The Gibbs free energy landscape based on liver metabolome revealed thermodynamic

robustness against fasting and obesity

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SUMMARY

Mammalian liver metabolism undergoes a substantial shift during fasting. Thermodynamic principles impose fundamental constraints on metabolism, and the Gibbs free energy change of reaction ($\Delta_r G'$) indicates the reaction's direction and distance from equilibrium. However, $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes in intact mammalian organs remain largely uncharacterized. Here, we mapped $\Delta_r G'$ profile of glucose metabolism in mouse liver during fasting, using experimentally measured absolute metabolite concentrations and a newly developed computational method, GLEAM. We found that despite large metabolite fluctuations during fasting, the corresponding $\Delta_r G'$s remained robust, even for reactions reversing the direction between glycolysis and gluconeogenesis. A remarkable thermodynamic robustness is found in maintaining potential candidates of rate-limiting steps during fasting. This robustness is achieved by expending substantial costs for enzyme expressions, contributing to efficient switching from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis. Furthermore, obese mouse liver also showed thermodynamic robustness despite obesity-induced metabolic disruption. Our framework provided a novel thermodynamic perspective on intact organ metabolism, demonstrating that the liver robustly maintains thermodynamic characteristics favorable for metabolic control by buffering metabolite concentration differences.

41 **GLOSSARY**

Metabolite abbreviations	Metabolite names
G6P	Glucose 6-phosphate
F6P	Fructose 6-phosphate
F1,6BP	Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate
ADP	ADP
ATP	ATP
DHAP	Glycerone phosphate
GAP	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate
NAD	NAD^+
NADH	NADH
Pi	Orthophosphate
3PG	3-Phospho-D-glycerate
2PG	2-Phospho-D-glycerate
PEP	Phosphoenolpyruvate
H2O	H2O
G1P	Glucose 1-phosphate
G3P	sn-Glycerol 3-phosphate
Pyr	Pyruvate
CoA	Coenzyme A
CO2	CO2
AcCoA	Acetyl-CoA

OAA	Oxaloacetate
Cit	Citrate
AKG	alpha-Ketoglutaric acid
SucCoA	Sucinyl-CoA
Suc	Succinate
GDP	GDP
GTP	GTP
Fum	Fumarate
FAD	FAD
FADH2	FADH2
Mal	Malate
Glu	Glutamate
NH3	Ammonia
Ala	L-Alanine
Lac	Lactate
HCO3	HCO_3^-
NADP	$NADP^+$
NADPH	NADPH

Reaction abbreviations	Reaction names
GLUT	Glucose transporter
GCK	Glucokinase

HK	Hexokinase
GPI	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase
PFK	Phosphofructokinase
ALDO	Aldolase
TPI	Triosephosphate isomerase
GAPDH:PGK	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase and Phosphoglycerate kinase
PGAM	Phosphoglycerate mutase
ENO	Enolase
PGM	Phosphoglucomutase
FBP	Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase
G6PC	Glucose-6-phosphatase
GPD	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
PKLR	Pyruvate kinase
PDH	Pyruvate dehydrogenase
CS	Citrate synthase
ACO:IDH	Aconitase and Isocitrate dehydrogenase
OGDH	2-Oxoglutarate dehydrogenase
LSC	Succinate-CoA ligase
SDH	Succinate dehydrogenase
FH	Fumarate hydratase
MDH	Malate dehydrogenase
GDH	Glutamate dehydrogenase

ALT	Alanine aminotransferase
LDH	Lactate dehydrogenase
MCT	Monocarboxylate transporter
PC	Pyruvate carboxylase
PCK	Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase
ME	Malic enzyme

INTRODUCTION

Blood glucose homeostasis is crucial in mammals for providing stable energy sources to organs and maintaining health. During fasting, the liver plays a central role in maintaining blood glucose homeostasis by shifting its metabolism from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis [1–5]. This metabolic shift is a highly regulated process that involves the directional reversal of metabolic reactions and fluctuations in the concentrations of numerous metabolites [6–8]. Obesity induces metabolic dysregulation in the liver [7–12], leading to impaired glucose homeostasis [13–17] and the development of further diseases, including type 2 diabetes [9,18–20].

Metabolic processes are governed by the laws of thermodynamics. According to the second law of thermodynamics, in the cellular environment, metabolic reactions proceed in the direction where the Gibbs free energy change of reaction ($\Delta_r G'$) is negative, and $\Delta_r G'$ is zero when the reaction reaches equilibrium. Therefore, $\Delta_r G'$ indicates the reaction distance from equilibrium. $\Delta_r G'$ can be calculated as the difference between the Gibbs free energy of formation ($\Delta_f G'$) of the product and substrate metabolites:

$$\Delta_r G' = \sum_i S_i \Delta_f G_i' \tag{1}$$

where S_i is the stoichiometric coefficient of metabolite i in the reaction. $\Delta_f G'$ depends on the metabolite activity, practically substituted by the concentration:

$$\Delta_f G' = \Delta_f G'^\circ + RT \ln c \tag{2}$$

where $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ is the standard Gibbs free energy of formation representing $\Delta_f G'$ at 1 M of metabolite concentration, R is the gas constant, T is temperature, and c is metabolite

concentration. The prime placed in $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, $\Delta_f G'$, and $\Delta_r G'$ denotes that those values

incorporate the effect of a particular pH, pMg, and ionic strength on metabolite activity.

Although calculation of $\Delta_r G'$ requires absolute metabolite concentrations, mass

spectrometry-based metabolomics analyses often suffer from ion suppression, a phenomenon

where co-eluting compounds compromise quantitative accuracy by reducing analyte

ionization efficiency [21]. Nevertheless, previous studies have successfully achieved absolute

quantification of intracellular metabolites, primarily by employing isotope-labeled internal

standards [22,23]. These techniques have enabled the investigation of absolute metabolite

concentrations and subsequent thermodynamic analyses, such as $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes, in

microorganisms and cultured cells. [24–27]. Despite these advancements, thermodynamic

profiles have rarely been investigated at *in vivo* mammalian organ levels. Furthermore, all

prior thermodynamic studies have focused on glycolysis-dominant conditions where glucose

is the primary nutrient, leaving a large gap in our understanding of metabolism during fasting,

a condition dominated by gluconeogenesis.

Mathematical metabolic modeling is an essential framework for a quantitative system-level

understanding of metabolism. The thermodynamic principle regarding reaction direction has

been widely applied as a constraint to increase the reliability of metabolic models [28–35].

Furthermore, the significance of $\Delta_r G'$ extends beyond physical aspects such as distance

from equilibrium and reaction directionality to several physiological meanings, including

pathway rate-limiting steps quantified by the flux control coefficient (FCC) [36–38], and enzyme

demands for carrying metabolic flux [39–42]. However, these thermodynamic frameworks have

hardly been applied to experimental data, especially those from multicellular organisms.

In this study, we explored $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in the liver metabolism of mice at different

fasting levels using time-series absolute quantitative metabolomic data measured by CE-MS,

which can reduce the effect of ion suppression [43,44], without using isotopically labeled

standards. Our results are the first *in vivo* identification of large-scale $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes in

mammalian organisms, and also the first elucidation of $\Delta_r G'$ behavior during fasting in any

cell types. Since metabolomic data contains uncertainties, we developed GLEAM (Gibbs free

energy of reaction Landscape Estimation from metabolome Assisted by variance-covariance

Matrix) to estimate $\Delta_r G'$ with thermodynamically consistent metabolite concentrations

from experimental metabolomic data. The estimated $\Delta_r G'$ showed that the global $\Delta_r G'$

landscape in mouse liver is robust during fasting, despite large fluctuations in metabolite

concentrations. We further integrated the $\Delta_r G'$ and enzyme kinetics to investigate the

physiological significance of the $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in terms of rate-limiting steps and

efficiency of metabolic switching. In addition to the thermodynamic robustness of mouse

liver against fasting, we also demonstrated the robustness against obesity using leptin-

deficient obese (*ob*/*ob*) mice [45,46]. Thus, our study provides novel insights into glucose

metabolism in *in vivo* mammalian liver from a thermodynamic standpoint. These findings

extend our understanding of mammalian metabolisms beyond individual metabolite

concentrations.

RESULTS

$\Delta_r G'$ landscape is robust against fasting despite metabolite concentration fluctuations

In this study, we developed GLEAM to estimate $\Delta_r G'$ from time-series metabolome and

$\Delta_f G'^\circ$. One of the challenges in estimating $\Delta_r G'$ in an entire reaction pathway is inherent

uncertainties and missing values in metabolome and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data. To address this issue,

GLEAM utilizes thermodynamic constraints and variances and covariances of metabolome

and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data, and estimates a complete set of thermodynamically consistent metabolite

concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and subsequent $\Delta_r G'$ (see Methods). Briefly, GLEAM fits

metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ to data from the experiment or database within a range

that every reaction holds $\Delta_r G' < 0$ by the weighted least mean squares method. The weights

of the residuals are determined by variances and covariances of metabolite concentrations

and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data.

By applying GLEAM to time-series metabolomic data from *ad libitum* feeding to fasting in

mice, and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data from eQuilibrator (Table S1), we estimated the $\Delta_r G'$ landscape (Fig.

1A, B, Table S2) in glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and TCA cycle (Table S3) in the liver. At

ad libitum feeding (0-hour fasting), when glycolysis is dominant, most of the irreversible

reactions exhibited $\Delta_r G' < -10$ kJ/mol, which were defined as far-from-equilibrium

reactions, such as $\Delta_r G' = -21.56$ kJ/mol in PFK and $\Delta_r G' = -34.34$ kJ/mol in PDH.

Among the 11 irreversible reactions, only three reactions (ACO:IDH, PC, and PCK)

exhibited $\Delta_r G' > -10$ kJ/mol, and PC and PCK were exceptionally close to equilibrium,

with $\Delta_r G'$ $= -3.48$ kJ/mol and -3.70 kJ/mol, respectively. In contrast, most of the reversible

reactions exhibited $\Delta_r G'$ > -5 kJ/mol, which were defined as near-equilibrium reactions, at

ad libitum feeding, such as $\Delta_r G'$ $= -0.24$ kJ/mol in GPI and $\Delta_r G'$ $= -0.03$ kJ/mol in SDH.

Four reversible reactions (ALDO, LSC, MDH, and ME) were exceptions that exhibited $\Delta_r G'$

< -5 kJ/mol. Among those reactions, MDH was largely away from equilibrium in the

opposite direction of the oxidative TCA cycle, with $\Delta_r G'$ $= -18.13$ kJ/mol.

The fasting-induced metabolic shift in the liver from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis may lead

to changes in thermodynamic characteristics of metabolic reactions, including reversal of the

sign of $\Delta_r G'$ of some reactions *i.e.,* reversal of their direction, by fluctuations in several

metabolite concentrations. After 16-hour fasting when gluconeogenesis is dominant, $\Delta_r G'$

values remained similar in the liver (Fig. 1C), with variation in 24/29 reactions being less

than 5 kJ/mol. As a result of this thermodynamic robustness, all irreversible reactions

exhibited $\Delta_r G'$ < -10 kJ/mol after 16-hour fasting, indicating that the overall trend of

irreversible reactions being far-from-equilibrium reactions was maintained across *ad libitum*

feeding and after fasting. Although PC and PCK had been near-equilibrium at *ad libitum*

feeding, these reactions moved away from equilibrium to exhibit $\Delta_r G'$ $= -9.07$ kJ/mol and

-5.25 kJ/mol after fasting, respectively. As for reversible reactions, despite reversal of some

directions to switch the liver's metabolism from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis, all the

reversible reactions with $\Delta_r G'$ > -5 kJ/mol at *ad libitum* feeding remained $\Delta_r G'$ > -5

kJ/mol, indicating that the overall trend of reversible reactions being near-equilibrium

reactions was maintained across *ad libitum* feeding and after fasting. In contrast to $\Delta_r G'$,

individual metabolite concentrations widely fluctuated during 16-hour fasting (Fig. 1D), with

log2 fold change exceeding 0.5 for over 50% of metabolites. This result suggests that the

thermodynamic architecture in glucose metabolism was robust against fasting while

metabolite concentrations were reorganized. Note that the robustness of $\Delta_r G'$ and

metabolite concentrations cannot be directly compared by correlation coefficients for Fig. 1C

and D because $\Delta_r G'$ values were not normalized while metabolite concentrations were

normalized, leading to much higher correlation coefficient for $\Delta_r G'$. The reason why $\Delta_r G'$

values were not normalized in Fig. 1C is that $\Delta_r G'$ does not represent abundance and thus

should be evaluated their robustness not by fold changes but by difference values.

To examine whether the thermodynamic characteristics of metabolic reactions observed in

mouse liver are conserved across species, we compared the estimated $\Delta_r G'$ in glycolytic

reactions in mouse liver with those in other biological systems. The previous study [26]

determined $\Delta_r G'$ in glycolysis of immortalized baby mouse kidney epithelial (iBMK) cells,

yeast, and *Escherichia coli*, reporting that in all these cell types, similar to mouse liver,

reversible reactions were closer to equilibrium compared to the irreversible reaction, PFK

(Fig. 1E). This result suggests that the thermodynamic characteristics in glycolysis are widely

conserved across species. An exception is PKLR, whose $\Delta_r G'$ in mouse liver was more than

20 kJ/mol smaller than those in the other cell types. Among the metabolite concentrations (or

ratios) involved in PKLR, pyruvate concentration and ATP/ADP were smaller in mouse liver

than in mammalian iBMK cells, yeast, and *E. coli* (Table S4). In particular, pyruvate

concentrations were two orders of magnitude smaller in mouse liver (3.77×10^{-2} mM)

compared to the other three cell types (5.88 mM in iBMK cells, 9.40 mM in yeast, and 3.66

mM in *E. coli*).

$\Delta_r G'$ maintenance during fasting is associated with metabolite concentration

fluctuations in different ways among pathways

To characterize the metabolic reactions exhibiting large thermodynamic changes

accompanying the fasting-induced metabolic shift, we linked the attributes of reactions

including reversibility and pathway to $\Delta_r G'_{16h} - \Delta_r G'_{0h}$, defined as $\Delta_r G'$ variations during

fasting (Fig. 2A). Among the seven irreversible reactions of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis,

four reactions (GCK, PFK, PKLR, and PC) exhibited an absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation during

fasting greater than 5 kJ/mol. In contrast, only one reversible reaction (ALDO) out of 11

showed an absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation during fasting exceeding 5 kJ/mol, despite the reversal

of reversible reaction directions between glycolysis and gluconeogenesis under these

conditions. This result suggests that reversible reactions maintained $\Delta_r G'$ more strictly than

irreversible reactions even though the sign of $\Delta_r G'$ is reversed. In the TCA cycle, the

absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variations during fasting were less than 3 kJ/mol for all reactions, indicating

that the TCA cycle is thermodynamically stable in response to fasting.

As $\Delta_r G'$ variations during fasting differed between irreversible and reversible reactions in

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, we further examined the relationship between the distance

from equilibrium ($|\Delta_r G'|$) at *ad libitum* feeding and the absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation (Fig. 2B).

In glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, the absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variations during fasting were less

than 3.5 kJ/mol for near-equilibrium reactions with $|\Delta_r G'| < 5$ kJ/mol at *ad libitum* feeding

except for PC. PC moved away from equilibrium only when gluconeogenesis is dominant in

response to fasting. In contrast, the absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variations of the reactions with $|\Delta_r G'| \geq$

5 kJ/mol at *ad libitum* feeding ranged between 0 and 10 kJ/mol, and were significantly larger

than those of the near-equilibrium reactions (p value = 0.037 < 0.05 calculated by two-tailed

Welch's *t*-test, n = 12 for near-equilibrium reactions with $|\Delta_r G'| < 5$ and n = 6 for the other

reactions with $|\Delta_r G'| \geq 5$ kJ/mol). This result suggests that $\Delta_r G'$ of near-equilibrium

reactions in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis tended to be strictly maintained, while this

tendency was lost among other reactions. In the TCA cycle, $\Delta_r G'$ was strictly maintained

regardless of the distance from equilibrium. The statistical test was not performed for the

TCA cycle due to a lack of near-equilibrium reactions.

To investigate the reason maintaining $\Delta_r G'$ in near-equilibrium reactions in glycolysis and

gluconeogenesis, as well as in the TCA cycle reactions, we compared the absolute $\Delta_r G'$

variation with the total absolute $\Delta_f G'$ variation of metabolites involved in the reaction (Fig.

2C). The total absolute $\Delta_f G'$ variation of metabolites is defined as $\sum \left| S \left(\Delta_f G'_{16h} - \Delta_f G'_{0h} \right) \right|$,

where S is the stoichiometric coefficient of a metabolite involved in the reaction. The $\Delta_r G'$

variation is associated in various ways with fluctuations in the $\Delta_f G'$ of substrates and

products, which depend on the metabolite concentrations. For example, when substrate and

product concentrations remain relatively constant and changes in their $\Delta_f G'$ remain small,

the $\Delta_r G'$ variation is small (*e.g.*, GPD in Fig. 2D). Even when substrate and product

concentrations largely fluctuate and changes in their $\Delta_f G'$ are large, the $\Delta_r G'$ variation can

remain small when the changes in $\Delta_f G'$ of substrate and products are cancelled out. This

can happen, for instance, when both the substrate and product $\Delta_f G'$ values increase

simultaneously (*e.g.*, GAPDH:PGK in Fig. 2D). In contrast, when the changes in $\Delta_f G'$ of

substrate and products are not cancelled out, the $\Delta_r G'$ variation becomes large (*e.g.*, GCK

in Fig. 2D). In glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, reactions with small absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation

due to small fluctuation in metabolite concentrations, such as GPD, and due to the

cancellation of $\Delta_f G'$ variations such as GAPDH:PGK, were both observed (Fig. 2C). The

existence of the latter type of reaction suggests that while metabolite concentrations fluctuate

in response to fasting in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, the fluctuations in metabolites

involved in near-equilibrium reactions were coordinated, thereby maintaining $\Delta_r G'$ of these

reactions. In the TCA cycle, the reason for maintaining the absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variations were

small fluctuations in metabolite concentrations for all the reactions.

Thermodynamic Rate-limiting Candidates (TRCs) were maintained during fasting

One of the physiological consequences of reaction distances from equilibrium is the control

of steady-state pathway fluxes. The extent to which perturbation of each reaction can control

pathway steady-state flux is quantified by the flux control coefficient (FCC) in metabolic

control analysis (MCA) [36,47]. In this study, we analytically calculated FCCs under both

arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes and those observed in mouse liver within glycolysis (Fig. 3A),

gluconeogenesis (Fig. 3B), and the TCA cycle (Fig. 3C) from an enzymatic rate law using

the MCA's theorems. To incorporate reaction distance from equilibrium, we used reversible

kinetics called the direct binding modular rate law [48] as the enzymatic rate law. Under this

framework, a flux v can be decomposed into the effect of thermodynamics η_{rev} (Fig. 3D)

and substrate saturation $\eta_{\text{sat,s}}$ [49]:

$$v = E k_{\text{cat}}^+ \eta_{\text{rev}} \eta_{\text{sat,s}}, \tag{3}$$

$$\eta_{\text{rev}} = 1 - \exp\left(\frac{\Delta_r G'}{RT}\right), \tag{4}$$

$$\eta_{\text{sat,s}} = \frac{\prod_{i \in M^s}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}}{1 + \prod_{i \in M^s}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|} + \prod_{i \in M^p}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}} \tag{5}$$

where E is an enzyme concentration, k_{cat}^+ is the forward catalytic constant, K_{m} is the

Michaelis-Menten constant, M^s is substrates, and M^p is products. Using this reaction rate

raw, we calculated FCC based on the connectivity theorem and summation theorem in MCA

[50] (see Methods). This FCC calculation depends on metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and

K_{m}. For $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, we used sampling values for the confidence interval calculation in GLEAM.

K_m values were sampled from distributions based on BRENDA database data [51]. Metabolite

concentrations were obtained by the following two approaches.

We investigated FCC for metabolite concentrations in mouse liver using sampled values for

confidence interval calculations in GLEAM, and FCC for arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes to

identify thermodynamic conditions for large FCC. FCCs for arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes

showed that FCC value larger than 0.5, which is greater than the sum of FCCs of the other

reactions in the pathway, required $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ except for in reactions located upstream in a

pathway (Fig. S1 A to D). In mouse liver, reactions with $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ at *ad libitum* feeding

included irreversible reactions GCK, PFK, PKLR, and the reversible reaction ALDO in

glycolysis. Among them, reactions that could achieve FCC ≈ 1 were GCK and PFK, while

the other reactions could achieve FCC of between 0.5 and 0.7 (Fig. 3E). We also found that

GPI, which is a reversible reaction located upstream in the pathway, could achieve FCC =

0.42 at $\eta_{rev} \approx 0.70$. In gluconeogenesis, reactions with $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ after 16-hour fasting were

the irreversible reactions PC, PCK, FBP, and G6PC, all of which could achieve FCC ≈ 1 (Fig.

3F). All the other reactions exhibited only small FCC values. In the TCA cycle, similar FCC

distributions were observed at *ad libitum* feeding and after fasting (Fig. 3G, S3). Reactions

with $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ were irreversible reactions CS, ACO:IDH, OGDH, and a reversible reaction

LSC. Among these reactions, CS and OGDH could achieve FCC ≈ 1, while ACO:IDH and

LSC could achieve FCC slightly below 0.7. Generally, reversible reactions have not been

considered rate-limiting reactions because they have been recognized to be qualitatively

closer to equilibrium than irreversible reactions. However, our quantitative analysis

demonstrated that the reversible reactions GPI, ALDO, and LSC could achieve FCC of

between 0.4 and 0.7 comparable to several irreversible reactions. Considering the results of

arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes, these large FCC values of the reversible reactions can be

attributed to GPI being located relatively upstream in glycolysis, and ALDO and LSC being

sufficiently away from equilibrium to exhibit $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ despite being closer to equilibrium

than irreversible reactions.

As described above, a reaction with FCC larger than 0.5 seems to be either away enough

from equilibrium to exhibit $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$, or located upstream in a pathway. Because the location

of a reaction in a pathway depends on the definition of the pathway, a reaction being away

enough from equilibrium to exhibit $\eta_{rev} \approx 1$ is a key determinant for the reaction to have

large FCC, sometimes being referred to as the rate-limiting step. Therefore, we introduced

Thermodynamic Rate-limiting Candidate (TRC) as reactions with $\eta_{rev} \geq 0.86$

corresponding to $\Delta_r G' \leq -5$ kJ/mol, and examined which reaction is thermodynamically

capable of being a rate-limiting step for any pathway definitions at *ad libitum* feeding (Fig.

3H, 0h) and after fasting (Fig. 3H, 16h). TRC reactions both at *ad libitum* feeding and after

fasting included GCK, PFK, CS, and seven other reactions, indicating these reactions can be

a rate-limiting step regardless of fasting levels. The parameter η_{rev} and TRC status (either

TRC or not) are sensitive to $\Delta_r G'$ variations at a near-equilibrium region ($\Delta_r G' > -5$

kJ/mol) while they are insensitive at a far-from-equilibrium region ($\Delta_r G' < -10$ kJ/mol) (Fig.

3D). Due to this property, 15 out of 18 reactions remained either TRC (red line in Fig. 3H)

or non-TRC (blue line in Fig. 3H) across at *ad libitum* feeding and after fasting in glycolysis

and gluconeogenesis, where only $\Delta_r G'$ of near-equilibrium reactions were strictly

maintained. This result suggests that fasting-induced fluctuations in metabolite

concentrations occur within a range that maintains the TRC status for most reactions. The

three reactions of ALDO, PC, and PCK were the exceptions that did not remain TRC or non-

TRC (gray line in Fig. 3H), and whether these reactions are rate-limiting or not would depend

on fasting levels. The reactions maintaining their TRC status described above remain stable

across the threshold from η_{rev} = 0.73 to 0.99.

Glycolysis and gluconeogenesis achieve efficient directional switching by expending large Enzyme Costs

A fundamental question in biology is to understand what biological systems are optimized for. While objective functions optimized in microbial metabolism—such as maximizing growth or ATP production [52] and minimizing enzyme demands [42]—have been reported, the objective function for *in vivo* mammalian metabolism remains completely unknown. Therefore, we examined the optimality of metabolism in mouse liver from the aspect of metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_r G'$ landscape obtained from GLEAM.

By solving the equation of the direct binding modular rate law (Eq. 3) with respect to the enzyme amount, we obtain

$$E = \frac{v}{k_{cat}^+} \eta_{rev}^{-1} \eta_{sat,s}^{-1}. \qquad (6)$$

This equation shows that the closer to a reaction is to equilibrium (the smaller η_{rev} is), the greater the enzyme amount required to achieve the same flux v. Here we defined Enzyme Cost (EC) as the product of enzyme amount and enzyme molecular weight, and Enzyme Cost Minimum (ECM) as the theoretical state that minimizes the total EC within the entire pathway (see Method). By comparing ECs and metabolite concentrations in mouse liver to those in ECM, we investigated whether mouse liver metabolism is optimized for enzyme demands reduction. As with FCC calculation, we calculated EC using sampling values of metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ used in the confidence interval calculation in GLEAM. For K_m values, we obtained them as geometric means of data in the BRENDA database [51].

We calculated EC and ECM for the reactions in glycolysis at *ad libitum* feeding,

gluconeogenesis after 16-hour fasting, and the TCA cycle under both these conditions (Table

S5). The liver showed larger total EC compared to ECM, with a difference between pathways.

The liver/ECM ratio of total EC was on the order of 10^4 for glycolysis and gluconeogenesis,

but only 10^1 for the TCA cycle (Fig. 4A). Additionally, we compared ECM-predicted

metabolite concentrations with liver metabolite concentrations in each pathway, and found

typical fold errors of $10^{RMSE} = 29.79$ (RMSE: root mean square error on a log_{10}-scale) for

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis and 14.40 for the TCA cycle (Fig. 4B). These findings show

that enzyme and metabolite concentrations in the liver are not optimized for EC, and this is

more evident in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis than in the TCA cycle.

To identify a key reaction contributing to the large total EC of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis

in mouse liver, we broke down the total EC of pathways into ECs of individual reactions

(Table S5). The GAPDH:PGK reaction in mouse liver exhibited the highest EC of 10^6 both

in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis (Fig. 4C), while EC of reactions in the TCA cycle (*e.g.*,

SDH, ACO:IDH, and FH) are at most on the order of 10^2. The EC values of GAPDH:PGK

are 99% and 89% of the total EC of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, respectively, suggesting

that GAPDH:PGK outstandingly elevates the total EC of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis.

The high EC for GAPDH:PGK both in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis is attributed to two

factors. One factor is low substrate saturation (Fig. 4C, blue), which is given by the lower

substrate metabolite concentrations ($3.4×10^{-3}$ mM of GAP *ad libitum* feeding and $1.3×10^{-2}$

mM of 3PG after fasting) than their respective K_m values (1.9×10^{-1} mM for GAP and

3.5×10^{-1} mM for 3PG), resulting in large $\eta_{sat,s}^{-1}$. From Eq. 6, a large $\eta_{sat,s}^{-1}$, indicating low

substrate saturation, causes an increase in EC to carry a certain flux. Under this condition, an

increase in flux from higher enzyme levels is mitigated by fluctuations in metabolite

concentrations. The other factor of the high EC for GAPDH:PGK is liver thermodynamics

(Fig. 4C, red), where the reaction was markedly close to equilibrium ($\Delta_r G' = -0.01$ kJ/mol

both at *ad libitum* feeding and after fasting), leading to large η_{rev}^{-1}. When the reaction is close

to equilibrium, increasing the enzyme abundance enhances both the forward and reverse

fluxes, thus limiting the net flux increase. Thus, the elevated EC for this reaction is a result

of both low substrate saturation and high reaction reversibility.

The liver glycolysis and gluconeogenesis required much larger EC than ECM, especially in

the midstream reversible reactions due to large η_{rev}^{-1} values. We hypothesized that the reason

for this may be that the enzyme costs are required for enabling switching from glycolysis to

gluconeogenesis during fasting. To assess the metabolic hurdle for directional switching from

glycolysis to gluconeogenesis, we introduced the Metabolite Equilibrium Gap (MEG) as the

typical fold change in metabolite concentration required for the directional switching (Table

S6) (see Methods). In glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, mouse liver exhibited MEG = 1.35

while ECM exhibited MEG = 16.01 (Fig. 4D), suggesting that the liver achieves directional

switching from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis with much smaller metabolite concentration

changes than ECM. Unlike glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, the TCA cycle, which does not

undergo directional switching during fasting, exhibited a larger MEG (6.85) in the liver than

that of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis. The mouse liver expends a much larger enzyme cost

in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis than the theoretical minimum, allowing it to achieve

directional switching with smaller changes in metabolite concentration. Conversely, a smaller

enzyme cost is expended for the TCA cycle—which does not undergo directional

switching—than for glycolysis and gluconeogenesis.

Robustness of $\Delta_r G'$ in the liver against obesity

Obesity disrupts liver metabolism, leading to impaired homeostasis in response to fasting

[7,8,10] and subsequent development of various diseases [9,18–20]. Recent studies have reported

that the obesity-associated dysregulation of liver metabolism occurs even at *ad libitum*

feeding [11,12]. To reveal the impact of obesity-induced metabolic disruption on the

thermodynamic characteristics of reactions, we calculated $\Delta_r G'$ in the *ob/ob* mouse liver

during fasting.

The $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in *ob/ob* mouse liver (Fig. 5A; Table S2) showed that the difference in

$\Delta_r G'$ from WT mouse liver was less than 5 kJ/mol for most reactions both at *ad libitum*

feeding and after 16-hour fasting (Fig. 5B, C, S3). Consequently, the overall trend of

irreversible reactions being far from equilibrium ($\Delta_r G' < -10$ kJ/mol) and reversible

reactions being near equilibrium ($\Delta_r G' > -5$ kJ/mol) was preserved even under obesity. The

similar $\Delta_r G'$ values between WT and *ob/ob* mouse indicate that the concentration ratios of

substrates and products for the reactions are comparable between the genotypes. Individual

metabolite concentrations (Table S2), however, showed discrepancies between WT and *ob/ob*

mouse liver (Fig. 5D), with log2 fold change exceeding 0.5 for 16/31 and 13/31 metabolite

concentrations at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting, respectively. This result

suggests that the thermodynamic characteristics of reactions remain robust against obesity

despite the changes in individual concentrations. Particularly, in most reversible reactions of

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, the differences in $\Delta_f G'$ between WT and *ob/ob* mouse were

not reflected in the differences in $\Delta_r G'$ (Fig. 5E). This result prominently demonstrates that

the reaction thermodynamic characteristics are robust to obesity while the individual

metabolite concentrations are sensitive.

DISCUSSION

We revealed the $\Delta_r G'$ landscape of glucose metabolism in *in vivo* mouse liver for the first

time from fasting time-series absolute quantitative metabolome data using the newly

developed GLEAM. In mouse liver, overall trend of $\Delta_r G'$ landscape was maintained

regardless of fasting level (Fig. 1B, C). The $\Delta_r G'$ maintenance was markedly strict in near-

equilibrium reactions in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis such as GAPDH:PGK (Fig. 2B),

despite large fluctuations in metabolite concentrations (Fig. 1D, 2C), while this strictness was

not true for the other reactions such as GCK. In the TCA cycle, overall $\Delta_r G'$ variations were

small due to minimal metabolite concentration fluctuations during fasting (Fig. 2B, C). This

thermodynamic robustness against fasting led to maintenance of the reactions that could have

large FCC *i.e.*, TRC during fasting (Fig. 3H) because FCC is sensitive to $\Delta_r G'$ variation

only in the near-equilibrium region. The thermodynamic landscape in the liver could also

contribute to an efficient switching from glycolysis to gluconeogenesis by expending a larger

enzyme expression than that theoretically minimized (Fig. 4A to D). We also found similar

$\Delta_r G'$ landscapes between WT and *ob/ob* mouse (Fig. 5A to C), while metabolite

concentrations were quite different (Fig. 5D). Our results revealed that the liver robustly

maintains $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes favorable for metabolic control in contrast to fluctuations in

individual metabolite concentrations caused by fasting and obesity.

Methods for estimating thermodynamically consistent metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and

$\Delta_r G'$ from absolute quantitative metabolome data have been proposed in previous studies

[26,27,53]. In these methods, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values were fixed to the inputs of the model, or estimated

without considering the covariance. However, metabolites sharing common chemical groups,

such as ADP and ATP, tend to exhibit similar $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values, because $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ depends on

structures of metabolites. Incorporating covariance information into the estimation thus

better reflects the underlying chemical relationships between metabolites and allows for

narrower confidence intervals in the estimated values [54]. By leveraging the covariance matrix

of $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ from eQuilibrator [55], GLEAM achieves more precise and consistent estimation of

thermodynamic characteristics throughout the entire metabolic network.

Our study narrowed down the reactions that could achieve large FCC in the pathways, *i.e.*,

candidates for a rete-limiting step using the obtained $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in mouse liver (Fig.

3E to G, S2). A previous study experimentally measured FCC in glycolysis in iBMK cells,

and reactions exhibiting large FCCs are hexokinase (HK), which catalyzes the same reaction

as GCK, and PFK [56]. Another previous study exhibited PC having dominant FCC in

gluconeogenesis in rat liver [57,58]. Although no studies have measured FCC in the TCA cycle

to our knowledge, CS, IDH, and OGDH have conventionally been regarded as rate-limiting

steps. All these reactions are included in the TRCs in this study, supporting the validity of

our $\Delta_r G'$ estimation even though this study focuses on mouse liver metabolism. While one

study based on standard-state calculation has indirectly showed the connection between

reactions away from equilibrium and driver nodes to control the entire network defined using

control theory in terms of topological features [59], the functional advantage of controlling

pathway flux via these reactions remains unclear and is an important future topic for

understanding system-level metabolic regulation.

When calculating EC, we made two assumptions: having common turnover number, k_{cat}

values for all reactions and setting saturation (c/K_{m}) to the geometric mean of the pathway

when K_{m} could not be obtained from BRENDA. These assumptions were required because

of the difficulty of obtaining kinetic parameters in mammals. The former assumption may

cause inaccurate weighting of individual enzymes in the total EC minimization, and the latter

may lead to inaccurate $\eta_{\text{sat},s}^{-1}$. However, the metabolite concentrations close to ECM were

reported with a modeling where k_{cat} and K_{m} information was lacking and only the

influence of η_{rev}^{-1} was considered [42]. This means that the $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in ECM would be

similar under any k_{cat} and K_{m} values. Therefore, our conclusion of mouse liver

metabolism not being optimized for enzyme cost reduction would be reasonable regardless

of k_{cat} and K_{m} assumptions.

According to Eq. 23, 24, 30 to 35, and 38, the design of $\Delta_r G'$ landscape faces a trade-off

between FCC concentration and enzyme cost minimization. If only a few reactions in a

metabolic pathway are far from equilibrium and exhibit η_{rev} close to 1, large FCCs are

likely to be concentrated in these reactions. In this case, η_{rev} of other reactions are close to

zero, leading to a large EC. This trade-off can be rephrased as a trade-off between flexibility

responding to multiple conditions and survival cost reduction under a single condition

because the pathway flux can be efficiently regulated through a minimal number of enzyme

activity changes when FCCs are concentrated in limited reactions. A similar trade-off also

occurs between MEG reduction and enzyme cost minimization. In mouse liver, particularly

456 in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, reactions that could achieve high FCC were concentrated

457 in a few reactions (Fig. 3E to G, S2), and MEG was remarkably small (Fig. 4D), while there

458 were large deviations between mouse liver and ECM in total EC and metabolite

459 concentrations (Fig. 4A, B). These results indicate that metabolic regulation in mouse liver

460 adopts a strategy of flexibly responding to changes in environmental and physiological

461 conditions rather than optimizing for a certain condition. In contrast, the previous study in *E.*

462 *coli* showed that both enzyme concentrations and metabolite concentrations are well

463 predicted by ECM within a typical fold error range of 10^0 [42] (Fig. S3). Taken together, these

464 facts suggest differences in metabolic regulation strategies between cell types; mouse liver

465 expends costs to perform flexible metabolic regulation, while *E. coli* optimized survival cost

466 in a certain condition. Furthermore, our study also showed that this difference in metabolic

467 regulation strategy may also exist between pathways by demonstrating the large differences

468 in TRC proportions and total EC optimality between glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, and the

469 TCA cycle. Note that although glycolysis in mouse liver and *E. coli* shared a common

470 thermodynamic tendency of reversible reactions being close to equilibrium with $\Delta_r G' < -10$

471 kJ/mol (Fig. 1E), EC in them can be greatly different. As shown in Eq. 38 and 39, thermoduric

472 characteristics of reactions affect EC through η_{rev}^{-1}, which indicates v^{total}/v^{net}, where

473 v^{total} is the total flux of forward and backward reactions, and v^{tatal} is the net flux. In *E.*

474 *coli*, most reversible reactions exhibited $\Delta_r G' < -1$ kJ/mol, contributing to reducing EC

475 with η_{rev}^{-1} on the order of 10^0 (Fig. S4, orange) [26,60]. In contrast, most reversible reactions in

476 mouse liver exhibited $\Delta_r G' > -0.1$ kJ/mol, where η_{rev}^{-1} rises sharply (Fig. S4, green),

477 leading to much larger EC than *E. coli*.

One of the limitations of this study is that we assumed hepatocytes as a single compartment

and calculated $\Delta_r G'$ from metabolite concentrations averaged within the cell. As glycolysis

operates in the cytosol and the TCA cycle operates in mitochondria, more accurate $\Delta_r G'$

calculation requires concentrations in each of these compartments. Furthermore, localized

concentrations can be affected by substrate channeling [61]. Substrate channeling is a

phenomenon where enzymes of consecutive reactions form complexes, allowing the product

of the former enzyme to be directly transferred to the active site of the latter enzyme without

being released into the solvent. For reactions involved in substrate channeling, $\Delta_r G'$ is

dependent on the channeled metabolite concentration in a limited space among the enzymes.

Although substrate channeling has not yet been confirmed in living organisms, the

channeling of oxaloacetate between MDH and CS has been indirectly supported by

experiments [62,63], and ALDO, TPI, and GAP have also been suggested to form complexes

[64,65]. Another limitation is that the FCC calculations were based solely on stoichiometric

relationships and did not account for allosteric regulations because of the severe lack of K_i

in mammals and simplification of the calculation. Inclusion of allosteric regulations would

alter FCC values, allowing for further narrowing down the reactions that can have a large

FCC.

In conclusion, we developed GLEAM to estimate $\Delta_r G'$ in the glucose metabolism in mouse

liver and revealed the thermodynamic robustness against fasting and obesity. Furthermore,

we suggested that these thermodynamic characteristics in the liver contribute to efficient

metabolic control in two ways: the maintenance of rate-limiting step candidates and the

switching between glycolysis and gluconeogenesis with minimal metabolite fluctuations by

expending large enzyme expressions. This study thus provides crucial insights into the

principles underlying the highly flexible and robust metabolic regulation observed in

mammalian liver, paving the way for future investigations into therapeutic targets for

metabolic diseases.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

LEAD CONTACT

Requests for further information and resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by

the lead contact, Shinya Kuroda (skuroda@bs.s.u-tokyo.ac.jp).

MATERIAL AVAILABILITY

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

Metabolomic data from WT and *ob*/*ob* mice in our previous studies [8,66] were used in this

study.

The information on kinetic parameter (Michaelis-Menten constant and turnover number)

distributions used for FCC calculation, the FCC values generated in this study, and the

MATLAB code for GLEAM and the analysis of FCC and EC are deposited in GitHub

(https://github.com/tabekawa/Thermodynamics_MouseLiver). All other data needed to

evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper or the supplemental information.

Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available

from the lead contact upon request.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: T.A., S.O., and S.K.

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Investigation: T.A., A.H., and T.S.

Visualization: T.A.

Funding acquisition: A.H., T.S., and S.K.

Project administration: S.K.

Supervision: S.K.

Writing – original draft: T.A., S.O., and S.K.

Writing – review & editing: T.A., S.O., A.H., T.S., and S.K.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES

During the preparation of this work, the authors used ChatGPT, DeepL, and Claude in order

improve the readability and language of the manuscript. After using these tools, the authors

reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the

publication.

STAR METHODS

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Metabolomic data from WT and *ob/ob* mice in our previous studies [8,66] were used in this

study.

METHOD DETAILS

Metabolic network for glucose metabolism in mice

A metabolic network for glucose metabolism in mice was constructed to calculate $\Delta_r G'$. The

network consists of total 55 reactions and 80 metabolites in the liver, muscle, and blood (the

same reactions and metabolites in different compartments were counted as distinct ones), and

involves glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, TCA cycle, glycogen metabolism, alanine metabolism,

and transporters (Fig. S5, Table S3). Among the 55 reactions, we defined 23 reversible

reactions and 32 irreversible reactions based on the tissue-specific genome-scale metabolic

network [67]. All the transporters were defined as reversible reactions.

Reversible reactions GAPDH and PGK were combined into a single reversible reaction

GAPDH:PGK because 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate was not measured in the metabolomic data

[8]. According to the experimentally measured metabolite concentrations, a reversible reaction

ACO proceeded in the reverse direction of the oxidative TCA cycle with a little

thermodynamic driving force at all the time points in WT and *ob/ob* mice, breaking a

sequential pathway from CS to FH. Since this long sequential pathway is necessary for the

downstream analysis, such as FCC and MEC calculation, we summed ACO and irreversible

reaction, IDH, which have a large thermodynamic driving force in the direction of the

oxidative TCA cycle, as a single irreversible reaction, ACO:IDH.

In the skeletal muscle, FBP, G6PC, and PCK in gluconeogenesis were not included in the

metabolic network. Although PC is also involved in gluconeogenesis, PC is included in the

metabolic network of skeletal muscle because we could not exclude the possibility of its

expression in the skeletal muscle [68,69].

In this study, we assumed the liver and skeletal muscle as a single compartment of

hepatocytes and myocytes, respectively, and cytosolic and mitochondrial compartments in

these cells were not considered for simplification of the modeling. Therefore, the $\Delta_r G'$

calculated in this study represents the average values within the cells.

Algorithm of GLEAM

We developed GLEAM as a method to estimate complete set of thermodynamically

consistent metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values, from metabolomic data on a

logarithmic scale, $\ln \boldsymbol{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times h \times g}$, and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data calculated by the component

contribution method [70], $\boldsymbol{\Delta_f G'^\circ} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, where m, h, g are the number of metabolites,

timepoints, and genotypes, respectively. Since metabolomic and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data contain

uncertainties and missing values, directly substituting them into the definition equation of

$\Delta_r G'$ (Eq. 1, 2) often violates the second law of thermodynamics. To address this issue,

GLEAM corrects for the uncertainties and missing values by calculate the most plausible

values based on measured metabolomic data within a thermodynamically feasible space.

We first formulate the quadratic programming problem to minimize the departures of

estimated metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ from the experimental and database values

under thermodynamic and physiological constraints:

$$\min_{y \in \{\ln c, \Delta_f G'^\circ\}, a} Z_{QP}$$

$$= \sum_y \frac{1}{\#y^{\exp}} \left\{ (y + a - y^{\exp})^T \Sigma_{(y)}^{-1} (y + a - y^{\exp}) + \sum_i \lambda \left| \frac{(P_i)^T a}{\sqrt{D_{ii}}} \right| \right\}$$

$$\text{s. t.} \qquad \Delta_r G'_j < 0 \quad \forall i \in M, \forall j \in N$$

$$\Delta_r G'_j = \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j} \left(\Delta_f G_i'^\circ + RT \ln c_i \right) \quad \forall j \in N^{\text{cell}}$$

$$\Delta_r G'_{\text{GLUT}} = RT \ln \frac{[\text{Glu}[\text{h}]]}{[\text{Glu}[\text{b}]]}$$

$$\Delta_r G'_{\text{MCT}} = RT \ln \frac{[\text{H}^+[\text{b}]][\text{Lac}[\text{b}]]}{[\text{H}^+[\text{h}]][\text{Lac}[\text{h}]]}$$

$$b_i \le \ln c_i \le ub_i \quad \forall i \in M$$

$$b_i \le \ln \frac{c_{i_1}}{c_{i_2}} \le ub_i \quad \forall (i_1, i_2) \in M^{\text{cofactor}}$$

(7)

where c_i is concentration of metabolite i, S_{ij} is stoichiometric coefficient of metabolite i

in reaction j, R is gas constant, and T is temperature. M, N, and N^{cell} are sets of

metabolites, reactions, and intracellular reactions, respectively. M^{cofactor} is the cofactor

pairs of which the ratio was constrained. Σ is variance-covariance matrix of which the eigen

decomposition is $\Sigma = PDP^T$. a is systematic error, and λ is regularization parameter. The

superscript exp means measured or database value. The first term in curly brackets of the

objective function represents the variance and covariance-weighted residuals of estimated

metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, which considers systematic errors from experimental

operations, while the second term represents a regularization term for systematic errors to

avoid overfitting. By using the covariances in $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ for the weight of residuals, the

estimation reflects the correlations in $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ due to shared chemical groups. In contrast, all

covariances between metabolite concentrations were set to zero, making Σ a diagonal

matrix, since no prior correlation in metabolite concentrations is expected.

The solution of the optimization problem (7) may not provide unique concentrations,

especially for unmeasured metabolites, which can lead to undetermined $\Delta_r G'$ of the

reactions involving the unmeasured metabolites. To estimate unique $\Delta_r G'$, two terms with

variance of unmeasured metabolite concentrations were added to the objective function:

$$
Z_{\text{QP\_unique}}(y, a) = \sum_y \frac{1}{\#y^{\exp}} \left\{ (y + a - y^{\exp})^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma_{(y)}^{-1} (y + a - y^{\exp}) + \sum_i \lambda \left| \frac{(P_i)^{\mathrm{T}} a}{\sqrt{D_{ii}}} \right| \right\}
$$

$$
+ \epsilon_1 \sum_{(h_1, h_2) \in H^{\text{adj}}} \frac{1}{(h_2 - h_1)} \sum_{i \in M^{\text{unmeasured}}} \left(\ln c_{i, h_2} - \ln c_{i, h_1} \right)^2 \qquad (8)
$$

$$
+ \epsilon_2 \sum_{i \in M^{\text{unmeasured}}} \left(\ln c_i - \widehat{\ln c_i} \right)^2
$$

where H^{adj} is pairs of adjacent timepoints, $M^{\text{unmeasured}}$ is unmeasured metabolites, $\widehat{\ln c}$

is median of upper and lower bounds of metabolite concentration, and ϵ_1 is small values

enough to prioritize the first term over the second term. Similarly, ϵ_2 ($\epsilon_1 \gg \epsilon_2$) allows the

second term to take precedence over the third term. The second term of the objective function

(the first additional term) reduces the sum of concentration changes of unmeasured

metabolites across time points, making smooth concentration changes more likely to be

estimated than unnatural repetition of increases and decreases. The third term of the objective

function (the second additional term) departures of the estimated unmeasured metabolite

concentrations from the median of their upper and lower bounds. This term can be justified

by the trade-off in increasing concentrations between elevation of enzyme efficiency and

cellular burden from osmotic pressure and toxicity [40,71]. Since the objective function includes

terms with greatly different orders of magnitude due to $\epsilon \in \{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2\}$, it has difficulty in

optimized at once. Therefore, in implementation, we first solve the optimization problem

only for the first term, then, with the measured metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ fixed

to the obtained solutions, and then solve the optimization problem for the second and third

terms.

Metabolic networks can include reversible reactions and their directions are unknown under

a condition of interest. By introducing binary variables representing reaction, GLEAM model

is finally formalized by the following mixed integer quadratic programming problem:

$$\min_{y \in \{\ln c, \Delta_f G'^\circ\}, a, v, d} Z_{\text{MIQP}}$$

$$= \sum_y \frac{1}{\# y^{\exp}} \left\{ (y + a - y^{\exp})^{\text{T}} \Sigma_{(y)}^{-1} (y + a - y^{\exp}) + \sum_i \lambda \left| \frac{(P_i)^{\text{T}} a}{\sqrt{D_{ii}}} \right| \right\}$$

$$+ \epsilon_1 \sum_{(h_1, h_2) \in H^{\text{adj}}} \frac{1}{(h_2 - h_1)} \sum_{i \in M^{\text{unmeasured}}} \left(\ln c_{i,h_2} - \ln c_{i,h_1} \right)^2$$

$$+ \epsilon_2 \sum_{i \in M^{\text{unmeasured}}} \left(\ln c_i - \widehat{\ln c_i} \right)^2$$

s.t. $\quad d_j \cdot \Delta_r G'_j < 0 \quad \forall i \in M, \forall j \in N$

$$\Delta_r G'_j = \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j} \left(\Delta_f G'^\circ_i + RT \ln c_i \right) < 0 \quad \forall i \in M, \forall j \in N^{\text{cell}}$$

$$\Delta_r G'_{\text{GLUT}} = RT \ln \frac{[\text{Glu[h]}]}{[\text{Glu[b]}]}$$

$$\Delta_r G'_{\text{MCT}} = RT \ln \frac{[\text{H}^+[\text{b}]][\text{Lac[b]}]}{[\text{H}^+[\text{h}]][\text{Lac[h]}]}$$

(9)

$$d_j \in \{-1, 1\} \quad \forall j \in N^{\text{rev}}$$

$$d_j \in \{1\} \quad \forall j \in N^{\text{irrev\_f}}$$

$$d_j \in \{-1\} \quad \forall j \in N^{\text{irrev\_b}}$$

$$d_j \cdot v_j > 0 \quad j \in N$$

$$\sum_{j \in N} S_{i,j} v_j = 0 \quad i \in M^{\text{steady}}$$

$$lb_i \le \ln c_i \le ub_i \quad \forall i \in M$$

$$lb_i \le \ln \frac{c_{i_1}}{c_{i_2}} \le ub_i \quad \forall (i_1, i_2) \in M^{\text{cofactor}}$$

where v_j is metabolic flux through reaction j, $d_j = \{1, -1\}$ is a binary variable

representing direction of reaction j, and N^{rev} is reversible reactions. $N^{\text{irrev\_f}}$ and $N^{\text{irrev\_b}}$

are irreversible reactions of which the direction is fixed to forward and backward with respect

to the definition of metabolic network, respectively. M^{steady} is metabolites assumed to be

in steady state. To solve this mixed integer quadratic programming problem efficiently,

GLEAM treats it as a bilevel optimization problem, where the optimization of binary

variables is the upper-level problem and the optimization of continuous variables is the

lower-level problem:

$$\min_{d} \quad Z_{\text{MIQP}}(y^*, a^*, v^*, d)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad y^*, a^*, v^* \in \arg\min_{y,a,v} Z_{\text{MIQP}}(y, a, v, d) \quad\quad\quad (10)$$

$$y, a, v, d \in \Omega_{\text{GLEAM}}$$

where Ω_{GLEAM} is the solution space defined in the problem (9). In the bilevel optimization

problem, binary variables are optimized by a genetic algorithm, while continuous variables

are optimized by the interior-point method under the individuals of binary variables (Fig. S6).

The genetic algorithm was performed by the MATLAB function ga with termination

condition of FunctionTolerance = 10^{-9} and population size of PopulationSize = 500. The

lower-level quadratic programming problem was solved using Gurobi [72] MATLAB API with

dual feasibility tolerance of OptimalityTol = 10^{-9} and primal feasibility tolerance of

FeasibilityTol = 10^{-9}. This bilevel optimization was performed 10 times from random initial

values, and the solution with the minimum objective function value was selected as the

optimal solution.

Calculation of confidence intervals

The confidence intervals of the estimation by GLEAM were calculated using parametric

bootstrap sampling of metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$. These data were first resampled

by adding perturbation based on the variance and residual of each metabolite concentration

and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ in the $\Delta_r G'$ estimation by Eq. 9 using the experimental and database values [27,73].

To generate $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ samples reflecting their covariance, the perturbations were applied after

the basis of $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ vector was transformed by transposed matrix of the eigenvectors of the

variance-covariance matrix:

$$\ln c_i^b = \ln c_i^{\exp} + \sigma_i \delta_i^b, \quad \forall b \in B, \tag{11}$$

$$\left(\boldsymbol{P}_{(\Delta_f G'^\circ)i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Delta_f G'^{o,b}} = \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{(\Delta_f G'^\circ)i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Delta_f G'^{o,\exp}} + \sqrt{D_{(\Delta_f G'^o)ii}} \delta_i^b, \tag{12}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{(y)}^b = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{(y)}, \tag{13}$$

$$\delta_i^b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (sd^*)^2), \tag{14}$$

$$sd^* = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\#y^{\exp} - 1} \sum_i \left(\frac{\left(\boldsymbol{P}_{(y)i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{y}^* + \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{(y)i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{a}^* - \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{(y)i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{y}^{\exp}}{\sqrt{D_{(y)ii}}} - err^* \right)^2}, \tag{15}$$

$$err^* = \frac{1}{\#y^{\exp}} (\boldsymbol{y}^* + \boldsymbol{a}^* - \boldsymbol{y}^{\exp})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{(y)}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{y}^* + \boldsymbol{a}^* - \boldsymbol{y}^{\exp}) \tag{16}$$

where b is the indices of bootstrap samples B, $*$ represents the optimized values by Eq. 9

using the experimental and database values. δ is gaussian noise generated from the normal

distribution with mean 0 and standard deviation sd^*, which represents the standard deviation

of metabolite concentration and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ residuals in the $\Delta_r G'$ estimation from the

experimental and database values. Using the resampled metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$

values, we conducted the estimation of thermodynamically consistent metabolite

concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ in the same manner as the estimation from the experimental and

database values. In this optimization, the directions of reversible reactions were fixed to those

estimated from the experimental and database values. This resampling and optimization were

performed 2000 times. By applying the percentile method to the resulting 2000 sets of the

estimated values, we obtained the 95% confidence intervals.

Selection of regularization parameter

The regularization parameter λ for systematic errors in GLEAM was selected by the

reduced chi-square (χ^2_{red}). χ^2_{red} was calculated using the estimated metabolite

concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ from resampled values [27,73]:

$$\chi^2_{\text{red}} = \frac{\#y^{\text{exp}} EPE}{df}, \tag{17}$$

$$EPE = \frac{1}{\#B} \sum_{b \in B} \frac{1}{\#y^{\text{exp}}} \left(y^{b*} + a^{b*} - y^{\text{exp}}\right)^{\text{T}} \Sigma_{(y)}^{-1} \left(y^{b*} + a^{b*} - y^{\text{exp}}\right), \tag{18}$$

$$df = \frac{\#y^{\text{exp}}}{2sd^*} \left(EPE - err^*\right) \tag{19}$$

696   where $b*$ represents the optimized values calculated from the resampled values. The model

697   is interpreted as fitting the data ideally when $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1$, as overfitting when $\chi^2_{\text{red}} < 1$, and

698   as poorly fitting when $\chi^2_{\text{red}} > 1$. In this study, $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.03$ when $\lambda = 1.51$, and therefore it

699   was selected as the best regularization parameter.

Application of GLEAM to mice data

We applied GLEAM to absolute quantitative metabolome data in the liver, skeletal muscle, and plasma from WT and *ob/ob* mice (n = 5) after 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 16 hours of fasting (Table S1), which were measured in our previous studies [8,66]. We used the logarithmic mean and variance of the metabolites, which were successfully measured in three or more samples per condition, and metabolites with two or fewer measured samples were treated as unmeasured metabolites. The cofactors ATP, ADP, GTP, GDP, NAD^+, NADH, FAD, FADH2, $NADP^+$, and NADPH were treated as unmeasured metabolites regardless of the number of measured samples due to sample degradation, and instead, their ratios were constrained by previous reports (Table S7). Intracellular lactate was also treated as an unmeasured metabolite in the same manner as the cofactors because it might leach out of the container during measurement. The upper and lower bounds for many metabolites in GLEAM were set to a physiologically typical range of intracellular metabolite concentration (lower bound: 10^{-7} M, upper bound: 10^{-2} M) [26], while the bounds for some unmeasured metabolites were individually defined based on biological knowledge (Table S7).

$\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data calculated by the component contribution method [70] were retrieved from eQuilibrator database (Table S1) [55]. We used the identical $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data for both liver and skeletal muscle under the condition in eQulibrator of pH = 7.2, pMg = 3.0, and ionic strength = 0.15 M [26]. We also set the condition in blood to pH = 7.4 [74] because $\Delta_r G'$ for MCT depends on pH in the cells and blood. Temperature was input to T = 310.15 K for all the compartments.

In the liver, glycolysis was assumed to be dominant at the 0h-fasting state (*ad libitum* feeding)

while gluconeogenesis was assumed to take over after no later than 16h-fasting, both in WT

[75–79] and *ob/ob* mouse [80]. At these two timepoints, the directions of reversible reactions

involved in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis (GPI, ALDO, TPI, GAPDH:PGK, PGAM, ENO,

PGM, GPD, LDH) were fixed and treated as those of the irreversible reactions in the

calculation of GLEAM.

Since the reaction rates are sufficiently faster than the temporal changes in metabolite and

enzyme levels during starvation, our metabolic model was assumed to be in a pseudo-steady

state at each measured time point. This assumption leads to mass balance equilibrium for the

intermediate metabolites (G6P, F6P, F1,6BP, DHAP, GAP, 3PG, 2PG, PEP, Pyruvate, AcCoA,

Cit, Isocit, AKG, SucCoA, Suc, Fum, Mal, OAA) within the metabolic network.

Derivation of FCC

We derived flux control coefficients (FCCs) within glycolysis (Fig. 3A), gluconeogenesis

(Fig. 3B), and the TCA cycle (Fig. 3C) from the direct binding modular rate law [48], which is

equivalent to the reversible Michaelis-Menten kinetics [81] for simple reversible uni-uni

reactions, using theorems of Metabolic Control Analysis (MCA) [36,47]. In the direct binding

modular rate law, flux can be described by the effect of the maximal rate, the thermodynamics,

and the saturation of substrate [49]:

$$v = Ek_{\text{cat}}^{+}\eta_{\text{rev}}\eta_{\text{sat,s}}, \tag{20}$$

$$\eta_{\text{rev}} = 1 - \exp\left(\frac{\Delta_r G'}{RT}\right), \tag{21}$$

$$\eta_{\text{sat,s}} = \frac{\prod_{i \in M^s}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}}{1 + \prod_{i \in M^s}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|} + \prod_{i \in M^p}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}} \tag{22}$$

744   where M^s is substrates, M^p is products. From Eq. 20, we calculated the elasticity of

745   substrate $\epsilon_{s,i}^{v}$ and product $\epsilon_{p,i}^{v}$:

$$\epsilon_{s,i}^{v} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial c_i}\frac{c_i}{v} = |S_i|(\eta_{\text{rev}}^{-1} - \eta_{\text{sat,s}}), \tag{23}$$

$$\epsilon_{p,i}^{v} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial c_i}\frac{c_i}{v} = |S_i|(1 - \eta_{\text{rev}}^{-1} - \eta_{\text{sat,p}}), \tag{24}$$

$$\eta_{\text{sat,p}} = \frac{\prod_{i \in M^p}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}}{1 + \prod_{i \in M^s}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|} + \prod_{i \in M^p}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i}}\right)^{|S_i|}}. \tag{25}$$

746   The stoichiometric matrices of the pathways we analyzed here are full rank, and each of their

747   null spaces is one-dimensional, which means the degree of freedom of steady-state flux is

748   one. For these pathways, the following Eq. 26 and 27 hold from the connectivity theorem

749   and the summation theorem in MCA, respectively [50]:

$$\mathbf{C}_v^J\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_c^v = \mathbf{0}, \tag{26}$$

$$\sum_j C_{v_j}^J = 1, \tag{27}$$

$$\mathbf{C_v^J} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{v_1}^J & \cdots & C_{v_n}^J \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{v_1}^J & \cdots & C_{v_n}^J \end{pmatrix}, \tag{28}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon_c^v} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_{c_1}^{v_1} & \cdots & \epsilon_{c_k}^{v_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \epsilon_{c_1}^{v_n} & \cdots & \epsilon_{c_k}^{v_n} \end{pmatrix} \tag{29}$$

750　where $\epsilon_c^v = \{\epsilon_s^v, \epsilon_p^v\}$. Integrating Eq. 23, 24, 26, and 27, we obtained FCC as:

$$C_{v_l}^J = \frac{\alpha_l}{\sum_j \alpha_j}, \tag{30}$$

751　where α for GAPDH:PGK in glycolysis is described as

$$\alpha = \prod_{j=0}^{\text{ALDO}} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_j}\right) \left(\epsilon_s^{v_{\text{TPI}}} - \epsilon_p^{v_{\text{TPI}}}\right) \prod_{j=l+1}^{n+1} \epsilon_s^{v_j}, \tag{31}$$

752　α for downstream reactions of GAPDH:PGK in glycolysis is described as

$$\alpha = \prod_{j=0}^{\text{ALDO}} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_j}\right) \left(\epsilon_s^{v_{\text{TPI}}} - \epsilon_p^{v_{\text{TPI}}}\right) \prod_{j=\text{GAPDH:PGK}}^{l-1} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_l}\right) \prod_{j=l+1}^{n+1} \epsilon_s^{v_j}, \tag{32}$$

753　α for ALDO in gluconeogenesis is described as

$$\alpha = \prod_{j=0}^{\text{GAPDH:PGK}} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_j}\right) \left(\epsilon_s^{v_{\text{TPI}}} - \epsilon_p^{v_{\text{TPI}}}\right) \prod_{j=l+1}^{n+1} \epsilon_s^{v_j}, \tag{33}$$

754　α for downstream reactions of ALDO in gluconeogenesis is described as

$$\alpha = \prod_{j=0}^{\text{GAPDH:PGK}} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_j}\right) \left(\epsilon_s^{v_{\text{TPI}}} - \epsilon_p^{v_{\text{TPI}}}\right) \prod_{j=\text{ALDO}}^{l-1} \left(-\epsilon_p^{v_j}\right) \prod_{j=l+1}^{n+1} \epsilon_s^{v_j}, \tag{34}$$

755　α for other reactions is described as

$$\alpha_l = \prod_{j=0}^{l-1}\left(-\epsilon_\mathrm{p}^{v_j}\right) \prod_{j=l+1}^{n+1} \epsilon_\mathrm{s}^{v_j}. \tag{35}$$

Note that reaction indices $j \in \{1,\dots,N\}$ are denoted such that 1 represents the most

upstream reaction and N represents the most downstream reaction in the pathway, and $\epsilon_\mathrm{s}^{v_0} =$

$\epsilon_\mathrm{p}^{v_0} = \epsilon_\mathrm{s}^{v_{n+1}} = \epsilon_\mathrm{p}^{v_{n+1}} = 1$.

Metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values used in FCC calculation

We calculated FCCs under arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes as well as under the hepatic ones. For

both conditions, we used $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values sampled for confidence interval calculation in

GLEAM. To generate the hepatic $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes, we used metabolite concentrations

sampled in the confidence interval calculation. To generate arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes,

logarithmic metabolite concentrations were uniformly sampled from the physiologically

reasonable solution space $\Omega_{\ln c}$:

$$\Omega_{\ln c} = \left\{ \ln c \ \middle| \ \begin{array}{c} \Delta_r G'_j < 0 \\[4pt] lb_i \leq \ln c_i \leq ub_i \\[4pt] lb_i = ub_i = \ln c_i^{b*} \quad i \in M^{\mathrm{blood}} \end{array} \right\} \tag{36}$$

767 where M^{blood} represents blood metabolites. The upper and lower bounds of metabolite

768 concentrations were the same as those used in GLEAM (Table S7). This sampling was

769 performed 20 times for each $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ set using MATLAB function polySampler in the

770 Volume-and-Sampling package [82]. Thus, we obtained 2000 × 20 = 40000 arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$

771 landscapes in total.

K_m values used in FCC calculation

In FCC calculation, we sampled Michaelis-Menten constants K_m for each $\Delta_r G'$ landscape

to calculate reaction saturation level. To sample K_m, we first retrieved K_m and the turnover

number, $k_\mathrm{cat} \in \{k_\mathrm{cat}^+, k_\mathrm{cat}^-\}$ values for enzymes of *Mus musculus*, *Rattus norvegicus*, *Homo*

sapiens, *Bos taurus*, *Sus scrofa*, *Canis lupus familiaris*, and *Mammalia* [83] from BRENDA

database [51]. For K_m and k_cat values from three or more data without reports of mutant

enzymes, we calculated their logarithmic means and standard deviations. For K_m and k_cat

from fewer than three data, we set the logarithmic mean of k_cat (/s) to 1 with a standard

deviation of 1.5, and the logarithmic mean of K_m (mM) to −1 with a standard deviation of

1 [84]. With the means and standard deviations of K_m and k_cat, we uniformly sampled

logarithmic K_m, k_cat values for each enzyme from the solution space Ω_KP:

$$\Omega_{\mathrm{KP},j}$$

$$= \left\{ (\log K_\mathrm{m}, \log k_\mathrm{cat}) \middle| \begin{array}{c} \log \mu^{K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}} - 2\sigma^{K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}} \leq \log K_{\mathrm{m},i,j} \leq \log \mu^{K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}} + 2\sigma^{K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}} \\ \log \mu^{k_{\mathrm{cat},j}} - 2\sigma^{k_{\mathrm{cat},j}} \leq \log k_{\mathrm{cat},j} \leq \log \mu^{k_{\mathrm{cat},j}} + 2\sigma^{k_{\mathrm{cat},j}} \\ \log k_{\mathrm{cat},j}^+ - \log k_{\mathrm{cat},j}^- - \sum_{i \in M^s} \log K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}^{|S_{i,j}|} + \sum_{i \in M^p} \log K_{\mathrm{m},i,j}^{|S_{i,j}|} = \log K_{\mathrm{eq},j} \\ K_{\mathrm{eq},j} = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{RT} \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j} \Delta_f G_i'^\circ \right) \end{array} \right\}, \quad (37)$$

$$\forall i \in M, \forall j \in N$$

where μ is mean, σ is standard deviation, and K_eq is equilibrium constant. The third

constraint reflects the Haldane relationship [81]. These samplings were performed 20 times for

each $\Delta_r G'$ landscape using MATLAB function polySampler in the Volume-and-Sampling

package [82]. Thus, we finally calculated FCC under the arbitrary and hepatic $\Delta_r G'$

landscapes with $20 \times 20 \times 2000 = 800000$ and $20 \times 2000 = 40000$ sets of metabolite

concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ and K_m values, respectively.

Definitions of EC and total EC

By solving the equation of the direct binding modular rate law (Eq. 20) with respect to

enzyme amount, we can obtain enzyme demand needed to carry a certain flux:

$$E = \frac{v}{k_{cat}^+} \eta_{rev}^{-1} \eta_{sat,s}^{-1}. \tag{38}$$

794   With this equation, we defined Enzyme Cost (EC) as the product of the enzyme demand and

795   the enzyme molecular weight *w*:

$$EC = wE. \tag{39}$$

796   The enzyme molecular weights were retrieved from the UniProt database [85]. We also defined

797   pathway's total EC as the sum of ECs in the pathway:

$$\text{total EC} = \sum_{j \in N^{\text{pathway}}} EC_j \tag{40}$$

where N^{pathway} is reactions included in the pathway. We calculated ECs in glycolysis (Fig.

3A), gluconeogenesis (Fig. 3B), and the TCA cycle (Fig. 3C), which were the same as those

used in FCC calculations, under the hepatic $\Delta_r G'$ landscape using metabolite concentrations

and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values sampled for confidence interval calculation in GLEAM, and geometric

mean of K_m values from the BRENDA database [51] obtained in FCC calculation (Table S5).

For K_m with fewer than three data found in the BRENDA, we set their c/K_m values to the

geometric mean of the pathway. k_{cat}^{+} values were assumed to be the same within a pathway,

and their effect can be ignored in this study because we only focused on the relative values

of EC.

808   Minimization of total EC

809   Since EC is dependent on metabolite concentrations, we defined Enzyme Cost Minimum

810   (ECM) as a theoretical condition where total EC is minimized with metabolite concentrations.

811   We obtained ECM by solving the following non-linear optimization problem [42]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\min_{\ln c} && \text{total EC} = \sum_{j \in N^{\text{pathway}}} \text{EC}_j \\
&\text{s.t.} && \text{EC}_j = wv\eta_{\text{rev},j}^{-1}\eta_{\text{sat,s},j}^{-1}, \quad j \in N \\
& && \eta_{\text{rev},j} = 1 - \exp\left(\frac{\Delta_r G_j'}{RT}\right) \\
& && \eta_{\text{sat,s},j} = \frac{\prod_{i \in M^{\text{s}}}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i,j}}\right)^{|S_{i,j}|}}{1 + \prod_{i \in M^{\text{s}}}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i,j}}\right)^{|S_{i,j}|} + \prod_{i \in M^{\text{p}}}\left(\frac{c_i}{K_{\text{m},i,j}}\right)^{|S_{i,j}|}} \\
& && \Delta_r G_j' = \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j}\left(\Delta_f G_i'^{\text{o,liver}} + RT \ln c_i\right) < 0, \quad j \in N \\
& && lb_i \leq \ln c_i \leq ub_i, \quad i \in M \\
& && lb_i = ub_i = \ln c_i^{\text{mouse}}, \quad i \in M^{\text{blood}} \\
& && lb_i = ub_i = \ln c_i^{\text{mouse}}, \quad i \in M^{\text{terminal}} \\
& && \ln\frac{c_{i_1}}{c_{i_2}} = \left(\ln\frac{c_{i_1}}{c_{i_2}}\right)^{\text{mouse}}, \quad \forall(i_1, i_2) \in M^{\text{cofactor}}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{41}
$$

w and v are normalized by the minimum molecular weight and flux, respectively. The relative

flux values for a pathway we analyzed were unique because the degree of freedom of these

pathways' steady flux is 1. $\ln c^{\text{mouse}}$ represents metabolite concentration in mouse *i.e.*,

$\ln c^*$ and $\ln c^{b*}$. M^{blood} represents blood metabolites, and M^{terminal} represents

intracellular metabolites at the termini of each pathway: Glucose and Pyr for glycolysis and

gluconeogenesis, and AcCoA, OAA, and Mal for the TCA cycle. By fixing these

concentrations and cofactor ratios to those in mouse liver, the total Gibbs free energy change

across the entire pathway in ECM is consistent with that in the mouse liver. ECM was

calculated by MATLAB function fmincon with termination tolerance on the first-order

optimality of OptimalityTolerance $= 10^{-7}$, tolerance on the constraint violation of

ConstraintTolerance $= 10^{-9}$,   maximum   number   of   function   evaluations   of

MaxFunctionEvaluations = 1000000, and maximum number of iterations of MaxIterations =

100000. The optimization was performed 100 times for a single problem, and the solution

minimizing the objective function was selected as ECM.

Calculation of MEG

To quantify the efficiency of metabolic switching in terms of metabolite concentration

changes, we defined the Metabolite Equilibrium Gap (MEG) as the minimum concentration

changes required to reverse the direction of metabolism:

$$\text{MEG} = \exp A$$

$$A = \min_{\ln c} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\#M} \sum_{i \in M} \left(\ln c_i - \ln c_i^{\text{sys}}\right)^2}$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \Delta_r G_j' = \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j}\left(\Delta_f G_i'^\circ + RT \ln c_i\right) = 0, \quad j \in N^{\text{shift}} \tag{42}$$

$$\Delta_r G_j' = \sum_{i \in M} S_{i,j}\left(\Delta_f G_i'^\circ + RT \ln c_i\right) < 0, \quad j \in N \notin N^{\text{shift}}$$

$$b_i \leq \ln c_i \leq ub_i, \quad j \in M$$

where sys represents a value in a target system corresponding to the liver or ECM in this

study. N^{shift} is the reactions that must proceed in the reverse direction when switching

metabolisms; it includes reversible reactions in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, and all

reactions in the TCA cycle. $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values used in MEG calculation were the same as those

in the liver (and also the same as those in ECM). MEG was calculated using Gurobi [72]

MATLAB API with dual feasibility tolerance of OptimalityTol = 10^{-9} and primal feasibility

tolerance of FeasibilityTol = 10^{-9}.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical tests, optimizations, computational samplings, and calculations of $\Delta_r G'$, FCC, and

EC were performed using MATLAB 2021b (The MathWorks Inc.) and Gurobi (version

10.0.3) [72]. Database handlings were performed using Python (version 3.10. All details of

statistical tests are described in the Results section. The MATLAB package Plot Groups of

Stacked Bars [86] was used to create the figures.

Fig. 1: $\Delta_r G'$ landscape is robust against fasting despite metabolite concentration fluctuations

(**A**) Overview of the application of GLEAM to estimate $\Delta_r G'$ landscape in the mouse liver. Metabolomic data were acquired from the liver, skeletal muscle, and plasma of WT and *ob/ob* mice during fasting (Table S1) [8,66]. $n = 5$ biological replicates were used per group. The estimated metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and $\Delta_r G'$ values by GLEAM are shown in Table S2. (**B**) $\Delta_r G'$ landscape of glucose metabolism in mouse liver at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. $\Delta_r G'$ is depicted by arrow colors. Shaded texts represent reaction

names; boxed reactions are irreversible, while unboxed reactions are reversible. Blue

shadings indicate near-equilibrium reactions with $\Delta_r G' > -5$ kJ/mol, and gray shadings

indicate the other reactions with $\Delta_r G' \leq -5$ kJ/mol. Unshaded texts represent metabolites.

[h], [m], and [b] indicate hepatic, myocytic, and blood metabolites, respectively.

Abbreviations of reactions and metabolites are defined in the glossary and Table S3. (**C**)

Comparison of $\Delta_r G'$ in WT mouse liver at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. The

forward direction ($\Delta_r G' < 0$) is defined as the reaction direction at *ad libitum* feeding. Error

bars show 95% confidence intervals. (**D**) Comparison of metabolite concentrations in WT

mouse liver at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. Plotted metabolite concentrations

represent those normalized by the mean value at all seven time points and two genotypes (14

conditions in total) to eliminate scale differences in concentrations among metabolites. Error

bars show 95% confidence intervals. (**E**) Comparison of $\Delta_r G'$ in glycolysis across cell types

and organisms. The data in iBMK cell, yeast, and *E. coli* were measured using LC-MS and

isotope tracers [26]. Standard Gibbs free energy was calculated by treating all metabolite

concentrations as 1 M. The vertical axis represents cumulative $\Delta_r G'$ from GPI. Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals.

Fig. 2: $\Delta_r G'$ maintenance during fasting is associated with metabolite concentration

fluctuations in different ways among pathways

(**A**) Absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation = $|\Delta_r G'_{16h} - \Delta_r G'_{0h}|$. Bars depict irreversible reactions in

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis (orange), reversible reactions in glycolysis and

gluconeogenesis (blue), irreversible reactions in the TCA cycle (yellow), reversible reactions

in the TCA cycle (purple), and the other reactions in the metabolic network (grey),

respectively. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. (**B**) Relationship between absolute

$\Delta_r G'$ variation and reaction distance from equilibrium represented by absolute $\Delta_r G'$ at *ad*

libitum feeding. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. The reaction PC is highlighted

and discussed in the Results section. (**C**) Comparison of absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation of reactions

and total absolute $\Delta_f G'$ variation of metabolites. Absolute $\Delta_f G'$ variation is dependent on

concentrations of metabolites involved in the reaction, and defined by $\sum \left| S \left(\Delta_f G'_{16h} - \right.\right.$

$\left.\left. \Delta_f G'_{0h} \right) \right|$. When $\Delta_f G'$ variation $= S \left(\Delta_f G'_{16h} - \Delta_f G'_{0h} \right)$ of the metabolites involved in the

reaction are cancelled out, absolute $\Delta_r G'$ variation is smaller than total absolute $\Delta_f G'$

variation, resulting in the reaction being plotted in the lower right. Plotted reactions for

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, and the TCA cycles are the same as Fig. 2B. Error bars show

95% confidence intervals. The reactions GPD, GAPDH:PGK and GCK are highlighted and

discussed in the Results section. (**D**) Time courses of $\Delta_r G'$ variation and $\Delta_f G'$ variation

for representative reactions: GPD (small $\Delta_f G'$ variations), GAPDH:PGK (large $\Delta_f G'$

variations which are canceled out), and GCK (large $\Delta_f G'$ variations which are not canceled

out). Red and grey lines depict $\Delta_r G'$ variation and $\Delta_f G'$ variation, respectively. Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals.

Fig. 3: Thermodynamic Rate-limiting Candidates (TRCs) were maintained during

fasting

(**A**) Glycolysis pathway where FCCs were calculated. (**B**) Gluconeogenesis pathway where

FCCs were calculated. (**C**) The TCA cycle where FCCs were calculated. MDH was excluded

from this TCA cycle because it proceeded in the opposite direction to the oxidative TCA

cycle. (**D**) Correspondence between $\Delta_r G'$ and η_{rev}. (**E-G**) Relationship between η_{rev} and

FCC in glycolysis (**E**), gluconeogenesis (**F**), and the TCA cycle (**G**) in the mouse liver. η_{rev}

and FCC values of each point were calculated from each sampled set of metabolite

concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values for the calculation of confidence intervals and sampled

K_m values based on BRENDA database (see Methods). Metabolite concentrations at *ad*

libitum feeding were used for glycolysis (**E**) and the TCA cycle (**G**), and those after 16-hour

fasting were used for gluconeogenesis (**F**). Vertical variation is attributed to differences in

K_m values and condition of the other reactions, while horizontal variation reflects differences

in metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$. (**H**) Alterations of TRC status based on transitions

in η_{rev} for reactions in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis before and after starvation. Red, blue,

and grey lines depict reactions remaining TRC (5 reactions), reactions remaining non-TRC

(10 reactions), and reactions altering their TRC status (either TRC or not) during fasting (3

reactions), respectively. Black dashed lines indicate the boundary between TRC and non-

TRC where $\eta_{rev} = 0.86$ *i.e.*, $\Delta_r G' = -5$ kJ/mol. Error bars show 95% confidence

intervals.

Fig. 4: Glycolysis and gluconeogenesis achieve efficient switching by expending large Enzyme Costs

(**A**) Ratio of total enzyme cost under metabolite concentrations in the mouse liver and ECM

(Liver/ECM). The total EC was calculated for glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and the TCA

cycle, which are the same as the pathways used for FCC calculation (Fig. 3A to C).

Metabolite concentrations at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting were used for

glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, respectively. K_m values for EC calculation were the

geometric mean of data in the BRENDA database (Table S5). Error bars show 95%

confidence intervals. EC in mouse liver, and metabolite concentrations and EC at ECM are

shown in Table S5. (**B**) Comparison of metabolite concentrations in the mouse liver and ECM.

Plotted data are for the measured metabolites, and the scatter plot for the TCA cycle includes

the data both at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. RMSE is the root mean square

error on a $\log_{10}$-scale of ECM's prediction compared to metabolite concentrations in the

mouse liver, and typical fold error (typical FE) = 10^{RMSE}. Error bars show 95% confidence

intervals. Plotted data are for the measured metabolites. (**C**) EC of each reaction in glycolysis,

gluconeogenesis, and the TCA cycle. The left and right bars of each reaction are EC in the

mouse liver and ECM, respectively. Since the vertical axis represents a logarithmic scale, EC

can be depicted by the stacked bar of normalized enzyme molecular weight (green), the effect

of thermodynamics, η_rev^{-1} (red), and saturation, $\eta_{\mathrm{sat},s}^{-1}$ (blue). Note that although the total

Gibbs free energy change across the entire pathway in ECM is fixed to that in the mouse liver

(see Methods), the sum of η_rev^{-1} differs due to the non-linear increase of η_rev over $\Delta_r G'$

(Fig. 3D). Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. (**D**) Comparison of metabolite

concentrations in the liver or ECM, and those for MEG calculation, where the reactions

required to reverse for metabolic switching are at equilibrium. Plotted data are for the

measured metabolites. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Metabolite concentrations

where the reactions required to reverse for metabolic switching are at equilibrium are shown

in Table S6.

Fig. 5: Robustness of $\Delta_r G'$ in the liver against obesity

(**A**) $\Delta_r G'$ landscape of glucose metabolism in *ob/ob* mouse liver at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. $\Delta_r G'$ is depicted by arrow colors. Shaded texts represent reaction names; boxed reactions are irreversible, while unboxed reactions are reversible. Blue shadings indicate near-equilibrium reactions with $\Delta_r G' > -5$ kJ/mol, and gray shadings indicate the other reactions with $\Delta_r G' \leq -5$ kJ/mol. Unshaded texts represent metabolites.

The estimated metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and $\Delta_r G'$ values by GLEAM are shown

in Table S2. (**B**) Comparison of $\Delta_r G'$ in WT and *ob/ob* mouse liver. The forward direction

($\Delta_r G' < 0$) is defined as the reaction direction in WT at *ad libitum* feeding. Error bars show

95% confidence intervals. (**C**) Difference in $\Delta_r G'$ between WT and *ob/ob* mouse liver

($\Delta_r G'_{ob/ob} - \Delta_r G'_{WT}$). Reactions are arranged from left to right in order of decreasing

absolute difference in $\Delta_r G'$. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. (**D**) Comparison of

metabolite concentrations in WT and *ob/ob* mouse liver. Plotted data represent the

concentrations normalized by the mean value at all seven time points and two genotypes *(i.e.,*

14 conditions) to eliminate scale differences in concentrations among metabolites. Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals. (**E**) Comparison of absolute difference in $\Delta_r G'$ variation

and total absolute deference in $\Delta_f G' = \sum |S(\Delta_f G'_{ob/ob} - \Delta_f G'_{WT})|$, between WT and *ob/ob*

mouse liver. Plotted data includes those at *ad libitum* feeding and after 16-hour fasting. The

reactions for glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, and the TCA cycles are the same as Fig. 2B.

Error bars show 95% confidence intervals.

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1216

1217 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

1218 Figures S1 to S6

1219 Tables S1 to S7

1220 References (*87*) to (*97*)

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1222

Fig. S1: Relationship between η_{rev} and FCC for arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes

(A-D) Arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes were generated by the uniform sampling of intrasellar

metabolite concentrations under the blood metabolite concentrations at *ad libitum* feeding

and after 16-hour fasting (see Methods). The arbitrary $\Delta_r G'$ landscapes at *ad libitum* feeding

were used for FCC calculation in glycolysis (**A**) and the TCA cycle (**C**), while those after 16-

hour fasting were used for gluconeogenesis (**B**), and the TCA cycle (**D**). Plotted data

represents each sampled set of metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and K_m values.

1230

1231

1232 **Fig. S2: Relationship between η_{rev} and FCC in the TCA cycle in the mouse liver after**

1233 **16-hour fasting**

1234 Plotted data represents each set of metabolite concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^{\circ}$ values sampled for

1235 the calculation of confidence intervals, and K_m values sampled based on BRENDA database

1236 (see Methods).

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1238

Fig. S3: Typical fold error of ECM's prediction compared to metabolite concentrations

in the mouse liver and *E. coli*

Glyc. and Gluc. means glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, respectively. Minimizations of total

EC in *E. coli* were conducted for the metabolic network, which consists of glycolysis, the

pentose phosphate pathway, and the TCA cycle, assuming four different enzymatic rate laws

(see Methods).

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1247   **Fig. S4: Correspondence between $\Delta_r G'$ and η_{rev}^{-1}**

1248   Orange and green area depict the range of $\Delta_r G'$ that most reversible reactions in glycolysis

1249   exhibited in *E. coli* [26,60] and mouse liver, respectively.

1250

1251

Fig. S5: A whole metabolic network used to estimate $\Delta_r G'$ landscape

Shaded texts represent reaction names; boxed reactions are irreversible, while unboxed reactions are reversible. Unshaded texts represent metabolites. Although the network consists of liver, blood, and skeletal muscle to improve the accuracy of $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ estimation, only the $\Delta_r G'$ landscape of reactions and transporters in the liver were discussed in this study because the concentration of unmeasured major metabolites, such as glucose in skeletal muscle, cannot be estimated with sufficient accuracy due to a lack of reactions.

1259

1260 **Fig. S6: Flowchart of the bilevel optimization problem in GLEAM**

1261 The optimization problems for the continuous and binary variables are treated as the lower-

1262 level and upper-level problems, respectively. The optimal solution of GLEAM was selected

1263 after solving this bilevel optimization 10 times.

1264

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES

Table S1: Metabolomic and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data used as input for GLEAM (Excel file)

This file includes the input metabolomic and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data for GLEAM (logarithmic mean of

metabolome concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ values, and variance-covariance matrix of metabolite

concentrations and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$s). The metabolite concentrations were measured form from WT

and *ob/ob* mice in previous studies [8,66], and $\Delta_f G'^\circ$ data were retrieved from eQuilibrator

database [55]. NaN represents unmeasured metabolite. [h], [m], and [b] indicate hepatic,

myocytic, and blood compartment, respectively. The logarithmic mean of metabolite

concentrations shown in this file is converted from a logarithmic scale to a linear scale.

1274

1275   **Table S2: Thermodynamically consistent metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and $\Delta_r G'$**

1276   **estimated by GLEAM (Excel file)**

1277   This file includes the thermodynamically consistent metabolite concentrations, $\Delta_f G'^\circ$, and

1278 $\Delta_r G'$ values in mouse liver and blood estimated by GLEAM. For glucose and lactate, hepatic

1279   and blood metabolites are distinguished by the [h] and [b], respectively.

1280

Table S3: Metabolites and reactions in the metabolic network for glucose metabolism

in mice (Excel file)

This file includes definitions of metabolite abbreviations, reaction abbreviations, and the

metabolic network *i.e.*, the stoichiometric matrix for glucose metabolism used in this study.

In the Reactions and Stoichiometric matrix sheet, [h], [m], and [b] indicate hepatic, myocytic,

and blood compartments, respectively.

1287

1288 **Table S4: Metabolite concentrations and a cofactor ratio involved in PKLR between**

1289 **mouse liver and other cell types**

Metabolites, cofacer ratios	Mouse liver	iBMK cell	Yeast	*E. coli*
PEP	2.02×10^{-5} M	1.16×10^{-5} M	2.91×10^{-5} M	1.84×10^{-4} M
Pyr	3.77×10^{-5} M	5.88×10^{-3} M	9.40×10^{-3} M	3.66×10^{-3} M
ATP/ADP	1.00	8.21	3.95	17.35

1290 Metabolite concentrations in iBMK cell, Yeast, and E. coli were measured by LC-MS [26].

1291

Table S5: EC calculation in mouse liver and ECM (Excel file)

This file includes EC values within glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and the TCA cycle in mouse

liver and EC, metabolite concentrations in ECM, and geometric mean of Michaelis-Menten

constant retrieved from BRENDA database [51] used for EC calculation. In EC calculation,

metabolite concentrations at *ad libitum* feeding were used for glycolysis and the TCA cycle,

and those after 16-hour fasting were used for gluconeogenesis and the TCA cycle. EC is

product of normalized molecular weight, $1/\eta_{rev}$, and $1/\eta_{sat,s}$.

1299

Table S6: Metabolite concentrations where the reactions required to reverse for

metabolic switching are at equilibrium, as determined by MEG calculation (Excel file)

This file includes the metabolite concentrations that are the optimal solution to the

optimization problem in MEG calculation for glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and the TCA

cycle. At these concentrations, the reactions required to reverse for directional switching of

the pathways are at equilibrium with the minimum concentration changes from mouse liver

or ECM.

1307

1308 **Table S7: Upper and lower bounds of metabolite concentrations and cofactor ratios**

Metabolites, cofacer ratios	Lower bounds	Upper bounds	References
Intracellular glucose*	1.0×10^{-3} M	1.5×10^{-2} M	[87]
Hepatic Pi	3.0×10^{-3} M	4.3×10^{-3} M	[88]
Myocytic Pi	3.0×10^{-3} M	9.0×10^{-3} M	[88,89]
CO_2, HCO_3^-	1.5×10^{-3} M	2.5×10^{-3} M	[90]
NH_3	2.0×10^{-4} M	1.0×10^{-3} M	[91]
Other intracellular metabolites*	1.0×10^{-7} M	1.0×10^{-2} M	[26]
Blood metabolites	1.0×10^{-7} M	1.0×10^{-1} M	[92]
ATP/ADP	1	10	[89,93,94]
NAD^+/NADH	3	10	[95]
GTP/GDP	1	10	[96]
$NADP^+$/NADPH	0.05	0.2	[97]

1309 *: The upper bounds of intracellular glucose, G6P, F6P, F1,6BP, DHAP, GAP, 3PG, 2PG,

1310 PEP, G1P, G3P, and Lac in *ob*/*ob* mouse are 1.0×10^{-1} M.

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