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Mitochondrial Genome Acquisition Restores Respiratory Function and Tumorigenic Potential of Cancer Cells Without Mitochondrial DNA

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Running title: Remodeling tumor respiration by mtDNA acquisition *Correspondence: Michael V. Berridge, Cancer Cell and Molecular Biology Group, Malaghan Institute of Medical Research, Victoria University, Wellington, 6012, New Zealand; email <u>mberridge@malaghan.org.nz</u>; phone +64 4 499 6914 or Jiri Neuzil, Mitochondria, Apoptosis and Cancer Research Group, School of Medical Science and Griffith Health Institute, Griffith University, Gold Coast Campus, Southport, Qld 4222, Australia; email <u>j.neuzil@griffith.edu.au</u>: phone +61 7 55529109. SUMMARY

We report that tumor cells devoid of their mitochondrial genome (mtDNA) show delayed tumor growth and that tumor formation is associated with acquisition of mtDNA from host cells. This leads to partial recovery of mitochondrial function in cells derived from primary tumors grown from cells without mtDNA and a shorter lag in tumor growth. Cell lines from circulating tumor cells showed further recovery of mitochondrial respiration and an intermediate lag to tumor growth, while cells from lung metastases exhibited full restoration of respiratory function and no lag in tumor growth. Stepwise assembly of mitochondrial respiratory supercomplexes was correlated with acquisition of respiratory function. Our findings indicate horizontal transfer of mtDNA from host cells in the tumor microenvironment to tumor cells with compromised respiratory function to re-establish respiration and tumorinitiating efficacy. These results suggest a novel pathophysiological process for overcoming mtDNA damage and support the notion of high plasticity of malignant cells.

INTRODUCTION

Mitochondria are structurally dynamic organelles with a circular genome (mtDNA) of ~16.5 kb in mammals, encoding 13 subunits of the respiratory complexes (RCs), 22 tRNAs and two rRNAs. Cells contain discreet and networked mitochondria, each with multiple mtDNA copies. The mitochondrial proteome comprises $\sim 1,500$ proteins, the vast majority of which are encoded by nuclear DNA (nDNA) (Neupert and Herrmann, 2007; Wallace, 2012). Of importance for the replication and transcription of mtDNA is the regulatory *D-LOOP*, which binds the mitochondrial transcription factor TFAM and other regulatory proteins (Falkenberg et al., 2007). A major role of mitochondria, generation of ATP, is facilitated by oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) comprising four complexes of the electron transport chain (ETC), complex I (CI), CII, CIII and CIV, and CV with ATP synthase activity. RCs form supercomplexes (SCs), such as the respirasome (Schägger and Pfeiffer, 2010; Acin-Perez et al., 2008; Althoff et al., 2011) that transfers electrons from CI to CIV via CIII (Lapuente-Brun et al., 2013). RCs and SCs are assembled stepwise in a process involving specific factors (Moreno-Lastres et al., 2012; Lapuente-Brun et al., 2013; Ikeda et al., 2013).

Due to the central role of mitochondria in homeostasis, cells have conserved control systems to maintain mitochondrial integrity, appropriate mitochondrial mass, and bioenergetic and metabolic functions. In many pathologies, mtDNA mutations affect tissues with high demand for energy (Krishnan et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2009; Schon et al., 2012; Wallace, 2012). Cancer is characterized by altered energy metabolism (DeBarardinis et al 2007, Kroemer and Pouyssegur, 2008; Vander Heiden et al., 2009; Ralph et al., 2010; Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011) involving not only genetic alterations in nDNA, but also mtDNA mutations and changes in mtDNA copy number (Surani,

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2001; Wallace and Fan, 2010; De Carvalho, 2010; Plass et al., 2013). Certain mtDNA mutations compromise ETC function and contribute to a shift to aerobic glycolysis that typifies metastatic progression (Ishikawa et al., 2008; Ralph et al., 2010). Relevant studies are limited by the difficulty of experimentally manipulating mtDNA of tumor cells and the paucity of tumor models with mtDNA mutations. A model of severe mtDNA damage involves mitochondrial genome deletion (King and Attardi, 1988). These ρ^0 cells grow in culture with uridine and pyruvate supplementation, but the question whether they can form tumors following autologous transplantation has not been investigated.

We have developed two stable murine tumor cell models lacking mtDNA and investigated the ability of these cells to form tumors in syngeneic mice. Our results show delayed tumor growth and acquisition of mtDNA from host cells. Cells derived from primary tumors that grow from ρ^0 cells and from their circulating and metastatic counterparts progressively recovered mitochondrial respiratory function, and this was associated with assembly of mitochondrial SCs and correlated with tumorigenicity.

RESULTS

Tumor Cells Devoid of mtDNA Show Delayed Tumor Growth

To simulate severe mitochondrial genome damage, we deleted mtDNA in metastatic murine B16 melanoma and 4T1 breast carcinoma cells using low-dose EtBr, thereby generating B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells that have been maintained as stable auxotrophic cell lines in the absence of EtBr for more than two years. When injected subcutaneously (s.c.) into groups of 5 syngeneic C57BL/6 (n=3) or NOD/scid (n=1) mice, B16 ρ^0 cells (10⁵) initiated tumors with a delay of more than 20 days compared to parental cells (Figure

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1A). Intravenous (i.v.) injection of B16 ρ^0 cells into NOD/scid mice failed to generate lung tumors, whereas cell lines derived from s.c. tumors and from lung metastases that grew from B16 ρ^0 cells following long-term culture formed lung tumors at a similar frequency to B16 cells (Figure 1A). These cell lines were shown to be of B16 rather than host origin because they produced melanin under stress. Similarly, $4T1\rho^0$ cells that are 6thioguanine (6TG)-resistant formed tumors with a lag of 20-25 days when 10^5 cells were injected s.c. (n=6) or orthotopically into the mammary fat pad (n=1) of Balb/c mice, but failed to form lung tumors following i.v. injection (Figure 1B) or following s.c. injection of $\leq 10^4$ cells (Figure S1).

Using 6TG selection, cell lines were derived from primary tumors that formed from $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells ($4T1\rho^{0}$ SC), from circulating tumor cells ($4T1\rho^{0}$ CTC) and lung metastases ($4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL). When injected i.v, both $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC and $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells, and a cell line derived from lung metastases that formed from an orthotopic tumor ($4T1\rho^{0}$ MFPL cells), formed lung tumors that were comparable to 4T1 cells (Figure 1B). When injected s.c. into Balb/c mice, $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC cells formed tumors with a delay of ~10 days, whereas $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells initiated tumors without a lag (Figure 1C, n=2). $4T1\rho^{0}$ CTC formed tumors with a lag between that of $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC and $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells.

To investigate whether acquisition of tumorigenic properties was associated with respiratory competence, tissue from tumors that formed from each cell line were assessed by high-resolution respirometry. Relative to cells from parental tumors, respiration by tumors that grew from $4T1\rho^0$ cells was reduced by 60% whereas $4T1\rho^0$ SC, $4T1\rho^0$ CTC and $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cell-derived tumors exhibited progressive recovery of respiration (Figure

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1D). Histological examination of tumors derived from each cell line showed qualitative similarities (Figure 1E).

Tumors Derived from ρ^0 Cells Contain Host mtDNA and Exhibit Functional Mitochondrial Protein Synthesis

PCR analysis of the mtDNA-encoded *Cytb* gene revealed no product in B16 ρ^0 or 4T1 ρ^0 cells (Figure 2A). Because ρ^0 cells contain nuclear mitochondrial DNA sequences (NUMTs) and mitochondrial pseudogenes, these results exclude a significant contribution from these sources. Unexpectedly, *Cytb* was present in B16 ρ^0 SC and B16 ρ^0 SCL cells. Similar results were obtained with $4T10^{\circ}SC$ and $4T10^{\circ}SCL$ cells (Figure 2A). To establish the host origin of this mtDNA and to exclude the presence of latent mtDNA in o^0 cells, we sequenced the polymorphic mitochondrial *tRNA*^{*Arg*} locus. Cells from both B16 ρ^0 - and 4T1 ρ^0 -derived tumors showed the polymorphism of the host mouse (Bayona-Bafaluy et al., 2003) (Figure 2B), establishing transfer of mtDNA from host cells in the tumor microenvironment (8 consecutive adenines for C57BL/6 and 9 for NOD/SCID and Balb/c mice) to ρ^0 tumor cells in each model. To further confirm the host origin of mtDNA, we sequenced whole mtDNA from B16, B16p⁰SC, 4T1 and 4T1p⁰SC cells (Table S1), and identified one additional polymorphism in Nd4 (site 10335) of B16 and B16 ρ^0 SC cells, and two additional polymorphisms in *16SrRNA* (site 1576) and *D-Loop* (site 16076) of 4T1 and $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells, confirming the host origin of mtDNA in tumors derived from B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells. Mitochondrial protein synthesis was shown to be functional in cell lines derived from tumors from B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells by the presence of COI, a mtDNA-encoded protein (Figure 2C).

Distinct Phenotypic Properties and Mitochondrial Morphology of $4T1\rho^0$ Cells Following mtDNA Acquisition

Acquisition of host mtDNA by ρ^0 tumor cells prompted us to investigate the phenotypic and morphological properties of $4T1\rho^0$ -derived sublines, i.e. $4T1\rho^0$ SC, $4T1\rho^0$ CTC and $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells. We also investigated 'matching' cells derived from s.c. tumors (4T1SC cells) and lung metastases (4T1SCL cells) that grew from the parental 4T1 cells. The doubling times of these cell lines were: 4T1, 18.7 h; 4T1SC, 17.5 h; 4T1SCL, 16 h; $4T1\rho^0$, 33.6 h; $4T1\rho^0$ SC, 21.5 h; $4T1\rho^0$ CTC, 23.1 h; and $4T1\rho^0$ SCL, 16.1 h. Light microscopy revealed morphological differences of individual sublines (Figure 3A). Staining with EtBr confirmed the absence of mtDNA in $4T1\rho^0$ cells, although nucleolar staining was evident. Co-staining with MitoTracker Red showed high mtDNA heterogeneity in $4T1\rho^0$ SC and to a lesser extent, in $4T1\rho^0$ CTC cells. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that ~60% of $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells contained little or no mtDNA, while almost 90% of $4T1\rho^0$ CTC and 100% of $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells contained mitochondria with DNA (Figure 3B). 4T1SC cells showed similar mtDNA staining to that found in 4T1 and 4T1SCL cells (Figure S2A).

We tested individual sublines for their autophagic status, reasoning that $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells may exhibit higher mitophagy to remove respiration-defective mitochondria devoid of mtDNA. Initial acridine orange (AO) staining showed heterogeneous acidic vesicles in $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells, while western blotting (WB) revealed lower levels of the autophagy marker LC3B-II in $4T1\rho^0$ and $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells than in $4T1\rho^0CTC$ and $4T1\rho^0SCL$ cells, and higher levels of p62 in $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells, both with control cells and cells treated with

the autophagy inhibitor, bafilomycin A1 (Figure 3C). The mitophagy marker, Parkin, showed increased expression in cells derived from $4T1\rho^0$ and highest expression in $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells, but BNIP3 expression remained unaltered in the sublines. Since individual sublines are derived from different stages of metastatic tumor progression, we investigated the markers of epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), E-cadherin and vimentin. Figure 3D shows that the sublines differed coordinately in the level of expression of these markers, consistent with their different origin.

Investigation of mitochondrial morphology by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with statistical analysis of cristae revealed that mitochondria of $4T1\rho^0$ cells were distended with low-density internal staining, and were largely free of stacked cristae but contained ring-like cristae (Figure 4). Intriguingly, $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells showed mitochondria with and without cristae while $4T1\rho^0$ CTC cells contained more mitochondria with cristae. $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells were indistinguishable from parental 4T1 cells and the 'matching' 4T1SC tumor cells (Figures 4, S2B).

Bioenergetics and Mitochondrial Function Following mtDNA Acquisition

Cells devoid of mtDNA use glycolysis as a source of ATP. Compared with parental 4T1 cells, $4T1\rho^{0}$, $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ and $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$ cells showed elevated glucose uptake and increased production of lactate, and lower levels of ATP (Figure 5A-C), In contrast, $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ cells were less glycolytic and more similar to parental 4T1 cells, as were the 'matching' sublines (Figure S3A-C). Cellular bioenergetic status and the efficiency of mitochondrial respiration modulate production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). We used the mitochondrially targeted probe, MitoSOX, to evaluate mitochondrial superoxide

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generation. Cell lines from primary tumors that developed from $4T1\rho^0$ cells when injected s.c. or into the mammary fat pad showed distinct intermediate and high fluorescence intensity peaks, while cells from lung metastases showed predominantly a high fluorescence intensity peak comparable with parental 4T1 cells (Figure S4A). With $4T1\rho^0$ cells, only the intermediate peak was present. Similar results were obtained with B16 cells (Figure S4B). Quantitation of MitoSOX staining showed low fluorescence in $4T1\rho^0$ cells with other sublines being comparable with parental 4T1 cells (Figure 5D). Dihydrodichlorofluorescein (DCF) measurement of cytosolic hydrogen peroxide showed non-significant reduction in the signal in $4T1\rho^0$, $4T1\rho^0$ SC and $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells relative to parental 4T1 cells (Figure 5E). Using TMRM as a probe, mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) was found to be similar in 4T1 and $4T1\rho^0$ cells, elevated in $4T1\rho^0$ SCL and to a lesser extent in $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells, and was greatly reduced in $4T1\rho^0$ CTC cells (Figure 5F).

Respiration Recovery Following mtDNA Acquisition by 4T1p⁰ Cells

 $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells showed barely detectable respiration, which was low in $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ cells and higher in $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$ cells, while $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ cells respired at a rate similar to that of parental cells (Figures 5G and S5A). Respiration was similar in 4T1 and 4T1SC cells and slightly lower in 4T1SCL cells (Figure S3F). Respiration *via* CI and CII was very low in $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ cells and higher in $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$ cells. Respiration *via* CI was similar in parental cells and $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ while respiration *via* CII was highly elevated in metastatic cells (Figures 5H and S5B). A similar respiration profile was found for isolated mitochondria (Figure S5C), indicating that respiration of the sublines is primarily governed by

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mitochondria and not the extra-mitochondrial compartment. Collectively, these results show significant differences in respiration of individual $4T1\rho^{0}$ -derived sublines, which paralleled the efficacy of these cells to initiate tumor growth (Figure 1C).

mtDNA Recovery and Transcription Following mtDNA Acquisition

To determine whether phenotypic differences in $4T1\rho^{0}$ -derived sublines following mtDNA acquisition were related to gradual restoration of mtDNA, we evaluated the mtDNA/nDNA ratio. While $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells did not contain mtDNA, we found a several-fold increase in the mtDNA/nDNA ratio in $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC cells compared with parental cells. This high ratio was maintained over several months of the cells in culture (Figure 6A). $4T1\rho^{0}$ CTC and $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells showed ratios more similar to those of parental cells as did the 'matching' 4T1SC and 4T1SCL cells (Figure S3G). No transcripts of mtDNAencoded genes were found in $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells, but these were transcribed in $4T1\rho^{0}$ -derived sublines. Relative to 4T1 cells *Nd1*, *Nd2*, *Nd4*, *Nd4l*, *Nd5*, *Nd6* and *mt-Co2* were elevated 2-4-fold in $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells, and *Nd1*, *Nd2*, *mt-Co2*, *Atp6* and *Atp8* elevated 1.5-4.5-fold in $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells. The level of the *D-loop* transcript was similar in all $4T1\rho^{0}$ -derived sublines, indicating that the regulatory region of mtDNA does not hinder mtDNA replication or transcription in these cells (Figure 6B).

Nuclear DNA-encoded subunits of mitochondrial complexes, with the exception of Sdhc, showed a similar expression pattern across the cell lines, indicating a common mechanism regulating their transcription (Figure 6C). Of the regulatory genes, the relative level of mRNA for the mitochondrial transcription factor, *Tfam*, was very low in $4T1\rho^{0}$, and almost 3-fold higher in $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ cells, but similar to 4T1 cells in $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$

and $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells (Figure 6D). The *Tfam* transcript profile in the sub-lines mirrors the mtDNA/nDNA ratios, suggesting a causal relationship. *Nrf1*, *Nrf2*, *Tfb1m*, *Tfb2m* and *Top1m* transcripts were depressed in $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC cells, while the assembly factor *Scafi* (*Cox7a2l*) was decreased in $4T1\rho^{0}$, $4T1\rho^{0}$ SC and $4T1\rho^{0}$ CTC cells, and the assembly factor *Hig2a* was relatively unchanged. No differences in these transcripts were observed in the 'matching' cells (Figure S3H).

Mitochondrial Protein Synthesis, and Citrate Synthase (CS) and CII Activity Following mtDNA Acquisition

We next studied translation of mtDNA-encoded proteins. Figure 7A shows only background staining in $4T1\rho^0$ cells, with the proteins coordinately translated 2-3-times more efficiently in the other sublines compared with parental cells. Activity of CS, the first enzyme of the TCA cycle, was increased 2.5-fold in $4T1\rho^0$ and $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells, while in $4T1\rho^0$ CTC and $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells the activity was similar to that in parental cells (Figure 7B). This increase was not observed in the 'matching' sublines (Figure S3I). We did not see a major difference in succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) activity in sublines derived from $4T1\rho^0$ cells (Figure 7C) or the 'matching' cells (Figure S3J). Succinate quinone reductase (SQR) activity of CII was very low in $4T1\rho^0$, $4T1\rho^0$ SC and $4T1\rho^0$ CTC cells, while in $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells it was 70% higher than in 4T1 cells (Figure 7D). SQR activity was about 2-fold higher in the metastatic 4T1SCL cells than in 4T1 and 4T1SC (Figure S3K).

Respiratory Complex Assembly and Subunit Expression Following mtDNA Acquisition

To determine the steady-state level of proteins representing subunits of RCs encoded by mtDNA and nDNA, as well as proteins with a regulatory or more general role in mitochondria, we performed WB following SDS-PAGE on $4T1\rho^0$ -derived and parental cells (Figure 7E and S3L). The nDNA-encoded CI subunits NDUFS3 and NDUFA9 were not expressed in $4T1\rho^0$ cells but were expressed in all other cell lines. The CII subunit SDHA was highly expressed in all cell lines while SDHB was less highly expressed in $4T1\rho^{0}$, $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ and $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ cells. The assembly factor SDHAF2 that flavinates SDHA was expressed in all cell lines but more strongly in $4T1\rho^{\circ}SC$ cells, while the nuclear-encoded CIII protein, Core2, was expressed in all sulines but was lower in $4T1\rho^0$ cells. The nuclear-encoded CV protein, ATPaseß, was expressed similarly in all sublines. The mtDNA-encoded COI and nDNA-encoded COIV subunits of CIV were not expressed in $4T1\rho^0$ cells with COI being highest in $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells. nDNA-encoded proteins that are not part of RCs were expressed in all sub-lines with Cyt c being particularly high in $4T1\rho^0$ cells, and TIM23 and VDAC1 attenuated in these cells. PGC α/β that regulates the transcription factors NRF1/NRF2 was poorly expressed in $4T1\rho^0$ cells. OPA1, which modulates cristae formation and geometry, was low in $4T1\rho^0$ and $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells, and progressively increased in $4T1\rho^0CTC$ and $4T1\rho^0SCL$ cells, while it was high in 'matching' 4T1SC and 4T1SCL cells (Figure S3L).

Native blue gel electrophoresis (NBGE) using a mild detergent followed by WB was employed to assess the assembly of individual RCs and SCs (Figure 7F). Parental cells showed a high level of the fully assembled respirasome (CI+CIII₂+CIV_n), which

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was absent in $4T1\rho^0$ cells. Low respirasome levels were observed in $4T1\rho^0$ SC cells and $4T1\rho^0$ CTC cells, and full restoration was observed in $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells. Free CI, CIII in the form of a dimer and in an SC with CIV, and CIV largely in the form of a monomer, were present at similar levels in all cell types except for $4T1\rho^0$ cells. CV was partially assembled in $4T1\rho^0$ cells due to the absence of structural mtDNA-encoded ATP6 and ATP8, while it was fully assembled and present as a dimer in all other cell types. CII was represented in $4T1\rho^0$ cells by the highly expressed SDHA subunit. SDHB, only observed in fully assembled CII, was lower in $4T1\rho^0$, $4T1\rho^0$ SC and $4T1\rho^0$ CTC than in 4T1 cells and elevated by 70% in $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells. These findings document that transition from $4T1\rho^0$ CTC to $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells yields a fully assembled respirasome and CII, associated with efficient respiration and tumor initiation.

DISCUSSION

Whole genome approaches have deepened to our understanding of the role of mutations in nDNA in different cancers (Kandoth et al., 2013; Khurana et al., 2013). Mutations in mtDNA have also been described in cancer, but their contribution to tumor initiation, progression and metastasis is less clear (Brandon et al., 2006; Wallace, 2012; Schon et al., 2012). Functionally relevant mtDNA mutations may be expected to compromise mitochondrial respiration and promote aerobic glycolysis, a bioenergetic trait of many tumors. In breast cancer, mtDNA mutations and low mtDNA copy number are associated with increased metastasis and poor prognosis (Petros et al., 2005, Tseng et al., 2006), while a recent study showed that low mtDNA copy number promotes metastasis by inducing EMT via mitochondrial retrograde signaling (Guha and Avadhani, 2013).

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Using highly metastatic murine tumor models with mtDNA deletion to simulate severe mtDNA damage, we have found a long lag to tumor formation for both B16 ρ^0 melanoma and $4T1\rho^0$ breast carcinoma cells in C57BL/6 and Balb/c mice respectively, as well as in the NOD/scid animals. Previous reports on grafting human ρ^0 tumor cells have provided variable results, depending on the tumor type, the site of injection and the recipient (Hayashi et al., 1992; Morais et al., 1994; Cavelli et al., 1997; Magda et al., 2008; Kulaweic et al., 2008; Imanishi et al., 2011). In both our models, delayed tumor growth was observed, and was associated with mtDNA acquisition from the host suggestive of horizontal mtDNA transfer. This was demonstrated when cells derived from tumors that grew from B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells were found to be positive for both the *Cytb* gene and COI protein. We excluded the possibility of latent mtDNA being present in ρ^0 cells by showing that tumors growing from B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells contained the $tRNA^{Arg}$ gene polymorphism of the host mouse (Bayona-Bafaluy et al., 2006) which is distinct from that of the original tumor. This notion is corroborated by our identification of additional polymorphisms in B16 ρ^0 SC and 4T1 ρ^0 SC cells that are identical with the host and distinct from parental cells, which, when taken together with the $tRNA^{Arg}$ polymorphism unequivocally prove the host origin of the mtDNA.

Because there is no known mechanism for intercellular transfer of mtDNA across both mitochondrial inner and outer membranes and the plasma membrane, transfer of whole mitochondria is the most likely explanation. This has previously been shown to occur *in vitro* (Spees et al., 2006; Cho et al., 2012; Gerdes and Carvalho, 2008; Gurke et al., 2008) and in a mouse model of acute lung injury, documenting mitochondrial transfer from mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) injected into the animal's lungs (Islam et al., 2012). Organelle transfer between cells has been reviewed recently, with a number of

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reports documenting mitochondrial transfer (Rogers and Bhattacharya, 2013). Phylogenetic evidence also supports mtDNA transfer between cells as shown in a transmissible canine venereal tumor (Rebbeck et al., 2011).

To better understand the role of mitochondrial respiration in tumorigenesis and metastasis, we characterized malignant cells from different tumor microenvironments in the $4T1\rho^0$ tumor model. To ensure that the results relate to mtDNA acquisition and not local microenvironment effects, we isolated 'matching' cell lines from primary s.c. 4T1 tumors and from lung metastases. Of interest was the finding that cells derived from primary tumors that grew from $4T1\rho^0$ cells still exhibited a considerable delay in tumor initiation, while the kinetics of growth of tumors derived from the metastatic $4T1\rho^0$ SCL cells showed no delay in tumor initiation. These findings, initially acquired in our laboratory in Wellington, New Zealand, were repeated with almost identical results in our other laboratory in Prague, Czech Republic, 9 months later, indicating the robust nature of the results and their high reproducibility.

The most striking finding is the stepwise recovery of mitochondrial respiration from undetectable levels in ρ^0 cells to low levels in primary tumor cells derived from ρ^0 cells, progressing to higher levels of respiration in CTCs and full restoration in metastatic cells. The phenotype of the individual cell types was maintained in culture, as documented by sustained high mtDNA/nDNA ratio in cells from the primary tumor. This suggests that these cells are unable to restore full mitochondrial function during long-term maintenance *in vitro* and need microenvironmental exposure to progress to full respiratory competence. Our findings are consistent with earlier *in vitro* results (Spees et al., 2006) showing that mitochondrial transfer from MSCs and skin fibroblasts to human A549 ρ^0 lung adenocarcinoma cells restored their respiratory capacity.

We provide detailed analysis of the individual stages of recovery of respiratory competence from parental cells to their metastatic counterparts, documenting each 'recovery' stage. We show that a crucial step of full respiration recovery is associated with the assembly of the respirasome and CII, with SDH activity being a component of the TCA cycle as well as OXPHOS that is compromised in ρ^0 cells. This is also supported by the high level of SQR activity in metastatic cells. Our results show that the level of the assembly factor SCAFI (Lapuente-Brun et al., 2013), but not HIG2A (Moreno-Lastres et al., 2012), correlates with the extent of respirasome assembly in tumors derived from $4T1\rho^0$ cells. The key regulatory role of SCAFI and other respirasome assembly factors in the tumor microenvironment in metastatic progression needs further investigation. Similarly, the reasons for full assembly of CII in metastatic cells are not known but are likely to be linked to retrograde mitochondrial signaling. That assembly of the RCs and SCs is crucial for the full recovery of mitochondrial respiration is evidenced by our findings that except for ρ^0 cells, sublines of these cells exhibited transcriptional and translational activity of mtDNA-encoded genes, with fully-assembled CI, CIII and CIV being present. A key to understanding the different behaviors of the sublines may relate to the high level of mitochondrial heterogeneity.

Our findings raise several challenging questions. A fundamental one relates to how ρ^0 cells, having acquired mtDNA, progress from primary tumor via the circulation to lung metastases, and how this progression leads to full recovery of respiration. In our model, metastatic potential is encoded in the nuclear genome but suppressed by the absence of mtDNA. Acquisition of 'normal' mtDNA from the microenvironment enables $4T1\rho^0$ cells to grow as primary tumors and to 'unleash' their metastatic potential. It is possible that rare cells acquire one or a few mitochondria that contain mtDNA and that

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these cells replicate their mtDNA, build cisternal structures of cristae and multiply clonally at the expense of cells lacking mtDNA that are progressively eliminated by autophagy. Our finding that autophagic activity is low in $4T1\rho^0$ and $4T1\rho^0SC$ cells that also have very low respiration is consistent with a report showing faulty autophagy in cells with suppressed ETC (Graef and Nunnari, 2011). Such cells do not appear to 'clear' malfunctional mitochondria, which is more likely to occur at the stage of CTCs, where respiration is partially restored and autophagy is higher.

Quantification of mtDNA/nDNA ratios showed stable elevation in $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ cells, consistent with high levels of TFAM, a factor critical for replication, transcription and packaging of mtDNA (Kukat and Larsson, 2013). Compromised respiration is correlated with lack of cristae in all $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells and poorly formed cristae in many $4T1\rho^{0}SC$ cells, consistent with low OPA1 levels (Cogliati et al., 2013). The reasons why ρ^{0} cells that have acquired mtDNA require conditioning by their local microenvironment to restore a parental intracellular distribution of mtDNA are not clear, but may relate to progressive changes in mitochondria-to-nucleus retrograde signaling that eventually normalizes both mtDNA distribution and respiratory function. The importance of the tumor microenvironment is corroborated by the finding that 4T1 cells show both epithelial and mesenchymal markers, highly localized within the cell and exhibiting different patterns of compartmentalization, with coordinate changes in E-cadherin and vimentin staining across 4T1 cells and derived sublines confirming the different origins of the individual 4T1 sublines.

The signals that ρ^0 cells employ to acquire mtDNA from stromal cells as well as how this process occurs are unclear. It has been proposed that cells form tunneling nanotubes to move biomaterial between cells (Rustom et al., 2004; Gerdes and Carvalho,

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2008), as shown for the mobilization of organelles (Rustom et al., 2004; Koyanagi et al., 2005; Lou et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2012; Pasquier et al., 2013); this process is suppressed by cytochalasin B (Bukoreshtliev et al., 2009). Other mechanisms of organelle trafficking between cells have also been proposed including membrane vesicles, cell fusion and various other cytoplasmic bridging processes. Of importance is the minimum level of mtDNA damage needed to initiate intercellular transfer of functional mitochondria. It has been shown that a gradual decrease in the number of mtDNA copies in human glioblastoma cells eventually results in a phenotype unable to recover *in vitro*, while injecting these cells into immunocompromized mice resulted in delayed formation of tumors and restoration of mitochondrial function (Dickinson et al., 2013). Another important question is how recovering mitochondria signal to the nucleus to trigger transcription of genes needed for mitochondrial function. Retrograde mitochondrial signaling is poorly understood at present and may include the bioenergetic status of the cell (e.g. the AMP/ATP ratio), the level of ROS, release of metabolites, Ca²⁺, etc (Liu and Butow, 2006; Moreno-Loshuertos et al., 2006; Ryan and Hoogenraad, 2007, Guha and Avadhani, 2013).

In conclusion, we have shown that tumor cells devoid of mtDNA, a model of extensive mtDNA damage, can acquire mtDNA of host origin, resulting in stepwise recovery of respiration from primary to metastatic tumor cells. We show that a crucial aspect of full recovery of mitochondrial respiration is full assembly of the respirasome and CII, which are directly linked with efficient tumor formation. To our knowledge, this is the first report of *in vivo* mitochondrial genome acquisition by tumor cells with compromised respiration due to mtDNA deletion, and demonstrates that mitochondrial respiration is required for tumorigenesis in these autologous models. Mitochondrial DNA

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mutations can also contribute to tumorigenesis, suggesting that optimum bioenergetic balance may relate to the individual tumor (Tan et al., 2013). Our results support the notion of tumor plasticity and involving exceptional ability to overcome unfavorable situations (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Cell Culture, Tumor Formation and Establishment of Tumor-Derived Cells. B16 and 6TG-resistant 4T1 cells (Tan and Berridge, 2004) from ATCC were used. Cell maintenance, preparation of ρ^0 cells and the establishment of tumors and tumor-derived cell cultures are described in detail in the Supplementary Text.

Mitochondria Isolation and Sequence Analysis

Functional mitochondrial were isolated according to Schmitt et al (2013) and mtDNA *tRNA^{Arg}* sequencing carried out on a PCR-amplified region using Sanger sequencing.
Whole mtDNA sequencing used overlapping PCR amplified products and both Ion
Torrent and Nanopore MinION approaches.
Microscopic and Flow Cytometric Cell Evaluation. Standard methodology described
in more detail in the Supplementary Text was used for bright field and fluorescence
microscopy and TEM, while flow cytometry used a BD FACScalibur.
Respiration Assays. Cellular respiration was evaluated using an Oxygraph-2k instrument
(Oroboros Instruments) and published procedures (Pesta and Gnaiger, 2012), as detailed

in the Supplementary Text.

Mitochondrial Biochemistry Assays and Gene Expression Analysis

Mitochondrial membrane potential and ROS production were measured by flow

cytometry using the fluorescent probes TMRM, DCF-DA and MitoSOX. Glucose uptake

was measured using 2-NGDG, ATP using a luciferase-based assay and lactate colorimetrically. *Cytb* was measured by PCR product, while gene expression analysis used qRT-PCR. Western blotting and NBGE used well-established methods while newlysynthesisized mitochondrial proteins were evaluated using a Clik-iT AHA kit followed by Western blotting. **Statistical Analysis**. Unless stated otherwise, data are mean \pm S.D of at least three independent experiments or used groups of 5 mice. The two-tailed unpaired Student's t test was used to assess statistical significance with *p*<0.05 being regarded as significant. Images are representative of three independent experiments. For TEM data, Tukey's

multiple comparison procedure and statistical test was used at p < 0.05.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Tumor Cells lacking mtDNA Show Delayed Tumor Growth (A) B16 and $B16\rho^0$ cells (10⁵) were injected s.c. into C57BL/6 or NOD/scid mice and tumor growth monitored. These cells, and cell lines derived from s.c. tumors and lung metastases that grew from B16p⁰ cells were also injected i.v. into NOD/scid mice, and lung weight and tumor colonies determined. (B) 4T1 and $4T1\rho^0$ cells were injected s.c. or orthotopically into the mammary fat pad of Balb/c mice and tumor growth monitored. These cells and 6TG-resistant cell lines derived from s.c. tumors and lung metastases that grew from $4T1\rho^0$ cells were also injected i.v. into Balb/c mice and lung weight and tumor colonies determined. Images of lungs from these mice are also shown. (C) 4T1, $4T1\rho^0 4T1\rho^0 SC$, $4T1\rho^{0}$ CTC and $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL cells were injected into Balb/c mice and tumor growth monitored. (D) Oxygen consumption by tissue of tumors derived from cells as stated above (C) was compared with respiration of liver tissue obtained from the same mice. (E) Histological staining of tissue sections from (C) stained with H & E; size bar 20 µm. The data are derived from three independent experiments and the results expressed as mean values \pm S.D. The symbol '*' documents significantly significant differences with p<0.05 and '***' p<0.001.

Figure 2. Tumors Derived from mtDNA-Deficient Cells Contain mtDNA of Host Origin. (A) Left panels: *Cytb* PCR analysis of B16, B16 ρ^0 and B16 ρ^0 SC and B16 ρ^0 SCL

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tumor sub-lines from C57BL/6 (upper left panel) and NOD/scid mice (lower left panel). Right panels: *Cytb* PCR analysis of 4T1, $4T1\rho^{0}$ and tumor sub-lines from orthotopic primary and metastatic tumors (upper right panel, $4T1\rho^{0}$ MFP, $4T1\rho^{0}$ MFPL) and s.c. primary and metastatic tumor ($4T1\rho^{0}$ SC, $4T1\rho^{0}$ SCL) that form in Balb/c mice. (B) Left panels: sequence analysis of the polymorphic region (9817-9836 C57BL/6 reference NC_005089.1) of the mitochondrial *tRNA*^{Arg} gene from C57BL/6 and NOD/scid mice and from subcutaneous tumors derived from B16 ρ^{0} cells grown in C57BL/6 and NOD/scid mice. Right panels: comparable sequence analysis of the mitochondrial *tRNA*^{Arg} gene from Balb/c mice and from a subcutaneous tumor derived from $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells grown in Balb/c mice. A summary Table of the results is presented. (C) COI immunocytochemical staining (green) of parental, ρ^{0} and individual sub-lines of B16 and 4T1 cells. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Size bar, 10 µm.

Figure 3. Individual Cell Types Differ in Their Phenotype and Mitochondrial

Morphology. (A) 4T1 and the derived sub-lines were evaluated using light microscopy. (B) The sub-lines were stained with EtBr and MitoTracker Red, and evaluated by confocal microscopy for yellow (EtBr) and red fluorescence (MitoTracker Red). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342. The cells were evaluated using flow cytometry for the percentage of mitochondria with (upper right quadrant) and without (left quadrants) DNA. (C) The sub-lines were incubated with AO (red) to visualize acidic vacuoles and with Hoechst 33342 to show nuclei (blue). Cells were also probed by WB for LC3B-I/II, p62, Parkin and BNIP3 with actin as the loading control. Bafilomycin A treatment (20 μM, 16 h) was included in the LC3BII analysis to determine autophagic flux. (D) The

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sub-lines were incubated with E-cadherin (green) and vimentin (red) and counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue), and inspected by confocal microscopy.

Figure 4. TEM Analysis of Individual Sub-lines Shows Mitochondrial

Ultrastructural Differences. 4T1 cells and the derived sub-lines were grown on cover slips, processed for TEM as detailed in Materials and Methods, and examined using TEM. The bar indicates 500 nm for the general cell view and 200 nm for the magnified mitochondrial image. The lower graphs indicate percent mitochondria with visible cristae (left) and percent mitochondria with ring-like cristae (right) for each of the $4T1\rho^{0}$ sub-lines. The percentage of mitochondria with visible cristae in 4T1 cells was set as 100%, the percentage of mitochondria with ring-like cristae in $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells set as 100%. The data are derived from three independent experiments and the results expressed as mean values \pm S.D. The symbol '*' documents significantly significant differences with p<0.05.

Figure 5. Bioenergetic Properties of 4T1 Cell Types. 4T1 cells and the derived sublines were assessed for glucose uptake (A), lactate production (B) and the level of ATP (C). Mitochondrial superoxide production was evaluated using MitoSOX (D), cytosolic hydrogen peroxide with DCF (E) and $\Delta \Psi_m$ using TMRM (F). (G) Cells were evaluated for routine, leak, net (R-L) and uncoupled (ETS) respiration using the Oxygraph respirometer as described in more detail in Materials and Methods and in the Legend to Figure S3A. (H) Cells were permeabilized with digitonin and evaluated for respiration at the presence of substrates specific for CI and CII. The data are derived from three independent experiments and the results expressed as mean values ± S.D. The symbol '*' documents significantly significant differences with p<0.05. Figure 6. Mitochondrial DNA Content and Transcriptional Activity of 4T1 Cell Types. (A) 4T1, $4T1\rho^{0}$ and tumor sub-lines were evaluated for the mtDNA:nDNA ratio using qPCR and specific primers (Supplementary Text). The analyses were performed using cells maintained in culture for a short period of time (1st analysis), 1 month (2nd analysis) and 4 months (3rd analysis). The sub-lines were also evaluated for the level of RC transcripts encoded by mtDNA (B) and nDNA (C) and for transcripts of mitochondrial regulatory genes (D) using qPCR and specific primers (Supplementary Text). The data are derived from three independent experiments and the results expressed as mean values \pm S.D. The symbol '*' documents significantly significant differences with p<0.05.

Figure 7. Mitochondrial Protein Synthesis, Respiratory Complex Formation and Supercomplex Assembly in 4T1 Cell Types. (A) 4T1 cells and derived sub-lines were evaluated for newly synthesized proteins using the Clik-iT AHA kit. The sub-lines were also assessed for CS (B), SDH (C) and SQR activity (D) as detailed in Materials and Methods, as well as expression of specific proteins using WB and specific antibodies (E). Tubulin was used as a loading control. (F) The mitochondrial fraction was lysed in the presence of digitonin and subjected to NBGE. Specific subunits of individual complexes were detected using the antibodies as shown. HSP60 was used as a loading control. The level of expression of the individual bands representing RCs, subcomplexes and SCs, was evaluated by densitometry relative to HSP60. The data are derived from three independent experiments and the results expressed as mean values \pm S.D. The symbol '*' documents significantly significant differences with p<0.05.

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SUPPLEMENTARY TEXT

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cell Culture, Tumor Formation and Establishment of Tumor-Derived Cells. B16 and 4T1 cells were grown in the IMDM and RPMI1640 medium, respectively, containing 10% FCS with 2 mM glutaMAX at 37°C and 5% CO₂. To delete mtDNA, cells were cultured for 10-12 weeks with EtBr (50-100 ng/ml) supplemented with 1 mM pyruvate and 50 µg/ml uridine (King and Attardi, 1989). Loss of mtDNA was monitored by sensitivity to 2 µM FCCP (Herst and Berridge, 2007; Herst et al, 2011), PCR analysis of the mitochondrial *Cytb* gene and by pyruvate/uridine auxotrophy. B16 and B16 ρ^0 cells (2x10⁵) cells in HBSS were injected s.c. into the right flank of C57BL/6 or NOD/SCID mice. 4T1 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells (10⁵) were injected either subcutaneously into the right flank or into the mammary fat pad of female Balb/c mice. To determine the ability of parental and ρ^0 cells to seed and grow in the lung, 10⁵ cells were injected intravenously.

Animal studies were performed according to the guidelines of the Australian and New Zealand Council for the Care and Use of Animals in Research and Teaching and were approved by the local Animal Ethics Committee.

Isolation of Mitochondria. Functional mitochondria were isolated as described (Schmitt et al, 2013). In brief, cells were homogenized in the isolation buffer containing 200 mM sucrose, 10 mM Tris-MOPS and 1 mM EGTA/Tris using the Balch homogenizer (Isobiotec) coupled to high-precision New Era NE-1010 pump system. Cell suspension containing 40-50 x 10^6 cells in 5 ml was passed 3 times through a 10 µm wide opening using a 5 ml syringe at 0.5 ml/min. The homogenate was centrifuged at 800 x g for 8 min at 4°C, and the supernatant containing mitochondria was further centrifuged for 15 min at

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10,000 x g. Peletted mitochondria were re-suspended in 100-200 µl of the isolation buffer, and 50-100 µl of the suspension was immediately used for respiration evaluation. Sequence Analysis of Mitochondrial *tRNA*^{Arg} Gene. Total DNA was obtained from cells or isolated mitochondria using the Quick-gDNATM MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A 483 bp tRNA R region containing the polymorphic locus (position 9821 of reference sequence NC_005089.1) was amplified by PCR using a forward primer (5'-TCG ACC CTA CAA GCT CTG CAC GT-3') and reverse primer (5'-TGG TGA TGG GGA TTG GTA TGG AGC-3'). PCR was performed in 20 µl reaction volumes containing 500 ng sample DNA, 0.5 µM of each primer and iTaq DNA Polymerase, dNTP mixture and PCR buffer (Intron Biotechnology). The reaction conditions were: 94°C for 2 min, 35 cycles of 94°C for 20 s; 70°C for 10 s; 72°C for 30 s, and then 72°C for 5 min. PCR products were analyzed by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis and purified using UltraClean PCR Clean-Up Kit (Mo Bio Labs). Sequencing was performed by the Massey University Genome Service using a capillary ABI3730 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The *tRNA*^{arg} gene polymorphic region of B16 and 4T1 cells was sequenced 8-9 times using both forward and reverse primers on multiple occasions over 13-14 months, while isolated mtDNA from C57BL/6, Balb/c and NOD/SCID mice was sequenced at least once with both forward and reverse primers to confirm published results (Bayona-Bafaluy et al., 2003). With cells grown in culture from tumors that grew from B16 ρ^0 and 4T1 ρ^0 cells the polymorphic region was sequenced 2-3 times using both forward and reverse primers on each occasion.

Microscopic and Flow Cytometric Cell Evaluation. For COI evaluation, **c**ells were fixed with 4% formalin, permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 and incubated for 1 h with monoclonal anti-COI IgG (Molecular Probes) followed by anti-mouse AlexaFluor

488 IgG (Molecular Probes) for 1 h. DAPI was used for nuclear staining. For vimentin and E-cadherin staining, fixed and permeabilized cells were incubated overnight with 4 µg/ml mouse monoclonal anti-vimentin IgG (Santa Cruz) and 1 µg/ml rabbit polyclonal anti-E-cadherin IgG (Sigma-Aldrich) and for 3 h with anti-mouse-AlexaFluor 594 IgG and anti-rabbit-AlexaFluor 488 IgG (Molecular Probes), and stained with 1 μ g/ml Hoechst 33342 (Sigma-Aldrich) to visualize nuclei. For live cell imaging of mitochondria and mtDNA, cells were grown in chamber slides (LabTek) and incubated for 30 min with 100 nM MitoTracker Red (Molecular Probes) and 5 μ g/ml Hoechst 33342, and subsequently for 4 min with 2 µg/ml EtBr. Images were captured and analyzed using the FV1000 confocal microscope and Fluoview software (Olympus). For flow cytometric quantification of mtDNA content, cultured cells were stained as above without nuclear staining. Mean fluorescence readings were acquired using the FACScalibur cytometer (BD Biosciences) and the percentage of gated cells analyzed using the FlowJo software version 7.6.5 (Treestar). TEM was accomplished as follows. Cells were grown on coverslips, fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde (Agar Scientific) and post-fixed with 1% OsO_4 made up in Sorensen's phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 7.2-7.4), dehydrated, and embedded in Epon-Durkupan (Sigma-Aldrich). Ultrathin sections (~70-90 nm) were cut, contrasted with uranyl acetate (Agar Scientific), and examined in the Morgagni 268 transmission electron microscope (FEI) at 80 kV and in the TECNAI G2 20 LaB6 electron microscope (FEI) at 200 kV. Images were captured with Mega View III CCD camera (Olympus Soft Imaging Solutions). For statistical evaluation, 50 mitochondria per cell in 25 cells from each sub-line were inspected and scored for mitochondria with clearly visible cristae, suggestive of functional mitochondria and mitochondria with ring-like cristae, suggestive of dysfunctional mitochondria.

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Evaluation of $\Delta \Psi_m$ and ROS. The $\Delta \Psi_m$ -sensitive fluorescent probe TMRM was utilized, and the cells evaluated by flow cytometry. The mitochondrial uncoupler FCCP was used as a control to determine non-specific TMRM loading. Cellular ROS were evaluated using the probes DCF-DA or MitoSOX. Cells were incubated with either probe for 10 min under normal culture conditions, harvested and fluorescence of the oxidized probes assessed by flow cytometry. All probes were from Sigma-Aldrich, MitoSOX from Molecular Probes.

Glucose Uptake, ATP Generation and Lactate Assays. For glucose uptake, cells were pre-incubated in low-glucose (1 g/l) DMEM for 24 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂, followed by 15-min incubation in normal DMEM (4.5 g/l glucose) in the presence of 50 μ M 2nitrobenzodeoxyglucose (2-NBDG; Life Technologies); glucose uptake was then analyzed by flow cytometry. For ATP evaluation, cells were seeded at 10⁵ per well in 96well plates and intracellular levels of ATP determined using a luciferase-based assay (CellTiter-Glo® Luminescent Assay, Promega). Results were normalized to the total protein level in the cell lysate assessed in each well determined by the BCA assay. For lactate evaluation, cells were seeded at 10⁵ per well in 96-well plates. Aliquots of the medium were used for the analysis of lactate using a colorimetric kit (Trinity Biotech) following 24 h incubation. Results were normalized to the total protein level in the cell lysate.

Respiration Assays. Experiments evaluating intact cell respiration were performed with cells suspended in RPMI medium without serum. Oxygen consumption was evaluated for cellular ROUTINE respiration, oligomycin-inhibited LEAK respiration, FCCP-stimulated uncoupled respiration (ETS) and rotenone/antimycin-inhibited residual respiration (ROX). Respiration via mitochondrial complexes was evaluated using digitonin-

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permeabilized cells suspended in the mitochondrial respiration medium MiR06, and oxygen consumption was evaluated for routine respiration, CI-linked respiration, (CI+CII)-linked respiration, maximum uncoupled respiration, CII-linked uncoupled respiration as well as residual oxygen consumption. Respiration via CI and CII was evaluated in the presence of the proper substrates and inhibitors of the other complex. The results were related to the number of cells. Detailed description of the conditions is in the Legend to Supplementary Figures.

mtDNA Level Assay. Total DNA was extracted using the AquaPure Genomic DNA Isolation Kit (BioRad). 50 ng of DNA was diluted with water to 4.5 μl, and 0.5 μl of the combined 10 μM forward and reverse primers added (for mtDNA, mMito1 primers for nDNA mB2M1 primers; see Supplementary Text for sequences) and 5 μl of 2xRT² SYBR[®] Green qPCR Mastermix (Qiagen) added. The reaction was run on the Eco qPCR System (Illumina) with the following setting: one cycle of 50°C for 2 min; one cycle of 95°C for 10 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 1 min.

PCR Analysis of Mitochondrial *Cytb* **Gene.** DNA was purified from 10^6 cells using the Quick-gDNATM MiniPrep (Zymo Research), and each sample analyzed by PCR using the *Cytb* gene as a mtDNA marker with forward primer (5'-TCC TTC ATG TCG GAC GAG GCT-3') and reverse primer (5'-ACG ATT GCT AGG GCC GCG AAT-3'). PCR was carried out in a BioRad iCycler for 30 cycles of 20 s at 94°C, 20 s at 58°C and 30 s at 72°C, and analyzed by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis.

qPCR of mtDNA- and nDNA-Coded Genes. RNA was obtained in triplicate from 4T1and $4T1\rho^{0}$ - derived sub-lines using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). The Revertaid First-Strand Synthesis System plus random hexamer primers (Fermentas) were used to reversetranscribe total RNA into cDNA. Primers specific for all mitochondrial and nuclear

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encoded genes (see Supplementary Text for sequences of primers) were then assessed with 2x EvaGreen (Solis BioDyne) using the Eco qPCR System. Target genes were normalized to the housekeeping gene GAPDH, and change in gene expression was determined using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

mtDNA isolation and sequencing. DNA was isolated from cell pellets according to manufacturer's instructions using the DNAzol product (MRC). Briefly, cells were lysed in 1 ml of DNAzol, spun at 2,000 x *g* for 5 min, and the resulting supernatant precipitated with 0.5 ml of EtOH, spun at 14,000 x *g* for 10 min, and washed twice with 75% ethanol. the resulting pellet was air-dried and dissolved in 8 mM NaOH. The DNA preparation containing nDNA and mtDNA was quantified by Nanodrop and further amplified using mtDNA-specific primers and PCR. The full length mtDNA was covered by amplifying and sequencing ten 1.8 kb long dsDNA PCR products. PCR products were run on an agarose gel to confirm the specificity of the reaction and were purified using the DNA clean-and-concentrator kit (Zymoresearch). 200 to 400 ng of the purified products was combined with water and 0.5 μ l of 100 μ M primer stocks to yield 10 μ l sequencing reaction mixture. Sequencing was performed by the GACT Biotech by the classical Sanger sequencing, and the resulting sequences aligned using the SeqManPro suite from the DNASTAR Lasergene 11 software.

Native Blue Gel Eletrophoresis (NBGE). NBGE was accomplished basically as published (Wittig et al., 2006). In brief, mitochondria were isolated using a standard protocol. Digitonin-solublized mitochondria were separated on NativePAGE Novex Bis-Tris 3-12% gradient gels for CI and 4-16% gradient gels for CII, CIII, CIV and CV. After electrophoresis, the gels were incubated in the SDS-PAGE running buffer for 5 min and proteins transferred to PVDF membranes probed with specific antibodies against

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complex I (NUDFA9), CII (SDHA or SDHB), CIII (CORE2), CIV (COVa) and CV (ATPaseβ) and HSP60 as the loading control.

Western Blotting. Cells were lysed in the RIPA buffer supplemented with the Complete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche). The lysate was cleared by centrifugation and total protein determined. 40 μ g of total protein were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes, which were then probed with appropriate antibodies (NDUFS3, NDUFA9, SDHA, SDHB, Core2, COI, COIV, ATPase β , PGC α , TIM23, VDAC, OPA1, Parkin, BNIP3 and HSP60 were from Abcam, SDHFA2 from Santa Cruz, SOD2 from Acris Antibodies, Cyt c from BD Pharmingen, LC3BI/II form Cell Signaling, tubulin from Exbio, and actin from Sigma-Aldrich). The blotted proteins reacted with specific antibodies were detected using the ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Pierce). *In vitro* Translation of mtDNA-Encoded Genes. Newly synthesized mtDNA-encoded proteins were evaluated in intact cells using the Clik-iT AHA kit (Invitrogen). Briefly, cells were incubated with methionine-free RPMI for 10 min at 37°C and 5% CO₂ and

subsequently with 100 µg/ml cyclohexamide. After 30 min, 3 mM L-azidohomoalanine (azhal, a methionine analog) was added and the cells incubated for 2 h. Azhal-labeled cells were harvested and the total cellular protein extracted in 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1% SDS and 250 U/ml benzonase nuclease (Sigma-Aldrich). The cyclo-addition of alkyne-tagged TAMRA to azhal-labeled proteins was carried out according to the manufacturer's protocol. Proteins were separated by Tris-Tricine SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane, and mitochondrial translation products detected with anti-TAMRA IgG (Abcam). Total protein stained with Commassie Blue was used as a loading control.

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CS, SDH and SQR Activity Assays. CS activity was assessed by the reduction of 5,5'dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) using the coupled reaction with acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate. In brief, 10 μ g of protein lysate were added to 10 μ M DTNB and 30 μ M acetyl-CoA and the reaction initiated by adding 10 μ M oxaloacetate in a 200 μ l reaction mixture. The change in absorbance of DTNB was assessed spectrophotometrically for 90 s at 412 nm and 30°C, and the activity calculated as described (Shephard and Garland, 1969). Purified CS was used as positive control. For SQR activity, 40 μ g of protein lysate extracted before the assay (Cell Lysis Buffer, Cell Signaling) were added to 1 ml of the SQR assay buffer (10 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.8, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mg/ml BSA), 80 μ M DCPIP, 4 μ M rotenone, 0.2 mM ATP and10 mM succinate, and incubated at 30°C for 10 min. Decylubiquinone was added to a final concentration of 80 μ M, and absorbance assessed every minute for 30 min at 600 nm (Barrientos et al., 2009). SDH activity was assessed as described (Dong et al., 2008).

Primers Used for a	PCR Anal	vsis of mtDNA-	and nDNA-Coded	Genes
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Gene	Forward	Reverse
mMito1	CTA GAA ACC CCG AAA CCA AA	CCA GCT ATC ACC AAG CTC GT
mB2M1	ATG GGA AGC CGA ACA TAC TG	CAG TCT CAG TGG GGG TGA AT
D-Loop	AGG TTT GGT CCT GGC CTT AT	GTG GCT AGG CAA GGT GTC TT
12S	CTA GCC ACA CCC CCA CGG GA	CGT ATG ACC GCG GTG GCT GG
16S	CGG CAA ACA AGA ACC CCG CC	GTC AGG ATA CCG CGG CCG TT
Nd1	CAG CCG GCC CAT TCG CGT TA	AGC GGA AGC GTG GAT AGG ATG C
Nd2	TCC TCC TGG CCA TCG TAC TCA ACT	AGA AGT GGA ATG GGG CGA GGC
Nd3		GCT CAT GGT AGT GGA AGT AGA AGG
	ALL CIA CAA OLI LIO LAL OLL	GCA

Nd4	TCG CCT ACT CCT CAG TTA GCC ACA	TGA TGA TGT GAG GCC ATG TGC GA
Nd4l	TCG CTC CCA CCT AAT ATC CAC ATT GC	GCA GGC TGC GAA AAC CAA GAT GG
Nd5	TCG GAA GCC TCG CCC TCA CA	AGT AGG GCT CAG GCG TTG GTG T
Nd6	AAT ACC CGC AAA CAA AGA TCA CCC	TGT TGG GGT TAT GTT AGA GGG AGG
	AG	GA
Ndufs3	TGG CAG CAC GTA AGA AGG G	CTT GGG TAA GAT TTC AGC CAC AT
Sdha	GGA ACA CTC CAA AAA CAG ACC T	CCA CCA CTG GGT ATT GAG TAG AA
Sdhb	AAT TTG CCA TTT ACC GAT GGG A	AGC ATC CAA CAC CAT AGG TCC
Sdhc	GTT CTT GCT GAG ACA TGT CA	AGT GAG TGG TAC ATG AGC
Sdhd	TGG TCA GAC CCG CTT ATG TG	GGT CCA GTG GAG AGA TGC AG
Cytb	ACA CGC AAA CGG AGC CTC AA	TGC TGT GGC TAT GAC TGC GAA CA
Uqcrc2	AAA GTT GCC CCG AAG GTT AAA	GAG CAT AGT TTT CCA GAG AAG CA
mt-Col	CCA GTG CTA GCC GCA GGC AT	TCT GGG TGC CCA AAG AAT CAG AAC A
mt-Co2	AGT TGA TAA CCG AGT CGT TCT GCC	TCG GCC TGG GAT GGC ATC AGT
mt-Co3	ΑΓΓ ΤΑΓ ΓΑΑ GGC ΓΑΓ ΓΑΓ ΑΓΤ ΓΓ	GCA GCC TCC TAG ATC ATG TGT TGG T
mt = COA	ATT GGC AAG AGA GCC ATT TCT AC	
Atn6		CCC CCA CTC CTA ATC CCA TTC CTT
Atp8		
Atp5h		
Aip30		ATC TTC TCC ACA ACC CCC TT
10p1m	GGG ATT CCA AGA TCC CTG AC	
Nrfl	ACT CAG CCA CGT TGG ATG	GAG GCG GCA GCT CTG AAT TA
Nrf2	ATG ATG GAC TTG GAG TTG CCA	GCT CAT AGT CCT TCT GTC GC
Tfam	GGC AAA GGA TGA TTC GGC TC	CAC TTC GTC CAA CTT CAG CC
Tfb1m	GAC TGC GAG CGG TGA AAC AG	CCT GGG ATA AAG CGA GTG T
Tfb2m	GCC AAT TGC TTG CAT CTC CC	ACA AGG CCT GGG ACT TAT GC
Scaf1	GCA GAA GTT TTT CA GAA GGC T	GGG CGA TCA GGC AGT AGA TG

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LEGEND TO SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1. Tumor-forming Ability of 4T1\rho^{0} Cells $4T1\rho^{0}$ cells (10^{5} , 10^{4} , 10^{3} , 10^{2}) were injected s.c. into groups of 5 Balb/c mice and tumor growth monitored every 2 days.

Figure S2. 'Matching' 4T1 Tumor Cells Do Not Differ in Morphology

(A) 4T1, 4T1SC and 4T1SCL cells were grown to 70% confluency, stained with EtBr and MitoTracker Red, and inspected by confocal microscopy showing the individual channels as well as their overlay (including nuclear staining with Hoechst 33342). Cells stained in a corresponding manner with EtBr and MitoTracker Red were evaluated using flow cytometry to reveal the percentage of mitochondria with and without DNA. (B) Cells were subjected to TEM and inspected for mitochondrial morphology.

Figure S3. 'Matching' Tumor Cells Show Similar Characteristics Relating to Their Mitochondrial Function. 4T1, 4T1SC and 4T1SCL cells were grown and assessed, as detailed in Materials and Methods, for glucose uptake (A), lactate release (B), ATP generation (C), ROS generation using the MitoSOX (D) and DCF (E) probe, routine respiration using the Oxygraph (F), mtDNA:nDNA ratio by qPCR (G), expression of mitochondria regulatory genes by qPCR (H), CS (I), SDH (J) and SQR activities (K), and protein expression using WB (L).

Figure S4. Mitochondrial ROS Production by Tumor Cells Derived from

Mitochondrially-Defective ρ^0 **Cells.** (A) Mitochondrial oxidant production by 4T1 and $4T1\rho^0$ cells, and 6TG-resistant cells from primary subcutaneous ($4T1\rho^0$ SC) and orthotopic ($4T1\rho^0$ MFP) tumors that grew from $4T1\rho^0$ cells, and from lung metastases ($4T1\rho^0$ SCL and $4T1\rho^0$ MFPL) from these primary tumors (left 6 panels), and (B) by B16 and B16 ρ^0 cells and cells from primary subcutaneous (B16 ρ^0 SCL (right panels) used MitoSOX staining.

Figure S5. Primary Data on Mitochondrial Respiration in 4T1 Cell Lines

(A) 4T1, $4T1\rho^{0}$, $4T1\rho^{0}SC$, $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$ and $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ cells were plated and, when reaching 50-70% confluency, harvested and evaluated for routine (R), leak (L), net (R-L) and uncoupled (E) and residual (ROX) respiration using the Oxygraph respiratometer as described in more detail in Materials and Methods. (B) 4T1, $4T1\rho^{0}SC$, $4T1\rho^{0}CTC$ and $4T1\rho^{0}SCL$ cells were plated and, when reaching 50-70% confluency harvested, permeabilized with digitonin and evaluated for respiration at the presence of substrates specific for CI and CII using the protocol indicated in more detail in Materials and Methods. The lower panels document representative evaluations of the respiration curves, indicating the 'leak', respiration via CI, CI+CII, uncoupled respiration via CI+CII (ETC) plus uncoupled respiration via CII. The residual respiration (ROX) was set to zero. The abbreviations in the top left line graphs in panels A and B are: Omy, 0.5 μ M oligomycin; F1, 1 μ M FCCP; Rot, 0.1-0.5 μ M rotenone; Dig, 10 μ g digitonine per 10⁶ cells; PMG, 5 mM pyruvate; 2 mM malate; 10 mM glutamate; ADP, 1-5 μ M ADP; cyt c, 10 μ M Cyt c; succ, 10 mM. (C) Mitochondria isolated from individual 4T1 sub-lines were assessed for respiration as mentioned above for permeabilized cells.

Figure 1



Figure 2



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vimentin

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Figure 4



Figure 5







Figure 7



Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

Site	Base in Balb/c (reference*)	Base in 4T1p ⁰ SC cells	Base in 4T1 cells	Gene
1574	Т	Т	С	16S rRNA
9829	А	А	-	$tRNA^{Arg}$
16076	А	А	G	D-Loop

Supplementary Table I. Polymorphisms in 4T1 and B16 mtDNA confirm host origin of mtDNA in tumors derived from ρ^0 cells

Site	Base in C57BL/6 (reference*)	Base in B16p⁰SC cells	Base in B16 cells	Gene
9821	- 1	-] _~ .	A+ ک	$tRNA^{Arg}$
9829		_ }8A	>8	$A tRNA^{Arg}$
1035	С	С	Т	Nd4

* see Bayona-Bafaluy e al 2003 and NC_005089.1