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1 TITLE

Measurement of Protein Import Capacity of Skeletal Muscle Mitochondria

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mitochondrial biogenesis, subsarcolemmal mitochondria, intermyofibrillar mitochondria, exercise training, in vitro transcription

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SUMMARY:

Mitochondria are key metabolic organelles that exhibit a high level of phenotypic plasticity in skeletal muscle. The import of proteins from the cytosol is a critical pathway for organelle biogenesis, essential for the expansion of the reticulum and the maintenance of mitochondrial function. Therefore, protein import serves as a barometer of cellular health.

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ABSTRACT:

Mitochondria are key metabolic and regulatory organelles that determine the energy supply as well as the overall health of the cell. In skeletal muscle, mitochondria exist in a series of complex morphologies, ranging from small oval organelles to a broad, reticulum-like network. Understanding how the mitochondrial reticulum expands and develops in response to diverse stimuli such as alterations in energy demand has long been a topic of research. A key aspect of this growth, or biogenesis, is the import of precursor proteins, originally encoded by the nuclear genome, synthesized in the cytosol, and translocated into various mitochondrial subcompartments. Mitochondria have developed a sophisticated mechanism for this import process, involving many selective inner and outer membrane channels, known as the protein import machinery (PIM). Import into the mitochondrion is dependent on viable membrane potential and the availability of organelle-derived ATP through oxidative phosphorylation. Therefore its measurement can serve as a measure of organelle health. The PIM also exhibits a high level of adaptive plasticity in skeletal muscle that is tightly coupled to the energy status of the cell. For example, exercise training has been shown to increase import capacity, while muscle disuse reduces it, coincident with changes in markers of mitochondrial content. Although protein import is a critical step in the biogenesis and expansion of mitochondria, the process is not widely

studied in skeletal muscle. Thus, this paper outlines how to use isolated and fully functional mitochondria from skeletal muscle to measure protein import capacity in order to promote a greater understanding of the methods involved and an appreciation of the importance of the pathway for organelle turnover in exercise, health, and disease.

INTRODUCTION:

Mitochondria are organelles that exist in complex morphologies in different cell types and are recognized to possess an increasing array of functions that are critical for cellular health. As such, they can no longer be whittled down merely to energy-producing organelles. Mitochondria are key metabolic regulators, determinants of cell fate, and signaling hubs, the functions of which can serve as useful indicators of overall cellular health. In skeletal muscle cells, electron microscopy studies reveal the presence of geographically distinct subsarcolemmal (SS) and intermyofibrillar (IMF) mitochondria, which exhibit a degree of connectivity^{1–4} that is now recognized to be highly dynamic and adaptable to changes in skeletal muscle activity levels, as well as with age and disease. Mitochondrial content and function in muscle can be assessed in numerous ways^{5,6}, and traditional methods of organelle isolation have been applied to better understand the respiratory and enzymatic capacities (Vmax) of mitochondria distinct from the influence of the cellular milieu^{7,8}. In particular, these traditional methods have revealed subtle biochemical distinctions between mitochondria isolated from subsarcolemmal and intermyofibrillar regions, belying possible functional implications for metabolism in these subcellular regions^{8–11}.

The biogenesis of mitochondria is unique in requiring the contribution of gene products from both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA. However, the vast majority of these are derived from the nucleus since mtDNA transcription only leads to the synthesis of 13 proteins. Since mitochondria normally comprise >1000 proteins involved in diverse metabolic pathways, biogenesis of the organelle requires a tightly regulated means of import and assembly of precursor proteins from the cytosol into the various mitochondrial sub-compartments to maintain proper stoichiometry and function^{12,13}. Nuclear-encoded proteins destined for mitochondria normally carry a mitochondrial targeting sequence (MTS) that targets them to the organelle and facilitates their sub-compartmental localization. Most matrix-bound proteins contain a cleavable N-terminal MTS, while those destined for the outer or inner mitochondrial membrane usually have internal targeting domains¹⁴. The import process is carried out by a set of diverse channels that provide multiple avenues for entry into the organelle¹³. The translocase of the outer membrane (TOM) complex shuttles precursors from the cytosol into the intermembrane space, where they are recognized by the translocase of the inner membrane (TIM) complex. This complex is responsible for importing them into the matrix, where proteases cleave the N-terminal targeting presequence. Proteins destined for the outer membrane can be directly inserted into this membrane through the TOM complex, while those destined for the inner membrane are inserted by a TIM protein, specifically TIM22. Following their import, proteins are further processed by resident proteases and chaperones and often combine to form larger complexes, such as those found in the electron transport chain.

Mitochondrial protein import itself also serves as a measurement of mitochondrial health, as this process relies on the presence of membrane potential and a source of energy in the form of ATP¹⁵. For example, when the membrane potential is dissipated, protein kinase PINK1 cannot be taken up by the organelle, and this leads to phosphorylation signals that trigger the onset of the degradation of the organelle through a pathway called mitophagy^{16,17}. Under similar circumstances, when the import is impeded, the protein ATF5 cannot enter the organelle, and it subsequently translocates to the nucleus, where it serves as a transcription factor for the upregulation of UPR gene expression^{18,19}. Thus, measuring protein import efficiency can provide comprehensive insight into the health of the organelle, while the gene expression response can be used to indicate the degree of retrograde signaling to the nucleus.

Despite its obvious importance for the biogenesis of mitochondria and for cellular health in general, the import pathway in mammalian mitochondria is remarkably understudied. In this report, we describe the specific steps involved in measuring the import of precursor proteins into skeletal muscle mitochondria and provide data to illustrate the adaptive response of the import system to changes in muscle and disuse, illustrating the contribution of the protein import to the adaptive plasticity of skeletal muscle.

PROTOCOL:

All animals used in these experiments are maintained in the animal care facility at York University. The experiments are conducted in accordance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines with approval from the York University Animal Care Committee (Permit: 2017-08).

1. Functional isolation of subsarcolemmal and intermyofibrillar mitochondria from skeletal muscle

1.1. Reagent preparation:

117 1.1.1. Prepare all the buffers and media as mentioned in **Table 1**.

1.1.2. Set the buffers to pH 7.4 and store at 4 °C (up to 2 weeks), except nagrase protease.

121 1.1.3. Prepare fresh nagarse protease (**Table 1**) each time.

123 1.2. Tissue removal and mincing

NOTE: A flowchart of the steps below for the isolation of mitochondria is provided in Figure 1.

1.2.1. Fill a glass scintillation vial with \sim 20 mL of Buffer 1 (**Table 1**) and place it on ice.

- 129 1.2.2. While the mouse is under anesthetic, harvest skeletal muscle (tibialis anterior, quadriceps,
- 130 gastrocnemius etc.), approximately 500–1000 mg, and place the muscle in the scintillation vial
- containing chilled Buffer 1.

NOTE: Gaseous isoflurane is used as an anesthetic at 2.5% at a flow rate of 0.4 L of O₂/min. A pinch test is performed to ensure that the animal is non-responsive.

135

136 1.2.3. Following tissue collection, euthanize the animal via cervical dislocation.

137

138 1.2.4. Pre-chill a watch glass on ice. Remove any fat or connective tissue from the muscles and mince the tissue on the watch glass until it is a homogenous slurry.

140

141 1.2.5. Place the minced tissue in a pre-chilled 50 mL plastic centrifugation tube (see **Table of** Materials) and record the exact weight.

143

1.2.6. Dilute the minced tissue 10-fold with Buffer 1 + ATP (**Table 1**).

145

1.2.7. Homogenize the muscle sample using an 8 mm twin-blade homogenizer (see **Table of Materials**) at a power output of 9.8 Hz for 10 s, ensuring no visible chunks of muscle remaining.

148

149 1.2.8. Centrifuge the samples at $800 \times g$ for 10 min using a high-speed centrifuge (see **Table of Materials**).

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NOTE: The purpose of this step is to separate SS and IMF mitochondrial fractions. The supernate contains SS mitochondria, while the pellet contains IMF mitochondria.

153154

155 1.3. SS mitochondrial isolation

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1.3.1. Filter the supernate through a single layer of cheesecloth into another set of 50 mL plastic centrifugation tubes to remove any large debris or contaminants.

159

160 1.3.2. Centrifuge the supernate at 9,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C using a high-speed centrifuge.

161

1.3.3. Discard the supernate and resuspend the pellet in 3.5 mL of Buffer 1 + ATP.

163

NOTE: Resuspend with a P1000 and do this carefully. Mitochondria are fragile organelles.
Perform gently and avoid touching the pellet with the pipette tip.

166

1.3.4. Centrifuge the sample at 9,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C using a high-speed centrifuge.

168

1.3.5. Discard the supernate unless further processing to isolate a cytosolic fraction devoid of nuclei, mitochondria, and other organelles is desired. Resuspend the pellet carefully in roughly
 95 μL of the resuspension medium (Table 1) using a P200 pipette.

- NOTE: Similar to step 1.3.3, avoid touching the pellet with the pipette tip. The volume of the
- 174 resuspension medium can be altered depending on the size of the pellet. This is the SS
- mitochondrial fraction, which can be stored on ice until the IMF fraction is isolated. If desired,

- the cytosolic fraction, devoid of organelles, can be isolated by centrifuging the supernate at
- 177 100,000 x g in an ultracentrifuge (see **Table of Materials**) and thereafter discarding the pellet.

179 1.4. IMF mitochondrial isolation

180

1.4.1. Dilute the pellet from step 1.2.8 by 10-fold in Buffer 1 + ATP. Resuspend using a Teflon pestle by gently mixing the pellet and buffer together until the sample is consistent.

183

1.4.2. Homogenize the sample using an 8 mm twin-blade homogenizer (see **Table of Materials**) at a power output of 9.8 Hz for 10 s.

186

1.4.3. Centrifuge the sample at 800 x g for 10 min at 4 °C using a high-speed centrifuge.

188

1.4.4. Discard the supernate and dilute the IMF mitochondrial pellet 10-fold using Buffer 2 and resuspend using the Teflon pestle by gently mixing until it is homogeneous.

191

1.4.5. Add 25 μ L/g of tissue to 10 mg/mL nagarse protease (**Table 1**) and place the centrifugation tube on its side on ice, gently mixing every minute by rocking the tube side to side.

194

NOTE: The addition of nagarse helps liberate IMF mitochondria by performing limited digestion of the myofibrils.

197

198 1.4.6. After 5 min, add 20 mL of Buffer 2 (**Table 1**) to dilute the nagarse protease to the point of inactivity and stop the digestion.

200

201 1.4.7. Immediately centrifuge the sample at 5,000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C using a high-speed 202 centrifuge.

203

1.4.8. Discard the supernate and dilute the pellet 10-fold using Buffer 2 and resuspend using a
 Teflon pestle by gently mixing.

206

207 1.4.9. Centrifuge the sample at 800 x g for 15 min at 4 °C to pellet the fibrous material.

208

1.4.10. Pour the supernate in a new set of 50 mL plastic centrifuge tubes, careful not to disrupt
 the pellet, which can be discarded.

211

212 1.4.11. Centrifuge the sample at 9,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C as in step 1.4.7.

213

214 1.4.12. Discard the supernate, add 3.5 mL of Buffer 2 and gently resuspend the pellet using a P1000 pipette.

216

217 1.4.13. Centrifuge the sample at 9,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C as in step 1.4.7.

1.4.14. Discard the supernate and resuspend the pellet gently with roughly 180 μL of
 resuspension medium using a P200 pipette.

221

- NOTE: The volume of the resuspension medium can be altered depending on the size of the pellet.
- This is the IMF mitochondrial fraction, which can be stored on ice until it is to be used in the import assay.

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2. Mitochondrial protein import

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228 2.1. *In vitro* transcription

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230 NOTE: These subsequent steps outline how to prepare a radiolabelled protein for import. The 231 import pathway under investigation may dictate the choice of target protein, for example, to 232 evaluate import into the mitochondrial matrix, ornithine carbamyl transferase, OCT, and malate 233 dehydrogenase, MDH, are commonly used, while Tom40 is commonly used as an indication of 234 import into the outer mitochondrial membrane. For the following steps, plasmid DNA encoding 235 the protein of choice is required. The transcription of plasmid DNA can be done prior to the 236 mitochondrial isolation on a separate day, and the mRNA collected from this experiment can be 237 stored and used in future translation and import experiments.

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2.1.1. Linearize the DNA: Combine 40 μ L of plasmid DNA (5 μ g/ μ L), 5 μ L of 10x enzyme buffer and 5 μ L of restriction enzyme and incubate at 37 °C for 30 min.

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NOTE: The restriction enzymes utilized may vary based on the plasmid, which may require a different enzyme buffer, and experimental conditions DNA can be used in any amount/volume, as the template can be scaled up or down.

245

2.1.2. Purify and precipitate the linearized DNA using phenol and ethanol. Carry out all the subsequent steps (2.1.3–2.1.15) in sterile 1.5 mL tubes, and use a tabletop centrifuge (see **Table of Materials**) for the centrifugation steps.

249

250 2.1.3. Add the appropriate volume of sterile H_2O so that the final volume equals 400 μ L. Then, 251 add 400 μ L of phenol.

252

253 2.1.4. Mix vigorously by inversion for \sim 10 s, and centrifuge at 17,000 x g for 1 min at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. Withdraw and save the upper phase.

255

256 2.1.5. Add 400 μL of phenol:chloroform:isoamylalcohol (25:24:1, v:v:v).

257

258 2.1.6. Mix vigorously by inversion for $^{\sim}10$ s, and centrifuge at 17,000 g for 1 min at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. 259 Withdraw and save the upper phase.

260

261 2.1.7. Add 400 μL of chloroform:isoamylalcohol (24:1, v:v).

- 263 2.1.8. Mix vigorously by inversion for ~10 s, and centrifuge at 17,000 g for 1 min at 4 °C.
- 264 Withdraw and save the upper phase.

266 2.1.9. Add 40 μL of 3M sodium acetate (pH 7.0), and add 1 mL of 95% ethanol.

267

2.1.10. Place sterile 1.5 mL tubes in -80 °C freezer on their side for 15 min.

269

270 2.1.11. Centrifuge the samples at 17,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C.

271

272 2.1.12. Discard the supernate and wash the pellet with 300 μL of 80% ethanol.

273

2.1.13. Centrifuge the samples at 17,000 x g for 2 min at 4 °C.

275

2.1.14. Discard the supernate and air-dry the pellet. Once the pellet is dry, it should be clear.

277

278 2.1.15. Resuspend the pellet in 20 μ L of sterile H_2O

279

2.1.16. Measure the DNA concentration using a spectrophotometer (see **Table of Materials**) and ensure that the A_{260:280} ratio is above 1.8.

282

283 2.1.17. Dilute the DNA to a concentration of 0.8 μ g/ μ L in sterile H₂O.

284

- 285 2.1.18. Transcribe the DNA: Combine plasmid (0.8 μ g/ μ L), sterile H₂O (8.4 μ L), 10 mM
- NTP (5.2 μ L), 10 mM ATP (10.0 μ L), 1 mM M-7-G (11.6 μ L), the mix as mentioned step 2.1.19
- (15.6 μ L), RNAsin (5.2 μ L) and an appropriate RNA polymerase (4.8 μ L) to form "one reaction mix"
- (total volume = 121.6 μ L) and incubate for 90 min at the optimum temperature for the polymerase (37 °C for T7 polymerase; 40 °C for SP6 polymerase)

290

291 2.1.19. To prepare the mix add 200 μ L of 1M HEPES (pH 7.9), 100 μ L of 1 M MgAc₂, 500 μ L of 4 M KAc, 100 μ L of 20 mM spermidine, 100 μ L of 0.5 M DTT, and 200 μ L of sterile H₂0.

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NOTE: The reaction can be scaled up or down in volume as long as the provided proportions of reagents are maintained. The RNA polymerase used is dictated by the bacterial promoter sequence within the plasmid being used.

297

2.1.20. Then, purify and precipitate the mRNA using phenol and ethanol as in steps 2.1.2–2.1.15.

299

2.1.21. Bring the volume up to 400 μ L with sterile H₂O (add 280 μ L) and proceed as described in steps 2.1.2–2.1.15. Resuspend the final pellet in 20 μ L of sterile H₂O.

302

303 2.1.22. Measure the concentration of mRNA using a spectrophotometer, ensure that the $A_{260:280}$ 304 ratio is \sim 2.0.

305

306 2.1.23. Dilute the mRNA to 2.8 μg/μL in sterile H₂O, and store at -20 °C in 50 μL aliquots.

2.2. *In vitro* translation

NOTE: The translation of the desired DNA must be carried out on the same day of the import experiment. This experiment requires the use of radiolabeled amino acids, and therefore the user must have a permit for the use of radioisotopes, and all handling and disposal must be in accordance with the institution's policies/requirements. Steps involving radioisotope safety measures have been omitted or described briefly, as these will likely differ based on the institution.

2.2.1. Prepare enough translation reaction mix (**Table 2**) to supply $^{\sim}20~\mu\text{L}$ per sample of mitochondria to be used in import experiment and include the same volume for a translation lane.

2.2.2. Incubate the reaction for 30 min at 30 °C (time may vary with mRNA, 25–60 min).

323 2.2.3. Record the ³⁵S-methionine use as per the institution's radioactive safety requirements
 324 and dispose of anything that has come into contact with the radioisotope per the institution's
 325 guidelines.

2.3. Protein import

NOTE: Freshly isolated mitochondria are required for the next steps. Refer to the mitochondrial isolation protocol. Other isolation methods can be used as long as the mitochondria are viable and functional. For the subsequent steps, the mitochondrial samples utilized are resuspended in a resuspension buffer as described above (**Table 1**). The protein concentration of the mitochondrial sample must also be measured prior to starting the import assay.

2.3.1. Roughly 15 min following the start of the translation reaction, aliquot 90 μg of mitochondria into sterile 1.5 mL tubes and pre-incubate at 30 °C for ~10 min.

NOTE: Aliquot more mitochondria than what will actually be used in the experiment; only 75 μ g will be actually used. However, this is not a requirement.

2.3.2. In a fresh set of sterile 1.5 mL tubes, combine 75 μg of mitochondria with 18 μL of the translation reaction and incubate at 30 °C for desired time.

2.3.3. Keep the remaining volume of the translation reaction on ice; this will be utilized later.

NOTE: Import is a time-dependent process, so it may be prudent to start with a time-course experiment ranging in incubation times from 1–60 min. A typical reaction time is 30 min.

- $2.3.4.\;$ During this time, prepare the sucrose cushion by combining 1 g of sucrose, 200 μL of 2.5
- 350 M KCl, $10 \mu L 1 M MgCl_2$, $100 \mu L$ of 1 M HEPES (pH 7.4), and bring the volume to 5 mL using sterile 351 H_2O .

2.3.5. Prepare a new set of sterile 1.5 mL tubes corresponding to each tube in the import reaction. Aliquot 600 μL of the sucrose cushion into each tube and keep on ice until the import

355 reaction is over.

356

2.3.6. To terminate the import reaction after the appropriate incubation time, remove the tube from 30 °C, place it on ice and then carefully transfer the import reaction on top of the tube with the sucrose cushion.

360

NOTE: This step needs to be done very slowly to ensure that the mitochondria are not damaged/ruptured. The sucrose cushion helps slow down the migration of the mitochondria and "cushions" its descent to the bottom of the tube during the subsequent centrifugation step.

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365 2.3.7. Centrifuge the samples + sucrose cushion at 17,000 x g for 15 min at 4 °C.

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2.3.8. Prepare the breaking buffer by combining 25 mL of 2.4 M sorbitol, 2 mL of 1 M HEPES (pH $_{2}$ O, and 72 mL of double-distilled $_{2}$ O.

369

370 2.3.9. Prepare lysis buffer for SDS-PAGE gel electrophoresis: Combine 50 mL of heated glycerol, 11.5 g of SDS, 31.25 mL of 1 M Tris (pH 6.8) and bring the volume to 500 mL with double-distilled H_2O .

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2.3.10. For sample preparation, mix 475 μ L of lysis buffer with 25 μ L of β -mercaptoethanol to be used in a later step.

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NOTE: Lysis buffer can be made in advance and stored at room temperature; however, the addition of β -mercaptoethanol is to be done fresh.

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2.3.11. Using a P1000 pipette, carefully remove the supernate and do not disturb the pellet. Dispose of the supernate in an appropriate radioactive waste container.

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2.3.12. For import into the outer membrane, perform this using Tom40, resuspend the pellet in
 μL of freshly prepared 0.1 M sodium carbonate (pH 11.5) and incubate on ice for 30 min.

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2.3.13. Following the incubation, centrifuge the sample 14,000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C. This step is only done for outer membrane import reactions.

388

2.3.14. To prepare the samples for SDS-PAGE electrophoresis, add 20 μ L of breaking buffer, 20 μ L of lysis buffer, and β -mercaptoethanol and resuspend well. Add 5 μ L of sample dye.

392 2.3.15. Prepare the control/translation lane by combining 3 μL of the remaining translation reaction from step 2.3.3 with 37 μL of lysis buffer and 5 μL of sample dye. Mix well.

394

395 2.3.16. Boil the samples for 5 min at 95 °C and spin down gently at a low speed to avoid pelleting mitochondria.

397

398 2.3.17. Apply the samples to an SDS polyacrylamide gel.

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NOTE: The gel percentage and subsequent run time will depend on which protein is being imported. For example, OCT is 37 kDa, and its mature processed band is slightly smaller; therefore, a 12% gel allows good separation of these bands.

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2.3.18. Once electrophoresis is complete, remove the gel and place it in double-distilled H₂O.

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2.3.19. Boil the gel in 5% TCA in a fume hood for 5 min, continuously stirring/moving the gel to avoid cracking.

408

NOTE: TCA helps solidify the gel for visualization; this can be done in a metal tray over a Bunsen burner. Use enough TCA to generously cover the gel, ~½ full.

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412 2.3.20. Remove the gel and place it back in double-distilled H₂O. Agitate it on a rotating plate for 413 1 min at ~50 rpm.

414

2.3.21. Wash the gel in 10 mM Tris on a rotating plate for 5 min at ~50 rpm, again using enough to generously cover the gel, ~½ of the container.

417

2.3.22. Precipitate the protein by washing the gel in 1 M Salicyclic acid on a rotating plate for 30 min, again using enough Salicyclic acid to generously cover the gel, ~½ of the container being used.

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2.3.23. Dehydrate the gel as described in steps 2.3.24–2.3.31.

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NOTE: This can be done in a number of ways. A gel dryer (see **Table of Materials**) provides a time-efficient option (described below); however other commercially available methods/kits can be used that may be more cost-effective but more time-consuming. Gel drying kits can be utilized as an alternative that does not require the application of heat or suction but instead allows the gel to air-dry between cellophane sheets to prevent distortion.

428 429

2.3.24. Place a large sheet of blotting paper down on the porous bed of the gel dryer. Place one sheet of paper towel in the area where the gel will be applied.

432

433 2.3.25. Cut a 15 cm x 20 cm piece of blotting paper and place it on the paper towel.

2.3.26. Scoop out the gel from the container using a second piece of 15 cm x 20 cm blotting paper and lay it down flat on top of the first piece.

438 2.3.27. Cut a slightly larger piece of plastic wrap, ~20 cm x 25 cm, and place it down on gel, ensuring no creases or bubbles under the wrap.

NOTE: This may take a few attempts, but it is imperative that there are no trapped air pockets.

2.3.28. Gently lay down the plastic cover of the gel dryer over top of the wrap, again ensuring that there are no bubbles or creases.

2.3.29. Turn on the pump/vacuum and ensure that the plastic cover has formed a seal. Test the seal by lifting a corner of the plastic cover and wait for it to re-seal.

2.3.30. Close the gel dryer and run for 90 min. Set the temperature to start at 30 °C, gradually reach 80 °C, and then return to 30 °C at the end of the run.

2.3.31. Once dehydrated, the gel will solidify and feel paper-thin. Wrap the gel in the plastic wrap used in the drying process.

2.3.32. Place the dehydrated gel in a film cassette with a phosphorus film (see **Table of Materials**), with the white side facing the gel. Exposure times vary but can be 24–48 h for visualization of bands.

2.3.33. Visualize using autoradiography using any suitable imager that is capable of phosphorus imaging.

REPRESENTATIVE RESULTS:

We have extensively illustrated that this protocol is a valid assay for determining the rate of import into functional and intact isolated skeletal muscle mitochondria. In comparison to untreated conditions, the import of typical precursor proteins such as malate dehydrogenase (MDH) into the matrix is sensitive to membrane potential because it can be inhibited by valinomycin, a respiratory chain uncoupler (Figure 2A). Import is also impeded when mitochondrial inner and outer membranes are solubilized in the presence of the detergent Triton X-100. The import process is sensitive to the presence of external ATP, which serves to unfold precursor proteins for translocation across the membranes, and is tightly controlled by the rate of respiration and ATP provision (data not shown²⁰). Distinct differences in the import are also observed between intermyofibrillar and subsarcolemmal mitochondrial fractions, in part due to variations in protein import machinery expression, as well as the respiratory rate between these mitochondria (Figure 2B).

Mitochondria in skeletal muscle are highly dynamic organelles that respond readily to changes in energy demand. Mitochondrial content in the muscle increases following periods of chronic exercise or in response to electrical stimulation-induced contractile activity (see for review²¹).

For example, 7 days of chronic contractile activity of rat skeletal muscle enhances import into the OM and matrix by 1.6-fold and 1.4-fold, respectively²² (Figure 3A, 3B). These changes in mitochondrial content are brought about, in part, by alterations in the capacity of the mitochondrial protein import system. Indeed, a close relationship between the import rate of precursor proteins and a good estimate of mitochondrial content, as measured by the complex IV marker cytochrome oxidase under control or denervated conditions, can be illustrated²³ (Figure 3C).

The adaptability of the import system in muscle to alterations in contractile activity suggests that exercise could be used as a treatment to resolve defects in the import pathway if identified. During the investigation of mitochondrially-mediated apoptosis using Bax-Bak double knockout animals, we noticed that the reduced mitochondrial content in the muscles of these experimental animals was accompanied by a decrease in the import of precursor proteins into the matrix. We then investigated the possibility that exercise could restore this import capacity. Indeed, following 6 weeks of voluntary wheel run training, protein import was restored to control levels in the knockout animals²⁴, illustrating the adaptive plasticity of the import pathway to rescue

FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS:

mitochondrial content and function (Figure 4).

Figure 1: Schematic of the workflow for isolating SS and IMF mitochondria from skeletal muscle based on the previous work⁸. This protocol allows the isolation of functional mitochondria based on their geographic location within skeletal muscle. SS mitochondria are more rapidly and easily liberated, while the IMF mitochondria require a further digestion step with protease to untangle them from the myofibrils. Note that the isolation of these subfractions can be done in tandem. An updated, similar procedure has recently been published²⁵.

Figure 2: Protein import into the mitochondrial matrix. (A) Normal rates of import for MDH are shown in SS and IMF mitochondria (lanes 4 and 7) and the translation product of precursor MDH (lane 1). The lower band represents the imported mature MDH. Addition of valinomycin inhibits MDH protein import into the matrix of SS and IMF mitochondria, as this uncoupler dissipates the membrane potential (lanes 2 and 5). Triton-X is a detergent that solubilizes the inner membrane, thereby inhibiting MDH import into these subfractions (lanes 3 and 6). Protein import was carried out for increasing time durations, 4 min, 7 min, 10 min, 15 min, and 30 min. These data illustrate that import is a time-dependent process and also that SS and IMF mitochondria have different rates or capacities for import (B). TL, translation lane; VAL, valinomycin; TRI, Triton-X; CTL, control; SS, subsarcolemmal; IMF, intermyofibrillar. This figure was modified from Takahashi M & Hood DA²⁰.

Figure 3: Protein import is adaptable and tightly linked to estimates of mitochondrial content. Sprague Dawley rats were subjected to electrical stimulation to induce contractile activity, a model of exercise training. (A) Tom40 import into the OM was 1.6-fold higher in muscle from chronically stimulated animals compared to controls at any given time point. (B) OCT import into the mitochondrial matrix was increased at every time point of incubation, and overall, this resulted in a 1.4-fold increase in mitochondria from chronically stimulated muscle. (C) Import is

positively correlated with an index of mitochondrial content, as assessed by COX activity, r = 0.69. These measurements were taken from animals that were subjected to denervation, which has been shown to decrease mitochondrial content and the rate of import. Con, control; Den, denervated; Stim, stimulated; TL, translation lane; * p < 0.05. Figures 3A and 3B were adapted from Joseph A-M & Hood DA²² and 3C from Singh B & Hood DA²³.

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Figure 4: Training rescues import defects *in vivo*. Bax/Bak double knockout animals exhibit reduced protein import into the mitochondrial matrix by 37%. Six weeks of voluntary wheel running rescued the import defect to control levels. WT, wildtype; DKO, double knockout; TL, translation lane; * p < 0.05 main effect of genotype; ¶ p < 0.05 main effect of training. This figure was adapted from Zhang Y et al. 24 .

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Table 1: Buffers and resuspension media.

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Table 2: Translation reaction mix

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DISCUSSION:

Mitochondria are uniquely dependent on the expression and coordination of both the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes for their synthesis and expansion within cells. However, the nuclear genome encodes the vast majority (99%) of the mitochondrial proteome, and this underscores the importance of the protein import machinery in supporting mitochondrial biogenesis. Import also serves as an important signaling event, as failure to import can promote the initiation of the unfolded protein response and/or mitophagy^{15,16,26}. Since import relies on the expression of multiple functional channels and chaperones, an intact membrane potential, as well as the availability of ATP, the evaluation of mitochondrial protein import can provide valuable insight into the health and energy status of the organelle.

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The evaluation of protein import capacity into mitochondria requires the isolation of the organelle from the surrounding tissue using standard differential centrifugation techniques. Import is evaluated in the same manner as one would evaluate the V_{max} of mitochondrial enzyme activities, in a highly controlled manner dependent on time and substrate concentration and independent of cellular cytosolic influences. The isolation method presented here, or similar renditions of it, have been used for many years to evaluate mitochondrial respiration and enzyme activities^{8–11}. This technique is not without its limitations, as it disrupts the normal morphology of mitochondria as they exist in situ²⁷, which in skeletal muscle is highly complex, ranging from small spheroid structures, to a highly branched reticular network³, depending on their subsarcolemmal or intermyofibrillar location within the muscle cell. In addition, the use of the protease nagarse has come under scrutiny^{3,28}. An update to this method, using trypsin instead of nagarse, has recently been published²⁵, and trypsin has been used by others to isolate muscle mitochondria²⁹. Indeed, any alternative isolation method that yields functionally intact mitochondria can be used, including techniques that do not employ proteases³⁰ or those designed for small biopsy-sized samples from human muscle³¹. The method presented here has the advantage of isolating SS mitochondria quickly and easily, but a greater yield and purity of mitochondria can be obtained through the isolation of the IMF subfraction. If done carefully, this

isolation protocol can result in functionally intact organelles with a high respiratory control ratio, indicative of appropriate rates of state 3 and 4 respiration⁸.

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It is also imperative for the measurement of mitochondrial protein import that these organelles maintain their membrane potential, as import across the inner membrane is dependent on this electrophoretic proton motive force, which serves to attract positively charged precursor sequences and help mediate the transport of the precursor into the negatively charged matrix space. Under such conditions, comparisons of mitochondrial function and import can be evaluated between physiologically relevant experimental situations, such as exercise, aging, and muscle disuse, for example. In this respect, previous work has shown that import is a highly adaptable pathway that responds to altered states of muscle use and disuse and is sensitive to inhibition via excessive ROS emission^{10,22,23,32}. This plasticity is due, in part, to adaptive changes in the expression of the protein import machinery components. Since this technique relies on the isolation of mitochondria, any regulation on the import pathway that may stem from cytosolic factors or inter-organelle crosstalk is removed from the interpretation of the experiment. This is both a limitation and a strength of the technique, as conclusions can be made of the capacity of the import pathway itself (similar to the V_{max} of enzyme activity), but transient or external signals that may occur with the experimental model may be lost. To circumvent this, it is possible to incubate the import reaction with a sample of the cytosolic fraction, isolated as described above, in order to evaluate changes in the cytosolic environment that may influence import rates, as done previously²². In addition, import machinery components are subject to acute, post-translational modifications that can alter their functions. Recent work has shown that phosphorylation of specific TOM import receptors can be linked to mitophagy³³. Indeed, an area of research that warrants more attention is the acute modulation of the import process via intrinsic signaling pathways mediated by ROS or by covalent modification of import receptors and chaperones, as documented in yeast and other lower organisms^{34,35}.

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Protein import into mitochondria represents a gateway to adaptive organelle growth and is a sensitive indicator of mitochondrial health. Understanding how this process is regulated can shed light on the regulation of mitochondrial biogenesis, UPR signaling, and the initiation of mitophagy. Mitochondrial protein import is not a widely studied process in mammalian experimental models, and the development of the vast potential of research in this area could help us achieve a greater understanding of diseases in which mitochondrial dysfunction is apparent or represent an attractive therapeutic target to promote mitochondrial health.

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DISCLOSURES:

No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

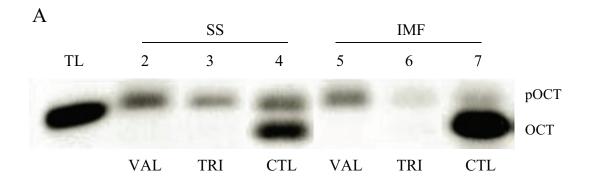
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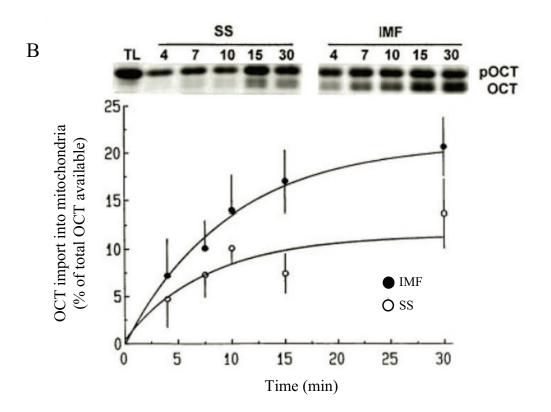
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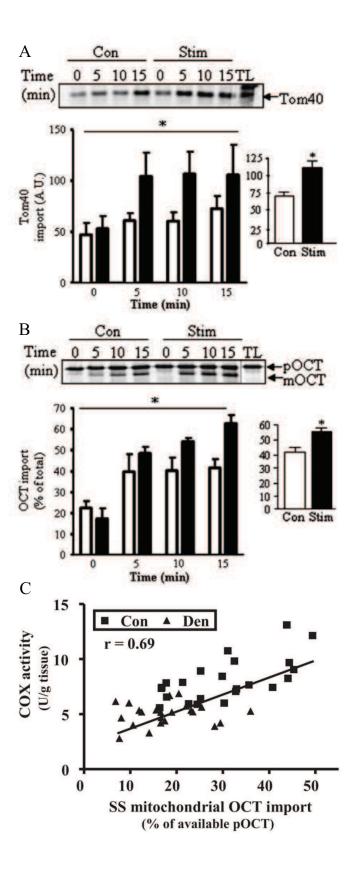
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Resuspend pellet in 180 μ L of resuspension medium







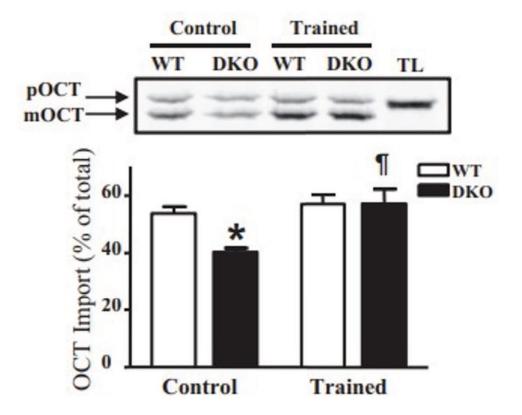


TABLE 1

Buffer 1:	Buffer 1 + ATP:	Buffer 2:
100 mM KCl	100 mM KCl	100 mM KCl
5 mM MgSO ₄	5 mM MgSO ₄	5 mM MgSO ₄
5 mM EDTA	5 mM EDTA	5 mM EGTA
50 mM Tris	50 mM Tris	50 mM Tris
	1 mM ATP	1mM ATP

Resuspension medium	Nagarse protease
100 mM KCl	10 mg/mL in Buffer 2
10 mM MOPS	NOTE: Make fresh and keep on ice
0.2% BSA	

Table 2

	% of the reaction volume	1 Reaction mix
Reticulocyte Lysate	64.10%	11.8 μL
Amino acids (-methionine)	2.20%	0.4 μL
Sterile H ₂ O	21.60%	3.97 μL
³⁵ S-methionine	7.20%	1.33 μL
mRNA	5.40%	1.0 μL
Total Volume		18.5 μL

NOTE:

- 1) Add ³⁵S-methionine last;
- 2) Thaw the lysate slowly on ice, and limit freeze/thaw cycles to two. It is recommended that the lysate b
- 3) The volume of mRNA can be adjusted to optimize translational efficiency by altering the sterile H2O vc

e aliquoted upon arrival plume accordingly.

Table of Materials

Click here to access/download **Table of Materials**Table of Materials-63055R2.xls

Measurement of protein import capacity of skeletal muscle mitochondria Ashley N. Oliveira, Brandon J. Richards & David A. Hood Response to Editorial Comments

We have pasted the editorial comments, followed by our Author response underneath. Comments written in the document have also been addressed in the manuscript.

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Numbering is appropriate, thank you for modifying.

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3. The buffers and translation reaction mix in the manuscript has been included as tables. Please check.

Minor modifications made and uploaded.

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<u>Reference:</u> A.-M. Joseph, D.A. Hood, Plasticity of TOM complex assembly in skeletal muscle mitochondria in response to chronic contractile activity, Mitochondrion. 12 (2012) 305–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mito.2011.11.005.

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