$PEP + ADP \rightarrow PYR + ATP$$

Overall glycolysis:

$$Glucose + 2\ NAD + 2\ ADP + 2\ Pi \rightarrow 2\ PYR + 2\ NADH + 2\ ATP + 2\ H_2O$$

Glutathione reductase:

$$NADPH + GSSG + H^+ \rightarrow NADP^+ + 2\ GSH$$

The error for each reaction step was calculated by error propagation with the standard errors of the
standard Gibbs free energy and the log-concentrations of substrates and products **(Supplementary Table
3)**. For instance, the error propagation formula for the Gibbs free energy of a reaction with the form $aA +$
$bB \rightarrow cC + dD$, where lowercase letters represent stoichiometric coefficients for metabolites in capital
letters was:
494

495 $$s_{\Delta G} = \sqrt{(s_{\Delta G^\circ})^2 + (RT)^2((a \cdot s_{ln[A]})^2 + (b \cdot s_{ln[B]})^2 + (c \cdot s_{ln[C]})^2 + (d \cdot s_{ln[D]})^2)} \quad \ldots \text{Equation 9}$$

Data availability

Source data for all Figures (absolute metabolite concentrations, kinetic constants, and thermodynamic constants) are provided in Supplementary Tables 1-10 and the GitHub public repository: https://github.com/samokeeffe/abs-met-quant

Code availability

The code for bootstrapping and computational analyses is available on the GitHub public repository: https://github.com/samokeeffe/abs-met-quant

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Contributions

S.O.K. and J.O.P. designed the study and wrote the manuscript. S.O.K., H.S., E.M., and J.O.P. carried out the experiments. S.O.K. and H.S. isolated primary T cells and performed flowcytometry. S.O.K., H.S., E.M. and J.O.P. performed metabolomics analysis.

Figure 1. Metabolite co-extraction enables ensemble quantitation using ¹³C-labeled metabolome as an internal standard. (**a**) Traditional absolute metabolite quantitation relies on the use of an authenticated standard dissolved in metabolite extraction solvent. Cells of interest are grown in ¹³C-labeled media and extracted into the solvent containing the known concentration of the unlabeled standard. (**b**) Simultaneous extraction of metabolites from two cell types, one of which was ¹³C-labeled, allowed absolute quantitation of multiple metabolites in parallel. Care was taken to not put the two cell types in contact during co-extraction. (**c**) The resulting LC-MS peaks contained a mixture of unlabeled metabolites from T cells (or other cells of interest) and ¹³C-labeled metabolites from reference cells. Using the ratios of unlabeled to labeled metabolite peaks and the known concentrations of metabolites in reference cells (blue), absolute metabolite concentrations in T cells were obtained. (**d**) For each metabolite that has n carbons, multiple mass isotopomers with monoisotopic masses from M+0 (unlabeled) to M+n (fully ¹³C-labeled) were observed. Considering natural ¹³C abundance, isotope impurity, and ¹²CO₂ incorporation metabolic pathways, each mass isotopomer was attributed to either the cell of interest (COI) or the reference cell (REF). (**e**) The ensemble quantitation method was tested by co-extracting unlabeled and ¹³C-labeled *E. coli* at the ratios of 1:1, 4:1 and 20:1. (**f**) The accuracy of the method was validated by plotting the unlabeled ion counts and labeled ion counts for individual metabolites and comparing them to the expected U:L ratios (n = 3 biological replicates for each ratio). The R^2 values were computed with respect to the expected ratio lines. (**g**) Cell density and extraction volumes were tuned to achieve U:L ratios near 1:1 to minimize measurement errors.

Figure 2. Tailored co-extraction techniques reveal T cell metabolome. (**a**) Three methods for quenching metabolism and extracting metabolite, which were tailored to different metabolite classes, enabled comprehensive metabolite quantitation. (**b**) To extract and measure NAD(P)H, an acidic extraction solvent containing 0.1M formic acid was used to denature enzymes and dissociate them. Acidic extracts were neutralized to prevent the degradation of metabolites. (**c**) To measure intracellular amino acids without interference from extracellular amino acids, cells were pelleted, supernatant was quickly removed, and amino acid-free medium was provided prior to co-extraction. (**d**) The three co-extractions methods revealed the metabolome of Jurkat cells in absolute units.

Figure 3. Comparison of metabolomes between divergent organisms. (**a**) Absolute metabolite concentrations in Jurkat cells and *E. coli* cells are compared. (**b**) Absolute metabolite concentrations in Jurkat cells and yeast cells are compared. (**c**) Absolute metabolite concentrations in Jurkat cells and immortalized baby mouse kidney (iBMK) cells are compared. G6P denotes glucose-6-phosphate; F6P, fructose-6-phosphate; FBP, fructose-1,6-bisphosphate; 3PG, 3-phosphoglycerate; pser, phosphoserine; ribflv, riboflavin; uri, uridine; and accoa, acetyl-CoA.

Figure 4. Conservation of metabolite concentrations in human primary T cells across subtypes and individuals. (**a**) Primary cell metabolites were quenched and extracted within 7–9 hours of blood collection from healthy donors. (**b**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were quantified in CD4+ helper T cells and CD8+ killer T cells derived from five donors. (**c**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared between primary CD4+ and CD8+ T cells and between primary and Jurkat T cells. (**d**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared between different donors for each subtype.

Figure 5. Energetics of T cell metabolism. (**a**) The ratio of ATP to ADP concentrations were calculated for primary CD4+ and CD8+ T cells and Jurkat cells (n = 12 replicates derived from three and two donors for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, respectively; n = 8 replicates for Jurkat cells). (**b**) The adenylate energy charge was calculated using the concentrations of ATP, ADP, and AMP (n = 12 replicates derived from three and two donors for CD4+ and CD8+, respectively; n = 8 replicates for Jurkat cells). (**c**) The ratio of reduced NADH to oxidized NAD+ was calculated (n = 6 replicates derived from two donors for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells; n = 3 replicates for Jurkat cells). (**d**) Glycolysis converts each molecule of glucose into two molecules of pyruvate while generating two ATP and two NADH. (**e**) Overall Gibbs free energy change across glycolysis in T cells was computed using the net reaction of glycolysis. (**f**) Using the absolute concentrations of glycolytic intermediates, stepwise and cumulative Gibbs free energy changes across glycolysis were computed. (**g**) The ratio of reduced glutathione to oxidized glutathione disulfide was calculated (n = 9 replicates derived from two donors for CD4+ T cells; n = 6 replicates derived from a single donor for CD8+ T cells; n = 5 replicates for Jurkat cells). (**h**) The ratio of reduced NADPH to oxidized NADP+ was calculated (n = 5 replicates derived from two donors for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells; n = 3 replicates for Jurkat cells). (**i**) Glutathione reductase generates reduced glutathione using the reducing power of NADPH. Glutathione reductase was strongly forward driven across all T cell types. Error bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. Boxplots show boxes that extend from the first to third quartile with thick lines representing the median. The whiskers extend to the farthest measurement values within 1.5 times the interquartile range from the edges of the box.

Figure 6. Comparison of metabolite concentrations to Michaelis constants (K_m) and inhibitor dissociation constants (K_i). (**a**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared with the K_m values for the associated enzyme active sites. The fraction of concentrations exceeding K_m is shown. (**b**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared with the K_i values for the associated inhibitor binding sites. The fraction of concentrations exceeding K_i is shown. (**c**) Tendencies for substrate-enzyme binding and inhibitor-enzyme binding were compared across T cell types. P values were computed from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test comparing the two distributions of $\ln([\text{met}]/K_m)$ and $\ln([\text{met}]/K_i)$. g_1 values represent the Fisher-Pearson moment coefficient of skewness.

597 **Extended Data Figures**

599 **Extended Data Figure 1. Validation of metabolite co-extraction for ensemble quantitation.**
600 Distributions of measured ratios of unlabeled (^{12}C) to ^{13}C-labeled metabolites from unlabeled and labeled *E.*
601 *coli* cultures co-extracted at the ratios of 1:1, 4:1 and 20:1. The black diamonds represent the expected
602 ratios 1, 4, and 20.

Extended Data Figure 2. Tailored metabolite extraction methods for comprehensive quantitation.
(**a**) Acidic quenching increased ion counts for NADPH and NADH. Error bars represent the s.e.m. (n = 3
biological replicates). (**b**) Relative metabolite abundances were measured after extracting T cells at
different vacuum pressures. The averages of n = 3 biological replicates were column mean centered. (**c**)
Relative abundances of representative metabolites were measured with and without washing cells. Either
150 mM ammonium acetate (pH 7.4) or PBS was used for washing T cells and *E. coli*. Error bars represent
the s.e.m. (n = 3 replicates). P values were calculated using two-tailed t-tests (* represents p≤0.05, **
represents p≤ 0.01, *** represents p≤ 0.001). (**d**) Amino acids were measured after wash steps and
compared to the measurement with no wash. The averages of relative amino acid levels are shown with
error bars representing the s.e.m. (n = 14 amino acids). A single centrifuge and wash step was sufficient to
eliminate the interference from extracellular amino acids.

Extended Data Figure 3. Comparison of T cell metabolomes across subtypes and individuals. (**a**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared between CD4+ and CD8+ T cells for each donor. (**b**) Absolute metabolite concentrations were compared between individuals for each subtype CD4+ or CD8+.

Extended Data Figure 4. Comparison of metabolomes between human primary T cells and other organisms. (**a**) Absolute metabolite concentrations in human primary CD4+ T cells were compared with those of *E. coli*, yeast, and iBMK cells. (**b**) Absolute metabolite concentrations in human primary CD8+ T cells were compared with those of *E. coli*, yeast, and iBMK cells.

Extended Data Figure 5. Conservation of substrate and inhibitor binding site occupancy across T cell types. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test on log ratios of metabolite concentrations to K_m and K_i concluded no significant differences between T cell types. g_1 represents the Fisher-Pearson moment coefficient of skewness for CD4+ (yellow), CD8+ (red), and Jurkat (green) T cells.

Extended Data Figure 6. Comparison of substrate and inhibitor binding site occupancy across metabolite groups. Substrate and inhibitor binding site occupancies were compared for individual metabolite groups in (**a**) Jurkat cells, (**b**) CD4+ human primary T cells and (**c**) CD8+ human primary T cells. Boxplots show boxes that extend from the first to third quartile, with thick lines representing the median. The whiskers extend to the farthest measurement values within 1.5 times the interquartile range from the edges of the box. Statistical significance for each metabolite group was assessed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and multiple comparison correction using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

638 **Extended Data Figure 7. Metabolite co-extraction methods for adherent cells and tissue samples.** (**a**)
639 iBMK cells were extracted on the plate they were grown on and T cells were extracted in the same plate
640 after vacuum filtration. (**b**) Tissue samples clamped, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen (LN_2), and cryomilled
641 can have their metabolites extracted using the extracts of ^{13}C-labeled reference cells.

Extended Data Figure 8. Gating strategy for selecting viable cells and determining their subtypes.
(**a**) Initial gating excluded debris by analyzing forward-scatter area (FSC-A) and side-scatter area (SSC-A)
parameters. Doublets were then excluded using forward-scatter area (FSC-A) versus forward-scatter
height (FSC-H). (**b**) The purity of the cell population was assessed by evaluating the singlets based on the
fluorescence intensity of anti-CD4 and anti-CD8 antibody staining in conjunction with anti-CD3 antibody
staining.

Extended Data Figure 9. Weighted bootstrapping for determining the distribution of log-concentrations of metabolites. A weighted bootstrapping approach was used to determine the mean and 95% confidence interval of each metabolite concentration. The Gaussian fit w(U/L) assigns a weight for resampling each metabolite concentration measurement using its associated U/L value. Log-concentration distributions were bootstrapped by resampling 10,000 means, each of which was calculated from weighted sampling of n (number of samples) log-concentration measurements with replacement. The bootstrapping method enabled the integration of multiple metabolite measurements.

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