

1 **Title**

2 Metabolomics reveals determinants of weight loss during lifestyle intervention in obese  
3 children

4

5 **Authors and Affiliations**

6 Simone Wahl<sup>1</sup>, Christina Holzapfel<sup>1,2</sup>, Zhonghao Yu<sup>1</sup>, Michaela Breier<sup>1</sup>, Ivan Kondofersky<sup>3</sup>,  
7 Christiane Fuchs<sup>3</sup>, Paula Singmann<sup>1</sup>, Cornelia Prehn<sup>4</sup>, Jerzy Adamski<sup>4,5</sup>, Harald Grallert<sup>1</sup>,  
8 Thomas Illig<sup>1,6\*</sup>, Rui Wang-Sattler<sup>1</sup>, Thomas Reinehr<sup>7</sup>

9

10 <sup>1</sup>Research Unit of Molecular Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München – German  
11 Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, Germany

12 <sup>2</sup>Else Kroener-Fresenius-Center for Nutritional Medicine, Technische Universität München,  
13 University Hospital „Klinikum rechts der Isar“, Munich, Germany

14 <sup>3</sup>Institute of Bioinformatics and Systems Biology, Helmholtz Zentrum München – German  
15 Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, Germany

16 <sup>4</sup>Institute of Experimental Genetics, Genome Analysis Center, Helmholtz Zentrum München  
17 – German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, Germany

18 <sup>5</sup>Institute of Experimental Genetics, Life and Food Science Center Weihenstephan,  
19 Technische Universität München, Freising-Weihenstephan, Germany

20 <sup>6</sup>Medical School Hannover, Hannover Unified Biobank, Hanover, Germany

21 <sup>7</sup>Vestische Kinder- und Jugendklinik Datteln, University of Witten-Herdecke, Datteln,  
22 Germany

23

24 \* Correspondence to Thomas Illig, Research Unit of Molecular Epidemiology, Helmholtz  
25 Zentrum München – German Research Center for Environmental Health, Ingolstädter  
26 Landstraße 1, 85764 Neuherberg, Germany. Phone: +49 89 3187 1195. Fax: +49 89 3187  
27 4567. E-mail: illig@helmholtz-muenchen.de

28

29 **Abbreviated title**

30 Determinants of weight loss in children

31

32 **Abstract**

33 **The amount of weight loss in obese children during lifestyle intervention differs strongly**  
34 **between individuals. The metabolic processes underlying this variability are largely**  
35 **unknown. We hypothesize that metabolomics analyses of serum samples might help to**  
36 **identify metabolic predictors of weight loss. In this study, we investigated 80 obese**  
37 **children aged 6 to 15 years having completed the one-year lifestyle intervention program**  
38 **‘Obeldicks’, 40 that achieved a substantial reduction of their body mass index standard**  
39 **deviation score (BMI-SDS) during this intervention (defined as BMI-SDS reduction**  
40  **$\geq 0.5$ ), and 40 that did not improve their overweight status (BMI-SDS reduction  $< 0.1$ ).**  
41 **Anthropometric and clinical parameters were measured and baseline fasting serum**  
42 **samples of all children were analyzed with a mass spectrometry-based metabolomics**  
43 **approach targeting 163 metabolites. Both univariate regression models and a**  
44 **multivariate least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) approach**  
45 **identified lower serum concentrations of long-chain unsaturated phosphatidylcholines as**  
46 **well as smaller waist circumference as significant predictors of BMI-SDS reduction**  
47 **during intervention (p-values univariate models: 5.3E-03 to 1.0E-04). A permutation test**  
48 **showed that the LASSO model explained a significant part of BMI-SDS change (p =**  
49 **4.6E-03). Our results suggest a role of phosphatidylcholine metabolism and abdominal**  
50 **obesity in body weight regulation. These findings might lead to a better understanding**  
51 **of the mechanisms behind the large inter-individual variation in response to lifestyle**  
52 **interventions, which is a prerequisite for the development of individualized intervention**  
53 **programs.**

54

55 **Key words:** Childhood obesity; weight loss prediction; overweight reduction; metabolomics; BMI-SDS  
56 reduction; LASSO

## 57 **1 Introduction**

58 Lifestyle intervention programs based on physical activity, nutrition and behaviour modification lead to a  
59 moderate weight loss in overweight and obese children (Oude Luttikhuis et al., 2009; Reinehr, 2011). However,  
60 the degree of overweight reduction during such programs largely differs between individuals. Furthermore, not  
61 all participating children reduce their overweight to a degree that is sufficient for an improvement of  
62 cardiovascular risk factors (Reinehr and Andler, 2004; Reinehr et al., 2004; Ford et al., 2010). For instance,  
63 during the lifestyle intervention program ‘Obeldicks’, about twenty percent of the children achieved a body mass  
64 index standard deviation score (BMI-SDS) reduction of at least 0.5, which is associated with improvements of  
65 insulin sensitivity, blood lipid profile and blood pressure (Reinehr and Andler, 2004; Reinehr et al., 2004). A  
66 similar success rate was observed during other programs (Sabin et al., 2007; Ford et al., 2010).

67 The search for factors predicting a child’s response to a lifestyle intervention is of great interest. With the  
68 knowledge of such factors, lifestyle based therapeutic options could be focused on the children that are likely to  
69 benefit most (Reinehr et al., 2003). In addition, a thorough understanding of the metabolic processes underlying  
70 the large inter-individual variability in weight loss is essential for the development of personalized intervention  
71 strategies.

72 So far, few determinants have been identified that reliably predict the response to lifestyle intervention. Both  
73 environmental and genetic factors are likely to play a role. Familial environment, socio-economic status and  
74 psychosocial factors affect a child’s adaptation of behaviour changes (Reinehr, 2011). At the same time, weight  
75 change in response to hypo- or hypercaloric challenge has a considerable heritable component, as observed in  
76 twin studies (Bouchard et al., 1990; Bouchard et al., 1994). Also, genetic (Ghosh et al., 2011; Reinehr, 2011) and  
77 epigenetic (Campión et al., 2009) factors showed an association with the amount of weight loss in children.  
78 Furthermore, metabolic factors have been linked to weight loss in both adults and children, most prominently  
79 serum leptin concentration (Fleisch et al., 2007; Reinehr et al., 2009).

80 In the search for weight loss predictors, the potential of high-throughput -omics techniques such as  
81 metabolomics or transcriptomics has merely been exploited (Ghosh et al., 2011; Pathmasiri et al., 2012; Wang et  
82 al., 2012). Earlier metabolomics studies have shown that childhood obesity is associated with characteristic  
83 changes in the serum metabolome (Mihalik et al., 2012; Wahl et al., 2012). We therefore hypothesize that the  
84 serum metabolite profile might also be reflective of metabolic processes involved in weight loss regulation. In  
85 this study, we aimed to identify serum metabolites, anthropometric and clinical variables associated with weight

86 loss in obese children during the lifestyle intervention program “Obeldicks”. Going a step further, we used a  
87 regularized regression approach, the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO), to build a  
88 predictive model for BMI-SDS change ( $\Delta$  BMI-SDS) during intervention.

89

90

## 91 **2 Materials and Methods**

92

### 93 **2.1 Subjects**

94 ‘Obeldicks’ is a one-year weight loss program based on physical activity, nutritional education and behaviour  
95 therapy that includes individual psychological care of the child and his/her family. The program is tailored to  
96 obese children aged 6 to 15 years and is conducted at the outpatient clinic for obesity of the Vestische Kinder-  
97 und Jugendklinik Datteln, Germany. All participating children were born in Germany. Children with syndromal  
98 obesity, psychiatric or endocrine disorders including type 2 diabetes mellitus were excluded. A detailed  
99 description of the program can be found elsewhere (Reinehr et al., 2006). Written informed consent was obtained  
100 from all parents and all children from the age of 12 years. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of  
101 the University of Witten/Herdecke.

102 Of the children who had completed the ‘Obeldicks’ program in 2008 or 2009, we randomly selected 40 children  
103 who had reduced their BMI-SDS substantially during their one-year participation, as defined by a BMI-SDS  
104 reduction of  $\geq 0.5$ , and 40 with a BMI-SDS reduction of  $< 0.1$  and a similar distribution of sex, pubertal stage  
105 and age. The cut-off at a BMI-SDS of 0.5 was chosen based on the finding of previous studies that this amount  
106 of BMI-SDS reduction leads to a considerable improvement of the cardiovascular risk profile (Reinehr et al.,  
107 2004; Ford et al., 2010). Compliance was given for all 80 children by participation in at least 90% of the  
108 meetings.

109

### 110 **2.2 Anthropometric measures**

111 Body height was measured to the nearest centimetre using a rigid stadiometer. Undressed body weight was  
112 measured to the nearest 0.1 kilogram (kg) using a calibrated balance scale. Body mass index (BMI) was

113 calculated as body weight divided by squared body height in m<sup>2</sup>. BMI percentiles as well as BMI-SDS were  
114 calculated according to Cole's LMS-method (Cole, 1990), applied to German reference data (Kromeyer-  
115 Hauschild et al., 2001). All children's BMI was above the 97<sup>th</sup> percentile.

116 Waist circumference was measured half-way between lower rib and iliac crest (Kromeyer-Hauschild et al.,  
117 2008). Pubertal stage was assessed according to Marshall and Tanner (1969; 1970) and categorized into three  
118 stages based on pubic hair and genital stages: *prepubertal* = boys / girls with pubic hair stage I and gonadal /  
119 breast stage I; *pubertal/postpubertal* = boys / girls with pubic hair stage  $\geq$  II and gonadal / breast stage  $\geq$  II and  
120 boys with change of voice and girls with menarche. Systolic and diastolic blood pressure was measured twice  
121 according to a validated protocol and the two measurements were averaged (National High Blood Pressure  
122 Education Program Working Group on High Blood Pressure in Children and Adolescents, 2004).

123

### 124 **2.3 Sampling and biochemical measurements**

125 Blood samples were taken at 8 a.m. after overnight fasting for at least 10 hours. Following coagulation at room  
126 temperature, blood samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 8000 rpm and aliquoted. Biochemical measurements  
127 were conducted directly on the fresh serum samples. Triglyceride, total cholesterol and glucose concentrations  
128 were determined with a colorimetric test using the Vitro<sup>TM</sup> analyzer (Ortho Clinical Diagnostics,  
129 Neckargemuend, Germany). Low density lipoprotein (LDL) and high density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol  
130 were measured with an enzymatic test using the LDL-C and HDL-C-Plus<sup>TM</sup> assays (Roche Diagnostics,  
131 Mannheim, Germany), respectively. Insulin concentrations were determined with a microparticle-enhanced  
132 immunometric assay (MEIA<sup>TM</sup>, Abbott, Wiesbaden, Germany). Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation  
133 were  $< 5\%$  for all tests. As a measure of insulin resistance, the homeostasis model assessment of insulin  
134 resistance (HOMA-IR) was calculated as serum insulin (mU/l) \* serum glucose (mmol/l) / 22.5 (Matthews et al.,  
135 1985). This index has been validated in healthy children (Gungor et al., 2004). Aliquoted serum samples were  
136 stored at -80 °C and thawed only once at room temperature for the metabolomics assay.

137

### 138 **2.4 Targeted metabolomics**

139 For the quantification of 163 metabolites, the AbsoluteIDQ<sup>TM</sup> kit p150 (Biocrates Life Sciences AG, Innsbruck,  
140 Austria) was used, following the instructions described in the manufacturer's manual. Liquid handling of serum

141 samples was performed with a Hamilton Microlab STAR™ robot (Hamilton Bonaduz AG, Bonaduz,  
142 Switzerland). Samples were analyzed on an API4000 LC/MS/MS system (AB Sciex Deutschland GmbH,  
143 Darmstadt, Germany). The whole procedure has been described in detail elsewhere (Illig et al., 2010; Römisch-  
144 Margl et al., 2011).

145 Measurements took place in two batches. To ensure data quality, metabolites that failed in two or more of the  
146 following criteria for measurement stability were excluded from the analysis: (i) The concentration of the  
147 metabolite should be above the limit of detection specified by the manufacturer in at least 60% of the samples.  
148 (ii) The Pearson's correlation coefficient of the metabolite concentrations in 43 samples that were measured on  
149 both batches should be at least 0.5. (iii) For each batch, the coefficient of variation for the metabolite  
150 concentration in a reference sample that was measured five times should not be higher than 0.2. In total, 130  
151 metabolites passed the quality control. Most of the 33 excluded metabolites were characterized by concentrations  
152 below or marginally above the limit of detection. Potential batch effects were corrected by multiplying all values  
153 by a metabolite- and batch-specific correction factor, calculated as the overall geometric mean divided by the  
154 batch-specific geometric mean of metabolite concentrations of the 43 repeatedly measured samples.

155

156

## 157 **2.5 Statistical Analysis**

158

### 159 *2.5.1 Baseline comparisons*

160 Baseline differences in anthropometric variables between children with and without substantial BMI-SDS  
161 reduction were assessed using Wilcoxon rank-sum tests and chi-squared tests for continuous and binary traits,  
162 respectively. Age and BMI-SDS distributions in the two groups of children were additionally compared using  
163 Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Changes in anthropometric and clinical variables during the intervention were  
164 investigated using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests.

165

### 166 *2.5.2 Univariate regression models*

167 To identify pre-intervention variables associated with successful weight loss, two approaches were applied. First,  
168 univariate regression models were fit for each of the pre-intervention metabolites, anthropometric or clinical

169 variables (in total 144 variables) with the binary outcome “Substantial BMI-SDS reduction” and the continuous  
170 outcome  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS. Second,  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS was further examined by a multivariate LASSO regression approach  
171 described below. Missing values (20 in waist circumference and two in LDL and HDL cholesterol concentration)  
172 were assumed to be missing completely at random, and therefore all analyses could be performed with the  
173 available observations only.

174 Univariate logistic regression models with the outcome “Substantial BMI-SDS reduction” were adjusted for sex  
175 and baseline age, pubertal stage and BMI-SDS. To correct for multiple testing, the false discovery rate was  
176 controlled at 5% using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Assuming an  
177 increased power when replacing dichotomized by continuous  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS as outcome, linear regression models  
178 were used to identify pre-intervention variables associated with the continuous outcome  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS. Since the  
179 distribution of the outcome  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS, per design, did not follow a normal distribution (Fig. S1 in the Online  
180 Resource), empirical p-values obtained from a permutation test rather than p-values based on asymptotic theory  
181 are reported (Moore et al., 2003). The idea behind permutation tests is that the distribution of a test statistic  
182 obtained with randomly resampled outcome vectors resembles its distribution under the null hypothesis that  
183 there is no effect. The proportion of resampling folds where the test statistic is at least as extreme as the test  
184 statistic of the original data, can therefore be interpreted as a p-value. Here, we used 10,000 random  
185 permutations of the outcome vector. Permutation p-values were subjected to Benjamini-Hochberg correction.

### 186 2.5.3 *LASSO regression*

187  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS was further investigated using a multivariate approach. In contrast to univariate modeling,  
188 multivariate approaches consider interdependencies between variables, allowing for the formation of predictive  
189 models and the assessment of their prediction accuracy. Due to the fact that the number of variables ( $p = 144$ ) is  
190 larger than the number of subjects ( $n = 80$ ), a classical multivariate regression model could not be fit to the data  
191 at hand including all 144 variables (Hastie et al., 2009). Therefore, we chose a regularized regression approach,  
192 the LASSO (Tibshirani, 1996), using the R package *glmnet* (Friedman et al., 2010). Briefly, a penalization term  
193 is added to the least squares criterion, yielding coefficient estimates shrunk towards zero, dependent on the size  
194 of a penalization parameter  $\lambda$ . We favored this precise approach over other supervised statistical learning  
195 approaches for its intrinsic variable selection property: The most predictive variables are selected into the model,  
196 while the coefficients of the remaining variables are shrunk to zero. The coefficients of the selected variables can  
197 be interpreted as effect strengths (Hastie et al., 2009).



198 To obtain prediction accuracy measures that are unbiased estimates of the true measures in independent data, we  
199 chose a nested cross-validation (CV) approach (Varma and Simon, 2006) in order to tune the penalization  
200 parameter  $\lambda$  in the inner CV loop and estimate the prediction accuracy of the model in the outer 10-fold CV loop  
201 (Ambroise and McLachlan, 2002) (Fig. S2 in the Online Resource). This procedure was repeated randomly 10  
202 times to improve its stability (Braga-Neto and Dougherty, 2004).

203 As measures of prediction accuracy, we calculated the  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  values, defined as 1 minus the residual sum of  
204 squares divided by the total sum of squares, for the total data set, and within CV, respectively. Although these  
205 values cannot, unlike in unregularized regression models, be interpreted as the percentage of total variance of the  
206 outcome explained by the model, they might serve as goodness-of-fit measures with respect to the fit of the  
207 present dataset and to the prediction of independent data, respectively. A permutation test with 10,000  
208 permutations was applied to assess model significance (Radmacher et al., 2002), regarding permutation-based p-  
209 values  $< 0.05$  as significant. The precise CV and permutation scheme is illustrated in Fig. S2 in the Online  
210 Resource.

211 To visualize how variables selected by LASSO regression represent groups of variables showing also a  
212 univariate association with BMI-SDS reduction, the matrix of pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients was  
213 subjected to agglomerative hierarchical clustering using the R package *Heatplus* (Ploner, 2011). Cluster distance  
214 was defined through complete linkage and distance between pairs of variables defined as  $(1-\rho)/2$ , where  $\rho$  is the  
215 Pearson's correlation coefficient. All calculations were performed using R, version 2.14.2 (R Development Core  
216 Team, 2012).

217

218

## 219 3 Results

220

### 221 3.1 Study characteristics at baseline and changes upon lifestyle intervention

222 By design, baseline age, sex, and pubertal stage, but also weight, BMI and BMI-SDS distribution did not differ  
223 significantly between the 40 children who substantially reduced their BMI-SDS ( $\Delta$  BMI-SDS  $\leq$  -0.5) and the 40  
224 who did not ( $\Delta$  BMI-SDS  $>$  0.1) (Table 1; Fig. S3 in the Online Resource).

225 During the intervention,  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS ranged from -1.49 to +0.49 and differed significantly between children  
226 with and without substantial BMI-SDS reduction, with a mean (sd)  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS of -0.68 (0.27) and +0.07 (0.15),  
227 respectively ( $p = 1.4E-14$ ).

228 Children with substantial BMI-SDS reduction significantly improved their waist circumference (-6.0 (15.2) cm,  
229  $p = 5.8E-03$ ) as well as their metabolic risk profile (fasting insulin -5.3 (9.3) mU/l,  $p = 2.2E-04$ ; HOMA-IR -0.5  
230 (4.9) mU/l\*mmol/l,  $p = 4.8E-04$ ; HDL +3.9 (10.2) mg/dl,  $p = 4.8E-02$ ; triglycerides -17.9 (34.4) mg/dl,  $p =$   
231  $5.3E-03$ ; systolic blood pressure -7.6 (19.5) mmHg,  $p = 2.3E-03$ ). In contrast, children without substantial BMI-  
232 SDS reduction mostly did not (Table S1 in the Online Resource).

233

### 234 3.2 Pre-intervention variables associated with weight loss

235 In total, 144 pre-intervention variables, including 130 metabolites and 14 anthropometric or clinical traits, were  
236 subjected to univariate logistic regression with the binary outcome “Substantial BMI-SDS reduction”. None of  
237 the variables reached significance after correction for multiple testing.

238 Next, linear regression models were fit with the continuous outcome  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS. 18 variables showed a  
239 significant positive association with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS after correction for multiple testing (permutation  $p$ -values  
240 ranging from  $5.3E-03$  to  $1.0E-04$ ) (Fig. 1, Table S2 in the Online Resource). These variables included waist  
241 circumference, arginine and LPC a C18:0 serum concentrations, as well as serum concentrations of 13 diacyl  
242 PCs and two acyl-alkyl PCs, which were all long-chained and unsaturated. Most of these variables were also  
243 nominally associated with substantial BMI-SDS reduction (Fig. 1). By trend, a positive association was observed  
244 for all measured diacyl PCs (Table S2 in the Online Resource). None of the baseline clinical traits (blood  
245 pressure, blood lipid and insulin resistance parameters) was significantly associated with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS after  
246 correction for multiple testing.

247

### 248 **3.3 Prediction of weight loss**

249 In order to investigate associations between the 144 pre-intervention variables and  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS in a multivariate  
250 manner, thereby building a predictive model for  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS and assessing its predictive potential, we employed  
251 a regularized regression approach, the LASSO.

252 Three out of the 144 variables were selected into the predictive model (see Material and Methods), namely waist  
253 circumference, PC aa C36:5, and PC aa C32:2. Fig. 2 shows coefficient paths and variable stability for these  
254 variables. The strongest effect and highest stability, that is, the highest selection frequency across the CV folds,  
255 was observed for PC aa C36:5 ( $\beta = 0.0152$ , selection frequency 100%). Of note, LASSO coefficients are not  
256 comparable with the coefficients of the univariate linear regression models due to the shrinkage behavior of the  
257 LASSO (see Materials and Methods).

258 In terms of prediction accuracy, the model had  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  values of 0.267 and 0.116, respectively (Fig. 3). The  
259 significance of the prediction was assessed using a permutation test with the null hypothesis stating that a  $Q^2$   
260 value of 0.116 would be observed by chance. The corresponding p-value was 4.6E-03 so that this hypothesis was  
261 rejected. Thus, we were able to show that our predictive model comprising three metabolic variables explains a  
262 significant part of  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS in obese children during one-year lifestyle intervention.

263 The three variables selected into the LASSO model were also univariately associated with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS (Fig. 1),  
264 with the exception of PC aa C32:2, for which a univariate association was observed only by trend. The selected  
265 variables represented groups of correlated variables significantly associated with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS in the univariate  
266 regression analysis, as can be seen from the correlation and clustering results (Fig. 4).

267

## 268 **4 Discussion**

269 Applying a targeted metabolomics approach combined with clinical and anthropometric measurements, we  
270 investigated pre-intervention factors determining response to lifestyle intervention in obese children. The factors  
271 that showed the strongest association as well as the most stable predictive potential for weight loss were serum  
272 concentrations of diacyl phosphatidylcholines (PCs), and waist circumference.

273

### 274 **4.1 Phosphatidylcholines and weight loss**

275 Children with substantial BMI-SDS reduction had lower pre-intervention serum concentrations in several PC  
276 species compared to children without substantial BMI-SDS reduction. PCs are produced in most mammalian  
277 cells via the cytidine diphosphate (CDP)-choline pathway (DeLong et al., 1999). In the liver, 30% of PC  
278 synthesis occurs via the phosphatidylethanolamine methyltransferase (PEMT) pathway (Li and Vance, 2008).  
279 The enzyme PEMT methylates phosphatidylethanolamine to produce PCs, which constitutes the only  
280 endogenous pathway of choline synthesis. The PC species derived from both pathways differ in chain length and  
281 degree of saturation (DeLong et al., 1999).

282 The long-chain unsaturated PCs C34:1, C34:3, C36:2, C36:3, C36:5, C38:5 and C40:6 were negatively  
283 associated with BMI-SDS reduction in this study and have recently been shown to be down-regulated in livers of  
284 PEMT<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Jacobs et al., 2010). Also, total serum PC concentration was reduced in PEMT<sup>-/-</sup> mice. Most  
285 interestingly, PEMT<sup>-/-</sup> mice were protected from high-fat diet-induced obesity, having an increased energy  
286 expenditure and normal peripheral insulin sensitivity. These effects were prevented by choline supplementation.  
287 Thus, they are attributable to reduced choline availability upon diminished choline *de novo* production via  
288 PEMT, and an increased consumption of choline by increased compensatory PC production via the CDP-choline  
289 pathway (Jacobs et al., 2010). A protective effect of low plasma choline levels on body mass has also been  
290 observed in a human population-based study (Konstantinova et al., 2008). Low choline levels could increase  
291 energy expenditure via several mechanisms, one being the attenuation of acetylcholine signaling in the brain  
292 (Gautam et al., 2006; Jacobs et al., 2010).

293 We therefore hypothesize that the PC signature that we observed in children with substantial weight loss may  
294 reflect a reduced PEMT activity. Once these children change their nutritional habits, and thereby reduce the  
295 dietary intake of choline, they might have a greater potential to reduce their weight. This assumption is supported

296 by a dietary intervention study in overweight adults, where a PC species that is likely PEMT-derived was  
297 negatively associated with body fat reduction (Smilowitz et al., 2009).

298

## 299 **4.2 Abdominal adipose tissue and weight loss**

300 Waist circumference is an established marker of abdominal obesity in children (Taylor et al., 2000; Schwandt et  
301 al., 2008). In this study, a higher waist circumference was inversely associated with BMI-SDS reduction. This  
302 observation is consistent with the negative link between markers of abdominal fat mass and weight loss success  
303 as well as improvement of insulin sensitivity observed upon lifestyle intervention in adults (Teixeira et al., 2004;  
304 Thamer et al., 2007). However, the opposite association has been reported (Wabitsch et al., 1992; Carmichael et  
305 al., 1998).

306 There is biological evidence for a role of abdominal adipose tissue in weight regulation. It is well recognized that  
307 abdominal adipose tissue is an endocrine organ that contributes to the subclinical inflammation associated with  
308 obesity by secreting a range of bioactive molecules called adipokines (Wajchenberg, 2000). Of note, an  
309 increasing number of studies in both children (Fleisch et al., 2007; Reinehr et al., 2009; Murer et al., 2011) and  
310 adults (Verdich et al., 2001; Shih et al., 2006) showed higher serum levels of the adipokine leptin to be  
311 associated with weight gain or poor response to lifestyle intervention. Although leptin exerts anorexigenic  
312 functions, suppressing food intake and increasing energy expenditure, these negative associations might be  
313 explained by the presence of leptin resistance or central leptin insufficiency (Kalra, 2008; Reinehr et al., 2009).

314 Further, high baseline levels of the adipokine adiponectin predicted weight gain over four years in adults (Hivert  
315 et al., 2011) and promoter methylation of the *tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$*  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) gene, which positively regulated  
316 circulating TNF- $\alpha$  concentration, was negatively associated with weight loss success (Campión et al., 2009).

317 A further line of evidence connects abdominal obesity with resistance to weight loss during lifestyle intervention  
318 via the central action of insulin. Abdominal adipose tissue has been reported to associate with cerebral insulin  
319 resistance (Tschritter et al., 2009), which was related to impaired body fat loss during lifestyle intervention  
320 (Tschritter et al., 2012).

321 Together, these findings concerning adipokines corroborate a complex role of abdominal fat in weight regulation  
322 and might contribute to the explanation why higher waist circumference is associated with poorer weight loss  
323 success during lifestyle intervention in our study. Adipokine measurement was not subject of our study, so it  
324 could not be investigated whether the observed association was mediated by these factors.

325

### 326 **4.3 Predictive potential of the LASSO model and comparison to other studies**

327 Widely used multivariate approaches in metabolomics data analysis are Partial Least Squares (PLS) related  
328 methods. They have, however, the disadvantage, that variable effect strengths are not readily obtained and sparse  
329 models containing only a few important predictor variables for assessment in future studies cannot be derived  
330 easily. We therefore chose to use a LASSO regression approach, which provides, besides measures of prediction  
331 accuracy for the whole model, measures of effect strength and variable stability for the selected variables. Using  
332 this approach, we obtained a model comprising three pre-intervention variables that explained a significant part  
333 of  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS. Although no hard cut-offs exist for  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  values in this regularized regression setting, the  
334 prediction accuracy of the presented model seemed rather moderate ( $R^2 = 0.267$ ,  $Q^2 = 0.116$ ). A recent  
335 investigation of urinary metabolite traits predictive of substantial BMI change in a 3-week treatment camp for  
336 adolescents reported higher values of prediction accuracy (Pathmasiri et al., 2012). A direct comparison is  
337 difficult since their study differed from ours in terms of statistical methods, length and characteristics of  
338 intervention as well as metabolomics technique and investigated biofluids. Overweight change over the course of  
339 one year in an outpatient intervention program might be more strongly influenced by environmental and  
340 psychosocial factors and therefore be less predictable by the here investigated metabolic variables. Also,  
341 Pathmasiri et al. included post-intervention metabolite levels in their prediction model, which we did not, aiming  
342 to obtain a model with prognostic applicability. Results of both studies require external validation in larger  
343 independent data sets.

344 Other studies searching for metabolic predictors of weight loss success investigated single parameters and found  
345 better insulin sensitivity (i.e. lower HOMA-IR, lower fasting insulin or absence of type 2 diabetes) (Harden et  
346 al., 2007; Madsen et al., 2009; Ford et al., 2010) as well as lower serum triglyceride levels (Harden et al., 2007;  
347 Madsen et al., 2009) as predictors of weight loss. In our study, these parameters were not identified as significant  
348 predictors. However, HOMA-IR and serum triglycerides showed a borderline significant negative association  
349 with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS.

350

351

#### 352 **4.4 Strengths and limitations**

353 This is one of the first studies applying a metabolomics approach to identify metabolic predictors of overweight  
354 reduction in obese children upon lifestyle intervention. In addition to the univariate identification of pre-  
355 intervention variables associated with overweight reduction, we used a carefully validated LASSO approach to  
356 build a predictive model for BMI-SDS change.

357 As a limitation of this study, we investigated a small group of children. Larger studies might allow for the  
358 development of sex-, age- and maturity-specific predictive models. The underlying study population did not  
359 represent a random group of obese children. Therefore, the predictive potential of the variables on which the  
360 children were matched (sex, age, and pubertal stage) could not be assessed (Sabin et al., 2007; Danielsson et al.,  
361 2012). Moreover, weight loss success is not only determined by compliance regarding participation at meetings,  
362 but also by implementation of the recommendations into daily life. This might be strongly influenced by  
363 environmental and psychosocial factors, which were not obtained in this study. Furthermore, our analysis was  
364 limited to changes in BMI-SDS as outcome. Further investigations should aim at identifying predictors for  
365 secondary outcomes such as changes in body fat distribution and insulin sensitivity. In addition, studies  
366 investigating metabolite changes during lifestyle intervention might give additional information about the  
367 mechanisms underlying weight change.

368

### 369 **5 Conclusions**

370 Our results confirm a role of phosphatidylcholine metabolism for human energy regulation and success in  
371 overweight reduction as has previously been observed in animal studies. They further corroborate the connection  
372 between abdominal obesity and impaired overweight reduction. These are both important aspects for  
373 understanding the large inter-individual variation in response to lifestyle interventions, which is a prerequisite for  
374 the development of individualized intervention programs.

375

### 376 **6 Acknowledgement**

377 This work was supported by the following grants from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research  
378 (BMBF): Grant numbers 01GS0820 and 01GS0823 of the National Genome Research Network (NGFNplus),  
379 grant number 01GI0839 of the German Competence Network Obesity (consortium LARGE), grant number  
380 0315494A of the Systems Biology of Metatypes project (SysMBo), and grant number 03IS206IB of the  
381 Gani\_Med project to WRM and the German Center for Diabetes Research (DZD e.V.). It was further supported  
382 by funding from the University of Witten/Herdecke and from the Helmholtz Zentrum München. I.K. and C.F.  
383 were supported by the European Union within the ERC grant LatentCauses. The funders had no role in study  
384 design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

385 We offer our sincere thanks to the participants of the study as well as their parents. We are grateful to Petra  
386 Nicklowitz for conducting the biochemical measurements. We thank Julia Scarpa, Werner Römisch-Margl,  
387 Katharina Sckell and Arsin Sabunchi for metabolomics measurements performed at the Helmholtz Zentrum  
388 München, Genome Analysis Center, Metabolomics Core Facility, Neuherberg, Germany.

389



## 390 **7**      **References**

- 391      Ambroise, C., & McLachlan, G.J. (2002). Selection bias in gene extraction on the basis of microarray gene-  
392      expression data. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, *99*, 6562–6566.
- 393      Benjamini, Y., & Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical and Powerful  
394      Approach to Multiple Testing. *J R Stat Soc*, *57*, 289–300.
- 395      Bouchard, C., Tremblay, A., Després, J.P., et al. (1990). The response to long-term overfeeding in identical  
396      twins. *N Engl J Med*, *322*, 1477–1482.
- 397      Bouchard, C., Tremblay, A., Després, J.P., et al. (1994). The response to exercise with constant energy intake in  
398      identical twins. *Obes Res*, *2*, 400–410.
- 399      Braga-Neto, U.M., & Dougherty, E.R. (2004). Is cross-validation valid for small-sample microarray  
400      classification? *Bioinformatics*, *20*, 374–380.
- 401      Campión, J., Milagro, F.I., Goyenechea, E., & Martínez, J.A. (2009). TNF-alpha promoter methylation as a  
402      predictive biomarker for weight-loss response. *Obesity*, *17*, 1293–1297.
- 403      Carmichael, H.E., Swinburn, B.A., & Wilson, M.R. (1998). Lower fat intake as a predictor of initial and  
404      sustained weight loss in obese subjects consuming an otherwise ad libitum diet. *J Am Diet Assoc*, *98*, 35–39.
- 405      Cole, T.J. (1990). The LMS method for constructing normalized growth standards. *Eur J Clin Nutr*, *44*, 45–60.
- 406      Danielsson, P., Svensson, V., Kowalski, J., Nyberg, G., Ekblom, O., & Marcus, C. (2012). Importance of age for  
407      3-year continuous behavioral obesity treatment success and dropout rate. *Obes Facts*, *5*, 34–44.
- 408      DeLong, C.J., Shen, Y.J., Thomas, M.J., & Cui, Z. (1999). Molecular distinction of phosphatidylcholine  
409      synthesis between the CDP-choline pathway and phosphatidylethanolamine methylation pathway. *J Biol Chem*,  
410      *274*, 29683–29688.
- 411      Fleisch, A.F., Agarwal, N., Roberts, M.D., et al. (2007). Influence of serum leptin on weight and body fat growth  
412      in children at high risk for adult obesity. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*, *92*, 948–954.

413 Ford, A.L., Hunt, L.P., Cooper, A., & Shield, J.P.H. (2010). What reduction in BMI SDS is required in obese  
414 adolescents to improve body composition and cardiometabolic health? *Arch Dis Child*, *95*, 256–261.

415 Friedman, J., Hastie, T., & Tibshirani, R. (2010). Regularization Paths for Generalized Linear Models via  
416 Coordinate Descent. *J Stat Softw*, *33*, 1–22.

417 Gautam, D., Gavrilova, O., Jeon, J., et al. (2006). Beneficial metabolic effects of M3 muscarinic acetylcholine  
418 receptor deficiency. *Cell Metab*, *4*, 363–375.

419 Ghosh, S., Dent, R., Harper, M.E., Stuart, J., & McPherson, R. (2011). Blood gene expression reveal pathway  
420 differences between diet-sensitive and resistant obese subjects prior to caloric restriction. *Obesity*, *19*, 457–463.

421 Gungor, N., Saad, R., Janosky, J., & Arslanian, S. (2004). Validation of surrogate estimates of insulin sensitivity  
422 and insulin secretion in children and adolescents. *J Pediatr*, *144*, 47–55.

423 Harden, K.A., Cowan, P.A., Velasquez-Mieyer, P., & Patton, S.B. (2007). Effects of lifestyle intervention and  
424 metformin on weight management and markers of metabolic syndrome in obese adolescents. *J Am Acad Nurse*  
425 *Pract*, *19*, 368–377.

426 Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., & Friedman, J. (2009). *The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference,*  
427 *and Prediction* (2nd edition). Springer.

428 Hivert, M.-F., Sun, Q., Shrader, P., Mantzoros, C.S., Meigs, J.B., & Hu, F.B. (2011). Higher adiponectin levels  
429 predict greater weight gain in healthy women in the Nurses' Health Study. *Obesity*, *19*, 409–415.

430 Illig, T., Gieger, C., Zhai, G., et al. (2010). A genome-wide perspective of genetic variation in human  
431 metabolism. *Nat Genet*, *42*, 137–141.

432 Jacobs, R.L., Zhao, Y., Koonen, D.P.Y., et al. (2010). Impaired de novo choline synthesis explains why  
433 phosphatidylethanolamine N-methyltransferase-deficient mice are protected from diet-induced obesity. *J Biol*  
434 *Chem*, *285*, 22403–22413.

435 Kalra, S.P. (2008). Central leptin insufficiency syndrome: an interactive etiology for obesity, metabolic and  
436 neural diseases and for designing new therapeutic interventions. *Peptides*, *29*, 127–138.

437 Konstantinova, S.V., Tell, G.S., Vollset, S.E., Nygård, O., Bleie, Ø., & Ueland, P.M. (2008). Divergent  
438 associations of plasma choline and betaine with components of metabolic syndrome in middle age and elderly  
439 men and women. *J Nutr*, *138*, 914–920.

440 Kromeyer-Hauschild, K., Gläßer, N., & Zellner, K. (2008). Waist Circumference Percentile in Jena Children  
441 (Germany) 6- to 18-Years of Age. *Aktuel Ernaehr Med*, *33*, 116–122.

442 Kromeyer-Hauschild, K., Wabitsch, M., Kunze, D., et al. (2001). Perzentile für den Body-mass-Index für das  
443 Kindes-und Jugendalter unter Heranziehung verschiedener deutscher Stichproben. *Monatsschr Kinderheilkd*,  
444 *149*, 807–818.

445 Li, Z., & Vance, D.E. (2008). Phosphatidylcholine and choline homeostasis. *J Lipid Res*, *49*, 1187–1194.

446 Madsen, K.A., Garber, A.K., Mietus-Snyder, M.L., et al. (2009). A clinic-based lifestyle intervention for  
447 pediatric obesity: efficacy and behavioral and biochemical predictors of response. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab*,  
448 *22*, 805–814.

449 Marshall, W.A., & Tanner, J.M. (1969). Variations in pattern of pubertal changes in girls. *Arch Dis Child*, *44*,  
450 291–303.

451 Marshall, W.A., & Tanner, J.M. (1970). Variations in the pattern of pubertal changes in boys. *Arch Dis Child*,  
452 *45*, 13–23.

453 Matthews, D.R., Hosker, J.P., Rudenski, A.S., Naylor, B.A., Treacher, D.F., & Turner, R.C. (1985). Homeostasis  
454 model assessment: insulin resistance and beta-cell function from fasting plasma glucose and insulin  
455 concentrations in man. *Diabetologia*, *28*, 412–419.

456 Mihalik, S.J., Michaliszyn, S.F., De Las Heras, J., et al. (2012). Metabolomic Profiling of Fatty Acid and Amino  
457 Acid Metabolism in Youth With Obesity and Type 2 Diabetes: Evidence for enhanced mitochondrial oxidation.  
458 *Diabetes Care*, *35*, 605–611.

459 Moore, D.S., McCabe, G.P., Duckworth, W.M., & Sclove, S.L. (2003). Bootstrap Methods and Permutation  
460 Tests. In *The Practice of Business Statistics Companion*. W. H. Freeman.

461 Murer, S.B., Knöpfli, B.H., Aeberli, I., et al. (2011). Baseline leptin and leptin reduction predict improvements  
462 in metabolic variables and long-term fat loss in obese children and adolescents: a prospective study of an  
463 inpatient weight-loss program. *Am J Clin Nutr*, 93, 695–702.

464 National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group on High Blood Pressure in Children and  
465 Adolescents (2004). The fourth report on the diagnosis, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure in  
466 children and adolescents. *Pediatrics*, 114, 555–576.

467 Oude Luttikhuis, H., Baur, L., Jansen, H., et al. (2009). Interventions for treating obesity in children. Cochrane  
468 Database Syst Rev CD001872.

469 Pathmasiri, W., Pratt, K.J., Collier, D.N., Lutes, L.D., McRitchie, S., & Sumner, S.C.J. (2012). Integrating  
470 metabolomic signatures and psychosocial parameters in responsivity to an immersion treatment model for  
471 adolescent obesity. *Metabolomics*, 8, 1037–1051.

472 Ploner, A. (2011). Heatplus: Heatmaps with row and/or column covariates and colored clusters. R Package  
473 Version 2.1.0.

474 R Development Core Team (2012). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R  
475 Foundation for Statistical Computing.

476 Radmacher, M.D., McShane, L.M., & Simon, R. (2002). A paradigm for class prediction using gene expression  
477 profiles. *J Comput Biol*, 9, 505–511.

478 Reinehr, T. (2011). Effectiveness of lifestyle intervention in overweight children. *Proc Nutr Soc*, 70, 494–505.

479 Reinehr, T., & Andler, W. (2004). Changes in the atherogenic risk factor profile according to degree of weight  
480 loss. *Arch Dis Child*, 89, 419–422.

481 Reinehr, T., Brylak, K., Alexy, U., Kersting, M., & Andler, W. (2003). Predictors to success in outpatient  
482 training in obese children and adolescents. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*, 27, 1087–1092.

483 Reinehr, T., Kiess, W., Kapellen, T., & Andler, W. (2004). Insulin sensitivity among obese children and  
484 adolescents, according to degree of weight loss. *Pediatrics*, 114, 1569–1573.

485 Reinehr, T., Kleber, M., De Sousa, G., & Andler, W. (2009). Leptin concentrations are a predictor of overweight  
486 reduction in a lifestyle intervention. *Int J Pediatr Obes*, 1–9.

487 Reinehr, T., De Sousa, G., Toschke, A.M., & Andler, W. (2006). Long-term follow-up of cardiovascular disease  
488 risk factors in children after an obesity intervention. *Am J Clin Nutr*, 84, 490–496.

489 Römisch-Margl, W., Prehn, C., Bogumil, R., Röhring, C., Suhre, K., & Adamski, J. (2011). Procedure for tissue  
490 sample preparation and metabolite extraction for high-throughput targeted metabolomics. *Metabolomics*, 8, 133–  
491 142.

492 Sabin, M.A., Ford, A., Hunt, L., Jamal, R., Crowne, E.C., & Shield, J.P.H. (2007). Which factors are associated  
493 with a successful outcome in a weight management programme for obese children? *J Eval Clin Pract*, 13, 364–  
494 368.

495 Schwandt, P., Kelishadi, R., & Haas, G.-M. (2008). First reference curves of waist circumference for German  
496 children in comparison to international values: the PEP Family Heart Study. *World J Pediatr*, 4, 259–266.

497 Shih, L.-Y., Liou, T.-H., Chao, J.C.-J., et al. (2006). Leptin, superoxide dismutase, and weight loss: initial leptin  
498 predicts weight loss. *Obesity*, 14, 2184–2192.

499 Smilowitz, J.T., Wiest, M.M., Watkins, S.M., et al. (2009). Lipid metabolism predicts changes in body  
500 composition during energy restriction in overweight humans. *J Nutr*, 139, 222–229.

501 Taylor, R.W., Jones, I.E., Williams, S.M., & Goulding, A. (2000). Evaluation of waist circumference, waist-to-  
502 hip ratio, and the conicity index as screening tools for high trunk fat mass, as measured by dual-energy X-ray  
503 absorptiometry, in children aged 3–19 y. *Am J Clin Nutr*, 72, 490–495.

504 Teixeira, P.J., Going, S.B., Houtkooper, L.B., et al. (2004). Pretreatment predictors of attrition and successful  
505 weight management in women. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*, 28, 1124–1133.

506 Thamer, C., Machann, J., Stefan, N., et al. (2007). High visceral fat mass and high liver fat are associated with  
507 resistance to lifestyle intervention. *Obesity*, 15, 531–538.

508 Tibshirani, R. (1996). Regression Shrinkage and Selection via the Lasso. *J R Stat Soc*, 58, 267–288.

509 Tschritter, O., Preissl, H., Hennige, A.M., et al. (2009). The insulin effect on cerebrocortical theta activity is  
510 associated with serum concentrations of saturated nonesterified Fatty acids. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*, *94*, 4600–  
511 4607.

512 Tschritter, O., Preissl, H., Hennige, A.M., et al. (2012). High cerebral insulin sensitivity is associated with loss of  
513 body fat during lifestyle intervention. *Diabetologia*, *55*, 175–182.

514 Varma, S., & Simon, R. (2006). Bias in error estimation when using cross-validation for model selection. *BMC*  
515 *Bioinformatics*, *7*, 91.

516 Verdich, C., Toubro, S., Buemann, B., et al. (2001). Leptin levels are associated with fat oxidation and dietary-  
517 induced weight loss in obesity. *Obes Res*, *9*, 452–461.

518 Wabitsch, M., Hauner, H., Böckmann, A., Partho, W., Mayer, H., & Teller, W. (1992). The relationship  
519 between body fat distribution and weight loss in obese adolescent girls. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*, *16*, 905–  
520 911.

521 Wahl, S., Yu, Z., Kleber, M., et al. (2012). Childhood Obesity Is Associated with Changes in the Serum  
522 Metabolite Profile. *Obes Facts*, *5*, 660–670.

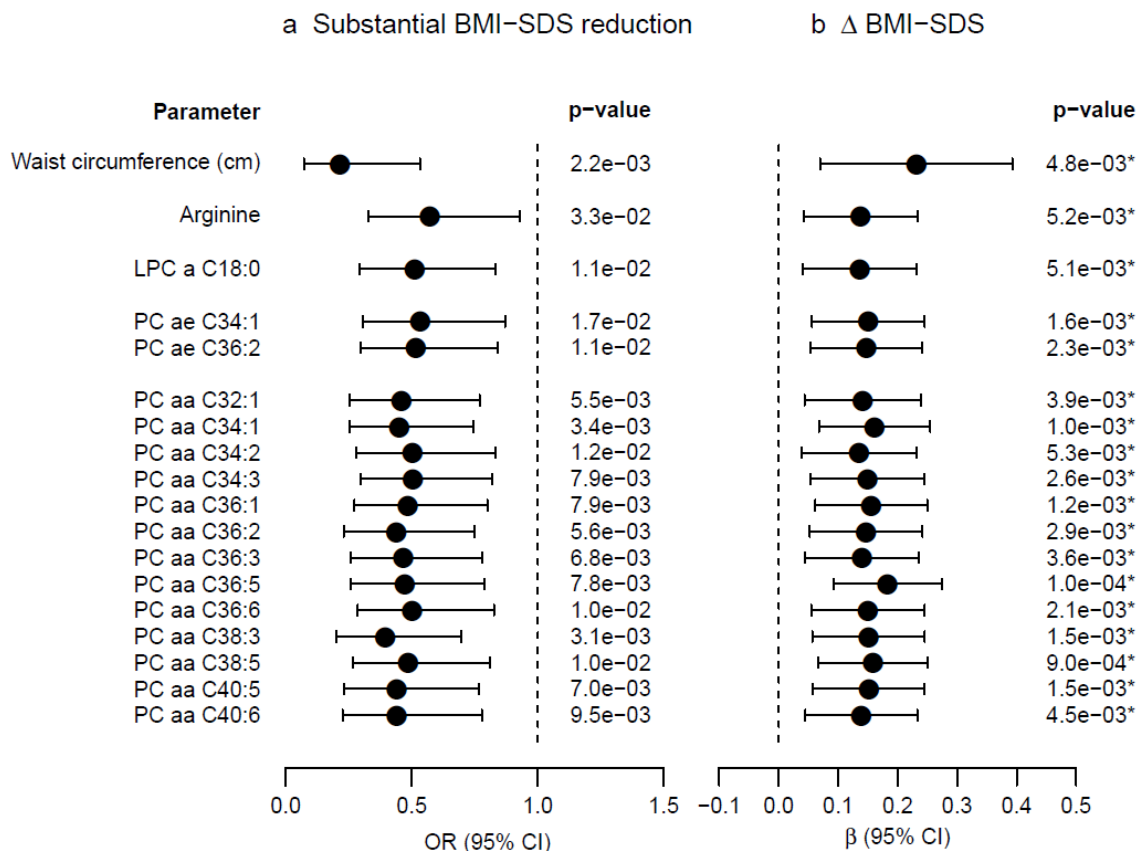
523 Wajchenberg, B.L. (2000). Subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue: their relation to the metabolic syndrome.  
524 *Endocr Rev*, *21*, 697–738.

525 Wang, P., Holst, C., Astrup, A., et al. (2012). Blood profiling of proteins and steroids during weight maintenance  
526 with manipulation of dietary protein level and glycaemic index. *Br J Nutr*, *107*, 106–119.

527

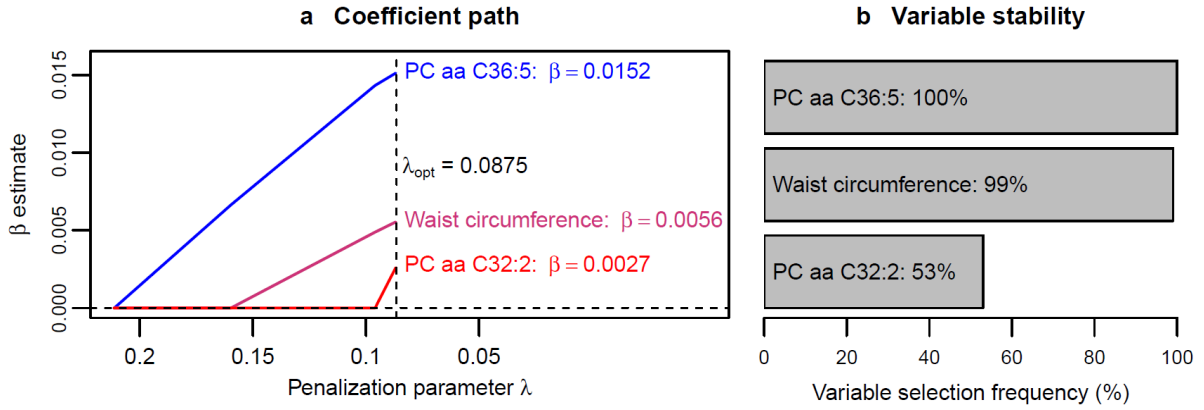
528

529 **Figure Legends**



530  
 531 **Fig. 1** Pre-intervention variables associated with overweight reduction. Effects on (a) the binary outcome  
 532 “Substantial BMI-SDS reduction” and (b) continuous  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS are shown for the 18 variables significantly  
 533 associated with  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS after correction for multiple testing. (a) Odds ratios (OR) with 95% confidence  
 534 interval (CI). (b)  $\beta$  estimates with 95% CI and permutation-based p-values. All effects are derived from  
 535 univariate regression models adjusted for sex and baseline age, pubertal stage and BMI-SDS. The unit of  
 536 variables is  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , if not indicated otherwise. \*Significant after correction for multiple testing. BMI-SDS, body  
 537 mass index standard deviation score; Cx:y, acyl-group with chain length x and y double bonds; LPC a,  
 538 lysophosphatidylcholine with acyl chain; PC aa, diacyl phosphatidylcholine; PC ae, acyl-alkyl  
 539 phosphatidylcholine

540



541

542

543 **Fig. 2** LASSO regression results. Pre-intervention variables selected as predictors for  $\Delta$  BMI-SDS. **(a)**

544 Coefficient paths truncated at the optimal penalization parameter  $\lambda_{opt} = 0.0875$  (vertical dashed line).  $\beta$  estimates

545 are plotted against a sequence of the penalization parameter  $\lambda$  ranging from the  $\lambda$  threshold, beyond which no

546 variables are retained in the model, to  $\lambda_{opt}$ ,  $\beta$  estimates are displayed for  $\lambda_{opt}$ . **(b)** Variable stability, defined as the

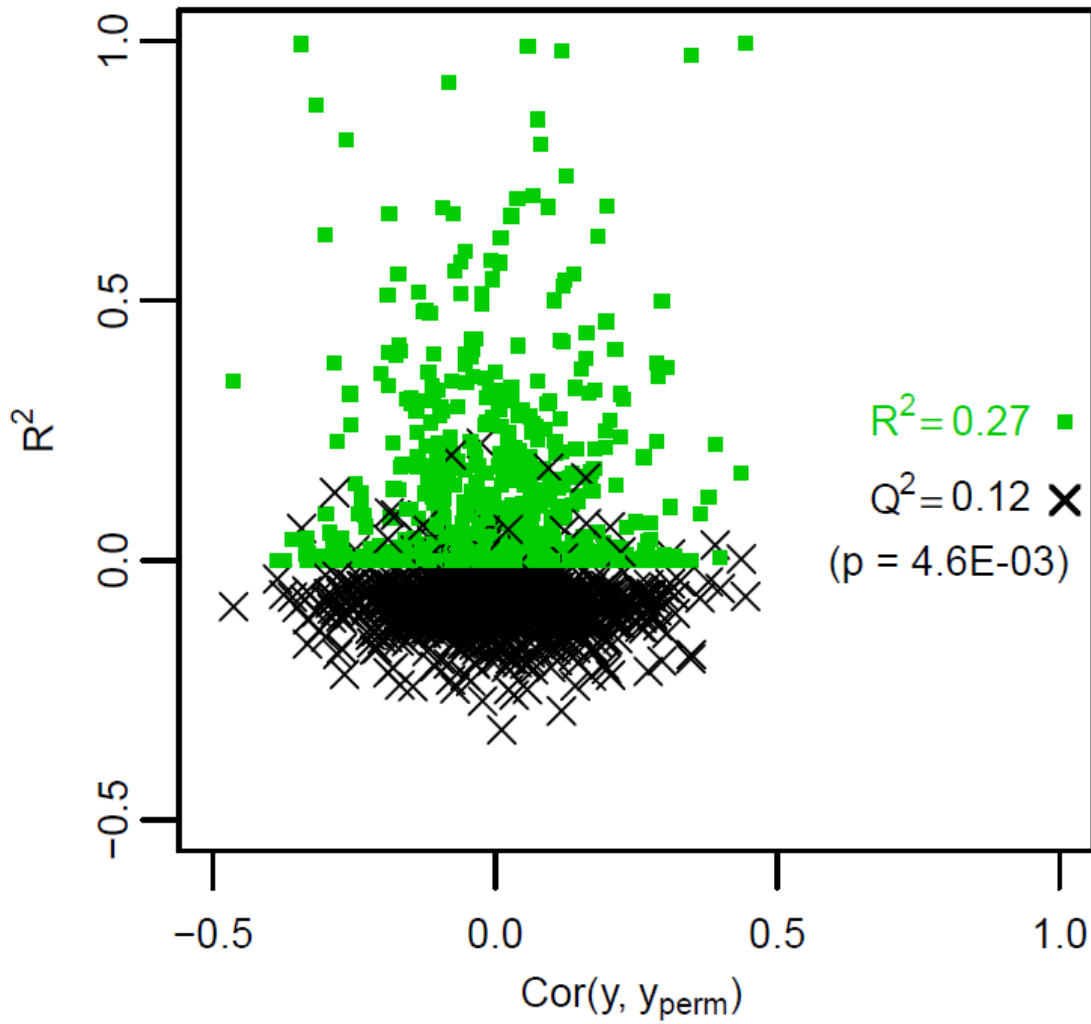
547 frequency with which a variable was selected by the LASSO approach across the 100 outer cross-validation

548 loops, for the chosen variables. Cx:y, acyl-group with chain length x and y double bonds; PC aa, diacyl

549 phosphatidylcholine

550



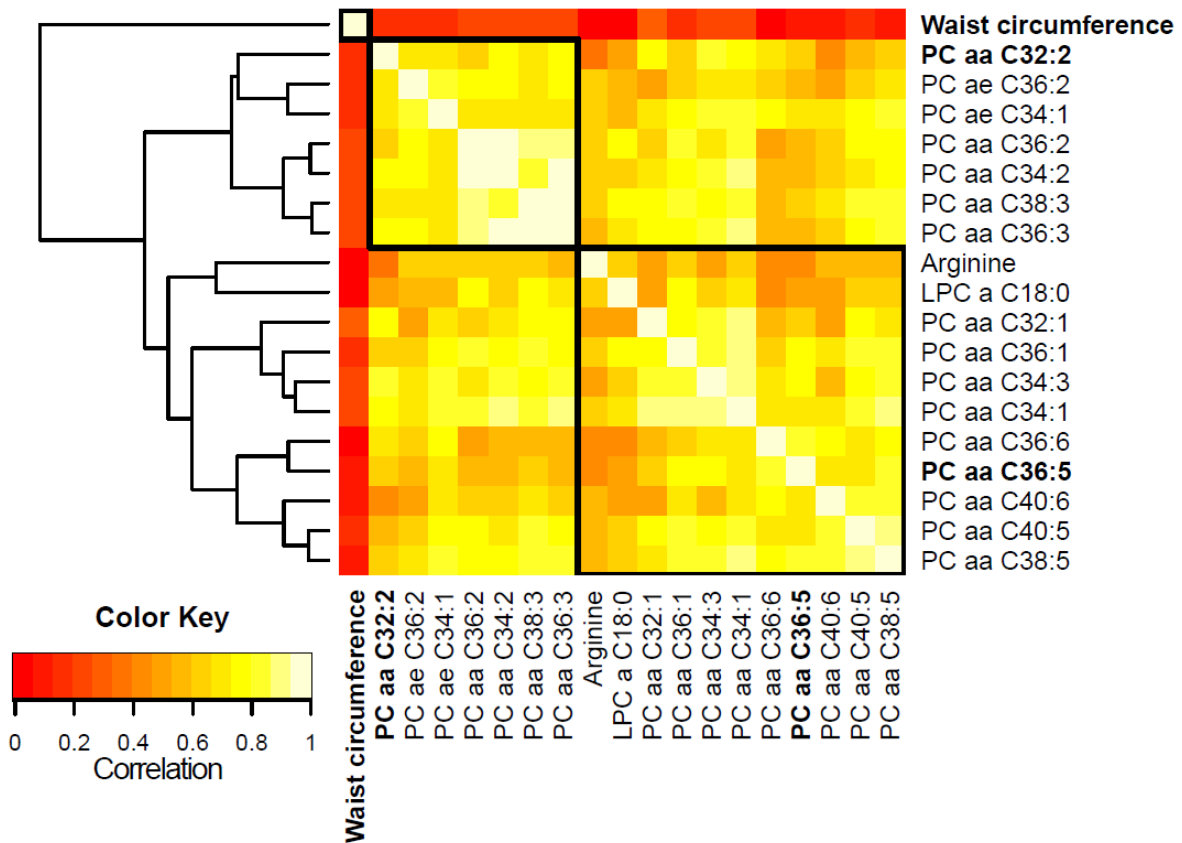


551

552

553 **Fig. 3** Permutation test results for the LASSO approach. Data for the first 1000 permutations are shown.  $R^2$   
 554 (green squares) and  $Q^2$  (black crosses) values are plotted against the Pearson's correlation between original and  
 555 permuted outcome vector.  $R^2$  is limited to  $\geq 0$ , whereas  $Q^2$  is not. At correlation = 1,  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  values of the  
 556 original data are plotted. Permutation-based p-value for  $Q^2$  is given, which is defined as the proportion of  
 557 permutation folds where the  $Q^2$  value was larger than the  $Q^2$  value of the original data. Cor, Pearson's correlation  
 558 coefficient; perm, permutation

559



560

561

562 **Fig. 4** Correlation among variables associated with overweight reduction. Heatmap of the matrix of pairwise  
 563 Pearson's correlation coefficients and hierarchical clustering dendrogram are shown. Variables selected in the  
 564 LASSO model are written in bold font. Dendrogram was cut vertically at correlation = 0.4, resulting clusters are  
 565 framed. Cx:y, acyl-group with chain length x and y double bonds; LPC a, lysophosphatidylcholine with acyl  
 566 chain; PC aa, diacyl phosphatidylcholine; PC ae, acyl-alkyl phosphatidylcholine

567

568 **Tables**

569

570 **Table 1** Baseline characteristics of the study population

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Children with substantial</b>	<b>Children without</b>	<b>p-value<sup>a</sup></b>
	<b>overweight reduction</b>	<b>substantial overweight</b>	
	<b>(n = 40)</b>	<b>reduction (n = 40)</b>	
Age (years)	10.9 (2.3)	10.9 (2.0)	0.969
Sex (% male)	50	55	0.751
Pubertal stage (% prepubertal)	52.5	50	1.000
Weight (kg)	64.1 (16.3)	66.3 (18.8)	0.641
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	27.3 (3.3)	28.0 (4.6)	0.749
BMI-SDS	2.35 (0.43)	2.37 (0.45)	0.837
Waist circumference (cm)	83.8 (10.5)	92.4 (12.7)	0.009

571 Data are shown as mean (standard deviation) if not indicated otherwise. <sup>a</sup>p-values were derived from Wilcoxon  
572 rank-sum test and chi-squared test for continuous and binary variables, respectively. “With substantial BMI-SDS  
573 reduction” was defined as BMI-SDS reduction  $\geq 0.5$ , “without substantial BMI-SDS reduction” as BMI-SDS  
574 reduction  $< 0.1$ . BMI, body mass index; BMI-SDS, BMI standard deviation score.

575

576 **Online Resource**

577

578 **Fig. S1** Distribution of the continuous outcome variable „Change in body mass index standard deviation score  
579 (BMI-SDS) during the intervention“ ( $\Delta$  BMI-SDS). (a) Histogram. (b) Normal quantile-quantile plot. The  
580 distribution is not normal according to Shapiro-Wilk test (p-value = 0.0019)

581

582 **Fig. S2** Repeated nested cross-validation and permutation scheme. CV, cross-validation; MSE, mean squared  
583 error of prediction

584

585 **Fig. S3** Boxplots of (a) age and (b) BMI-SDS before the intervention in children with and without substantial  
586 weight loss during the intervention. P-values from Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are shown. Age and BMI-SDS  
587 distribution did not differ significantly between children with and without substantial weight loss

588

589 **Table S1** Anthropometric and clinical traits at baseline and at the end of the 1-year lifestyle intervention

590

591 **Table S2** Results of univariate regression analyses. 144 baseline metabolites, anthropometric and clinical traits  
592 were subjected to logistic regression with the outcome "Substantial BMI-SDS reduction" (body mass index  
593 standard deviation score (BMI-SDS) reduction during the intervention  $\geq 0.5$  vs.  $< 0.1$ ), adjusted for sex and  
594 baseline age, pubertal stage and BMI-SDS. Mean (standard deviation) of baseline values in the two groups of  
595 children are shown in columns 2 and 3; Odds Ratio (OR) with 95% Confidence Interval (CI), p-value and  
596 Benjamini-Hochberg-corrected p-value are reported in columns 4-6. Similarly, linear regression models were fit  
597 with the continuous outcome "Change in BMI-SDS during the intervention" ( $\Delta$  BMI-SDS).  $\beta$  coefficient with  
598 95% CI, Wald test-derived p-value, permutation-based p-value and Benjamini-Hochberg-corrected permutation-  
599 based p-value are reported in columns 7-11. Associations with corrected p-value  $< 0.05$  were regarded as  
600 significant.