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1 **Growth and Differentiation Factor 15 is secreted by skeletal muscle during exercise and** 2 **promotes lipolysis in humans**

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Abstract

 We hypothesized that skeletal muscle contraction produces a cellular stress signal triggering adipose tissue lipolysis to sustain fuel availability during exercise. The present study aimed at identifying novel exercise-regulated myokines, also known as exerkines, able to promote lipolysis.

 Human primary myotubes from lean healthy volunteers were submitted to electrical pulse stimulation (EPS) to mimic either acute intense or chronic moderate exercise. Conditioned media (CM) experiments with human adipocytes were performed. Conditioned media and human plasma samples were analyzed using unbiased proteomic and/or ELISA. Real-time qPCR was performed in cultured myotubes and muscle biopsy samples.

 CM from both acute intense and chronic moderate exercise increased basal lipolysis in human 39 adipocytes (1.3 to 8 fold, p<0.001). Growth and Differentiation Factor 15 (GDF15) gene expression and secretion increased rapidly upon skeletal muscle contraction. GDF15 protein was up-regulated in CM from both acute and chronic exercise-stimulated myotubes. We further show that physiological concentrations of recombinant GDF15 protein increase lipolysis in human adipose tissue, while blocking GDF15 with a neutralizing antibody abrogates EPS CM-mediated lipolysis.

 We herein provide the first evidence that GDF15 is a novel exerkine produced by skeletal muscle contraction and able to target human adipose tissue to promote lipolysis.

Keywords: Myokine; Exercise; Adipose Tissue; Lipolysis; Skeletal Muscle Cells

Introduction

 Exercise improves metabolic health and prevents the complications of obesity and type 2 diabetes (1, 2). This is partly due to the release of secreted factors by skeletal muscle, i.e. myokines, which can virtually target all organs remotely (3). Over the last decade, hundreds of proteins secreted by skeletal muscle have been identified as reviewed in details elsewhere (4-7). However, very few myokines have been shown to target white adipose tissue particularly in humans. In a previous clinical study, we observed a remarkably enhanced *in situ* and systemic lipolytic response in lean healthy endurance-trained subjects performing a high intensity exercise the day after an exhaustive glycogen-depleting exercise compared to rest (8). This greater lipolytic response could not be explained by significant changes in classically known lipolytic stimuli such as increased catecholamines, atrial natriuretic peptide, growth hormone, cortisol, interleukin 6 or a decrease in circulating insulin during exercise. We therefore hypothesized that skeletal muscle contraction in the context of acute high intensity exercise and chronic moderate exercise may produce a cellular stress signal capable to increase adipose tissue lipolysis to sustain fuel availability and delay muscle glycogen depletion.

 Recently, Growth and Differentiation Factor 15 (GDF15) emerged as a biomarker of cellular stress that can be produced by a number of organs such as lung, kidney and liver (9- 11). GDF15, also known as macrophage inhibitory cytokine-1 (MIC-1), is a stress-induced cytokine and an ancient member of the transforming growth factor beta superfamily. High levels of circulating GDF15 have been found in various diseases states such as cancer, heart failure and mitochondrial diseases (12, 13). Very recent studies demonstrate a major role of GDF15 in appetite suppression through non canonical brain neuronal networks in the brainstem such as the area postrema and the nucleus tractus solitaries (14-17). Injection of recombinant GDF15 protein in mice fed a high fat diet (HFD) induces robust weight loss (16).

 Similarly GDF15-overexpressing mice are resistant to HFD-induced obesity and metabolic disturbances (18). These effects appear largely mediated by food intake suppression through the GDF15 cognate receptor GFRAL, GDNF receptor alpha-like, which heterodimerizes with a co-receptor called RET (15, 17). RET encodes a tyrosine kinase receptor for members of the glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) family (15). In mice, GFRAL expression appears strictly confined to the area postrema and the nucleus of the tractus solitary. It is suggested that GDF15 behaves as a metabolic stress signal in response to nutritional stress to 81 trigger conditioned taste aversion (11).

 We herein describe GDF15 as a novel exerkine of a peripheral crosstalk between skeletal muscle and adipose tissue. We show that conditioned media from exercised human myotubes activate lipolysis in human adipocytes *in vitro*. Through proteomic screening of the conditioned media, we next identified GDF15 as a novel exercise-regulated myokine that is rapidly released upon muscle contraction. Neutralization of GDF15 in conditioned media abolishes lipolysis while treatment of adipose tissue explants with recombinant GDF15 promotes lipolysis. Collectively, we herein provide the first evidence that GDF15 is produced by skeletal muscle upon contraction and that it is able to promote lipolysis in human adipose tissue.

Results

Conditioned media from exercised myotubes trigger lipolysis in adipocytes

 The physiological and metabolic adaptations of skeletal muscle to exercise are well known (1). Using electrical pulse stimulation (EPS) of human myotubes to induce forced contraction, we modeled two exercise paradigms: an acute high intensity exercise model (EPS3h) and a chronic moderate exercise training model (EPS24h). EPS activates canonical exercise signaling pathways such as p38 mitogen-activated protein kinases (p38 MAPK) and Ca2+/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) up to 48h (Figure S1A). As expected, EPS3h which mimics an acute high intensity exercise induced a pronounced glycogen 100 depletion (Figure 1A) and concomitant increase in lactate production $(\sim 4 \text{ fold}, \text{ p} < 0.01)$ (Figure 1B). Consistent with this type of exercise, no major change in glucose oxidation rate was observed (Figure 1C), while lipid oxidation rate was reduced by 35% (Figure 1D). EPS3h also induced gene expression of classically known myokines such as interleukin 6 (IL6), IL15 and fibroblast growth factor 21 (Figure S1B).

 We further validated that EPS24h, which mimics chronic moderate exercise training, did not significantly reduced glycogen content (Figure 1E) while increasing basal glycogen storage capacity (∼1.5 fold, p<0.05) (Figure 1F), glucose oxidation rate (∼2 fold, p<0.05) (Figure 1G), and lipid oxidation rate (∼3 fold, p<0.05) (Figure 1H). EPS24h also increased lactate production (2.2-fold, p<0.01) in a lower range than EPS3h (Figure S2A). EPS24h increased IL6 mRNA level (∼3 fold, p<0.01), slightly induced myostatin, and decreased Fibronectin Type III Domain Containing 5 (FNDC5) and Brain Derived Neurotrophic Factor (BDNF) mRNA levels (Figure S1C). To test our hypothesis that skeletal muscle contraction produces a cellular stress signal that trigger lipolysis to sustain fuel availability during exercise, we next incubated human multipotent adipose-derived stem (hMADS) adipocytes with conditioned media (CM) of EPS-stimulated myotubes (Figure 1I). Interestingly, CM from EPS3h- stimulated myotubes induced a modest increase of basal lipolysis reflected by glycerol production (∼1.3 fold, p<0.001) in the absence of any lipolytic stimuli (Figure 1J). In the same line, CM from EPS24h-stimulated myotubes induced a more robust basal lipolysis (∼3 fold, p<0.001) (Figure 1K). Similarly, CM from EPS24h induced a significant increase of NEFA release (1.7 fold, p<0.05) (Figure S2B).

 In summary, exercise-mediated skeletal muscle contraction produces secreted factors able to activate lipolysis in adipocytes *in vitro*.

GDF15 is a novel exerkine rapidly induced by skeletal muscle contraction

 To identify potential secreted proteins produced by skeletal muscle contraction, we performed a proteomic screen of CM from EPS-stimulated and non-stimulated myotubes (Figure 2A & D). We quantified 1311 classically and non classically secreted proteins. Among the significantly up-regulated proteins, GDF15 caught our attention (Figure 2A), as recent studies described GDF15 as a novel metabolic hormone (14-17). GDF15 protein levels were increased by about 2.5 fold in EPS3h CM (Figure 2B). We confirmed this finding by ELISA, 131 GDF15 increased from 21.7 ± 2.1 pg/ml to 29.6 ± 3.4 pg/ml in EPS3h CM (p<0.01) (Figure 2C). Importantly, we also identified GDF15 as a significantly up-regulated protein in EPS24h CM (3 fold, p<0.05) (Figure 2D-F). The concentration of GDF15 in EPS24h CM ranged from 19.4 134 to 110.9 pg/ml and was nearly 2-fold higher $(41.2\pm4.0 \text{ vs } 21.7\pm2.1 \text{ pg/ml})$ compared to EPS3h CM. Time-course of EPS in human primary myotubes showed that GDF15 is significantly up- regulated within 1h (Figure 2G). Overall, we here identify GDF15 as a novel exercise-regulated myokine.

GDF15 gene expression is responsive to skeletal muscle contraction and exercise mimetics

 Since GDF15 is a stress-responsive hormone, we tested whether acute EPS can modulate GDF15 mRNA levels. We observed a rapid up-regulation of GDF15 mRNA levels within 30min exposure to EPS (Figure 3A). A second peak of mRNA levels was observed at 3h EPS. In agreement with protein secretion data, we observed a significant up-regulation of GDF15 mRNA levels for EPS3h-stimulated myotubes (1.7 fold, p<0.01) (Figure 3B). We similarly observed an up-regulation of GDF15 mRNA levels in EPS24h-stimulated myotubes (Figure 3C). Since exercise activates a complex integrative response including neuroendocrine changes beyond muscle contraction, we assessed the influence of exercise-mimetics on GDF15 mRNA levels. Forskolin which increases intracellular levels of the second messenger cAMP, did not change GDF15 gene expression (Figure 3D), while interestingly both ionomycin which facilitates calcium release (Figure 3E) and the peroxisome proliferator- activated receptor β agonist GW0742 (Figure 3F) increased GDF15 mRNA levels (1.5-2 fold, p<0.01). We next investigated GDF15 mRNA levels in muscle biopsy samples from lean healthy individuals in response to 1h of acute exercise at 55% peak power output on a bicycle ergometer (Human study 1). We found that GDF15 mRNA levels increase up to 18-fold in skeletal muscle in response to exercise (Figure 3G).

GDF15 plasma levels in response to exercise, obesity and lifestyle

 Since our *in vitro* work revealed GDF15 as a novel exerkine, we measured GDF15 in plasma of lean healthy individuals randomly assigned in a crossover design to either 1h of endurance exercise performed at 60% of VO2peak or sprint interval exercise consisting of 7 repetitions of 30s at 130% of maximal aerobic power (Human study 2) (Figure 4A-C). In line with a recent report (19), we observed that both type of exercise, endurance (Figure 4A) and sprint interval (Figure 4B), augment plasma GDF15 circulating levels. Interestingly, the exercise response (exercise minus rest) tended to be lower (p=0.07) for the sprint interval exercise which produces overall a lower energy expenditure and energetic stress despite a greater power output during very short periods of time (30s) (Figure 4C).

 We further show that acute endurance exercise (45 min at 50% VO2max) raises plasma GDF15 levels in both middle-aged and elderly obese subjects (Human study 3) (Figure 4D & E). Plasma GDF15 levels were measured at rest and immediately after exercise at baseline and in response to an 8-week lifestyle intervention program combining moderate calorie restriction and aerobic and resistance exercise. Obese subjects lost in average 5.1±0.5 kg post- lifestyle intervention (data not shown). Exercise-induced increase of plasma GDF15 was observed in both groups at baseline and post-lifestyle (Figure 4D & E). When combining all subjects, we observed a slight but significant increase of plasma GDF15 levels in response to lifestyle-induced weight loss (Figure 4F). This increase of plasma GDF15 tended to be positively correlated with lifestyle-induced weight loss in elderly obese subjects (r=0.66; p=0.07). Lean healthy and middle-aged obese subjects had plasma GDF15 levels within the same range (Figure 4G), while BMI-matched elderly obese had higher circulating levels of GDF15 compared to middle-aged obese individuals (Figure 4H). Consistent with this finding, we observed a significant positive correlation between resting plasma GDF15 levels and age in Human study 3 (r=0.512, p=0.043). Interestingly, no sex-difference in resting plasma GDF15 levels were found in Human study 4 (men: 475±56 vs women: 472±46 pg/ml).

 Collectively, we here show that plasma GDF15 responds to various modalities of exercise in lean and obese individuals, and increases with aging.

GDF15 targets human adipose tissue to promote lipolysis

 We noted a positive correlation between plasma glycerol and GDF15 level in all obese subjects investigated at rest and during exercise (Human study 3) (Figure S3A). We further observed a nearly significant positive relationship (r=0.35, p=0.067) between changes in plasma GDF15 levels and changes in BMI in obese individuals in response to very low calorie diet-induced weight loss (Human study 4) (Figure S3B). We therefore hypothesized that GDF15 was able to target white adipose tissue to induce lipolysis and weight loss. We first examined GDF15 receptors GFRAL and RET mRNA levels in human abdominal adipose tissue biopsy samples (Human study 4). We found a significant expression of the GDF15 cognate receptor GFRAL in whole adipose tissue fraction as well as in isolated adipocytes (Figure S4A). Interestingly, GFRAL expression was virtually null in whole human muscle tissue. The co-receptor RET followed a similar pattern of expression as GFRAL in adipose tissue except for whole skeletal muscle tissue where its expression was comparable to whole adipose tissue (Figure S4B). As both GFRAL and RET were expressed to comparable levels in adipocytes and adipose stroma vascular cells, we further examined both GDF15 receptor expression in sorted stromal cells. We observed that both GFRAL (Figure S4C) and RET (Figure S4D) were predominantly expressed in preadipocytes, again confirming a metabolic role of GDF15 in adipocytes. Neither GFRAL (Figure S4E) nor RET (Figure S4F) adipose gene expression were influenced by obesity grade. However they were both associated with a number of biological and clinical variables such as plasma triglycerides, HOMA-IR and Matsuda index, while adipose RET mRNA levels were inversely related to BMI (Table 1).

 We then investigated the effect of recombinant human GDF15 (rhGDF15) protein on lipolysis in human abdominal adipose tissue explants. rhGDF15 significantly modestly increased 210 lipolysis at the physiological concentration of 1 ng/ml $(\sim 10\%$, p $\lt 0.05)$, reflected by both glycerol (Figure 5A) and NEFA release (Figure 5B). This lipolytic response was weak compared to those observed for forskolin and the non selective β-adrenergic agonist isoprenaline which increased lipolysis to about 2-3 fold. A higher supra-physiological 214 concentration of rhGDF15 at 100 ng/ml did not further raised basal lipolysis $(\sim 11\% , p<0.05)$ in adipose explants from 6 independent donors (Figure 5C-D). Even more remarkable, we demonstrate that blocking GDF15 with a neutralizing IgG antibody of hGDF15 completely abrogates the lipolytic response of EPS24h CM (Figure 5E), thus indicating that GDF15 likely triggers most, if not all, the EPS24h CM lipolytic effect in hMADS adipocytes. To validate this finding, we verified that incubating a non-specific IgG antibody in control wells did not affect basal lipolysis (data not shown). We finally wondered whether this lipolytic effect of GDF15 was a human specificity. We measured both GFRAL and GDF15 gene expression in whole brain, perigonadic white adipose tissue and skeletal muscle of adult female mice. Although GDF15 was expressed in all three organs (Figure S5A), GFRAL was only detectable in brain (Figure S5B), thus confirming recent findings (16).

 Altogether, our data provide the first evidence that GDF15 can target human adipose tissue to trigger lipolysis.

Discussion

 Investigators have been searching for a link between muscle contraction and metabolic changes in other organs such as the liver and the adipose tissue for a few decades. The targets of an 'exercise factor' have been humoral proteins released from skeletal muscle during contraction that mediate the adaptations of chronic exercise training (4, 20). This has opened a novel paradigm that skeletal muscle is an endocrine organ producing and releasing hormones, i.e. myokines, which exerts endocrine effects on remote organs (4, 21). We here provide compelling evidence that GDF15 behaves as a novel exerkine involved in a crosstalk between skeletal muscle and adipose tissue (Figure 5F). We show that the cellular stress mediated by skeletal muscle contraction can be translated into a systemic response through GDF15- mediated lipolysis in white adipocytes.

 As we hypothesized that skeletal muscle contraction can release a cellular stress signal able to induce lipolysis, we developed an experimental model of exercise in cultured human myotubes. Human primary culture of skeletal muscle cells has been widely used by several investigators (22-26) and provides a powerful tool for mechanistic studies of skeletal muscle 242 and to study muscle autonomous adaptations in the absence of the systemic milieu (27). EPS of human myotubes can be used to induce forced contraction and mimic exercise *in vitro* (28). Although some studies have used EPS to assess individual variability in biological response to exercise *in vitro* (29, 30) and to identify novel secreted factors by skeletal muscle contraction (31-33), very few have investigated how closely EPS recapitulates the metabolic consequences of exercise. We here developed two exercise models: one acute high intensity exercise that recapitulates the expected physiological responses with strong glycogen depletion and high lactate production (34), and one chronic moderate exercise which more closely mimics the biological adaptations of endurance exercise training with increased basal glycogen storage along with an up-regulation of substrate oxidation rates (35).

 To identify potential muscle contraction-derived lipolytic factors, we analyzed CM from our two exercise models with human adipocytes. Remarkably, CM from both exercise models increased basal lipolysis. This effect was quite modest for the acute intense exercise model but more pronounced for the chronic moderate exercise model. Thus a muscle contraction-derived factor contained in CM has the potential to promote lipolysis. Among the currently known myokines, only IL6 has been previously suggested to induce lipolysis in humans (36). Later the same authors proposed that muscle-derived IL6 does not promote fat mobilization from subcutaneous adipose tissue, at least at moderate exercise intensity (37), but rather selectively stimulates fat metabolism in human skeletal muscle (38). This observation was corroborated by *in vitro* work in adipose tissue explants showing that IL6 inhibits lipoprotein lipase activity (39). Altogether most evidence so far indicates that IL6 does not acutely stimulate lipolysis in human adipose tissue. In order to unravel novel putative lipolytic myokines, we performed a proteomic screen of EPS CM and identified GDF15 as a significantly up-regulated protein in our two *in vitro* exercise models. GDF15 mRNA levels rise within 30min in response to muscle contraction, followed by an elevated secretion by 1h. GDF15 gene expression was also induced by pharmacological exercise-mimetics such as ionomycin and the PPARβ agonist GW0742, but remained insensitive to activation of cAMP- signaling by forskolin. This indicates that other molecular pathways related to exercise are involved in GDF15 regulation beyond muscle contraction. As GDF15 is a stress-responsive factor, components of the integrated stress response pathway including the protein kinase R (PKR)-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase (PERK), the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 273 2-alpha (EIF2 α), the activating transcription factor 4 (ATF4) and the CCAAT-enhancer- binding protein homologous protein (CHOP) may be involved (11). A few studies have already suggested that this integrated stress response pathway is activated by exercise (40, 41). Thus several molecular pathways may be involved in the regulation of GDF15 expression/secretion in skeletal muscle.

 We consolidated our *in vitro* findings showing that GDF15 mRNA levels rise from 2- to 20-fold in skeletal muscle of lean healthy subjects in response to acute aerobic exercise. This local rise of GDF15 in skeletal muscle was paralleled by an increase of circulating GDF15 levels during endurance and sprint interval exercise in lean healthy volunteers. Although circulating GDF15 can originate from other tissue sources, it is tempting to speculate, based on our data, that contracting skeletal muscle contributes to increase circulating GDF15 levels during exercise. This is in contrast with a recent study suggesting that the rise of circulating GDF15 during exhaustive exercise appears independent of skeletal muscle (19). Alternatively, muscle-derived GDF15 could play a paracrine role within skeletal muscle to target intramuscular adipose tissue. Obesity did not alter exercise-induced circulating GDF15, but interestingly, lifestyle-induced weight loss in middle-aged and elderly obese individuals significantly increased baseline circulating GDF15 levels. The rise of plasma GDF15 levels was positively related to weight loss in response to the lifestyle program in elderly obese people, again highlighting a link between GDF15 and adipose tissue loss. Emmerson et al. observed that human subcutaneous adipose tissue is a significant site of expression of the GDF15 receptor GFRAL (16). We therefore went on to hypothesize that GDF15 could target adipose tissue to promote lipolysis.

 GDF15 is a cellular stress-responsive hormone that has recently gained much interest as anti-obesity therapy (42, 43). Recent studies indicate that GDF15 binds to a heterodimeric receptor complex composed of GFRAL and RET which expression is restricted to the brainstem in mice (14-17). We here provide evidence that GFRAL and RET are significantly expressed in human adipocyte. A comparable expression is also found in the stroma vascular fraction of adipose tissue, and further cell-type specific analyses revealed that both GFRAL and RET are predominantly expressed in preadipocytes compared to macrophages and lymphocytes. In contrast, GFRAL expression is skeletal muscle tissue is virtually null thus excluding a potential autocrine role of GDF15. Our data are consistent with the Genotype- Tissue Expression (GTEx) public database indicating that GFRAL is predominantly expressed in human subcutaneous adipose tissue. Of interest, GFRAL and RET gene expression in subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue is not influenced by adiposity and obesity grade. Adipose GFRAL and RET gene expression correlated positively with plasma triglycerides, HOMA-IR and Matsuda index. This is consistent with the recent observation that GDF15 behaves as a nutritional stress signal induced by long-term high fat feeding and metabolic disturbances in mice (9-11). In line with an effect of GDF15 on adipose tissue, adipose RET gene expression was inversely related to BMI. Consistently, we here show that a physiological concentration of recombinant human GDF15 induces lipolysis in a comparable range as forskolin in human subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue explants. In our clinical studies and other studies, circulating GDF15 typically ranged between 0.3 and 1 ng/ml (43, 44). Higher supra-physiological concentrations up to 100 ng/ml, as observed in cancer cachexia (44), did not further increase lipolysis. Most importantly, neutralization of GDF15 in EPS24h CM with a monoclonal antibody completely abrogated lipolysis, implying that GDF15 triggers most if not all the lipolytic response in CM from EPS-stimulated human myotubes. The higher lipolytic response observed in EPS24h CM could be explained by the nearly 2-fold greater concentration of GDF15 accumulated in the medium over 24h. Adipocyte lipolysis is a major physiological process of fuel supply in conditions of increased energy needs such as exercise (45, 46). Our work identifies GDF15 as a novel homeostatic hormone of the crosstalk between contracting skeletal muscles and adipose tissue in humans.

 In summary, GDF15 is a novel 'exercise factor' involved in a homeostatic regulation loop between contracting skeletal muscles and adipose tissue. Our data suggest that GDF15 is

 rapidly produced upon skeletal muscle contraction and exercise mimetics. Unlike in mice, GFRAL/RET expression is not highly specific to the caudal brain and displays a significant expression in human adipose tissue. As GDF15 has emerged as an interesting anti-obesity therapy through its central effects on appetite suppression, potential peripheral effects should not be neglected. Hence, future studies of the effects of GDF15 in humans are highly needed.

Methods

GDF15 protein level determination

 GDF15 protein levels in cultured CM and plasma samples were determined by ELISA (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, USA).

Lipolysis assay

 Whole cell lipolysis in differentiated hMADS adipocytes was assessed in control and EPS CM supplemented with 2% BSA. The medium was changed, and following 3h of treatment, glycerol and NEFAs released in the medium were measured using commercially available kits (free glycerol reagent from Sigma and NEFA-C from Wako Chemicals). Data were normalized to total cell protein content.

 Thirty grams of subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue were cut with scissors under aseptic conditions into small pieces weighing approximately 10 mg or less. In all experiments, pieces were washed three times with sterile PBS to remove blood cells. The pieces of adipose tissue were centrifuged for 1 min at 300×g at room temperature between each wash. Then 20 g of the pieces of tissue was resuspended in 50 ml of fresh medium containing 10% FCS. The culture medium used was DMEM F12 (Cambrex, Verviers, Belgium) containing 33 μmol/l biotin, 17 μmol/l pantothenate and 50 μg/ml gentamicin. The pieces (200mg/ml) were incubated for 4h with recombinant human GDF15 concentrations of 1 and 100 ng/ml and forskolin 10 µM as positive control. Aliquots of the medium were taken after 4h of incubation and stored at −80°C for glycerol and NEFAs measurements as described above. The pieces were washed three times with PBS, drained, and weighed for data normalization.

Adipose Tissue Fractionation

 Briefly, after collagenase digestion (250 U/mL in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), 2% bovine serum albumin (BSA), pH 7.4, volume/volume) of the adipose tissue for 20 min at 37°C, the floating mature adipocytes were separated from the SVF. Then, the different SVF cells were isolated using an immunoselection/depletion approach utilizing magnetic microbeads coupled to specific CD antibodies (CD31, CD34, CD14) which are membrane cell markers to select the different SVF cell types.

 The preadipocytes are CD34-positive cells (CD34+) and CD31-negative (CD31-) cells. The CD34-negative cells (CD34–) are immune cells (macrophages which are also CD14+ cells and lymphocytes which are CD14- cells) as described in (47).

Skeletal muscle cell primary culture

 Satellite cells from *rectus abdominis* of healthy male subjects (age 34.3 ± 2.5 years, BMI 26.0 \pm 1.4 kg/m2, fasting glucose 5.0 \pm 0.2 mM) were kindly provided by Prof. Arild C. Rustan (Oslo University, Norway). Satellite cells were isolated by trypsin digestion, preplated on an uncoated petri dish for 1 h to remove fibroblasts, and subsequently transferred to T-25 collagen-coated flasks in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) low glucose (1 g/L) supplemented with 16% FBS and various factors (human epidermal growth factor, BSA, dexamethasone, gentamycin, fungizone, fetuin) as previously described (48). Cells from several donors were pooled and grown at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO2. Differentiation of myoblasts (i.e. activated satellite cells) into myotubes was initiated at ∼ 80– 375 90% confluence, by switching to α -Minimum Essential Medium with 2% penicillin- streptomycin, 2% FBS, and fetuin (0.5 mg/ml). The medium was changed every other day and cells were grown up to 5 days.

Electrical Pulse Stimulation

 Skeletal muscle cells were fully differentiated for 4 days, and EPS was then applied using a C‐Pace EP multichannel culture pacer (IonOptix, Dublin, Ireland) for 3h (acute intense exercise model) with a protocol consisting of 24 ms pulses at 10 V, with a frequency of 0,5 Hz, or for 24h (chronic moderate exercise model) with a protocol consisting of 2 ms pulses at 10 V, with a frequency of 0,1 Hz. Respective control media from unstimulated skeletal muscle cells were obtained at 3h and 24h in paired cultures. After completion of EPS, conditioned media (CM) were collected for proteomic screening and CM experiments with hMADS adipocytes. The EPS protocol did not induce any visible cell detachment, and assessment of the cytotoxic effect of EPS based on the release of adenylate kinase in culture media using a colorimetric cytotoxicity assay (ToxiLightTM Non-Destructive Cytotoxicity BioAssay Kit, Lonza, USA) showed that adenylate kinase activity was not significantly changed in medium from stimulated compared to unstimulated myotubes.

Culture of human multipotent adipose-derived stem cells

 hMADS cells were cultured and maintained in proliferation medium (DMEM low glucose 1g/l, 10% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 10 mM HEPES buffer, 50 units/ml of penicillin, 50 mg/ml of streptomycin, supplemented with 2.5 ng/ml of human fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF2)) as previously described (49). The cells were inoculated in 6-well plates at a density of 44'000 cells/ml and kept at 37°C in 5% CO2. Six days post-seeding, FGF2 was removed from proliferation medium. On the next day (day 0), the cells were incubated in differentiation medium (DM; serum-free proliferation medium/Ham's F-12 medium containing 10 μg/ml of transferrin, 10 nM of insulin, 0.2 nM triiodothyronine, 100

 μM 3-isobutyl-1- methylxanthine, 1 μM dexamethasone and 100 nM rosiglitazone). At day 3, dexamethasone and 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine were omitted from DM and at day 10 rosiglitazone was also omitted. Lipolysis experiments with EPS CM and the GDF15 neutralizing antibody were carried out at day 14. Human FGF2, insulin, triiodothyronine, transferrin, 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine, and dexamethasone were from Sigma; L-glutamine, penicillin, and streptomycin from Invitrogen; Hepes, Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium low glucose, and Ham's F-12 medium from Lonza; and rosiglitazone from Alexis Biochemicals.

Determination of glucose metabolism

 Total glycogen content was determined spectrophotometrically after complete hydrolysis into glucose by the α-amiloglucosidase as previously described (50). For glycogen synthesis experiments, myotubes were pre-incubated with a glucose- and serum-free medium for 90 414 min, then exposed to DMEM supplemented with $D[U^{-14}C]$ glucose (1 µCi/ml; PerkinElmer, Boston, MA) for 3 hours. Following incubation, glucose oxidation was determined by 416 counting of 14 CO2 released into the culture medium. The cells were then solubilized in KOH 30% and glycogen synthesis was determined as previously described (26).

Determination of palmitate oxidation

420 Myotubes were preincubated for 3 hours with $[1 - {^{14}C}]$ palmitate (1 µCi/mL; PerkinElmer) and 421 nonlabeled (cold) palmitate (100 µM final concentration). Palmitate was coupled to a fatty 422 acid (FA)–free BSA in a molar ratio of 5:1. After incubation, $^{14}CO2$ and ^{14}C -acid soluble metabolite were measured as previously described (51). All assays were performed in duplicate, and data were normalized to cell protein content.

Mass spectrometry-based quantitative analysis of myotube secretome

 Methods are detailed in Supplementary Methods. After protein extraction from culture media (N=4 per group), one sample pool, comprising equal amounts of all protein extracts, was 429 generated for quality assessment of LC-MS/MS. Individual samples and the sample pool were electrophoresed using SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) gels. Five protein bands (2mm each) per lane were excised from the gels, and proteins were in-gel reduced and alkylated using an automatic pipetting device (MassPrep, Waters), then digested at 37°C overnight with trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). A set of reference peptides [Indexed Retention Time (iRT) Kit; Biognosys, Schlieren, Switzerland] was added to the resulting peptides to allow the stability of instrument performances to be measured for QC purposes.

 Samples were analyzed on a nano–ultraperformance LC system (nanoAcquity; Waters, Milford, MA, USA) coupled to a quadrupole-Orbitrap hybrid mass spectrometer (Q-Exactive plus; ThermoFisher Scientific). Mass spectrometry data were processed using MaxQuant software (v.1.5.8.3; Max Planck Institute of Biochemistry, Martinsried, Germany) (52). Peak lists were created using default parameters and searched using the Andromeda search engine (revert mode) implemented in MaxQuant against a protein database created using the MSDA software suite (53). The database contained human protein sequences (Swiss- Prot; [https://www.uniprot.org/taxonomy/;](https://www.uniprot.org/taxonomy/) Taxonomy ID: 9606; 20,195 entries), which were downloaded in October 2017. Sequences of common contaminants like keratins and trypsin (247 entries) were added to the database (contaminants.fasta included in MaxQuant). A false discovery rate of 1% for both peptide spectrum matches (minimum length of 7 amino acids) and proteins was accepted during identification. Regarding quantification, data normalization and protein abundance estimation was performed using the label-free quantification (LFQ; (52)) option offered in MaxQuant. Proteins identified with only one unique peptide were not considered for quantification. Only proteins with at least three of four valid values per group as well as the ones absent (i.e., 0 valid values) in samples from a given group were kept for further analysis. The MS proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the Pride partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD014126.

 QC-related measurements showed that HPLC performance remained good and stable throughout the whole experiment, with a median coefficient of variation of 0.5% concerning retention times of all iRT peptides when considering all injections. The reproducibility of quantitative data was also satisfactory because we recorded low median coefficients of variation for MaxQuant-derived LFQ values of all quantified proteins within each of the four experimental groups (31%) and in the sample pool of all samples injected repeatedly during 461 the course of MS-based analyses (21%).

Real-time qPCR

 Total RNA from cultured myotubes or *vastus lateralis* muscle was isolated using Qiagen RNeasy mini kit according to manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany). The quantity of RNA was determined on a Nanodrop ND-1000 (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL, USA). Reverse-transcriptase PCR was performed on a Techne PCR System TC-412 using the Multiscribe Reverse Transcriptase method (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Real- time quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed to determine cDNA content. All primers were bought from Applied Biosystems and were: *18S* (Taqman assay ID: Hs99999901_s1), *GDF15* (Hs00171132_m1), *GFRAL* (Hs01087628_m1), *RET* (Hs01120030_m1), IL6 (Hs00985639_m1), *IL15* (Hs01003716_m1), *FGF21* (Hs00173927_m1), *Myostatin* (Hs00976237_m1), *FNDC5* (Hs00401006_m1), *Apelin* (Hs00175572_m1), *BDNF* (Hs03805848_m1). The amplification reaction was performed in duplicate on 20ng of cDNA in 96-well reaction plates on a StepOnePlusTMsystem (Applied Biosystems). All expression data were normalized by the 2(ΔCt) method using *18S* or *PUM1* as internal controls for cell type or whole adipose tissue data, respectively.

Statistics

 All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 7.0 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA). Normal distribution and homogeneity of variance of the data were tested using Shapiro-Wilk and F tests, respectively. Two-tailed Student's unpaired and paired t-tests were performed to determine differences between treatments. Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's post hoc tests were used when appropriate. All values in figures 485 and tables are presented as mean \pm SEM. Statistical significance was set at p \leq 0.05.

Supplemental Information

The supplemental information contains 5 figures, supplemental methods and references.

Author contributions

 CL, AP, EM, DC, BL, PM, JV, NB, CF, MM, DL, IH, CT, EM, SCB, VB, GT, JLG, AB, DL, NV, FB, SB, IdG, DOG, and CM researched data and edited the manuscript, CL, DOG, FB, and CM contributed to study design and revised the manuscript, CL and CM wrote the manuscript.

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Figure 1. Acute intense and chronic moderate exercise model validation in human myotubes

 (A-D) Acute intense exercise model, EPS3h: (A) total glycogen content, (B) lactate secretion, (C) glucose oxidation rate, and (D) palmitate oxidation rate in five days cultured human myotubes submitted to 3h EPS to mimic an acute high intensity exercise *in vitro*. Data are 660 expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=8). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 compared to control by two-tailed unpaired Student t-test.

 (E-H) Chronic moderate exercise model, EPS24h: (E) total glycogen content, (F) basal glycogen synthesis rate, (G) glucose oxidation rate, and (H) palmitate oxidation rate in five days cultured human myotubes submitted to 24h EPS to mimic moderate chronic exercise 665 training *in vitro*. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=8). *p < 0.05 compared to control by two-tailed unpaired Student t-test.

 (I-K) Conditioned media experiments between human myotubes and human adipocytes: (I) experimental design, (J) conditioned media of EPS3h-stimulated myotubes, and (K) conditioned media of EPS24h-stimulated myotubes were applied on differentiated hMADS adipocytes for 24h to measure glycerol output, a surrogate of lipolysis. Data are expressed as 671 mean \pm SEM (n=16-20). ***p < 0.01 compared to control by two-tailed unpaired Student t-test.

Figure 2. Identification of GDF15 as a novel exercise-regulated myokine

 (A-C) Proteomic screen of conditioned media from EPS3h-stimulated myotubes: (A) Volcano plot of the unbiased proteomic screen reveal GDF15 as a significantly up-regulated protein in conditioned media, (B) quantification of GDF15 protein in media from the protein screen, (C) quantification of GDF15 protein secretion by ELISA in five days cultured human myotubes submitted to 3h EPS to mimic an acute intense exercise *in vitro*. Data are expressed as mean ± 680 SEM (n=16). $np < 0.05$, $*p < 0.01$ compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test.

 (D-F) Proteomic screen of conditioned media from EPS24h-stimulated myotubes: (D) Volcano plot of the unbiased proteomic screen reveal GDF15 as a significantly up-regulated protein in conditioned media, (E) quantification of GDF15 protein in media from the protein screen, (F) quantification of GDF15 protein secretion by ELISA in five days cultured human myotubes submitted to 24h EPS to mimic a moderate chronic exercise training *in vitro*. Data 686 are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=16). *p < 0.05 compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test.

 (G) Time-course of GDF15 protein secretion in acutely EPS-stimulated myotubes. Data are 689 expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=6). **p < 0.01 compared to control by two-way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni post-hoc test.

Figure 3. GDF15 gene expression changes in contracting skeletal muscle

 (A) Time-course of GDF15 mRNA level in acutely EPS-stimulated myotubes. Data are 694 expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=6). **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 compared to control by two-way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni post-hoc test.

 (B) GDF15 mRNA level in EPS3h-stimulated myotubes and (C) in EPS24h-stimulated 697 myotubes. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=12). **p < 0.01 compared to control by two-tailed unpaired Student t-test.

 (D-F) GDF15 mRNA level changes in response to exercise-mimetics: five days cultured 700 human myotubes were treated for 3h with (D) Forskolin 10 μ M, (E) Ionomycin 4 μ M, (F) and 701 the PPAR δ agonist GW0742 100 nM. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=6). **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 compared to control by two-tailed unpaired Student t-test.

 (G) GDF15 mRNA level changes in muscle *vastus lateralis* biopsy samples taken before and immediately after a 1h acute exercise bout in lean healthy volunteers (Human study 1). Data 705 are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=18). ***p < 0.001 compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test.

Figure 4. Changes in plasma GDF15 levels with exercise, obesity and lifestyle intervention

 (A-C) Human study 2: plasma GDF15 changes in lean healthy volunteers in response to (A) endurance exercise 1h at 60% VO2max, (B) sprint interval exercise 7 repetitions at 130% of maximal workload, (C) delta change from rest to exercise during endurance versus sprint 713 interval exercise. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=8-15). **p < 0.01 compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test.

 (D-F) Human study 3: plasma GDF15 changes in obese middle-aged (D) and elderly (E) subjects at baseline and in response to a 8-week lifestyle intervention-induced weight loss 717 program. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=8). **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test. (F) Plasma GDF15 changes in response to 719 lifestyle-induced weight loss in obese individuals (all subjects). Data are expressed as mean \pm 720 SEM (n=16). $\mathbf{\hat{p}}$ < 0.05 compared to control by two-tailed paired Student t-test.

(G) Plasma GDF15 levels in lean healthy (study 2) versus middle-aged obese (study 3).

(H) Plasma GDF15 levels in middle-aged obese versus elderly obese (study 3).

Figure 5. GDF15 promotes lipolysis in human adipose tissue

 (A-B) Lipolytic response measured by glycerol release (A) and non-esterified fatty acid release (B) in human abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue explants in basal condition and 727 in response to 1 and 100 ng/ml of recombinant human GDF15, 10 μ M forskolin (FK) and 1 728 µM isoprenaline (ISO). Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=18, 3 replicates of 6 729 independent donors). ${}^*\mathsf{p} < 0.05$, ${}^*\mathsf{p} < 0.01$ compared by unpaired Student t-test.

 (C-D) Lipolytic response measured by glycerol release (C) and non-esterified fatty acid release (D) in human abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue explants in basal condition and 732 in response to 100 ng/ml of recombinant human GDF15. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM 733 (n=6 independent donors). $np < 0.05$ compared by unpaired Student t-test.

 (E) Conditioned media of EPS24h-stimulated myotubes were applied on differentiated hMADS adipocytes for 24h to measure glycerol output, a surrogate of lipolysis, in absence or 736 presence of a GDF15 neutralizing antibody. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=5). *p < 0.05 compared to control by one-way ANOVA.

 (F) Integrative model of the skeletal muscle-adipose tissue crosstalk orchestrated by GDF15. Upon muscle contraction, GDF15 is released, reach its target receptors GFRAL/RET on adipose tissue to activate lipolysis which releases non esterified fatty acid further serving as fuels to supply muscle contraction.

742 **Table 1. Relationship between biological and anthropometric variables and**

GFRAL			
	0.126	0.022	329
RET	0.178	0.001	326
GFRAL	0.056	0.308	332
RET	0.114	0.034	329
GFRAL	0.112	0.046	316
RET	0.085	0.135	313
GFRAL	0.137	0.017	306
RET	0.157	0.006	303
GFRAL	-0.127	0.027	305
RET	-0.166	0.004	302
GFRAL	0.028	0.693	330
RET	-0.121	0.029	327
GFRAL	0.106	0.053	329
RET	0.041	0.460	326
			These data were obtained from Human study 4. BMI, body mass index; HOMA-IR,

743 **subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue GFRAL and RET mRNA levels**

745 homeostatic model assessment of insulin resistance; r: Pearson correlation coefficients. The 746 Matsuda index was calculated as 10 000/square root of [(fasting glucose \times fasting insulin) \times 747 (mean glucose \times mean insulin during OGTT)].