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Genome-Scale $^{13}$C Fluxomics Modeling for Metabolic Engineering of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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Abstract

Synthetic biology is a rapidly developing field that pursues the application of engineering principles and development approaches to biological engineering. Synthetic biology is poised to change the way biology is practiced, and has important practical applications: for example, building genetically engineered organisms to produce biofuels, medicines, and other chemicals. Traditionally, synthetic biology has focused on manipulating a few genes (e.g., in a single pathway or genetic circuit), but its combination with systems biology holds the promise of creating new cellular architectures and constructing complex biological systems from the ground up. Enabling this merge of synthetic and systems biology will require greater predictive capability for modeling the behavior of cellular systems, and more comprehensive data sets for building and calibrating these models. The so-called “-omics” data sets can now be generated via high throughput techniques in the form of genomic, proteomic, transcriptomic, and metabolomic information on the engineered biological system. Of particular interest with respect to the engineering of microbes capable of producing biofuels and other chemicals economically and at scale are metabolomic datasets, and their insights into intracellular metabolic fluxes. Metabolic fluxes provide a rapid and easy to understand picture of how carbon and energy flow throughout the cell. Here, we present a detailed guide to performing metabolic flux analysis and modeling using the open source JBEI Quantitative Metabolic Modeling (jQMM) library. This library allows the user to transform metabolomics data in the form of isotope labeling data from a $^{13}$C labeling experiment into a determination of cellular fluxes that can be used to develop genetic engineering strategies for metabolic engineering.

The jQMM library presents a complete toolbox for performing a range of different tasks of interest in metabolic engineering. Various different types of flux analysis and modeling can be performed such as flux balance analysis, $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis, and two-scale $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis (2S-$^{13}$C MFA). 2S-$^{13}$C MFA is a novel method that determines genome-scale fluxes without the need of every single carbon transition in the metabolic network. In addition to several other capabilities, the jQMM library can make model based predictions for how various genetic engineering strategies can be incorporated toward bioengineering goals: it can predict the effects of reaction knockouts on metabolism using both the MoMA and ROOM methodologies. In this chapter, we will illustrate the use of the jQMM library through a step-by-step demonstration of flux determination and knockout prediction in a complex eukaryotic model organism: *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (*S. cerevisiae*). Included with this chapter is a digital Jupyter Notebook file that provides a computable appendix showing a self-contained example of jQMM usage, which can be changed to fit the user’s specific needs. As an open source software project, users can modify and extend the electronic supplementary material: The online version of this chapter (https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-8757-3_19) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.
The ability to genetically engineer and modify an organism’s DNA has radically changed the nature of biology over the last few decades. Synthetic biology is an emerging field which applies genetic engineering techniques toward the systematic design of biological organisms toward specific design and engineering goals [1] using traditional engineering principles such as the design–build–test–learn (DBTL) cycle [2]. Initial efforts in the realm of repurposing biological systems toward the production of biofuels and other chemicals using synthetic and systems biology have succeeded in producing a number of target molecules, although typically at low titers of μg/L to mg/L [3]. However, only the biological production of a few compounds, such as 1,3-propanediol [4], 1–4-butanediol [5], and artemisinin [6], has been produced at high titers and at a commercial scale. This relative scarcity of commercially successful examples showcases the difficulties that the synthetic biology field still faces, among them a lack of predictive tools and models to guide the bioengineering process [7]. Improving the yield, titer, and productivity of engineered bioprocesses to enable commercialization requires detailed manipulation of many processes including microbial physiology, stress response, and metabolism. This chapter focuses exclusively on the particular field of metabolic engineering, and will show how to use metabolomics data to calculate how carbon and energy flow through the cell, which is an effective piece of information to optimize [8] bioproduct formation [3].

The study of metabolic fluxes is of particular interest for engineering microbes that can produce biofuels and other chemicals as fluxes provide a mechanistic understanding for how carbon and energy flow throughout the cell. While often a heuristic and non-systematic approach is taken toward designing and genetically engineering new organisms [3], metabolic fluxes offer the potential for adding a powerful predictive capability to synthetic biology. Metabolic fluxes can be readily transformed into actionable predictions for improving bioproduct formation via the use of metabolic modeling [8]. Metabolic models include the stoichiometry of an organism’s metabolic network and, using a variety of mathematical methods (e.g., COBRA [9]), can predict how fluxes will change through modifications of the metabolic reaction network arising from specific genetic engineering strategies.
The DBTL cycle is one of the common practices of engineering transplanted into synthetic biology. This cycle starts with the design (D) of a biological system in the form of a best guess, given initial data and biological understanding, on how to achieve a desired particular outcome (e.g., fuel production at a given yield). This biological design is then built (B) in the next phase of the cycle from DNA parts and an appropriate microbial chassis using the tools of synthetic biology. The next phase involves testing (T) whether the biological system performs as desired in the original design using a variety of assays (e.g., production measurement or/and omics profiling). Given the complex nature of biological systems, it is extremely unlikely that the first design would behave as desired, so further attempts will most likely be needed to meet the desired specification. It would be desirable to use a validated predictive model based on data generated in previous rounds to systematically converge toward engineering goals more quickly. This task is referred to as the learn (L) phase of the DBLT cycle and is, arguably, the hardest and least supported step in current metabolic engineering practice [2]. However, given recent increasingly available high-throughput workflows for data generation, there is an opportunity to use these copious amounts of data to validate and create models which can provide actionable items for metabolic engineers: that is, suggestions that can be acted upon with the available synthetic biology tools (e.g., to change a particular gene’s ribozyme binding site (RBS) or knock out a particular gene in order to reroute metabolic fluxes).

In this chapter we will show how to use metabolomic data obtained from $^{13}$C labeling experiments to generate actionable items to increase ethanol production in *S. cerevisiae*. We will demonstrate how to use the Joint BioEnergy Institute (JBEI) Quantitative Metabolic Modeling library (jQMM) [10] to calculate cellular fluxes and make predictions. The jQMM library is currently capable of measuring and predicting internal metabolic fluxes using a variety of techniques: $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis ($^{13}$C MFA) [11], flux balance analysis (FBA) [9], and two-scale $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis (2S-$^{13}$C MFA) [12]. First, we will provide a brief background on metabolomics and more specifically $^{13}$C labeling experiments, which consist of cellular cultures in which the feed source (e.g., glucose) is labeled with carbon atoms that have an extra neutron (i.e., carbon isotopes) at selected and specific positions. We will then succinctly describe how to measure the ensuing carbon isotope labeling in the metabolites of the studied. Next, we will describe in detail how to use the labeling data from different metabolites in the cell to determine the cell’s internal metabolic fluxes through a technique called two-scale $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis (2S-$^{13}$C MFA). 2S-$^{13}$C MFA is a novel technique which introduces the capability to use experimental $^{13}$C labeling data to constrain comprehensive *genome-scale* models (rather than with
small models of central metabolism as done with traditional $^{13}$C MFA by taking into account the system-wide balances of metabolites [8]. This is possible by assuming that flux flows from core to peripheral metabolism and does not flow back. This assumption stems from the bow tie structure of cellular metabolism [2], and is further justified by the fact that traditional $^{13}$C MFA, using only core metabolism models, can convincingly explain labeling patterns for amino acids and intracellular metabolites for model organisms [13–16]. We then perform an External Labeling Variability Analysis (ELVA), a self-consistency test of this modeling approach which gauges the effect of the ignored noncore reactions [12]. ELVA finds the maximum impact that the unknown inflow metabolite labeling can have on the measured labeling pattern, and provides evidence of biophysical consistency of the calculated metabolic fluxes. Finally, we will show how to use the COBRA (Constraint Based Reconstruction and Analysis) [17] methods of MoMA (Minimization of Metabolic Adjustment) [18] and ROOM (Regulatory On/Off Minimization) [19] to predict, based on the measured flux profiles, which gene knock outs will increase acetate production in *S. cerevisiae*.

2 Materials

The general workflow for determining and visualizing metabolic fluxes of cellular systems is shown in Fig. 1. First, a microbial culture is grown with $^{13}$C labeled glucose feed. Next, mass spectroscopy is used for the analysis of the distribution of $^{13}$C in metabolites extracted from cell culture to obtain the Mass Distributions Vectors (MDVs) [20] for each measured metabolite, which give the relative frequency of isotopologs. Each isotopolog of a metabolite has a different number of carbons with an extra neutron, and each isotopolog can exhibit the heavy carbon(s) substituting any of the carbon(s) located within the metabolite. For example, a metabolite with five carbon atoms could have five different isotopologs. The different labeling patterns for the measured metabolites ultimately provides enough information to determine the internal flux profile [12] via knowledge of how reactions in the metabolic network rearrange carbon atoms within metabolites (so called carbon transitions). MDVs then need to be then formatted for input into the jQMM, so that metabolic fluxes can be calculated at the genome scale using the 2S-$^{13}$C methodology. For genome scale models, there are thousands of reactions, so we recommend that fluxes be visualized and more easily understood via a plotting environment called “Arrowland” which is located at the following website: [http://public-arrowland.jbei.org](http://public-arrowland.jbei.org). Fluxes can also be more simply plotted within the jQMM.
2.1 Computational Requirements

To calculate fluxes using the jQMM, a desktop computer or server system that is capable of running heavy computational loads for extended periods of time is necessary. The more available cores/CPU's in the system the better, as calculations within the jQMM library often take many hours to days (for a desktop computer), although the library is parallelized and can leverage additional cores/CPU's to reduce computation time. Windows, Mac, and Linux operating systems are all compatible with running python code, which the jQMM is written in. Error-correcting code RAM (ECC RAM) reduces incorrect memory read and write operations to system RAM and is recommended to reduce the probability of faulty calculations over lengthy computations due to memory access errors. Xeon processors from Intel, for example, are specially designed for long continuous computations at high CPU load, unlike the consumer series of desktop processors sold by Intel such as the i7 and i5 series (circa 2016), and therefore we also recommend the use of Xeon like processors.

$^{2S-13}C$ MFA computations require the following:
1. At least 32 GB of RAM and 500 GB of free disk space.
2. Ownership of both the GAMS and CONOPT solver licenses.
3. Python version 2.7 installed and configured.

2.2 Software Installation and Configuration

Use of the jQMM requires installation of accessory libraries (such as numpy, as described below), which can be done in two different ways: the traditional way, which includes a self-installation on the hardware and operating system at hand, or via the use of a pre-configured and preinstalled Docker container (http://www.docker.com). We recommend using our preconfigured Docker container for use of the jQMM as the flux modeling environment will be immediately usable once a GAMS and CONOPT license are purchased. However, for expert users or those who wish to use a custom installation, a self-installation is readily achieved as follows.

2.2.1 Self-Installation

First install the following jQMM dependencies to the Python 2.7 environment:

1. libSBML: available at http://sbml.org/Software/libSBML.
2. matplotlib: available at http://matplotlib.org/users/installing.html.

For self-installation see Note 1.

2.2.2 Preconfigured and Preinstalled jQMM Library

Docker (https://docs.docker.com/) is a technology that is based on Linux containers that allows for the building, running, testing, and deploying applications such as the jQMM library into a complete file system that contains everything it needs to run: code, runtime, system tools, system libraries, and supporting data files. This guarantees that it will always run correctly and in the same way, regardless of the system environment it is running in. The jQMM docker container format is standardized and can be run on virtually any cloud computing service such as AWS (Amazon Web Services), Google Cloud Platform, Microsoft Azure, etc. Additionally, the jQMM Docker container can be conveniently run on a personal computer running either Microsoft Windows or the Mac operating system, although we discourage this practice for anything other than training purposes given how slowly the jQMM will run on personal computers. For further information on web-based platforms please see Note 2.

The prebuilt jQMM docker container, which is available for download at https://github.com/JBEI/jqmm, has all of the software needed to run the jQMM library preinstalled and preconfigured to work out of the box. The GAMS and CONOPT solvers
2.3 13C Labeling Experiments and Mass Spectrometry Data Analysis

The initial step for any 13C based metabolic flux experiment is performing a 13C labeling experiment with the organism of interest. We will only give a brief description here, the reader can refer to previously published protocols for more information [21, 22]. Cultures should use minimal media to avoid nonlabeled carbon sources, and can be grown using different types of labeling for the feed (see Note 3). A common choice is to use 20% U-13C glucose (universal labeling of carbon atoms) and 80% 1-13C glucose (first carbon atom only is labeled) (for example see Note 4). Briefly, we recommend that culture samples are prepared for measurement on an LC-MS system by a rapid quenching step to halt cellular metabolism immediately after removing an aliquot of cells from culture, which is then followed by extraction of intracellular metabolites and LCMS sample preparation [21, 22].

The quantification of relative cellular metabolite isotopolog concentration, consisting of MDVs for metabolites in cellular metabolism (see Fig. 2 for an example), is done by determining the relative concentration of each metabolite’s isotopologs via mass spectrometry. Once chromatograms from a mass spectrometry instrument have been analyzed and integrated such that the relative frequency of each metabolite’s mass distribution has been determined, these data need to be prepared and formatted for input into the jQMM library so that metabolic fluxes can be determined.

2.4 Input Data Preparation

2.4.1 13C Labeling Data

Once the measured MDVs have been determined and normalized such that their sum is equal to one for each metabolite, they have to be entered into a text document with the following format so that the data can be read by the jQMM:

```
Amino acid Mass distribution
m0 m1 m2 m3 m4 m5 m6 m7 m8
Gly M-0 0.7426 0.0592 0.1982 - - - - -
Ala M-0 0.3903 0.3884 0.0221 0.1992 - - - - -
Thr M-0 0.3260 0.3416 0.1670 0.1513 0.0000 - - - - -
Asp M-0 0.3192 0.3564 0.2003 0.1035 0.0206 - - - - -
```

The first two lines should remain fixed and are ignored by the jQMM library, while the following lines need to include the MDV information for every metabolite for which isotopolog data exists in the following format:
1. First the metabolite name using the metabolite abbreviation used in the BIGG database (http://bigg.ucsd.edu) is specified and followed by a tab character or space(s).

2. Next tab or space separated relative frequencies of each metabolite isotopolog are specified. The sum of all isotopolog frequencies needs to add to 1 for each individual metabolite.

3. Isotopologs which do not exist for a particular metabolite, should be represented by a “-” (dash), and must not be entered as a zero value, which would indicate a different meaning in the jQMM. Zero values indicate that an isotopolog can exist but is not present in the sample.

2.4.2 Choose, Edit, and Define the Metabolic Model

To define a metabolic model for the jQMM to use in the modeling of the particular organism being studied, we recommend using the BIGG database (http://bigg.ucsd.edu) and downloading a SBML version of the metabolic model which is appropriate to the problem being studied. Smaller models run much faster in the jQMM, while more comprehensive genome scale models are necessary for problems involving peripheral metabolism or which utilize the 2S-13C MFA analysis methodology. Retooling of the jQMM library code may be required for the library to understand metabolite names which do not follow the naming convention used in the iMM904 metabolic model [23] format, although sample code is already included in the jQMM for using metabolite names from the iJO1366 [24] and iAF1260 [25] models, which is located in the “sbmlio.py” python code file located in the jQMM “code/core”
directory. Network reactions which come from a heterologous pathway that has been engineered into a microbe should be manually copied into the downloaded SBML model.

2.4.3 Defining Exchange Reaction Fluxes

Both measured fluxes through exchange reactions and the biomass flux that correspond to the time that a sample was taken for $^{13}$C isotopolog analysis are detailed in a FLUX.txt file. A sample exchange flux file should be formatted as follows for input into the jQMM library:

```
biomass_SC5_notrace: 0.24 [==] 0.24
GLCt1: 8.5 [==] 8.5
EX_glc(e): -8.5 [==] -8.5
EX_ac(e): 0.45 [==] 0.45
```

The Biomass flux is in units of 1/h and is normalized to equal the growth rate while all other exchange fluxes are in units of mMol/gdw/h (millimoles/grams of dry weight/hour). The glucose uptake rate can be measured for example by a HPLC determination of glucose concentration at two different times around the $^{13}$C analysis sample time. If the glucose concentration is measured as $g_1$ and $g_2$ (in millimoles/volume) at times $t_1$ and $t_2$, the glucose flux can be approximated as $(g_2 - g_1)/g_{dw1}/(t_2 - t_1)$, where $g_{dw1}$ is the grams of dry weight of cells per unit volume at time $t_1$. Similarly, HPLC measurements can be used to determine fluxes of acetate, lactate, and other organic acids excreted by the cell.

2.4.4 Defining Carbon Transitions in the Metabolic Model

Atom transitions can be used to represent the fate of each carbon in a reaction [11]. In the example reaction:

```
A (abc) -> B (ab) + C (c)
```

Uppercase letters in a carbon transition reaction represent the metabolites present in a reaction, while the lowercase letters in parentheses represent the carbon atom transitions, see Note 5. Irreversible reactions are denoted by a ‘$\rightarrow$’ or ‘$\Rightarrow$’ arrow and reversible reactions are denoted by a ‘$\leftarrow$’ or ‘$\Leftarrow$’ arrow. In the jQMM, multiple reactions are separated by carriage returns or by placing a semicolon at the end of each reaction equation.

For example, in the following reaction from the iMM904 metabolic model for S. cerevisiae:

```
AKGDam akg_m -> sdhlam_m + co2_m abcde : bcde + a
```

$\text{akg}$ (2-Oxoglutarate) gets split into $\text{sdhlam}$ (Succinyl-dihydrolipoidamide) and $\text{co2}$ (carbon dioxide) in reaction AKGDam, with the last four carbons going to $\text{sdhlam}$ and the first carbon going to $\text{co2}$. 

For 2S-\textsuperscript{13}C based metabolic flux analysis in the jQMM, one needs to create a REACTIONS.txt file which contains the carbon transition information for core reactions in the metabolic network and which has the following format:

```
# Metabolic Exchange fluxes
&MLIST etoh 0
&MLIST glucon 0
&MLIST lac-L 0

# Amino acid metabolite fluxes
&MLIST ala-L\[c\] 0
&MLIST asp-L\[c\] 0
&MLIST asn-L\[c\] 0
&MLIST gly\[c\] 0
&MLIST val-L\[c\] 0
&MLIST arg-L\[c\] 0

# Carbon source
&SOURCE glcD[e]

# Input Reactions
EX_glc(e) glc-D\[e\] <== glcDEx abcdef : abcdef
GLCt1 glc-D\[e\] --> glc-D abcdef : abcdef
HEX1 glc-D --> g6p abcdef : abcdef

# Carbon Transitions
PGI g6p <== f6p abcdef : abcdef
PFK f6p --> fdp abcdef : abcdef
PBA fdp <== g3p + dhap abcdef : cba + def
```

See Note 6 for metabolite abbreviations and Note 7 for additional REACTIONS.txt file specifications.

### 2.4.5 Defining Feed Labeling

The type of labeled glucose used in the experiment, together with its concentration relative to the amount of unlabeled glucose, is detailed in a FEED.txt file. A sample feed specification file contains the following line:

```
1.5% Glucose: 80% 1-C 20% U 0% UN
```

See Note 8 for file specification details.

## 3 Methods

An example Jupyter notebook which demonstrates metabolic flux analysis on \textit{S. cerevisiae} is included in the Supplementary Information and can be run directly within the jQMM (see Electronic
Supplementary Material, see Note 9). This notebook is also reproduced in this section as an example of how to use the FluxModels module in the jQMM to do 2S-^13^C MFA and then predict the outcomes on ethanol production of different reaction knockouts. The Jupyter notebook provides a convenient way to reproduce results and is easily modified to fit the user’s specific needs, and it is divided into seven different steps for turning experimental data into actionable predictions for increasing a targeted biochemical via genetic engineering:

1. Setting up python environment.
2. Gathering input data.
3. Creating the Reaction Network.
4. Creating the two-scale metabolic model.
5. Calculating internal metabolic fluxes through 2S-^13^C MFA.
6. Performing an ELVA consistency check.
8. Predicting which genes to knockout using MoMA and ROOM.

-- Jupyter Notebook Start --

13C-2S Metabolic Flux Analysis for *S. cerevisiae* with ELVA methods: This Jupyter notebook presents a computable step-by-step description of how to use metabolite data from 13C labeling experiments to determine fluxes for *S. cerevisiae* with quality control of flux results via ELVA methods. We also use MOMA and ROOM methodologies to produce actionable insights to improve ethanol production.

### 3.1 Setup

The first step involves specifying the correct path for the library to be loaded:

```
In [1]:
%matplotlib inline
import sys, os
path = "~/scratch/user"
pythonPath = path + "~/quantmodel/code/core"
if pythonPath not in sys.path:
sys.path.append(path + '~/quantmodel/code/core')
os.environ['QUANTMODELPATH'] = path + '~/quantmodel'
```

We then need to import the needed classes for the notebook:

```
In [2]:
from IPython.display import SVG
import FluxModels as FM
```
and then move to a defined working directory where output and intermediate files will be kept:

In [3]:
cd ~/tests

Test that GAMS and CONOPT solvers are installed and working:

In [5]:
status = os.system('gams')
if status == 0:
    print "GAMS call working."
else:
    print "GAMS is not installed."
GAMS call working.

3.2 Gathering Input Data

As part of the test (T) phase of the DBTL cycle, we gather all the relevant experimental data from the $^{13}$C labeling experiments (see “Materials” Subheading 2). These data involve:

- A base genome-scale model that will act as the reference for all other data types.
- Exchange fluxes containing the measured fluxes of metabolites being exchange by cells with the environment.
- Transition information on the fate of each carbon in the core reaction network.
- Metabolite labeling information in the form of Mass Distribution Vectors (MDVs).
- Metabolite labeling error information.
- Feed labeling information on the type of labeled glucose the cell culture was fed.

Discussion of these data types can be seen in Subheading 2. For this demonstration, we will use the data from Ghosh et al. [8] for the wild type strain grown using a glucose feed:

In [6]:
datadir = os.environ['QUANTMODELPATH']+'/data/tests/yeast2S/wyr1/'
strain = 'wyr1Glc'
#A base genome-scale model:
BASEfilename = datadir + 'SciMM904wyr1GlcTS.xml'
#Exchange fluxes
3.3 Creating the Reaction Network

Once we have gathered all the needed input files, we can condense all this information into a single sbml file. We will do this using a reaction network from the ReactionNetworks module in the jQMM library. A reaction network contains all information related to the metabolic reaction network used for the simulation:

In [7]:
# Load initial SBML file
reacNet = ReactionNetworks.TSReactionNetwork(BASEfilename)
# Add Measured fluxes
reacNet.loadFluxBounds(FLUXESfilename)
# Add carbon transitions
reacNet.addTransitions(TRANSITIONSfilename, translate2SBML=False)
# Add measured labeling information
reacNet.addLabeling(MSfilename, 'LCMS', MSSTDfilename, minSTD=0.001)
# Add feed labeling information
reacNet.addFeed(FEEDfilename)
# Limit fluxes to 500
reacNet.capFluxBounds(500)
# Create sbml file to store the two-scale model.
# All input files are combined in a tuple of the type:
# (fileName, string of contents)
SBMLfile = ('SciMM904'+strain+'TS.xml', reacNet.write('to-String'))

3.4 Creating the Two-Scale Metabolic Model

The next step is to use the SBML file we just created to create a two-scale model [12] that we will use to calculate fluxes through 2S–13C MFA:

In [9]:
TSmodel = FM.TwoSC13Model(('SciMM904'+strain+'TS.xml', reacNet.write('toString')))}
TSmodel now contains all the information needed to calculate fluxes along with the methods to do this calculation and other analysis [12].

3.5 Calculating Internal Metabolic Fluxes through 2S-13C MFA

We can now use the findFluxesRanges method in TSmodel to find the fluxes that best fit the experimentally obtained metabolite labeling data (MDVs) and find the ranges of fluxes compatible with this labeling data and the corresponding experimental error:

In [10]:
%%time
fluxNames =
TSmodel.reactionNetwork.C13ReacNet.reactionList.getReactionNameList(level=1)
TSresult =
TSmodel.findFluxesRanges(Nrep=30, fluxNames=fluxNames, procString='proc')Wall time: 1.75 hrs

Nrep represents the number of replicates used for the calculation. Since the problem to be solved is a nonconvex problem there is no guarantee that a single run will find the best global fit. Hence, we run 30 independent processes and keep the one that best fits the data. fluxNames indicates the fluxes for which full flux confidence intervals will be calculated. procString indicates that the data (for this case) needs no derivatization correction. For large models, especially with eukaryotic organisms, these flux calculations can be lengthy (on the order of several hours).

We can check how accurate the model is by comparing the measured labeling distribution (MDVs, red) with the one predicted through the computational model (blue) by using the plotExpvsCompLabelFragment method:

In [11]:
TSresult.plotExpvsCompLabelFragment(titleFig='WT-reference')

See Fig. 2.

or by using plotExpvsCompLabelXvsY, if we prefer to see these fits as an X vs. Y plot:

In [12]:
TSresult.plotExpvsCompLabelXvsY(titleFig='WT-reference')

See Fig. 3.

The closeness of the fit data and the experimental data validate the use of this model.

Results are stored in a reaction network inside TSresult and can be explored through the reactionList methods. For example, we can print the fluxes that best fit the data:
In [13]:
TSresult.reactionNetwork.reactionList.printFluxes(brief="-True", names="exchange")

EX_co2_e_: 14.2007023028
EX_glc_e_: -8.5
EX_etoh_e_: 8.5
EX_h2o_e_: 7.11362355138
EX_o2_e_: -4.90795595138
EX_h_e_: 2.72395044862
EX_glyc_e_: 2.45
EX_nh4_e_: -1.3431504
EX_glx_e_: 0.999214848625
EX_ac_e_: 0.45
biomass_SC5_notrace: 0.24
EX_pi_e_: -0.0474479999997
EX_ttdca_e_: 0.03
EX_ddca_e_: 0.02
EX_so4_e_: -0.018552
EX_hdca_e_: 0.0143
EX_ocdca_e_: 0.00193
EX_for_e_: 0.0012408

3.6 Performing an ELVA Consistency Check

The 2S-13C methods assume flux flows from core metabolism to reactions in the periphery, and does not flow back. This assumption of one way flow out of central metabolism stems from the bow-tie structure of cellular metabolism [2], and is further justified by the fact that traditional 13C MFA, using only core metabolism models,
can convincingly explain labeling patterns for amino acids and intracellular metabolites for model organisms [13–16].

ELVA [12] is a test that checks that the error incurred by ignoring noncore reactions is negligible. If the ELVA indicates that the noncore contributions are large, then the core set of reactions which include carbon transition information is expanded. This is repeated until a self-consistent result is found that produces ELVA flux ranges which are small and compatible with the experimental data.

In general, the ELVA optimization problem finds the maximum impact that the unknown inflow metabolite labeling can have on the measured labeling pattern. ELVA determines if the fluxes obtained from the fit are consistent with the two-scale approximation [12]. This extra step sets the method apart from standard $^{13}$C metabolic flux analysis (MFA), which does not check the effect of ignored reactions. ELVA considers only core metabolism with the impact of noncore metabolism being represented through inflow metabolites, dummy metabolites with unfixed labeling since their labeling is, by definition, unknown. Essentially, using the previously obtained genome-scale flux solution as a constraint, ELVA allows the labeling for the inflow metabolites to vary and, for each metabolite with measured labeling, uses each element of the mass distribution vector (MDV) as the objective function to be maximized or minimized. By this method, we obtain a confidence interval that represents the maximum possible difference in labeling that could be attributed to noncore reactions for the current solution. The reactions that contribute an unacceptable amount of uncertainty are then added to the core set and the procedure can be repeated as necessary, until a core set of reactions is found which fully justifies the two-scale approximation. ELVA results can be calculated as follows:

In [14]:
resultELVA = TSmodel.ELVA(TSresult)

ELVA results can be plotted in an x-y graph showing the experimentally determined isotope labeling which defines a confidence interval that represents the maximum possible difference in labeling that could be attributed to noncore reactions for the current solution. If there are reactions that contribute an unacceptable amount of uncertainty they can be added to the core set and the procedure can be repeated as necessary, until a core set of reactions is found which fully justifies the two-scale approximation. In this example, 13 metabolites have large fluctuations as predicted by computational labeling (y-axis error bars).

In [15]:
resultELVA.plotExpvsCompLabelxvsy(titleFig="WT", outputFileNa-
See Fig. 4.

The error bars in the y axis (computational error) are NOT of the same order of magnitude as the experimental error, and therefore we need to rework the set of core reactions until we can satisfy the two-scale assumptions of no flux back into the core network [12]. We therefore add additional reactions to the REACTIONS file, and repeat the two-scale modeling process. We can see from Fig. 4 that there are 13 metabolites for which the fluctuation in computational labeling was large, which are described in more detail in an ELVAfluxReport that is generated by the jQMM.

The file “ELVAfluxReport.txt” is automatically saved to our current working directory /~tests and indicates which metabolites had large fluctuations. The format of the ELVAfluxREPORT file is as follows: first a metabolite is listed, which is then followed by the reactions that flow into it from noncore metabolism, then the reactions which flow into that metabolite from core metabolism.

Fig. 4 ELVA plot that shows an x-y graph of the experimentally determined isotope labeling versus the computationally predicted labeling. The vertical error bars define the computational error that represent the maximum possible difference in labeling that could be attributed to noncore reactions for the current solution. In this example, several reactions display large computational errors, indicating that noncore reactions do significantly contribute to core metabolite labeling [12]. More reactions with carbon transition information need to be added to the core reactions list to remedy this problem and satisfy the two-scale assumptions.
The following ELVA report has been truncated for space, please see the full Jupyter notebook for complete details.

In [16]:
cat ELVAfluxReport.txt
RI3mob_c(0.0104):
    ----> Non Core:
        3MOBtm [ 0.0881793]
    ----> Core:
        IPPS [-0.0246753]
        VALTA [-0.063504]
RIakg_c(0.0019):
    ----> Non Core:
        HSTPT [ 0.015912]
    ----> Core:
        AATA [ 0.068688]
        ALALTA_L [ 0.11842353]
        ASPTA [-0.69541853]
        GLUDyi [-1.1814192]
        ICDHy [ 1.230851]
        ILETA [ 0.046248]
        LEUTA [ 0.071136]
        PHETA1 [ 0.032136]
        PSERT [ 0.1367712]
        SACCD2 [ 0.068688]
        TYRTAi [ 0.02448]
        VALTA [ 0.063504]
RIhdca_c(0.0002):
    ----> Non Core:
        FACOAL160 [ 0.01623]
        HDCAt [-0.0143]
    ----> Core:
        FAS180 [-0.00193]
RIpyr_c(0.0008):
    ----> Non Core:
        ANS [ 0.006816]
    ----> Core:
        AGTi [ 0.00831153]
        ALALTA_L [-0.11842353]
        PC [-2.9406824]
        PYK [ 12.82902984]
        PYRDC [-9.54111443]
        PYRt2m [-0.24393701]
RO3mob_m(0.0104):
    ----> Non Core:
        3MOBtm [-0.0881793]
    ----> Core:
        DHAD1m [ 0.13464]
        IPPSm [-0.0464607]
See Note 6 for metabolite abbreviations. As a result of the ELVA report file which indicates that metabolites akg_c, co2_c, co2_m, fum_c, g3p_c, pyr_c, accoa_m, asp_L_c, f6p_c, g6p_c, glu_L_c, glx_c, and glyc3p_c produce large computational errors, we have added the reactions for Valine and Isoleucine synthesis and reactions 3C4MOPtm, 3MOBtm, OMCDCm to the REACTIONS file containing carbon transitions for core reactions. After expanding the core set of reactions we now need to rerun the two-scale $^{13}$C MFA with the corrected core set of reactions.

In [17]:
datadir = os.environ[‘QUANTMODELPATH’]+’/data/tests/yeast2S/wyr1/
strain =’wyr1Glc’
#A base genome-scale model:
BASEfilename = datadir + ‘SciMM904wyr1GlcTS.xml’
#Exchange fluxes
FLUXESfilename = datadir + ‘FLUX’+strain+’’.txt’
#Corrected REACTIONS file with an expanded core set of reactions
#Transition information
TRANSITIONSfilename = datadir + ‘REACTIONS’+strain+’-fixed.txt’
#Metabolite labeling
MSfilename = datadir + ‘LCMS’+strain+’’.txt’
#Metabolite labeling error
MSSTDfilename = datadir + ‘LCMSerr’+strain+’’.txt’
#Feed labeling
FEEDfilename = datadir + ‘FEED’+strain+’’.txt’

3.6.1 Re-Creating the New Reaction Network for Fixed Reactions File

Now that we have gathered all the needed input files for recalculating fluxes with the expanded set of core reactions, we again condense all this information into a single SBML file. We will do this using a reaction network from the ReactionNetworks module in the jQMM library. A reaction network contains all information related to the metabolic reaction network used for the simulation:

In [21]:
# Load initial SBML file
reactNet = ReactionNetworks.TSReactionNetwork(BASEfilename)
# Add Measured fluxes
reactNet.loadFluxBounds(FLUXESfilename)
# Add carbon transitions
reactNet.addTransitions(TRANSITIONSfilename, translate2SBML=False)
# Add measured labeling information
reactNet.addLabeling(MSfilename, ‘LCMS’, MSSTDfilename,
# Add feed labeling information
reacNet.addFeed(FEEDfilename)

# Limit fluxes to 500
reacNet.capFluxBounds(500)

# Create sbml file to store the two-scale model.
# All input files are combined in a tuple of the type:
# (fileName, string of contents)
SBMLfile = ('SciMM904'+strain+'TS.xml', reacNet.write('toString'))

## 3.6.2 Re-Creating the Two-Scale Metabolic Model

We again use the SBML file we just created to create a two-scale model [12] that we will use to calculate fluxes through 2S-\textsuperscript{13}C MFA:

In [22]:
TSmodel = FM.TwoSC13Model(('SciMM904'+strain+'TS.xml', reacNet.write('toString')))

TSmodel now contains all the information needed to calculate fluxes along with the methods to do this calculation and other analysis [12].

## 3.6.3 Recalculating Internal Metabolic Fluxes Through 2S-\textsuperscript{13}C MFA

We can now use the \texttt{findFluxesRanges} method in \textit{TSmodel} to find the fluxes that best fit the experimentally obtained metabolite labeling data (MDVs) and find the ranges of fluxes compatible with this labeling data and the corresponding experimental error:

In [23]:
%%time
fluxNames =
TSmodel.reactionNetwork.C13ReacNet.reactionList.getReactionNameList(level=1)
TSresult =
TSmodel.findFluxesRanges(Nrep=30, fluxNames=fluxNames, proc=String='proc')

Again, \textit{Nrep} represents the number of replicates used for the calculation. Since the problem to be solved is a nonconvex problem there is no guarantee that a single run will find the best global fit. Hence, we run 30 independent processes and keep the one that best fits the data.

We can now explore the new results through the reactionList methods. For example, we can print some of the new fluxes:

In [24]:
TSresult.reactionNetwork.reactionList.printFluxes(brief="-
Again, we test to make sure that the assumptions used in 2S$^{13}$C MFA hold using ELVA.

In [25]:
resultELVA = TSmodel.ELVA(TSresult)

We now plot ELVA results as an x-y graph.

In [26]:
resultELVA.plotExpvsCompLabelxvsys(titleFig="WT",outputFileName="ELVAComparisonWT.txt",save="ELVA-W.eps")

See Fig. 5.

The error bars in the y-axis (computational error) are now of the same order of magnitude as the experimental error (x-axis), which implies that our carbon reactions for the core of metabolism now satisfy the two-scale model assumptions [12]. We now have biophysical consistency in the calculated fluxes and can move on to analyzing and visualizing fluxes. If a metabolite still had large fluctuations at this point in the analysis we would need to add more reactions to the core set and repeat until fluctuations in the ELVA plot were small.

3.7 Visualizing Flux Profiles

Once the metabolic fluxes have been calculated they can be understood visually via their plotting on a flux map. In the jQMM library fluxes can be plotted via the commands:

In [27]:
TSresult.drawFluxes('wt.svg',svgInFileName='SciMM904TKs.svg',

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where 'SciMM904TKs.svg' is the base flux map contained in the jQMM library [10]. The \texttt{drawFluxes()} method will indicate the flux magnitude on the base flux map in two ways: visually by changing the flux arrow width according to the flux magnitude through a reaction, and also numerically by showing the net flux value (with confidence intervals) next to the reaction:

The command 'SVG' displays the flux map in the Jupyter notebook which is contained in the svg file which was saved locally.

\begin{verbatim}
In [28]:
SVG(filename='wt.svg')
Out[28]:
\end{verbatim}

See Figs. 6a and b.

Fluxes can also be displayed in a more sophisticated manner using the web browser-based flux plotting library Arrowland (http://public-arrowland.jbei.org).
3.8 Predicting Which Genes to Knockout Using MoMA and ROOM

So far, we have used targeted metabolomic data from $^{13}$C labeling experiments to infer the underlying internal metabolic fluxes in the cell. We will now use these inferred fluxes along with two COBRA methods to predict which genes to knock out in order to increase the production of ethanol. These methods are MoMA (Minimization of Metabolic Adjustment [18]) and ROOM (Regulatory On/Off Minimization [19]). MoMA provides an approximate solution for a sub-optimal growth flux state after a knockout has been made to an organism, which is nearest in flux distribution to the unperturbed state. On the other hand, ROOM aims to

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Fig. 6 a) Entire flux map of SciMM904TKs.svg, which displays some of the key 2S-$^{13}$C metabolic fluxes that are calculated from the iMM904 model for S. cerevisiae. Reactions in the green box are those which are located in the mitochondria. b) A zoomed-in plot of these fluxes focused on the upper glycolysis as calculated by the jQMM library using the SciMM904TKs.svg base flux map for a wild type strain of S. cerevisiae from Ghosh et al. [8]. This map can be interactively studied using Arrowland (https://publicarrowland.jbei.org/, wry1Glc). Below each reaction is a single number in parenthesis which indicates the flux value which best fits the experimental data, while the two numbers below the best fit flux represent minimum and maximum fluxes compatible with the MDVs provided by the user.
minimize the number of significant flux changes with respect to the wild type to predict resultant fluxes from a knockout of a reaction.

First, we need to specify flexible flux bounds for the final solution in order to avoid biasing the knockout predictions:

In [29]:
reactionNetwork = copy.deepcopy(TSmodel.reactionNetwork)
reactionNetwork.changeFluxBounds('GLCt1', core.fluxBounds (0,10,False)[1])
reactionNetwork.changeFluxBounds('EX_glc_e_', core.fluxBounds (-10,-0,True,True)[1])
reactionNetwork.changeFluxBounds('biomass_SC5_notrace', core.
fluxBounds( 0,0.25,False)[1])
reactionNetwork.changeFluxBounds('EX_ac_e_', core.fluxBounds (0,0.5,True,True)[1])
reactionNetwork.changeFluxBounds('EX_etoh_e_', core.fluxBounds (0,10,True,True)[1])
Then we can calculate the base flux profiles for MoMA and ROOM:

In [30]:
TSresult = TSmodel.findFluxesStds(Nrep=30,Nrand=10)

We then specify a list of reactions to knock out and determine resultant fluxes.

In [31]:
KOs = ['PYRt2m','RPI']

For reference, we determine the amount of ethanol production in the base WT strain:

In [32]:
fluxDict = TSresult.reactionNetwork.reactionList.getReactionDictionary()
   print 'predicted ethanol flux = ',fluxDict['EX_etoh_e_'].flux.net.best
   predicted ethanol flux = 8.5

This implies that before any reaction knockouts that the base strain is releasing 8.5 mmol/gdw/h of ethanol into the environment.

Perform MOMA and ROOM predictions over the set of specified knockouts:

In [33]:
for KO in KOs:
   print KO,'knockout:'
   TS13CMOMA = predictions.predict(TSresult, KO, 'MOMA', reactionNetwork.getSBMLString())
   TS13CROOM = predictions.predict(TSresult, KO, 'ROOM', reactionNetwork.getSBMLString())
   fluxDict =
   TS13CMOMA.reactionNetwork.reactionList.getReactionDictionary()
   print ' MoMA predicted ethanol flux = ',fluxDict['EX_etoh_e_'].flux.net.best
   fluxDict =
   TS13CROOM.reactionNetwork.reactionList.getReactionDictionary()
   print ' ROOM predicted ethanol flux = ',fluxDict['EX_etoh_e_'].flux.net.best
   print '-------------------'
   print ''PYRt2m knockout:
   MoMA predicted ethanol flux = 8.48554566176
   ROOM predicted ethanol flux = 8.756
   -------------------RPI knockout:
   MoMA predicted ethanol flux = 8.15179595791
   ROOM predicted ethanol flux = 8.244
   -------------------
As can be observed, knocking out the PYRt2m reaction is predicted to increase ethanol production by 3.0% according to the ROOM methodology and decrease ethanol production by less than 1% when using the MoMA methodology. As can be seen with an RPI knockout, both MoMA and ROOM predict a decline in ethanol production.

4 Notes

1. Self-installation of the jQMM can be achieved by first downloading the jQMM library from https://github.com/JBEI/jqmm and unpacking the downloaded file. For reproducibility we recommend that the jQMM be used through an interactive python (iPython) notebook server called Jupyter Notebook (http://jupyter.org/) which is a web application that allows for the interactive execution, visualization, and documentation of python code. This integrated computing format greatly enhances repeatability and reproducibility of results within the computational modeling community. Next, usage of the jQMM library can begin by logging into the local Jupyter server using a web browser and navigating to the jQMM folder, and then running some of the example Jupyter notebooks contained within the jQMM. If desired, the Jupyter server can be run directly from the command line within a linux terminal via the command “jupyter notebook”. Both GAMS and CONOPT licenses are needed for the jQMM to be fully functional and must be purchased separately.

2. If choosing to run the jQMM docker container on a web-based platform one will avoid the upfront costs of having to purchase an expensive high performance server system, but over the lifetime of a purchased server it may be more inexpensive than a web-based solution (depending on intended usage intensity). Pricing for cloud computing services is typically based on usage, which allows for the ability to automatically adjust the usage of computational services to as much or as little as needed, at any time. When choosing a type of instance to use on a cloud based system we recommend instances which focus on computational speed and not RAM size or disk drive access speed. On the AWS, this includes the instances of type M4 and C4, with the C4 instance currently featuring the highest performing processors and the lowest price/compute performance ratio offered by AWS (circa 2016).
3. Proper quality control of MDV data is crucial to proper determination of fluxes. Experiments should be designed to include internal controls, and should include several biological and technical replicates.

4. The use of labeled glucose of the form U-\textsuperscript{13}C glucose (universal labeling of carbon atoms) together with 1-\textsuperscript{13}C glucose (first carbon atom only is labeled) in an 20:80 ratio is convenient because the 1-\textsuperscript{13}C glucose provides resolution on the activity of the pentose phosphate cycle, while the U-\textsuperscript{13}C glucose provides insight into the activity of reactions which mix carbon backbones of substrates. The pentose phosphate pathway loses the first labeled carbon as CO\textsubscript{2}, while other reactions within central metabolism that mix carbon backbones can be resolved by having a combination of U-\textsuperscript{13}C and 1-\textsuperscript{13}C glucose present.

5. It is not necessary to follow this naming convention of using uppercase for metabolites and lowercase for atom transitions. The parentheses delimit the start and end of each atom transition. Any alphabetic, numeric, or underscore character comprising the regular expression [a-zA-Z0-9] can be included in the metabolite names and atom transitions.

6. Metabolite abbreviations used:
   - (a) akg, 2-Oxoglutarate,
   - (b) co2, carbon dioxide,
   - (c) fum, fumarate,
   - (d) g3p, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate,
   - (e) pyr, pyruvate,
   - (f) accoa, acetyl-CoA,
   - (g) asp, aspartate,
   - (h) f6p, D-fructose 6-phosphate,
   - (i) g6p, D-glucose 6-phosphate,
   - (j) glu, glutamate,
   - (k) glx, glyoxylate,
   - (l) glyc3p, glycerol 3-phosphate,
   - (m) glc-D, glucose,
   - (n) fdp, D-fructose 1,6-bisphosphate,
   - (o) g3p, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate,
   - (p) 3mob, 3-methyl-2-oxobutanoate,
   - (q) hdca, hexadecanoate.

7. Reactions that must be specified in the REACTIONS.txt file, in terms of carbon atom transition information, are those that utilize metabolites for which \textsuperscript{13}C isotopolog data are input into the jQMM library and for reactions which are considered to be
at the core of the metabolic network. Finally, this file also specifies a metabolite which serves as the $^{13}$C carbon source (typically glucose, i.e., \texttt{glcD[e]}, via the \texttt{&SOURCE} command) and input reactions which bring this $^{13}$C labeled metabolite into the cell.

8. The number (1.5\% in our example FLUX.txt file) at the beginning of a feed definition specifies the total glucose percentage of the initial cell culture. The percentage of 1-C glucose, which has its first carbon atom labeled, is specified next, together with the percentage of U glucose, which is uniformly labeled among all the glucose carbon atoms, and finally the percentage of normal glucose which is completely unlabeled (UN).

9. Free open-source software tools, such as the jQMM, provide for universal accessibility and unlimited modification and customization. Overall, we wish that the community can also support the jQMM’s further development by submitting bug fixes to the github repo (https://github.com/JBEI/jqmm) and including any functional extensions that different research groups have achieved. Community driven development will help in the adoption of fluxomics tools like the jQMM which are free, flexible, and cater to the needs of the metabolic engineering community.

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