1 **Cysteine depletion triggers adipose tissue thermogenesis and weight-loss.**

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Abstract

28 Dietary interventions such as caloric restriction $(CR)^1$ and methionine restriction² that prolong lifespan induce the 'browning' of white adipose tissue (WAT), an adaptive metabolic response that increases heat production to maintain health^{3,4}. However, how diet influences adipose browning and metabolic health is unclear. Here, we identified that weight-loss induced by CR in 32 humans⁵ reduces cysteine concentration in WAT suggesting depletion of this amino-acid may be involved in metabolic benefits of CR. To investigate the role of cysteine on organismal metabolism, we created a cysteine-deficiency mouse model in which dietary cysteine was 35 eliminated and cystathionine γ-lyase $(CTH)⁶$, the enzyme that synthesizes cysteine was conditionally deleted. Using this animal model, we found that systemic cysteine-depletion causes drastic weight-loss with increased fat utilization and browning of adipose tissue. The restoration of dietary cysteine in cysteine-deficient mice rescued weight loss together with reversal of adipose browning and increased food-intake in an on-demand fashion. Mechanistically, cysteine deficiency induced browning and weight loss is dependent on sympathetic nervous system derived noradrenaline signaling via β3-adrenergic-receptors and does not require UCP1. Therapeutically, in high-fat diet fed obese mice, one week of cysteine-deficiency caused 30% weight-loss and reversed inflammation. These findings thus establish that cysteine is essential for organismal metabolism as removal of cysteine in the host triggers adipose browning and rapid weight loss.

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50 **Main**

51 The Comprehensive Assessment of Long-term Effects of Reducing Intake of Energy (CALERIE-52 II) clinical trial in healthy adults demonstrated that a simple 14% reduction of calories for two 53 years without any specific dietary prescription to alter macronutrient intake or meal timings can 54 reprogram the immunometabolic axis to promote healthspan^{5,7,8}. Harnessing the pathways engaged 55 by CR in humans may expand the current armament of therapeutics against metabolic and immune 56 dysfunction. Induction of negative energy balance and resultant activation of mitochondrial fatty 57 acid oxidation by CR is thought to underlie some of its beneficial effects on healthspan⁵. However, 58 it has also been suggested that CR-induced metabolic effects may be due to decreased protein 59 intake in food-restricted animal models $9,10$. Adding back individual amino acids to calorie-60 restricted *Drosophila* abolished the longevity effects, and traced to the limitation of methionine, 61 an important node for lifespan extension¹⁰. Indeed, methionine restriction (MR) in rodents 62 increases lifespan¹¹ with enhanced insulin sensitivity, adipose tissue thermogenesis, and 63 mitochondrial fatty acid oxidation². Surprisingly, in long-lived *Drosophila* fed an MR diet, adding 64 back methionine did not rescue the pro-longevity effect of diet, and it was hypothesized that 65 activation of the methionine cycle may impact longevity¹⁰. Commercial MR diets contain 0.17% 66 methionine compared to normal levels of 0.86%, but notably, the MR diets also lack cystine^{12, 13}, 67 another sulfur-containing amino acid (SAA), which is a key substrate for protein synthesis, 68 including synthesis of glutathione, taurine and iron-sulfur clusters^{6,14}. Interestingly, in rats, MR-69 induced anti-adiposity and pro-metabolic effects, including reduction of leptin, insulin, IGF1, and 70 elevation of adiponectin, were reversed when animals were supplemented with cysteine in the 71 diet¹⁵. Furthermore, cysteine supplementation in MR rats did not restore low methionine, 72 suggesting no increase in the methionine cycle¹⁵, where homocysteine is converted into methionine

73 via the enzyme betaine-homocysteine S-methyltransferase $(BHMT)^6$. The existence of transsulfuration (TSP) in mammals indicates that in case of dietary cysteine scarcity, the host shuttles homocysteine from the methionine cycle via the production of cystathionine, which is then 76 hydrolyzed into cysteine by the enzyme cystathionine γ -lyase (CTH)^{6,16}. Cysteine is an ancient molecule that evolved to allow early life to transition from anoxic hydrothermal vents into 78 . oxidizing cooler environment^{17,18}. Thus, cysteine, the only thiol-containing proteinogenic amino acid, is essential for disulfide bond formation, and redox signaling, including nucleophilic 80 . catalysis^{6,16}. It remains unclear if cysteine specifically controls organismal metabolism and whether sustained CR in healthy humans can help understand the fundamental relationship between energy balance and sulfur-containing amino acid homeostasis pathways that converge to improve healthspan and lifespan.

CR in humans reduces adipose tissue cysteine.

 Adipose tissue regulates organismal metabolism by orchestrating inter-organ communication 87 required for healthy longevity. To study the mechanisms that drive CR's beneficial effects on human metabolism, we conducted an unbiased metabolomics analysis of the subcutaneous adipose tissue (SFAT) of participants in the CALERIE-II trial at baseline and one year after 15% achieved $\,$ CR and weight loss^{5,7, 8}. The PLSDA analyses of abdominal SFAT biopsies revealed that one year of mild sustained CR significantly altered the adipose tissue metabolome (Fig. 1a). The unbiased metabolite sets enrichment analyses demonstrated significant increases in cysteine, methionine, and taurine metabolism, which indicates rewiring of cysteine metabolism that involves transsulfuration pathway (TSP) (Fig. 1b, c). To investigate the role of TSP in human CR, we re-95 analyzed our previously reported RNA sequencing data of humans that underwent $CR^{5,7}$. These

 analyses revealed that compared to baseline, one and two years of CR in humans increased the adipose expression of *CTH* (Fig. 1d) with a concomitant reduction in the expression of *BHMT* (Fig. 1e) suggesting reduction in methionine cycle and shift towards TSP (Fig. 1c). Interestingly, prior studies have found that long-lived rodents upregulate metabolites in TSP that generates 100 cysteine from methionine^{19,20}. Consistent with our findings in human CR, data from multiple lifespan-extending interventions in rodents identified upregulation of CTH as a common signature 102 or potential biomarker of longevity²¹.

 Metabolomic analyses revealed that despite an increase in *CTH* expression post-CR, adipose cysteine levels were significantly reduced upon CR (Fig. 1f) with no change in homocysteine and cystathionine (Extended Data Fig 1a). Consistent with the reduced expression of *BHMT*, there was a decline in concentration of dimethylglycine (DMG) (Fig. 1f). CR caused a reduction in cysteine derived metabolites, γ-glutamyl-cysteine (γ-Glu-Cys), glutathione (GSH), and cysteinylglycine (Cys-Gly) (Fig. 1g). Collectively, these results suggests that CR in humans reduces enzymes and metabolites that feed into methionine cycle and lowers cysteine (Fig. 1c).

Cysteine depletion causes lethal weight loss in mice.

 Cysteine is thought to be biochemically irreplaceable because methionine, the other sole proteinogenic SAA, lacks a thiol group and hence cannot form complexes with metals to control 113 redox chemistry²². To determine whether cysteine is required for survival and organismal metabolism, we created a loss of function model where cysteine becomes an essential amino acid 115 requiring acquisition from the diet by deletion of CTH (*Cth^{-/-}* mice) (Fig. 1h and Extended data 116 Fig. 1b). Cysteine deficiency was thus induced by feeding adult *Cth^{-/-}* mice a custom amino acid diet that only lacks cystine (CysF diet), while control mice were fed an isocaloric diet that contained cystine (CTRL diet) (Fig. 1h). Utilizing this model, we found that mice with cysteine

deficiency rapidly lost \sim 25-30% body weight within 1 week compared to littermate *Cth*^{+/+} mice fed a CysF diet or *Cth*-/- fed a control diet (Fig. 1i, Extended data Fig. 1b). Upon clinical examination of the cysteine deficient mice, 30% weight loss is considered a moribund state that required euthanasia. The weight loss in mice lacking CTH and cystine in the diet was associated with significant fat mass loss relative to lean mass (Extended data Fig. 1c) in cysteine-deficient animals. Pair feeding of cysteine-replete mice with cysteine depleted diet fed animals produced similar weight-loss (Extended data Fig. 1e). This rapid weight loss is not due to malaise or 126 behavioral alteration, as *Cth^{-/-}CysF* mice displayed normal activity and a slight reduction in food intake in the first 2 days after CysF diet switch that was not significantly different (Extended data Fig. 1f and link of video file of cage activity). The *Cth* deficient mice on the control diet were indistinguishable from control littermates in parameters indicative of health, they displayed higher nest building and no change in grip strength, gait, ledge test, hindlimb clasping, and displayed no 131 clinical kyphosis (Extended data Fig. 1g, h). Furthermore, compared to *Cth^{-/-}* mice on control diet, 132 the analyses of liver, heart, lungs, and kidneys of *Cth^{-/-}CysF* mice did not reveal pathological lesions indicative of tissue dysfunction (Extended data Fig. 1i). Notably, restoration of up to 75% 134 cysteine levels in the diet of Cth^{-1} CysF mice that were undergoing weight-loss was sufficient to completely rescue the body weight over three weight-loss cysteine depletion cycles, demonstrating the specificity and essentiality of cysteine for the organism (Fig. 1j).

 To identify systemic changes in metabolites upon cysteine deficiency, we conducted serum and adipose tissue metabolomics analyses. Compared to *Cth-*deficient mice fed a normal diet, the 139 Cth^{-/-} CysF mice had reduced cystine levels, suggesting that cysteine deficiency is maintained by a reduction in systemic cystine levels (Fig. 1k). Cysteine depletion also elevated the cystathionine and L-serine levels, compared to control diet fed animals (Fig. 1k). Other sulfur amino acid (SAA)

 metabolites such as methionine, homocysteine (HCys) and glutamic acid were not significantly changed (Extended data Fig. 1j). Taurine levels in the Cth deficient mice on cysteine free diet also did not change compared to control animals (data not shown). Interestingly, the gamma-glutamyl peptide analogs of cysteine and GSH such as 2-aminobutyric acid (2AB) and ophthalmic acid (OA or γglutamyl-2AminobutyrylGlycine) were increased in the serum of cysteine deficient mice (Fig. 1k). Notably, in subcutaneous adipose tissue, cysteine deficiency did not affect glutathione (GSH) (Extended data Fig. 1k) but lowered oxidized GSH (GSSG) concentration, a key downstream 149 product derived from cysteine in TSP (Fig. 11, m). The increase in γ -glutamyl peptides (2AB and OA) in cysteine-limiting conditions *in vivo* is consistent with studies that show that GCLC can synthesize γglutamyl-2AminobutyrylGlycine in a GSH independent manner and prevents 152 ferroptosis by lowering glutamate generated oxidative stress²³. OA is a GSH analog in which the [cysteine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cysteine) group is replaced by L-2-aminobutyrate (2AB). 2oxobutyrate is the canonical substrate for 2AB in cysteine-replete conditions such that 2AB is produced from 2OB and glutamate in the 155 presence of aminotransferases²⁴. Thus, the increase in 2AB despite the removal of cysteine in diet 156 could be due to an alternative pathway of deamination of threonine into $2AB^{25}$. Indeed, L- threonine levels are increased upon cysteine depletion in mice (Fig. 1m). Prior studies found that 158 GSH can inhibit glutamate cysteine ligase $(GCLC)^{26,27}$ regulating its production by a feedback mechanism. Thus, the removal of cysteine and reduction of GSH may release this disinhibition (Fig 1l). Consistent with this hypothesis and elevated OA levels, *Gclc* and *Gss* expression were increased in cysteine-starved mice (Fig. 1n). The increased OA production vs GSH production reveals adaptive changes induced by systemic cysteine deficiency. Cysteine is also required for 163 Fe-S clusters in numerous proteins^{18,28}. We found that cystine-depletion upregulates *Bola3* (Fig. 1o) and *Isca1* gene expression in adipose tissue without affecting *Nfs1* (Extended data Fig. 1l),

165 which are implicated in FeS cluster formation²⁸. Consistent with the association between increased *Bola3* and adipose browning in a cysteine-deficient state, adipose-specific deletion of *Bola3* 167 decreases EE and increases adiposity in mice upon aging²⁹. The impact of cysteine starvation on Fe-S cluster formation and function requires further studies. The *in vivo* spin trapping and electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy revealed that cysteine deficiency significantly increased lipid-derived radicals in BAT with undetectable signals in WAT (Fig 1p, Extended Data $\,$ 1m). Also, given aconitase is regulated by reversible oxidation of $(4Fe-4S)^{2+}$ and cysteine residues, depletion of cysteine also reduced aconitase activity in SFAT with no change in BAT (Fig1q). Together, these data demonstrate that removing cysteine causes lethal weight loss and induces adaptive changes in organismal metabolism, including non-canonical activation of GCLC elevated γ -glutamyl peptides and, GSSG depletion (Fig. 11).

Cysteine elimination drives adipose tissue browning.

 The decrease in fat mass during cysteine deficiency is driven by loss of all major fat depots including subcutaneous fat (SFAT), visceral epididymal/ovarian adipose fat (VFAT), and brown adipose tissue (BAT) (Extended data Fig. 2a). Histological analyses revealed that this reduction in adipose tissue size is associated with transformation of white adipose depots into a BAT-like appearance, with the formation of multilocular adipocytes, enlarged nuclei, and high UCP1 182 expression, a phenomenon known as 'browning' that increases thermogenesis^{3,4} (Fig. 2a, b Extended data Fig. 2b). Interestingly, the SFAT browning in cysteine-deficient mice was reduced upon cysteine-restoration in diet (Fig. 2b). Similar response was observed in visceral fat (VFAT) (Extended data 2b). Consistent with the browning of SFAT, the cysteine-deficient animals show significantly increased expression of UCP1 (Fig 2c) and thermogenic marker genes (Fig. 2d). The UCP1 and ATGL induction upon cysteine-deficiency in adipose tissue was reversed by cysteine-

 repletion (Fig. 2c). Consistent with 30% weight-loss at day 5, the glycerol concentrations were depleted in the sera of cysteine-deficient mice and were restored by cysteine-repletion induced weight regain (Extended data Fig. 2c). The differentiation of Cth-deficient preadipocytes to mature adipocytes and subsequent exposure to cysteine-free media did not affect thermogenic genes or UCP1, suggesting that a non-cell autonomous mechanism may control adipocyte browning (Extended data Fig. 2d).

 We next investigate whether energy absorption, energy-intake or energy expenditure contributes to the cysteine-depletion induced weight-loss. Analysis of energy absorption by fecal bomb calorimetry revealed no significant difference in control and cysteine-deficient mice (Fig. 2e). Moreover, although the cumulative food intake over 5 days of weight loss was not statistically different, the cumulative food intake in the first 2 days (Extended data Fig. 2d) after switching to 199 CysF diet was lower ($p < 0.05$) which may contribute to early weight loss. Calculation of the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) or representation of the data as regression between energy 201 expenditure and body mass^{5,7}, demonstrated that EE is increased in cysteine deficient animals during the dark cycle (Fig. 2g) and not in the light cycle (Extended data Fig. 2f, g). In addition, there was no difference in locomotor activity between control or cysteine-deficient mice (Extended data Fig. 2h), suggesting cysteine depletion increases EE. Moreover, the increase in EE was supported by increased fat utilization, as the respiratory exchange ratio (RER) in cysteine-deficient animals was significantly reduced (Extended data Fig. 2i, j).

 We next determined the specificity of cysteine on mechanisms that may contribute to rapid weight loss. Interestingly, weight-regain post cysteine repletion significantly reversed adipose- browning (Fig 2b, Extended data Fig. 2b) and normalized the glycerol, ATGL and UCP1 levels in adipose tissue. (Fig. 2c). Furthermore, cysteine replacement also reversed the cysteine-deficiency induced reduction in RER, suggesting the restoration of organismal metabolism to carbohydrate utilization instead of fatty acid oxidation (Fig. 2h, i). Surprisingly, cysteine repletion significantly increased food intake for the first two days, suggesting that animals sense cysteine in diet and compensate via hyperphagia to restore bodyweight setpoint (Fig. 2j). The EE upon cysteine- replacement was not significantly different during weight rebound (Fig. 2k). These data suggest that cysteine replacement can rapidly reverse weight loss by mechanisms that involve reduced adipose browning, decreased fat utilization as well as increased energy intake.

 We conducted the RNA-sequencing of the major adipose depots to investigate the mechanisms that control adipose tissue browning and associated remodeling. As displayed by the heatmap, cysteine deficiency profoundly alters the transcriptome of adipose tissue (Extended data 221 Fig. 2k). Gene set enrichment analysis comparing $Ch^{-/-}$ CTRL vs $Ch^{-/-}$ CysF identified that the top downregulated pathways are involved in the extracellular matrix and collagen deposition, highlighting the broad remodeling of the adipose tissue (Extended data Fig. 2l). In addition, multiple metabolic pathways appear to be regulated by cysteine deficiency within the SFAT with 'respiratory electron transport chain and heat production' as the top pathway induced during cysteine deficiency (Extended data Fig. 2l). Indeed, numerous genes identified by the 'thermogenesis' GO-term pathway such as *Ucp1, Cidea, Cox7a1, Cox8b, Dio2, Eva1, Pgc1, Elovl3*, and *Slc27a2*, are differentially expressed comparing *Cth*^{+/+} CysF and *Cth*^{-/-} CysF in the SFAT (Extended data Fig. 2m). These results demonstrate that cysteine depletion activates the thermogenic transcriptional program.

 To investigate the cellular basis of adipose tissue remodeling during cysteine deficiency, we isolated stromal vascular fraction (SVF) by enzymatic digestion and conducted single-cell 233 RNA sequencing of SFAT. We isolated SVF cells from $Cth^{+/+}$ and $Cth^{-/-}$ fed CTRL or CysF diet 234 with each sample pooled from 4 animals (Extended data Fig. 3a). A total of 4,666 cells in *Cth^{+/+}* CTRL; 5,658 cells in $Ch^{+/+}$ CysF; 4,756 cells in $Ch^{/-}$ CTRL; and 3,786 cells in $Ch^{/-}$ CysF were 236 analyzed for scRNA-seq (Extended data Fig. 3b). Consistent with prior results^{30,31}, the unbiased 237 clustering revealed 15 distinct cell populations including $\alpha\beta$ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells, ILC2s, and NK T 238 cells, B cells, reticulocytes, mesothelial-like cells, Schwann cells, and several myeloid clusters 239 (Extended data Fig. 3b-d). Comparison of *Cth^{-/-}* CysF with other groups revealed dramatic changes 240 in cellular composition (Fig. 2l). Particularly, loss of clusters 0, 1, and 2 were apparent upon 241 cysteine deficiency (Fig. 2l). Furthermore, these clusters contained the highest numbers of 242 differentially expressed genes induced by β3-adrenergic receptor agonist CL-316243³² (Extended 243 data Fig. 3e), highlighting them as important cell populations in regulating the effects of cysteine 244 deficiency. By expression of *Pdgfra*, we identified these clusters as adipocyte progenitors (Fig. 245 2h). We conducted a pseudo-time analysis to place these clusters on a trajectory and illuminate 246 their cell lineage. Trajectory analysis based on pseudo-time suggested that cluster 2 may 247 differentiate into two separate preadipocyte clusters, clusters 0 and 1 (Fig. 2m). *Cth^{-/-}* CysF animals 248 proportionally lost Clusters 0 and 1, while relatively maintaining cluster 2 compared to the other 249 groups (Fig. 2m), suggesting that more differentiated preadipocytes are mobilized during cysteine 250 deficiency. Indeed, cluster 2 expressed *Dpp4*, an early progenitor marker that has been shown to 251 give rise to different committed preadipoctyes³³ (Extended data Fig. 3f). Cluster 0 was enriched 252 for both *Icam1* and *F3*, which are expressed by committed adipogenic, and antiadipogenic 253 preadipocytes, respectively ^{30,33} (Extended data Fig. 3g, h). *Cd9*, a fibrogenic marker in 254 preadipocytes ^{32,34}, along with the collagen gene, *Col5a3*, were broadly expressed across clusters 255 0 and 1, and was specifically lost by day 4 of inducing cysteine deficiency (Extended data Fig. 256 3g). The loss of these preadipocyte clusters were orthogonally validated by FACS (Extended data

 Fig. 3h). We next sought to identify beige/brown adipocyte precursors in our scRNA-seq dataset to understand whether there was an increased commitment towards brown adipocytes. Clearly, *Tagln,* or Sm22, which has been previously described in beige adipocytes^{35,36}, is specifically expressed by a subset of cells in cluster 1 (Extended data Fig. 3g). Interestingly, these *Tagln*- expressing cells are lost with cysteine deficiency (Fig. 2i). Given the strong browning phenotype observed on day 6, it is possible that these cells become mobilized and differentiate early on during cysteine deficiency, leading to the absence of these cells as mature adipocytes are not captured within the SVF. Indeed, when we performed pathways analysis on cluster1, comparing gene 265 expression of *Cth^{-/-}* CysF with *Cth^{-/-}* CTRL, we found that one of the top upregulated pathways was 'adipogenesis' (Extended data Fig. 3i). Furthermore, examination of the expression of stem associated markers and mature adipocyte markers in the adipocyte progenitor clusters revealed a clear downregulation of stem markers and an increase in mature adipocyte markers, suggesting that cysteine deficiency was driving the maturation of progenitor cells (Fig. 2m and Extended data Fig. 3j). However, given the robust transformation of the adipose tissue during cysteine deficiency towards browning, it is unlikely that mobilization of brown precursors alone is mediating this response. Prior studies have found that in certain models, beige adipocytes can originate from pre-273 existing white adipocytes, in addition to de-novo adipogenesis³⁷. The potential role of cysteine in the trans-differentiation of mature white adipocytes into brown-like adipocytes needs to be further examined using future lineage-tracking studies.

Cysteine depletion-induced FGF21 is partially required for weight loss.

 To determine the mechanism of adipose thermogenesis caused by cysteine starvation, we next investigated the processes upstream of increased fatty acid oxidation. We measured the lipolysis regulators pHSL and ATGL and found that cysteine deficiency increases ATGL expression

 without consistently affecting pHSL levels (Fig. 3a, Extended data Fig. 4a). ATGL preferentially catalyzes the first step of triglyceride hydrolysis whereas HSL has a much broader range of 282 substrates with a preference for diacylglycerols and cholesteryl esters³⁸. Given a dramatic browning response in WAT post-cysteine deficiency, the increased ATGL is consistent with prior work that shows BAT relies heavily on the action of ATGL to mobilize lipid substrates for 285 thermogenesis³⁹. This is further supported by a decrease in most lipid species, particularly triglycerides and diacylglycerol in the BAT of cysteine deficient mice (Fig. 3b, Extended data Fig. 4b, c). Considering dramatic adipose tissue browning and elevated UCP1 expression upon cysteine starvation, we next sought to investigate whether this is a homeostatic response to defend core- body temperature (CBT) or if temperature set-point is perturbed to causes hyperthermia. We measured core body temperature utilizing loggers surgically implanted into the peritoneal cavity 291 in *Cth^{-/-}* mice on CTRL or CysF diet over 6 days period when animals lose weight. Surprisingly, despite conversion of WAT into brown-like thermogenic fat, the core body temperature was not different between control and cysteine deficient mice (Extended data Fig. 4d, e). These data suggest that either cysteine- may signal the host to defend CBT within tight normal physiological range or any metabolic heat that is generated is dissipated due to the animal housing in the subthermoneutral temperature. To further confirm adipose thermogenesis *in vivo*, we utilized a highly sensitive and specific magnetic resonance spectroscopic imaging (MRSI) method called 298 Biosensor Imaging of Redundant Deviation in Shifts (BIRDS)⁴⁰ to determine the temperature of 299 BAT in $Cth^{+/+}$ and $Ch^{/-}$ animals after 6 days of CysF diet. This method relies on measuring the chemical shift of the four non-exchangeable methyl groups from an exogenous contrast agent, TmDOTMA, which has a high-temperature sensitivity (0.7 ppm/°C). The TmDOTMA- methyl resonance has ultra-fast relaxation times (<5ms), allowing high signal-to-noise ratio by rapid

303 repetition for superior signal averaging⁴⁰. The temperature was calculated from the chemical shift of the TmDOTMA- methyl resonance according to (eq. 1 methods). Compared to cysteine-replete animals, the *in vivo* local temperature in BAT of cysteine-deficient mice was significantly greater than surrounding tissue (Fig. 3c, d), suggesting increased thermogenesis.

 Changes in nutritional stress induced by caloric restriction, methionine restriction, or low protein diets upregulate the expression of FGF21, which, when overexpressed, increases lifespan 309 and also upregulates $EE^{41,42}$. The induction of cysteine deficiency in *Cth* deficient mice caused a dramatic increase in the FGF21 concentration in blood (Fig. 3e) and *Fgf21* expression in the liver (Extended data Fig. 4f), which was reversed by cysteine-repletion induced weight regain (Fig 3e). Similar to FGF21, the hormone GDF15, can also be induced by cellular or nutritional stress-313 mediated signaling⁴³. Cysteine depletion at day 4 post-weight loss significantly increased GDF15, which was not restored after cysteine-repletion-induced weight regain (Fig 3f). Future studies are required to determine if GDF15 is dispensable for cysteine-depletion-induced weight loss. Given the cysteine-repleted diet switch increases food intake, the higher GDF15 levels during weight- rebound are likely insufficient to cause food aversion. Recent studies suggest elevated 318 endoplasmic-reticulum (ER) stress in *Bhmt^{-/-}* mice with reduced methionine cycle, is associated 319 with increased FGF21 and adipose browning⁴⁴. Notably, cysteine deficiency led to induction of ER stress proteins CHOP, Calnexin, IRE1α and BIP (Fig. 3g). However, deletion of CHOP in cysteine-starved mice did not rescue weight-loss (Fig. 3h) or affected the FGF21 and GDF15 serum levels (Extended data Fig. 4g,h) suggesting that CHOP dependent ER-stress response does not drive cysteine's neuroendocrine or metabolic effect. Given cysteine specifically regulated FGF21 during weight loss and regain (Fig 3e), we generated $Fgf21^{-/-} Ch^{2/-} DKO$ mice. In the absence of FGF21, cysteine deficiency-induced weight-loss and reduction in adiposity in *Cth-/-*

326 mice were blunted, but the weight-loss trajectory continued and was not rescued (Fig. 3i, Extended 327 data Fig. 4i). The $Fgf21^{-/-}Ch^{-/-}DKO$ mice had lower EE compared to $Ch^{-/-}$ mice on CysF diet 328 (Fig. 3j). However, RER was not different, indicating that $Fgf21^{-/-} Ch^{-/-}$ mice still significantly 329 utilized fat as an energy substrate (Extended data Fig. 4j). This was supported by maintenance of 330 lipolysis signaling observed by levels of pHSL and ATGL in *Cth^{-/-}* mice, but reduced UCP1 protein 331 and mRNA expression in WAT of *Fgf21^{-/-} Cth^{-/-}* (Fig. 3k, Extended data Fig. 4k). Surprisingly, 332 the WAT of *Fgf21^{-/-} Cth^{-/-}* DKO mice maintained classical multilocular browning characteristics 333 (Fig. 3l) suggesting that FGF21 is not required for adipose browning. These results suggest that 334 FGF21 is partially required for weight loss but does not mediate lipid mobilization or adipose 335 browning caused by cysteine deficiency.

336 **Cysteine-starvation-induced weight-loss is maintained at thermoneutrality.**

 Cysteine elimination revealed a metabolic crisis that may signal the host to activate thermogenic mechanisms. However, across animal vivaria, including ours, mice are housed at sub- thermoneutral 20°C temperatures and are constantly under thermogenic stress due to slight cold 340 challenge⁴. To further confirm that mice were indeed inducing thermogenesis to defend core body temperature, we housed cysteine deficient animals at 30°C thermoneutrality. The cysteine 342 deficiency in *Cth⁻¹*- mice housed at 30 $^{\circ}$ C also led to similar weight loss as 20 $^{\circ}$ C with significant browning of adipose tissue (Fig. 3m, n, Extended data Fig. 4l). The degree of browning and gene expression of *Ucp1* and *Elovl3* in CysF *Cth* deficient mice at thermoneutrality was relatively lower than inductions observed at 20°C (Fig. 3o). Furthermore, expression of genes involved with lipid regulation and browning such as *Prdm16, Ppargc1a, Ppara, Pparg,* and *Cpt1* (Fig. 3p) were significantly increased in SFAT, suggesting that even at thermoneutral temperatures, *Cth^{-/-} CysF* fed mice activate fat metabolism and, have increased thermogenesis caused by cysteine deficiency.

 In addition, compared to controls, the cysteine deficient mice at thermoneutrality retained higher UCP1 expression in BAT (Extended data Fig. 4m). Together, cysteine-depletion induced weight loss and adipose browning are maintained at thermoneutrality.

Systemic depletion of cysteine drives browning in a UCP1-independent manner.

 The liver is believed to be the primary organ for the maintenance of organismal cysteine 354 homeostasis^{6,16}. Immunoblot analyses revealed the highest CTH expression in the liver followed by the kidney, thymus, and adipose tissue (Extended data Fig. 5a). Given CR in humans lowers cysteine in adipose tissue; we next generated adipocyte as well as hepatocyte-specific Cth deficient mice to determine cell type-specific mechanism of cysteine in weight-loss (Fig. 4 a-f). As expected, deletion of *Cth* in the liver did not affect the expression in the kidney, and adipose- specific ablation of *Cth* maintained the expression in the liver (Extended data Fig. 5b). Neither liver nor adipose-specific deletion of *Cth* caused a reduction in serum cysteine levels (Fig. 4c, d and Extended data Fig. 5c,d) or fat-mass loss when cysteine was restricted in the diet (Fig. 4e, f). The further LC/MS analyses of sera of hepatocyte-specific Cth deficient mice maintained on CysF diet had no change in cystathionine, γ-glutamyl-dipeptides, cysteine or cystine (Fig 4 g, Extended data Fig 5e). Consistent with low CTH activity, livers of the CysF-fed mice (AlbCre:*Cth*^{f/f}, CysF) had lower levels of cysteine, cystathionine, s-adenosyl homocysteine, 2AB and ophthalmate (Extended data Fig. 5f, g). Furthermore, cystathionine and cysteine/cystine in subcutaneous adipose tissue of liver-specific Cth deficient mice were unchanged (Extended data Fig 5h, i) suggesting specificity of TSP response in liver. Consistent with these data, no change in serum 369 cysteine/cystine were detected in adipose tissue specific Cth^{$-/-$} mice maintained on cysteine free diet (Fig. 4h, Extended data Fig. 5j). The TSP metabolites can potentially be generated by the gut 371 microbiota²². The *Cth^{-/-}* animals co-housed together with *Cth^{+/+}* mice still maintained weight loss

 when fed a CysF diet, suggesting that microbiota derived metabolites do not account for the weight-loss (Extended data Fig. 5k). These results demonstrates that *Cth* across multiple tissues may defend systemic cysteine concentration to prevent uncontrolled thermogenesis and death when cysteine content is low in diet.

 G iven that UCP1 is a canonical regulator of non-shivering adipose thermogenesis^{44,45} and since cysteine-elimination induced UCP1 expression in WAT, we next deleted UCP1 in cysteine 378 deficient mice to determine its role in adipose browning. Interestingly, we found that *Cth^{-/-}Ucp1^{-/-}* double knockout (DKO) mice had equivalent food intake (Extended data Fig. 5l) and lost weight 380 at a similar rate to its *Cth^{-/-}* littermates on a CysF diet and displayed similar browning-like features with multilocular adipocytes (Fig. 4i, j). The ablation of UCP1 in cysteine-deficient mice lowered EE but did not affect the CBT (Fig. 4k, i). The lack of UCP1 in *Cth* deficient mice undergoing cysteine starvation displayed elevated ATGL and tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) expression, suggesting increased lipolytic signaling (Fig. 4m, n). Despite lack of UCP1, gene expression indicative of the thermogenic program, such as *Ppargc1, Cidea, Cpt1* are significantly increased 386 in *Cth^{-/-} Ucp1^{-/-}* DKO mice compared to *Cth^{-/-}* in the BAT after 6 days of CysF diet (Fig. 4o). Furthermore, gene expression of other mediators of the thermogenic genes such as *Acadm, Cox7a1, Elovl3*, and *Slc27a2* are also significantly increased in *Cth^{-/-}Ucp1^{-/-} DKO* mice compared 389 to Cth^{-1} animals fed cysteine-restricted diet (Fig. 4o). The UCP1-independent thermogenesis has been reported⁴⁷. The creatine futile cycling is proposed to regulate UCP1-independent thermogenesis48 . Compared to control animals, the creatine cycle genes *Ckb* and *Alpl* were not significantly different in SFAT of cysteine-deficient animals (Extended data Fig. 5m). The creatine synthesis genes, *Gatm* and *Gamt* were significantly reduced with cysteine deficiency in the SFAT (Extended data Fig. 5m). The expression of one of the creatine kinases that utilize ATP, *Ckmt2*,

 and the transporter for creatine, *Slc6a8* were also not differentially regulated in SFAT (Extended 396 data Fig. 5m). Interestingly, *Ckmt1* and *Ckmt2* expression was increased in BAT of *Cth^{-/-}Ucp1^{-/-}* animals compared to cysteine-deficient animals (Fig. 4p). In addition, alternative UCP1- 398 independent thermogenic regulatory genes $Atp2a2$ and $Ryr2$ that control calcium cycling⁴⁹ were not impacted by cysteine deficiency (Extended data Fig. 5n). Similarly, *Sarcolipin* and *Atp2a2* that 400 can increase muscle driven thermogenesis⁵⁰ were also not affected in skeletal muscle of *Cth* deficient mice lacking cysteine (Extended data Fig. 5o). Futile lipid cycle is also implicated in 402 UCP1 independent thermogenesis⁵¹. Interestingly, $Cth^{-/-}$ mice on CysF diet have significantly elevated expression of *Dgat1*, *Pnpla2* and *Gk* with no change in *Lipe* in SFAT (Extended data Fig. 5p). The expression of these genes is also induced in absence of UCP1 in SFAT (Fig. 4q). However, absence of association between changes in gene expression of major UCP1 independent regulators does not rule out causal role of some of these mechanisms in cysteine-elimination driven adipose browning. These results suggest that systemic cysteine deficiency-induced thermogenesis depends on a non-canonical UCP1-independent thermogenic mechanism.

 Cysteine depletion-induced adipose browning and weight loss requires catecholamine signaling.

 Since cysteine-elimination-induced adipocyte browning is non-cell autonomous (Extended data Fig. 2d), we investigated the mechanism of adipose browning.

 Upstream of lipolysis, non-shivering thermogenesis is mainly activated by the sympathetic 415 nervous system (SNS) derived adipose noradrenaline⁵². Mass-spectrometric analyses of subcutaneous adipose tissue (Fig. 5a), including imaging mass spectrometry of BAT (Extended data Fig. 6a) revealed that cysteine-starvation induced browning is associated with increased

 noradrenaline (NA) concentrations. This was coupled with a significant reduction in NA- degrading enzyme monoamine oxidase-a (*Maoa*), without affecting catechol-o-methyl transferase (*Comt*), suggesting increased adipose NA bioavailability (Extended data Fig. 6b,c). Finally, to test whether SNS derived NA is required for adipose browning, the inhibition of β3-adrenergic receptors (ADRB3) by L748337 in *Cth* deficient mice lacking cysteine-protected animals against weight loss (Fig. 5b), blunted adipose browning (Fig. 5c) and lowered browning marker *Ucp1* (Fig. 5d). This was consistent with our unbiased RNA sequencing analyses that showed that cysteine-regulated adipose clusters contained the highest numbers of differentially expressed genes induced by β3-adrenergic receptor agonist (Extended data Fig. 3e). Together our findings suggest that cysteine-depletion drives increased sympathetic activity leading to augmented ADRB3-mediated NA signaling that controls adipose browning to weight loss.

Cysteine deficiency reverses high-fat diet-induced obesity in mice.

 We next tested whether cysteine deficiency could be utilized to induce an adaptive thermogenic mechanism for fat mass reduction in the high-fat diet (HFD) induced obesity model. The *Cth-/-* mice that had been fed HFD for 12 weeks were switched to an isocaloric HFD containing (HFD-434 CTRL) or lacking cystine (HFD-CysF). The *Cth^{-/-}* mice fed HFD-CysF diet were able to lose approximately 30% body weight within 1 week despite maintaining a high calorie intake (Fig. 5e). This weight loss was associated with major reductions in fat mass (Extended Fig. 6d). With weight loss, cysteine deficient mice had improved metabolic homeostasis, (Fig. 5f and Extended data Fig. 6e,f), increased EE (Fig. 5g,h). Notably, immuno-histological analysis of the white adipose depots demonstrated that cysteine deficiency induced browning even while on HFD with increased expression of UCP1 in SFAT and VFAT (Fig. 5i). Furthermore, cysteine-deficiency in obese mice reduced RER suggesting higher fat-utilization (Fig. 5j). Additionally, consistent with improvement of metabolic function in obesity, the gene expression of inflammasome components *Il1b, Il18, Nlrp3, Casp1* and pro-inflammatory cytokines *Il6* and *Tnf* were reduced in F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ adipose tissue macrophages in visceral adipose tissue (Fig. 5k) These results demonstrate that induction of cysteine deficiency can cause weight-loss in mouse model of diet-induced obesity, opening new avenues for future drug development for excess weight-loss

447

448 **Discussion**

449 Adipose tissue regulates metabolism by orchestrating inter-organ communication required for 450 healthy longevity⁵³. Analyses of adipose tissue of humans that underwent moderate CR in free-451 living conditions have highlighted genes and pathways that link energy metabolism and 452 inflammation to influence healthspan^{5, 7}. In rodents, restriction of calories up to 40% reduces core-453 body temperature (CBT) and induces browning of the adipose tissue of mice reared in sub-454 thermoneutral temperature¹. The CR in humans upregulated the fatty acid oxidation and futile lipid 455 cycling induced-thermogenic pathways but UCP1 was undetectable in adipose tissue of 456 CALERIE-II participants⁵. Similarly, weight loss in obese humans is not associated with classical 457 UCP1 adipose tissue browning⁵⁴. This suggests that alternate UCP1-independent mechanisms 458 maybeat play in human and rodent adipose tissue browning and thermogenesis in response to CR, 459 may be due to extreme CR (>40%) or another phenomenon, including reduction of specific amino 460 acids or macronutrients. In this regard, reduction of core-body temperature⁵⁵ and increased FGF21 461 is a common link between CR and MR-induced adipose browning and increased longevity^{1,2,42}. 462 Our studies demonstrated that reduction of cysteine and subsequent rewiring of downstream 463 cysteine metabolism is linked to adipose browning and weight loss.

464 Expression and activity of TSP genes CBS and CTH increase when cysteine is low⁶. Indeed, during CR, the TSP is induced to defend against the depletion of cysteine levels. MR 466 regimens that improve lifespan are also restricted or deficient in cysteine¹⁵, and it is unclear whether methionine or cysteine restriction drives pro-longevity effects. Thus, to understand the metabolic requirement of dietary non-essential amino acid such as cysteine, a genetic mouse model is required that lacks *Cth* in conjunction with restriction of cysteine. Surprisingly, previously reported *Cth* mutant mice originally generated on a 129SvEv mouse strain maintained on cysteine- replete normal chow diet were reported to display hypertension and motor-dysfunction 472 characteristic of neurodegenerative changes in corpus striatum^{56,57}. Through conditional deletion of *Cth* (on pure C57/B6 background) in adipose tissue and liver, and rescue of weight-loss by cysteine repletion, our data establishes that systemic cysteine depletion drives adipose tissue thermogenesis without causing behavioral defects or pathological lesions.

 While it is still unclear why cysteine deficiency triggers the activation of adipose browning, the mechanism of thermogenesis depends on sympathetic β3-adrenergic signaling and partially requires FGF21 and can be successfully maintained even in the absence of UCP1 and at thermoneutrality. The cysteine-starvation elevated fatty acid lipolysis-esterification cycle genes, while the genes regulating calcium and creatine cycle were not affected. Future studies of specific 481 ablation of UCP1-independent thermogenic genes in *Cth⁻¹* mice on cysteine-restriction are required to determine the causal pathway. The model of cysteine loss that produces a strong browning response may thus allow the discovery of an alternate UCP1-independent mechanism of adipose tissue thermogenesis.

 In healthy humans undergoing CR, consistent with reduced cysteine, glutathione, a major redox regulator, was reduced in adipose tissue. The *Cth* deficient mice on a cysteine-free diet show

 a decrease in oxidized GSH with a compensatory increase in *Gclc*, *Gss*, and accumulation of γ- glutamyl-peptides. Despite increased oxidative stress, the adipose tissue histology, RNA sequencing, and lipidomic analysis of BAT did not reveal overt ferroptosis in cysteine-depletion induced weight loss. Future studies may reveal cysteine-dependent alternative protective mechanisms that control redox balance and ferroptosis while sustaining UCP1-independent thermogenesis.

 Taken together, this study expands our understanding of pathways activated by pro- longevity dietary interventions that confer metabolic adaptation required to maintain tissue homeostasis. Thus, the manipulation of TSP activity to drive adipose tissue browning also has implications for developing interventions that control adiposity and promote longevity. In humans, restriction of methionine and cysteine increased FGF21 and caused a reduction in body weight 498 with improvement of metabolic parameters⁵⁸. Similar to our findings, the metabolic benefits of methionine+cysteine dietary restriction in humans were greater than methionine- restriction 500 alone⁵⁸. Here, based on human dietary restriction studies, and mouse models of cysteine- deficiency, we demonstrate that cysteine is essential for organismal metabolism as its absence triggers adipose browning with progressive weight loss.

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Materials and methods

Human Samples

 The participants in this study were part of the CALERIE Phase 2 (Rochon et al., 2011) study which was a multi-center, parallel-group, randomized controlled trial by recruitment of non-obese healthy individuals. 238 adults participated at 3 different locations: Pennington Biomedical Research Center (Baton Rouge, LA), Washington University (St. Louis, MO) and Tufts University (Boston, MA) (NCT00427193). Duke University, (Durham, NC) served as a coordinating center. Participants were randomly assigned to of 25% caloric restriction or ad libitum caloric intake for 708 two years. CR group participants actually reached 14% of CR^{5,8} (Ravussin et al. 2015). Men were between 20 and 50 years old and women were between 20 and 47 years old. Their body mass index 710 (BMI) was between 22.0 and 27.9 kg/m² at the initial visit. Samples were collected at baseline, 1 year, and 2 years of intervention. Abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue biopsy was performed on a portion of CR group participants and used for RNA-sequencing and metabolomics in this study. All studies were performed under protocol approved by the Pennington institutional review board with informed consent from participants.

Mice

716 All mice were on the C57BL/6J (B6) genetic background. Cth^{-1} mice $(C57BL/6NTac-$ 717 Cth^{tm1a(EUCOMM)Hmgu/Ieg}) were purchased from the European Mouse Mutant Cell Repository. 718 Breeding these mice to Flipase transgenic mice from Jackson Laboratories generated *Cth^{fl/fl}* mice which were crossed to Adipoq-cre and Albumin-cre, purchased from Jackson Laboratories. *Ucp1- /-* and CHOP-/- mice were purchased from Jackson laboratories and crossed to *Cth*-/- mice. *Fgf21*-/- 721 mice were kindly provided by Dr. Steven Kliewer (UT Southwestern) as described previously⁴¹

722 and crossed to Cth^{-1} mice. All mice used in this study were housed in specific pathogen-free facilities in ventilated cage racks that deliver HEPA-filtered air to each cage with free access to sterile water through a Hydropac system at Yale School of Medicine. Mice were fed a standard vivarium chow (Harlan 2018s) unless special diet was provided and housed under 12 h light/dark cycles. All experiments and animal use were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use 727 Committee (IACUC) at Yale University.

Diet studies

For cysteine deficiency studies, mice were fed either a control diet, CysF diet, HFD-CTRL diet,

or HFD-CysF diet purchased from Dyets, for 6 days unless specified otherwise. For pair feeding

studies, mice were provided with either ad libitum or 2.22-2.27g of diet daily.

Western blot analysis

 Cell lysates were prepared using RIPA buffer and optionally frozen and stored at -80°C. Samples were left on ice, vortexing every ten min for 30 min. For tissue samples, snap frozen tissues were ground by mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen and resuspended in RIPA buffer with protease and phosphatase inhibitors. Samples were centrifuged at 14,000g for 15min and the supernatant was collected protein concentration was determined using the DC Protein Assay (Bio-Rad) and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. The following antibodies (and source) were used to measure protein expression: β-Actin (Cell Signaling), pHSL p660 (Cell Signaling), ATGL (Cell Signaling), UCP1 (Abcam), CSE (Novus), Tubulin (Sigma), HSL (Cell Signaling), COMT (Biorad), MAOA (Abcam), TH (Cell Signaling), IRE1a (Cell Signaling), Calnexin (Cell Signaling), BiP (Cell Signaling), CHOP (Cell Signaling), HSP90 (Cell Signaling); followed by incubation with appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Gene expression analysis

 Cells or ground tissue (described above) were collected in STAT-60 (Tel-test). RNA from cells were extracted using Qiagen RNeasy micro kits following manufacturer's instructions. For tissue samples, RNA was extracted using Zymo mini kits following manufacturer's instructions. During RNA extraction, DNA was digested using RNase free DNase set (Qiagen). Synthesis of cDNA was performed using iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad) and real time quantitative PCR (Q- PCR) was conducted using Power SYBR Green detection reagent (Thermo Fischer Scientific) on a Light Cycler 480 II (Roche).

Glucose tolerance test

755 *Cth^{-/-}* HFD-CTRL and HFD-CysF mice were fasted 14hr prior to glucose tolerance test. Glucose 756 was given by i.p. injection based on body weight $(0.4g/kg)$. *Cth^{-/-}* CTRL and CysF mice were fasted for 4hr. Glucose was given by i.p based on lean mass determined by Echo-MRI (2g/kg of lean mass). Blood glucose levels were measured by handheld glucometer (Breeze, Bayer Health Care).

Flow Cytometry

 Adipose tissue was digested at 37°C in HBSS (Life Technologies) + 0.1% collagenase I or II (Worthington Biochemicals). The stromal vascular fraction was collected by centrifugation, washed and filtered using 100um and 70um strainers. Cells were stained with LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and then for surface markers including CD45, CD3, B220, CD11b, F4/80, Ly6G, Siglec F, CD163, CD24, F3, CD31, Pdgfra,

 Dpp4, and CD9 and all antibodies were purchased from eBioscience or Biolegend. Cells were fixed in 2% PFA. Samples were acquired on a custom LSR II and data was analyzed in FlowJo.

Single-cell RNA sequencing

771 For stromal vascular fraction, female *Cth^{+/+}* and *Cth^{-/-}* mice were fed CTRL of CysF diet for 4 days. SFAT was collected, with lymph nodes removed, pooled, and digested. Isolated cells were subjected to droplet-based 3' end massively parallel single-cell RNA sequencing using Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits as per manufacturer's instructions (10x Genomics). The libraries were sequenced using a HiSeq3000 instrument (Illumina). Sample demultiplexing, barcode processing, and single-cell 3' counting was performed using the Cell Ranger Single-Cell Software Suite (10x Genomics). Cellranger count was used to align samples to the reference genome (mm10), quantify reads, and filter reads with a quality score below 30. The Seurat package in R was used for 779 subsequent analysis³¹. Cells with mitochondrial content greater than 0.05% were removed and data was normalized using a scaling factor of 10,000, and nUMI was regressed with a negative binomial model. Principal component analysis was performed using the top 3000 most variable genes and t-SNE analysis was performed with the top 20 PCAs. Clustering was performed using a resolution of 0.4. The highly variable genes were selected using the FindVariableFeatures function with mean greater than 0.0125 or less then 3 and dispersion greater than 0.5. These genes are used in performing the linear dimensionality reduction. Principal component analysis was performed prior to clustering and the first 20 PC's were used based on the ElbowPlot. Clustering was performed using the FindClusters function which works on K-nearest neighbor (KNN) graph model with the granularity ranging from 0.1-0.9 and selected 0.4 for the downstream clustering. For identifying the biomarkers for each cluster, we have performed differential expression between each cluster

 to all other clusters identifying positive markers for that cluster. To understand the trajectory of 791 the adipocyte progenitors, we used Monocle2 to analyze scRNA-seq data of Clusters 0, 1, and 2 (Trapnell 2014).

Whole tissue RNA sequencing and transcriptome analysis

 Snap frozen tissues were ground by mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen and resuspended in STAT- 60. RNA was extracted using Zymo mini kits. RNA was sequenced on a HiSeq2500. The quality of raw reads was assessed with FastQC [FastQC]. Raw reads were mapped to the GENCODE vM9 797 mouse reference genome [GENCODE] using STAR aligner [STAR] with the following options: - -outFilterMultimapNmax 15 --outFilterMismatchNmax 6 --outSAMstrandField All -- outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate --quantMode TranscriptomeSAM. The quality control of 800 mapped reads was performed using in-house scripts that employ Picard tools $[Picard]^{5}$. The list of rRNA genomic intervals that we used for this quality control was prepared on the basis of UCSC 802 mm10 rRNA annotation file [UCSC] and GENCODE primary assembly annotation for vM9 [GENCODE]. rRNA intervals from these two annotations were combined and merged to obtain the final list of rRNA intervals. These intervals were used for the calculation of the percentage of reads mapped to rRNA genomic loci. Strand specificity of the RNA-Seq experiment was determined using an in-house script, on the basis of Picard [Picard] mapping statistics. Expression quantification was performed using RSEM [RSEM]. For the assessment of expression of mitochondrial genes, we used all genes annotated on the mitochondrial chromosome in the GENCODE vM9 mouse reference genome [GENCODE]. PCA was performed in R. For the PCA, 810 donor effect was removed using the ComBat function from the sva R-package [sva]. Gene differential expression was calculated using DESeq2 [DESeq2].]. Pathway analysis was done using fgsea (fast GSEA) R-package [fgsea] with the minimum of 15 and maximum of 500 genes

 in a pathway and with 1 million of permutations. For the pathway analysis, we used the Canonical Pathways from the MSigDB C2 pathway set [MSigDB1, MSigDB2], v6.1. The elimination of 815 redundant significantly regulated pathways (adjusted p-value \leq 0.05) was done using an in-house Python script in the following way. We considered all ordered pairs of pathways, where the first pathway had normalized enrichment score equal to or greater than the second pathway. For each ordered pair of pathways, we analyzed the leading gene sets of these pathways. The leading gene sets were obtained using fgsea [fgsea]. If at least one of the leading gene sets in a pair of pathways had more than 60% of genes in common with the other leading gene set, then we eliminated the second pathway in the pair.

Sample preparation for metabolome analysis

 Frozen tissues or serum samples, together with internal standard compounds (mentioned below), 824 was subjected to sonication in 500_k uL of ice-cold methanol. To this, an equal volume of ultrapure water (LC/MS grade, Wako, Japan) and 0.4 volume of chloroform were added. The resulting 826 suspension was centrifuged at $15,000 \times g$ for 15 minutes at 4 °C. The aqueous phase was then 827 filtered using an ultrafiltration tube (Ultrafree MC-PLHCC, Human Metabolome Technologies, Japan), and the filtrate was concentrated by nitrogen spraying (aluminum block bath with nitrogen gas spraying system, DTU-1BN/EN1-36, TAITEC, Japan). The concentrated filtrate was dissolved in 50μL of ultrapure water and utilized for IC-MS and LC-MS/MS analysis. Methionine sulfone and 2-morpholinoethanesulfonic acid were employed as internal standards for cationic and anionic 832 metabolites, respectively. The recovery rate (%) of the standards in each sample measurement was calculated to correct for the loss of endogenous metabolites during sample preparation.

IC-MS metabolome analysis

835 Anionic metabolites were detected using an orbitrap-type MS (Q-Exactive focus; Thermo Fisher 836 Scientific, USA) connected to a high-performance ion-chromatography (IC) system (ICS-5000+, 837 Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) that allows for highly selective and sensitive metabolite 838 quantification through IC separation and Fourier transfer MS principle. The IC system included a 839 modified Thermo Scientific Dionex AERS 500 anion electrolytic suppressor, which converted the 840 potassium hydroxide gradient into pure water before the sample entered the mass spectrometer. 841 Separation was carried out using a Thermo Scientific Dionex IonPac AS11-HC column with a 842 particle size of 4 μ m. The IC flow rate was 0.25 mL/min, supplemented post-column with a makeup 843 flow of 0.18 mL/min MeOH. The potassium hydroxide gradient conditions for IC separation were 844 as follows: from 1 mM to 100 mM (0–40 min), to 100 mM (40–50 min), and to 1 mM (50.1–60 845 min), with a column temperature of 30 °C. The Q Exactive focus mass spectrometer was operated 846 in the ESI-negative mode for all detections. A full mass scan $(m/z 70-900)$ was performed at a 847 resolution of 70,000. The automatic gain control target was set at 3×10^6 ions, and the maximum 848 ion injection time was 100ms. The source ionization parameters were optimized with a spray 849 voltage of 3 kV, and other parameters were as follows: transfer temperature, 320 °C; S-Lens level 850 = 50, heater temperature, 300 °C; sheath gas = 36, and Aux gas, 10.

851

852 **LC-MS/MS metabolome analysis**

 Cationic metabolites were measured using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC- MS/MS). The LCMS-8060 triple-quadrupole mass spectrometer (Shimadzu corporation, Japan) with an electrospray ionization (ESI) ion source was employed to perform multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) in positive and negative ESI modes. The samples were separated on a Discovery HS F5-3 column (2.1 mm I.D. x 150 mm L, 3μm particle, Sigma-Aldrich) using a step

858 gradient of mobile phase A (0.1% formate) and mobile phase B (0.1% acetonitrile) with varying 859 ratios: 100:0 (0-5 min), 75:25 (5-11 min), 65:35 (11-15 min), 5:95 (15-20 min), and 100:0 (20-25

860 min). The flow rate was set at 0.25 mL/min, and the column temperature was maintained at 40° C.

861 **Monoamine measurements by HPLC with electro chemical detector (ECD)**

862 For low concentration monoamine measurements, extracted tissue metabolites by abovementioned 863 protocol were injected with an autosampler (M-510, Eicom) into a HPLC unit (Eicom) coupled to 864 an ECD (ECD-300, Eicom). The samples were resolved on the Eicompak SC-5ODS column (φ 3.0) 865 x 150 mm, Eicom), using an isocratic mobile phase (5 mg/L EDTA-2Na, 220 mg/L sodium 1- 866 octanesulfonate in acetate/citrate buffer (0.1 M, pH 3.5)/MeOH (83:17, v/v)), at a flow rate of 0.5 867 mL/min and a column temperature of 25°C. At the ECD, analytes were subjected to oxidation 868 reactions within the ECD unit with WE-3G graphite electrode (applied potential is +750 mV 869 against an Ag/AgCl reference electrode). Resulting chromatograms were analyzed using the 870 software EPC-300 (Eicom).

871 **Lipidome analysis**

872 To extract total lipids, frozen tissues were mixed with 500 μ L of 1-butanol/methanol (1:1, v/v) 873 containing 5 mM ammonium formate. The mixture was vortexed for 10 seconds, sonicated for 15 874 minutes in a sonic water bath, and then centrifuged at $16,000 \times g$ for 10 minutes at 20 °C. The 875 supernatant was transferred to a 0.2-mL glass insert with a Teflon insert cap for LC ESI-MS 876 analysis.

877

878 For lipidomic analysis, a Q-Exactive focus orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 879 San Jose, CA) was connected to an HPLC system (Ultimate3000, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The 880 samples were separated on a Thermo Scientific Accucore C18 column $(2.1 \times 150 \text{ mm}, 2.6 \text{ }\mu\text{m})$

881 using a step gradient of mobile phase A (10 mM ammonium formate in 50% acetonitrile and 0.1%) 882 formic acid) and mobile phase B (2 mM ammonium formate in acetonitrile/isopropyl 883 alcohol/water, ratios of 10:88:2, $v/v/v$, with 0.02% formic acid). The gradient ratios used were 884 65:35 (0 min), 40:60 (0-4 min), 15:85 (4-12 min), 0:100 (12-21 min), 0:100 (21-24 min), 65:35 885 (24-24.1 min), and 100:0 (24.1-28 min) at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min and a column temperature of 886 35°C.

887 The Q-Exactive focus mass spectrometer operated in both positive and negative ESI modes. It 888 performed a full mass scan (m/z 250-1100), followed by three rapid data-dependent MS/MS scans, 889 at resolutions of 70,000 and 17,500, respectively. The automatic gain control target was set at $1 \times$ 890 $10⁶$ ions, and the maximum ion injection time was 100 ms. The source ionization parameters 891 included a spray voltage of 3 kV, transfer tube temperature of 285^oC, S-Lens level of 45, heater 892 temperature of 370° C, sheath gas at 60, and auxiliary gas at 20. The acquired data were analyzed 893 using LipidSearch software (Mitsui Knowledge Industry, Tokyo, Japan) for major phospholipids 894 (PLs). The search parameters for LipidSearch software were as follows: precursor mass tolerance 895 $=$ 3 ppm, product mass tolerance $=$ 7 ppm, and m-score threshold $=$ 3.

896

897 **Visualizing noradrenaline distribution using MALDI-imaging mass spectrometry**

 The tissue block was frozen and secured onto a disc using a cryoembedding medium (Super Cryoembedding Medium, SECTION-LAB, Hiroshima, Japan), then equilibrated at -16°C in cryostats (Leica Biosystems, Nussloch, Germany). Tissue sections, 8 µm thick, were cut and 901 mounted onto conductive indium-tin-oxide (ITO)-coated glass slides (Matsunami Glass Industries, Osaka, Japan)., A solution of tetrafluoroborate salts of 2,4-diphenyl-pyrylium (DPP) (1.3 mg/mL in methanol) for on-tissue derivatization of monoamines, and DHB-matrix (50 mg/mL in 80%

 ethanol) were manually sprayed onto the tissue using an airbrush (Procon Boy FWA platinum; Mr. Hobby, Tokyo). The manual spray was performed at room temperature, applying 40 μL/mm2 with a distance of approximately 50 mm. The samples were analyzed using a linear ion trap mass 907 spectrometer (LTQ XL, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The raster scan pitch was set at 50 µm. Signals

908 of noradrenaline-DPP (m/z 384 > 232) were monitored with a precursor ion isolation width of m/z

1.0 and a normalized collision energy of 45%. Ion images were reconstructed using ImageQuest

- 910 1.1.0 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
-

Core-body temperature measurement

 Animals were anesthetized with isoflurane, first at a rate of 2-3% and maintained at 0.5-2% in oxygen during surgery. Mice were kept on a heating pad throughout surgery. Mice were injected with buprenorphine and bupivacaine as pre-emptive analgesia. A small ventral incision of 1cm was made after clipping hair and disinfection with betadine and 70% ethanol. DST nano-T temperature loggers (Star Oddi) were placed in the peritoneal cavity, and abdominal muscle and skin were sutured closed. Post-surgery, mice were singly housed and provided with Meloixcam for 48 hours. After 7 days, sutures were removed. 10 days after surgery, mice were started on CTRL or CysF diet, and loggers were removed for data collection after euthanization. Loggers were programmed to take temperature readings every 30 minutes.

Metabolic cages

 The energy expenditure (EE), respiratory exchange ratio (RER), activity, food intake of mice were monitored using the TSE PhenoMaster System (V3.0.3) Indirect Calorimetry System. Each mouse was housed in individual chambers for 3 days for acclimation and switched to experimental diet for 6 days. Each parameter was measured every 30 min. EE and RER were calculated based on 927 the oxygen consumption (O_2) and carbon dioxide production (CO_2) . Mouse activity was detected by infrared sensors, and food intake and water consumption were measured via weight sensors on food and water dispensers located in the cage.

EchoMRI

The parameters of body composition were measured in vivo by magnetic resonance imaging

(EchoMRI; Echo Medical Systems). The amount of fat mass, lean mass and free water were

measured by the analysis. For the analysis, each mouse was placed in an acrylic tube with breathing

- holes and the tube was inserted in the MRI machine. The analysis per mouse takes approximately
- 90 sec and automatically calculated numerical results were analyzed.

Climate chambers

937 Mice were acclimated in climate chambers (model 7000-10, Caron) at either 30° C or 20° C, with

switched to either CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days, while maintained in the climate chambers. Mice

humidity maintained at 50% under 12 h light/dark cycles. After one week acclimation, mice were

were handled daily to measure body weight.

Feces bomb calorimetry

 Feces were collected daily over the course of CTRL or CysF feeding. Samples were dried for 72 hours. Fecal bomb calorimetry was performed at UT Southwestern Medical Center Metabolic Phenotyping Core (Dallas, TX, USA) using a Parr 6200 Isoperibol Calorimeter equipped with a 6510 Parr Water Handling.

Serum measurements

 After blood collection by cardiac puncture, samples were allowed to clot for 2 hours. Serum was 948 collected after centrifugation. FGF21 and GDF15 levels in the serum were measured by ELISA (R&D). Cysteine levels were determined by competitive EIA (LS-Bio). Glycerol levels were

determined by colorimetric assay (Sigma Aldrich).

b**-3 adrenergic receptor inhibition**

 Mice were administered twice daily L748337 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) (5mg/kg) by i.p injection. Mice were weighed daily and assessed for their health.

Histology

Tissues were collected in 10% formalin, embedded in paraffin and sectioned into 5um thick

sections. Tissues were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or stained for UCP1 (Abcam)

and Goat anti-rabbit HRP (DAKO) and developed for color using Abcam DAB substrate kit.

Animal preparation for BIRDS Temperature Analysis

 The animals were anesthetized with 3% isoflurane in an induction chamber and then kept at 2-3% during surgery. The animal was laid back on a microwaveable heating pad. Prior to incision, a single dose of bupivacaine was given for analgesia. A 1-2 cm midline incision was made on the neck to expose the jugular vein. Another small incision (<1 cm) was made at the back of the neck. A sterile polyurethane or silicone catheter with a metal guide was inserted from the back of the neck, where the vascular port was fixed to the jugular vein. Prior to implantation the port and the catheter were flushed with heparinized saline (25 IU/ml). The jugular vein was catheterized toward the heart. The skin was closed with surgical sutures after application of triple antibiotic ointment and the vascular port was fixed. The duration of the surgical procedure was 15-20 min.

MR data acquisition.

 TmDOTMA- was purchased from Macrocyclics (Plano, TX, USA). Temperature mapping with BIRDS was performed on a 9.4T Bruker scanner (Billerica, MA). The respiration rate was 971 monitored during the entire duration of the experiment. A 200mM TmDOTMA solution was 972 infused at a rate of 60 to 80 µl/h for 1 to 2 hours. The infusion rate was adjusted according to 973 animal physiology. The T_2 weighted magnetic resonance (MR) images were acquired with an FOV

974 of $23x23mm^2$, $128x128$ matrix, 23 slices of 0.5mm thickness, TR=3s and TE=9ms. The extremely 975 short T_1 and T_2 relaxation times (\leq 5ms) of the TmDOTMA- methyl group allowed ultrafast 976 temperature mapping with BIRDS using 3D chemical shift imaging (CSI) acquisition with a short 977 TR (10ms) and wide bandwidths $(\pm 150$ ppm). Temperature mapping with BIRDS was started 978 immediately after detection of global MR signal of TmDOTMA- methyl group, at about 1 hour 979 after the start of the infusion. The CSI was acquired using a FOV of $23x15x23mm^3$, 809 spherical 980 encoding steps, 21min acquisition, and reconstructed to 23x15x23, with a voxel resolution of 981 . $1x1x1mm³$. Selective excitation of the TmDOTMA- methyl group was achieved using a single 982 band 200µs Shinnar-Le Roux (SLR) RF pulse. The MR spectrum in each voxel was line broadened 983 (200 Hz) and phased (zero-order) in Matlab (MathWorks Inc., MA, USA), and the corresponding 984 temperature T_c was calculated from the chemical shift δ_{CH_3} of the TmDOTMA⁻ methyl group 985 according to

986
$$
T_c = a_0 + a_1(\delta_{CH_3} - \delta_0) + a_2(\delta_{CH_3} - \delta_0)^2
$$
 [1]

987 where $\delta_0 = -103.0$ ppm and the coefficients $a_0 = 34.45 \pm 0.01$, $a_1 = 1.460 \pm 0.003$ and $a_2 = 0.0152$ 988 ± 0.0009 were calculated from the linear least-squares fit of temperature as a function of chemical 989 shift δ_{CH_3} (reference below). Statistical analysis was done using Student's t-test with two tails, 990 with $p<0.05$ used as a cutoff for significance.

991

992 **In vivo spin trapping and Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) spectroscopy**

993 POBN $(\alpha-(4-Pyridyl-1-oxide)-N-t-butylnitrone, Enzo)$ was used for spin trapping; POBN was 994 dissolved in saline and administered i.p. at 500 mg/kg body weight. Tissue samples (VFAT, SFAT 995 and BAT) were collected 45 minutes post-injection, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and 996 stored at −80°C until EPR measurements. Lipid extraction was performed using 997 chloroform/methanol $(2/1)$ (Folch-extraction) as described previously⁵⁹. All EPR spectra were

998 recorded in a quartz flat cell using an X-band EMX plus EPR Spectroscope (parameters: $3,480 \pm$ 80 G scan width, 105 receiver gain, and 20 mW microwave power; time constant: 1,310 ms; conversion time: 655 ms).

Aconitase activity

Aconitase activity was measured with Aconitase Assay kit (Cayman). Freshly collected SFAT and

VFAT samples were measured at 500 μg total protein/mL, and BAT samples were measured at

100 μg total protein/mL. All results were normalized to 500 μg/mL total protein concentration.

Standard protocols provided with the kits was followed.

In vitro **adipocyte differentiation**

1007 Stromal vascular fraction from visceral depots of *Cth^{-/-}* was isolated as previously described. Cells were plated in growth medium (DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% Penicillin- Streptomycin) and expanded for 3-5 days. Adipocyte differentiation was induced with growth medium supplemented with insulin (5μg/ml), rosiglitazone (1μM), iso-butyl-methylxanthine (0.5mM) and dexamethasone (1μM) for 48hrs. Cells were maintained on differentiation medium containing insulin (5μg/ml) and rosiglitazone (1μM) for 96hr. Fully differentiated cells were then treated with various concentrations of Cystine (0-200μM) for 48hr, in cystine and methionine-free DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10% dialyzed FBS, 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin and 200μM methionine.

Quantification and statistical analysis

 Statistical differences between groups were calculated by unpaired t-tests. For comparing groups over time, mice were individually tracked and groups were compared using 2-way ANOVA with 1019 Sidak's correction for multiple comparisons. For all experiments a p-value of $p \le 0.05$ was considered significant.

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Figure 1, Lee et al 1021

 Figure 1: Cysteine deficiency induces weight-loss. a) Principal component analysis of the metabolome of subcutaneous adipose depots (SFAT) of healthy individuals at baseline and after 12 months of caloric restriction (CR) (n=14). b) Metabolite set enrichment analysis shows that compared to baseline, one year of CR in humans activates TSP, with increased cysteine and taurine metabolism. c) Schematic summary of TSP and metabolites from baseline to one year CR, measured in human SFAT. Blue lines indicate unchanged metabolites, green and red arrows indicate significantly increased or decreased metabolites or genes respectively, via paired t-test (p<0.05). d-e) Normalized expression of changes in *CTH*, and *BHMT* in human SFAT at baseline, after 12 months, and 24 months of CR. Adjusted p-values were calculated in the differential gene expression analysis in a separate cohort from metabolome analyses in the CALERIE-II trial (n=8). f-g) Change in metabolites in human SFAT at baseline (B) and 12 months of CR. Significance was calculated using paired t-tests (n=14). AU: arbitrary unit. h) Mouse model used to achieve cysteine 1034 deficiency utilizing *Cth⁻¹*- mice fed a Cystine free (CysF) diet. i) Male *Cth^{+/+}* and *Cth⁻¹*- mice were 1035 fed control (CTRL) or CysF diets for 6 days ($n=5$ *Cth*^{+/+} CTRL, $n=12$ *Cth*^{+/+} CysF, $n=8$ *Cth^{-/-}* CTRL, $n=17 \text{ Cth}^3$ CysF, 3 experiments pooled). Percent body weight represented over 6 days of diet. j) *Cth⁻¹* mice were fed purified control diet (black line) or a diet containing 75% cysteine (green line) 1038 alternately switched to CysF diet (green line with red dots $n = 6/$ group). k) Box plots of metabolites 1039 involved in TSP in the serum of Ch^{\perp} mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (n=4 Ch^{\perp} CTRL, $n=5 \text{ Cth}^{-1}$ CysF). I) Schematic summary of changes in the metabolites in the serum of Cth^{+} mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days. Blue lines represent measured, but unchanged metabolites, red and green arrows indicate significantly decreased or increased metabolites, respectively (p<0.05). \pm m) Box plots of GSSG and threonine quantification in the SFAT of *Cth⁻¹*- mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (n=6/group). n-o) RNA-seq based expression of (n) *Gclc*, *Gss* and (o) *Bola3* in the

- 1045 SFAT of *Cth⁻¹* mice fed with CTRL or CysF for 6 days. p) Analysis of EPR spectra of POBN-lipid
- 1046 radical adducts measured in Folch extracts of VFAT, SFAT and BAT tissues from *Cth⁻¹* mice fed
- 1047 with CTRL or CysF diet for 5 days, normalized to 100 mg (n.d=not detectable, n=5-6/group). q)
- 1048 Aconitase activity determined in VFAT, SFAT and BAT tissues from Cth⁺ fed with CTRL or
- 1049 CysF diet for 5 days (n=6-7/group). Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Unless mentioned,
- 1050 differences were determined with unpaired t-tests (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

1051 *Figure 2, Lee et al*

1052 **Figure 2: Cysteine depletion induces browning of adipose tissue.** a) Representative images of 1053 subcutaneous (SFAT) and visceral (VFAT) fat sections stained for UCP1 from *Cth⁻¹* mice fed 1054 CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (scale bar=100um). b) Representative H&E-stained sections of

1055 SFAT of *Cth⁻¹* mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days or CysF diet followed by Cys-supplemented 1056 diet for 4 days (CysF+Cys) (scale bar=100 μm). c) Western blot detection of ATGL and UCP1 in 1057 - SFAT from *Cth⁻¹* mice after 6 days of CTRL or CysF diet or Cys supplementation after CysF-1058 induced weight loss. Actin is used as a loading control. d) qPCR analysis of thermogenic genes in 1059 SFAT of *Cth^{+/+}* and *Cth^{-/-}* mice fed CysF diet for 6 days (n=8 *Cth^{+/+}* and n=10 *Cth^{-/-})*. e) Fecal 1060 calorie content and f) cumulative food intake of *Cth⁻¹* mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 4 days 1061 (n=6/group). g) Linear regression analysis of energy expenditure against body mass during dark 1062 cycle at 4, 5 days of weight loss (n=10 $Cth^{+/+}$ CysF and n=12 $Cth^{/-}$ CysF). h) Percent body weight 1063 - change of $Cth⁺$ mice fed with CTRL diet or CysF diet (red line) for 5 days and then switched to 1064 Cys-containing diet (orange line) for 3 days (n=6/group). i) Respiratory exchange ratio (RER) 1065 measured in metabolic cages, of *Cth⁻¹* mice fed with CTRL diet or Cys-containing diet after CysF 1066 induced weight loss (n=4-6/group). j) Average food intake of $Cth^{-/-}$ mice fed with CysF diet and 1067 then switched to Cys-containing diet for 2 days (n=7/group). Significance was measured with 1068 paired t-test. k) Linear regression analysis of energy expenditure against body mass during dark 1069 cycle of $Cth^{-/-}$ mice fed with CTRL or Cys-supplemented diet after CysF induced weight loss (n=4-1070 6/group), average values of the first two nights after diet switch. l) t-SNE plot of scRNAseq 1071 showing cluster identities from SFAT stromal vascular fraction from *Cth⁻¹*- mice fed CTRL or CysF 1072 diet at day 4 of weight-loss and bar chart showing population fold changes in relative abundance 1073 of each cluster comparing *Cth⁻¹*- CysF vs. *Cth⁻¹*- CTRL. m) t-SNE plot displaying *Pdgfra* expression 1074 in red across all populations and monocle analysis of clusters 0, 1, and 2, with coloring by 1075 pseudotime to show right most cluster giving rise to two separate clusters. Each cluster represented 1076 by color in *Cth⁻¹*-CTRL and *Cth⁻¹*-CysF. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. Statistical differences

1077 were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for multiple comparisons or unpaired

1078 t-test $(*p<0.05, **p<0.01, **p<0.001)$.

1080 **Figure 3: FGF21 is partially required for cysteine-restriction mediated weight-loss.** a) 1081 Western blot detection of lipolysis regulators pHSL, HSL and ATGL in SFAT from *Cth⁻¹* mice

1082 after 6 days of CTRL or CysF diet, actin is used as loading control. b) Volcano plot of lipid species 1083 of BAT showing fold change of triglycerides in *Cth⁻¹* mice fed CTRL or CysF diet. c) *in vivo* 1084 measurement of BAT temperature by BIRDS imaging and d) quantification of local temperature 1085 differences in BAT compared to surrounding tissue in $Ch^{+/-}$ and $Ch^{+/-}$ mice on CysF diet for 6 1086 days (n=5/group). e) Serum FGF21 quantification in *Cth⁻¹* CTRL (n=23), *Cth⁻¹* CysF for 6 days 1087 $(n=8)$ and Cth^{-/-} CysF followed with 4 days of Cys supplementation $(n=10)$. f) Serum GDF15 1088 concentrations in *Cth*^{-/-} CTRL, *Cth*^{-/-} CysF for 4 days and Cth^{-/-} CysF followed with 3 days of Cys 1089 supplementation (n=6/group). g) Immunoblot analysis of CHOP, Calnexin, IRE1a, BiP in the liver 1090 of Cth^{\perp} mice fed with CTRL or CysF diet at day 6. Actin was used as loading control. h) 1091 Percentage body weight change of *Cth⁻¹* and *Cth⁻¹* CHOP⁻¹ mice fed with CysF diet for 5 days 1092 $(n=17 \text{ C}th^{-1} \text{ and } n=15 \text{ C}th^{-1} \text{CHOP}^{-1})$. i) Percentage body weight change of Cth^{-1} and $Fgf21^{-1} \text{C}th^{-1}$ 1093 mice fed with CysF diet for 5 days ($n=13$ *Cth⁻¹* and $n=18$ *Fgf*21⁻¹ *Cth⁻¹*). j) Energy expenditure 1094 measured in metabolic cages of Cth^{-1} and Cth^{-1} *Fgf21⁻¹* mice on days 3-4 of CysF diet (n=5/group). 1095 k) Immunoblot analysis of pHSL, HSL, ATGL, and UCP1 in SFAT of *Cth*^{+/+}, *Cth*^{-/-} and *Cth*^{-/-}*Fgf21*⁻ 1096 ^{/-} mice fed CysF diet for 6 days. 1) Representative H&E stained SFAT sections of *Cth⁻¹*- and *Fgf21*⁻¹ 1097 ¹-Cth⁻¹- mice after 6 days of CysF diet (scale bar=500um). m-p) *Cth*^{+/+} and *Cth*⁻¹- mice were fed with 1098 CysF diet and housed at 20 $^{\circ}$ C or 30 $^{\circ}$ C for 6 days. m) Percentage body weight change (n=3 *Cth^{+/+}* 20°C, n=4 $Cth^{+/2}$ 30°C, n=4 Cth^{+} 20°C, n=5 Cth^{+} 30°C), n) representative images of H&E staining of SFAT sections (scale bar=200um) and o-p) qPCR analysis of thermogenic markers (n=5 *Cth*+/+ 1100 1101 20° C, n=10 *Cth^{+/+}* 30°C, n=6 *Cth^{-/-}* 20°C, n=11 *Cth^{-/-}* 30°C). Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. 1102 Statistical differences were calculated by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for multiple 1103 comparisons or 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for multiple comparisons or unpaired t-1104 test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

1106 **Figure 4: Global cysteine deficiency induced adipose browning is UCP1 independent.** a) 1107 Immunoblot analyses of CTH in the liver of male and female *Cth^{ff}* Alb:Cre or Alb: Cre⁺ mice. d) 1108 Western blot detection of CTH in the SFAT of male and female *Cth^{f/f}* Adipoq:Cre⁻ or Adipoq:Cre⁺

1109 mice. c-d) Serum cysteine and cystine determined by LC-MS/MS in c) Alb:Cre⁺Cth^{er} mice and d) 1110 Adipoq:Cre;*Cth*^{ℓ *f*} mice after 5 days of CTRL or CysF diet (n=4-5/group). AU: arbitrary units. e-f) 1111 Percentage body weight changes of e) Alb-Cre; Cth^{eff} mice and f) Adipoq-Cre; Cth^{ff} mice after 5 1112 days of CTRL or CysF diet (n=4-5/group). g-h) Volcano plot of serum metabolites identified by 1113 LC-MS/MS in g) Alb-Cre;*Cth^{t/f}* mice and i) Adipoq-Cre;*Cth^{t/f}* mice after 5 days of CTRL or CysF 1114 diet (n=4-5/group). Transsulfuration pathway related metabolites are highlighted in red. Cys: 1115 cysteine. Met: methionine. SAH: S-adenosyl homocysteine. SAM: S-adenosyl methionine. i-k) 1116 *Cth^{-/-}* and *Cth^{-/-} Ucp*1^{-/-} mice were fed a CysF diet for 6 days (n=8/group). i) Percent body weight 1117 change over 6 days of diet. j) Representative H&E histology images of SFAT after 6 days of diet. 1118 k) Energy expenditure measured in metabolic cages on days 4 and 5 of CysF diet. l) Core body 1119 temperatures (CBT) measured in the peritoneal cavity by implantation of Star-Oddi loggers over 1120 6 days of diet in male Cth^{-1} and Cth^{-1} *Ucp1⁻¹* mice fed CysF diet. Recordings were taken every 1121 30min and representative day 4 is plotted $(n=7 \, Cth^{-1} \cdot n=5 \, Cth^{-1} \cdot Ucpl^{-1})$. m) Immunoblot staining 1122 of ATGL, TH, and UCP1 in BAT of Cth^{-1} and Ch^{-1} *Ucp1⁻¹* fed a CysF diet for 6 days and n) 1123 quantification using tubulin as loading control. o) Thermogenic markers gene expression analysis 1124 in BAT of *Cth^{-/-}* and *Cth^{-/-} Ucp1^{-/-}* mice fed a CysF diet for 6 days, measured by qPCR (n=8 *Cth^{-/-}*, 1125 $n=10 \text{ Cth}^{-1} \text{ Ucp1}^{-1}$. p-q) Heatmaps of gene expression of genes involved in creatine, calcium and 1126 lipid futile cycles in p) BAT and q) SFAT of *Cth⁻¹*- and *Cth⁻¹*- *Ucp1⁻¹*- mice fed a CysF diet for 6 1127 days (n=15-16/group), quantified by qPCR. Data are expressed as mean±SEM. Statistical 1128 differences were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for multiple comparisons, 1129 or by unpaired t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

¹¹³⁰ *Figure 5, Lee et al*

1151 *Extended Data Figure 1, Lee et al*

- *Iscal* gene expression in SFAT of *Cth*^{+/+} and *Cth^{-/-}* mice after 6 days of CTRL or CysF feeding
- 1176 (n=4/group). m) Representative EPR spectra of POBN-lipid radical adducts measured in Folch
- 1177 extracts of VFAT, SFAT and BAT tissues. The six-line spectrum (red arrows) is consistent with
- 1178 carbon-centered lipid-derived radicals, indicative of lipid peroxidation (identified through
- 1179 hyperfine coupling constants a^N = 15.75 \pm 0.06 G and a_{β}^H = 2.77 \pm 0.07 G). Data are expressed as
- 1180 mean±SEM. Statistical differences were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for
- 1181 multiple comparisons, or by unpaired t-test (**p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

1182 *Extended Data Figure 2, Lee et al*

1204

 Extended Data Figure 3: Impact of cysteine depletion on transcriptional regulation of adipose tissue at single cell resolution. a) Experimental design schematic of cell processing of subcutaneous adipose depot (SFAT) stromal vascular fraction (SVF) for scRNA-seq. b) t-SNE plot of scRNAseq from SFAT stromal vascular fraction with c) cluster identities. APCs: antigen presenting cells. ASCs: adipose-derived stromal cells. d) Heat map of normalized gene expression of selected markers to identify major cell lineages. e) Enrichment of CL-316,243 activated gene signature overlaid on all populations in all samples. f) t-SNE plots displaying *Dpp4*, *Cd9*, *Icam1*, *Col5a3*, *F3*, and *Tagln* expression in red across all populations in *Cth*^{-*I*} CTRL and *Cth*^{-*I*} CysF 1213 samples. g) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes comparing $Ch^{1/-}C_1S^F$ and $Ch^{1/+}C_1S^F$ in cluster 1. h) Orthogonal validation of adipocyte progenitor changes using FACS analysis of 1215 SFAT SVF in *Cth^{+/+}* and *Cth^{-/-}* mice on CTRL and CysF diet for 4 days (n=5-6/group). i) Select 1216 top pathways from gene set enrichment comparing Cth^{-1} CysF vs. Cth^{+1} CysF in cluster 1. j) Heatmap of gene expression of select stem and mature adipocyte genes in clusters 0, 1 and 2 showing the impact of cysteine depletion in mice. Data are expressed as mean±SEM. Statistical differences were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for multiple comparisons, and by unpaired t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

1221 *Extended Data Figure 4, Lee et al*

1243 *Extended Data Figure 5, Lee et al*

 Extended Data Figure 5: Systemic cysteine depletion induced weight-loss is independent of microbiota and canonical thermogenic pathways. a) Immunoblot analysis of CTH in liver, kidney, subcutaneous (SFAT), visceral (VFAT), brown (BAT) adipose depots, lung, heart, spleen, 1247 and thymus. b) Immunoblot analysis of CTH in kidney samples from male and female Cth^{ff} ;Alb-1248 Cre- and *Cth*^{ff};Alb-Cre+ mice and in liver samples from male and female *Cth*^{ff};Adipoq-Cre- and *Cth*^{f/f};Adipoq-Cre+ mice. Actin is used as a loading control. c-d) Cysteine serum levels of c) *Cth*^{f/f} 1250 and Alb-Cre;*Cth^{erf}* mice and d) *Cth^{erf}* and Adipoq-Cre;*Cth^{erf}* mice after 5 days of CTRL or CysF 1251 diet (n=4-5/group). e-i) Alb-Cre;*Cth*^{ff} mice were fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days. Schematic summary of changes in the metabolites in the e) serum and in the f) liver. g) Volcano plot of metabolites identified by MS/MS in the liver. h) Schematic summary of changes in the metabolites and i) volcano plot of metabolites identified by MS/MS in the SFAT. Transsulfuration pathway related metabolites are highlighted in red. Cys: cysteine. Met: methionine. SAM: S-adenosyl methionine. SAH: S-adenosyl homocysteine. j) Schematic summary of changes in serum 1257 metabolites of Adipoq-Cre;*Cth*^{ff} fed with CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days. Blue lines represent measured, but unchanged metabolites, red and green arrows indicate significantly decreased or increased metabolites, respectively (p<0.05). k) Percentage body weight change of *Cth^{+/+}* and *Cth*⁻ */-* mice that were co-housed and fed CysF diet for 6 days (n=4/group). 1) Accumulated food intake 1261 of *Cth^{-/-}* and *Cth^{-/-} Ucp1^{-/-}* mice during 6 days of CysF diet (n=7 *Cth^{-/-}* and n=8 *Cth^{-/-} <i>Ucp1*^{-/-}). m-n) RNA-seq based expression of genes associated with m) creatine futile cycle (*Slc6a8*, *Gatm*, *Gamt*, *Ckmt2*, *Alpl* and *Ckb*) and n) calcium futile cycle (*Atp2a2* and *Ryr2*) in the SFAT of *Cth*^{+/+} and *Cth*- /-mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (n=4/group). o) qPCR gene expression of *Sarcolipin* and *Atp2a2* in the soleus of $Ch^{+/-}$ and $Ch^{/-}$ mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (n=3 $Ch^{+/-}$ CTRL, $n=6 \text{ Cth+}^{\text{+}}$ CysF, $n=3 \text{ Cth+}^{\text{+}}$ CTRL and $n=5 \text{ Cth+}^{\text{+}}$ CysF). p) RNA-seq based expression of genes

 associated with triglyceride and fatty acid metabolism (*Dgat1*, *Pnpla2*, *Lipe*, *Gk*) in the SFAT of *Cth*^{+/+} and *Cth^{-/-}* mice fed CTRL or CysF diet for 6 days (n=4/group). Data are expressed as mean±SEM. Statistical differences were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's correction for 1270 multiple comparisons, and by unpaired t-test $(*p<0.05, **p<0.01, **p<0.001)$.

1272 **Extended Data Figure 6: Cysteine starvation induced browning requires adrenergic signaling.** a) Imaging mass spectrometry of noradrenaline in the BAT of $Cth^{+/-}$ and $Cth^{-/-}$ fed 6 days of CTRL or CysF diet. b-c) qPCR gene expression of b) *Maoa* and c) *Comt* in SFAT of *Cth*+/+ 1274 1275 (n=8) and *Cth^{-/-}* (n=10) mice fed with CysF diet for 6 days. d) Body composition measured by 1276 Echo-MRI on day 6 post diet switch ($n=6$ *Cth^{-/-}* HFD-CTRL and $n=4$ *Cth^{-/-}* HFD-CysF). e) The 1277 glucose tolerance test (GTT) in mice fed control and cysF diet with glucose dose based on lean 1278 mass. f) The GTT in *Cth⁻¹*- after diet switch from HFD-CTRL to HFD-CysF (*Cth⁻¹*- HFD-CTRL 1279 $n=19$, *Cth⁻¹* HFD-CysF, n=20). The glucose administration based on total body-weight. Data are

1280 expressed as mean±SEM. Statistical differences were calculated by 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's

1281 correction for multiple comparisons, and by unpaired t-test (*p<0.05, ***p<0.001).