Human iPSC-derived cerebral organoids model features of Leigh Syndrome and reveal abnormal corticogenesis

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Running title: Modeling the effect of Leigh syndrome-associated mutations using human cerebral organoids

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Summary

Leigh syndrome (LS) is a rare, inherited neurometabolic disorder that presents with bilateral brain

lesions, caused by defects in the mitochondrial respiratory chain and associated nuclear-encoded

proteins. We generated iPSCs from three patient-derived LS fibroblast lines and identified, by

whole-exome and mitochondrial sequencing, unreported mutations in pyruvate dehydrogenase

(GM0372, PDH; GM13411, MT-ATP6/PDH) and dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase (GM01503, DLD).

LS-derived iPSC lines were viable and generally capable of differentiating into key progenitor

populations, but we identified several abnormalities in three-dimensional differentiation models of

brain development. LS-derived cerebral organoids showed defects in neural epithelial bud

generation, size, and cortical architecture at 100 days. The double mutant MT-ATP6/PDH line

produced organoid neural progenitor cells with abnormal mitochondrial morphology characterized

by fragmentation and disorganization and showed an increased generation of astrocytes. These

studies aim to provide a comprehensive phenotypic characterization of available patient-derived

cell lines that can be used as LS model systems.

Introduction

Leigh syndrome (LS), or sub-acute necrotizing encephalomyelopathy, is an inherited neurometabolic disorder that affects the central nervous system (CNS) (Baertling et al., 2014; Gerards et al., 2016; Leigh, 1951; Sorbi and Blass, 1982). LS is a rare, progressive, early-onset disease with a prevalence of 1 in 40,000 live births (Lake et al., 2016). The pathologic features of LS are focal, bilateral lesions in one or more areas of the CNS, including the brainstem, thalamus, basal ganglia, cerebellum, and spinal cord. The most common underlying cause is defective oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), due to mutations in genes encoding complexes of the mitochondrial respiratory chain (Baertling et al., 2014; Lake et al., 2015, 2016). The LS phenotype caused by mitochondrial-encoded gene mutations can be rescued by mitochondrial replacement, highlighting the importance of this organelle in LS disease progression (Ma et al., 2015).

The availability of animal models and brain tissue from biopsies has provided critical insight into this disease. However, our understanding of the etiology and pathology of complex neurological diseases like LS would benefit from human-derived platforms such as induced pluripotent stem cell-derived models (Inak et al., 2021; Lorenz et al., 2017; Quadrato et al., 2016). The ability to reprogram somatic cells into induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), followed by differentiation into specific lineages has become a useful tool for complex disease modeling (Kelava and Lancaster, 2016; Di Lullo and Kriegstein, 2017; Paşca, 2018; Quadrato et al., 2016). In the context of LS, iPSCs have been successfully generated from patients with mutations in mitochondrially encoded ATP Synthase Membrane Subunit 6 (MT-ATP6) (Galera-Monge et al., 2016; Grace et al., 2019; Lorenz et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2015), mitochondrially encoded NADH:Ubiquinone Oxidoreductase Core Subunit 3 (MT-ND3) subunit (Hattori et al., 2016) and the nuclear-encoded gene Surfeit locus protein 1 (SURF1) (Inak et al., 2019, 2021). These iPSC-model systems have been proposed for drug discovery (Inak et al., 2017; Lorenz et al., 2017) as well as testing platforms for potential metabolic rescue treatments (Ma et al., 2015).

Many studies have used LS patient fibroblasts commercially available at the Coriell Institute

(Galera-Monge et al., 2016; Hinman et al., 1989; Huh et al., 1990; Iyer et al., 2012; Johnson et

al., 2019; Ma et al., 2015; Sorbi and Blass, 1982; Vo et al., 2007; Zheng et al., 2016a). Here we

report our findings on the genomic and phenotypic characterization of iPSCs derived from these

three LS fibroblast lines. Whole exome and mitochondrial sequencing revealed previously

unidentified mutations in these patient-derived cell lines. Three-dimensional differentiation of

these LS mutant iPSCs into neural rosettes and cerebral organoids resulted in severe

abnormalities. LS-iPSC-derived 100-day cerebral organoids showed decreased size as well as

defects in the generation of neural epithelial buds. Corticogenesis was impaired in all LS mutant

cell lines. MT-ATP6/PDH showed a decrease in gene expression in neural progenitor and cortical

plate markers at day 30, while all three LS lines showed a reduction of the cortical layer markers

CTIP2, TBR1, SATB2, and BRN2 at day 100. These results point to aberrant corticogenesis as a

driver of LS pathogenesis and demonstrate the utility of iPSC-derived systems to recapitulate

CNS phenotypes and to test potential strategies to restore neurogenesis in LS.

Results

Genomic characterization of Leigh syndrome fibroblasts.

Due to the limited genomic information available for the three cell lines, we performed whole-

exome sequencing (WES) and mitochondrial sequencing of the fibroblasts before reprogramming

(Figure 1A-D and Supplemental Figure 1; data repository with the raw and analyzed WES and

mitochondrial results can be found at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA626388 &

https://vandydata.github.io/Romero-Morales-Gama-Leigh-Syndrome-WES/).   Comparison

between the high impact, moderate impact, and all variants for identified INDELs and SNPs

showed a significant overlap between the three cell lines (Supplemental Figure 1A & B). In-depth

analysis of the top 15 high-impact SNPs (Supplemental Figure 1C) also confirmed an overlap

between genotypes, with only three genes with confirmed SNPs related to neurological diseases

(*FRG2C* for bipolar disorder and *CDC27* and *KIR2DL4* for white matter microstructure

measurements) (Buniello et al., 2019).

Targeted analysis of the genes associated with Leigh syndrome (Lake et al., 2016) revealed

a loss of function insertion/deletion (INDEL) frameshift in pyruvate dehydrogenase complex

(PDHc) E1 alpha 1 subunit or pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDHA1, c.79delC, p.Arg27fs) in the cell

lines GM03672 and GM13411 (Figure 1E). A single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the PDHc

E3 subunit or dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase (DLD, c.100A>G, p.Thr34Ala) was identified in

GM01503 (Figure 1E). In addition to being part of the PDHc, DLD is also a component of the α-

ketoglutarate and branched-chain α-ketoacid dehydrogenase complexes (Craigen, 1996).

Despite the lack of genomic data, dysfunction of the PDH complex was previously suggested in

GM03672 and GM01503 as the main driver of the disease in these patients (Hinman et al., 1989;

Huh et al., 1990; Sorbi and Blass, 1982) (Supplemental Table 1). To our knowledge, mutations in

the nuclear genome of GM13411 have not been reported to date.

Mitochondrial sequencing identified several SNPs in all the cell lines (Figure 1D). A loss of

function SNP in the MT-ATP6 gene was identified in the GM13411 line. This mutation was

reported in the original clinical case (Pastores et al., 1994). The authors described the T to G

transition at the 8993 position that results in the substitution of a highly conserved leucine residue

for an arginine (L156R). MT-ATP6 is part of the F0 domain of ATP synthase that functions as a

proton channel (Figure 1E). The L156R substitution prevents the induction of c-ring rotation

(rotation of an oligomeric assembly of c-subunits of the ATP synthase (Kühlbrandt and Davies,

2016)), resulting in decreased ATP synthesis (Uittenbogaard et al., 2018). Heteroplasmy analysis

of fibroblasts showed a 92% frequency of this mutation in the cell population, which is consistent

with previous reports (Galera-Monge et al., 2016; Iyer et al., 2012; Pastores et al., 1994).

Characterization of iPSCs derived from commercially available Leigh syndrome

fibroblasts.

Metabolic remodeling is a crucial step toward reprogramming somatic cells into iPSCs

(Mathieu and Ruohola-Baker, 2017; Panopoulos et al., 2012; Rasmussen and Gama, 2020;

Rastogi et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2016). Reprogramming of fibroblasts was performed as previously

described (Takahashi et al., 2007) (Supplemental Figure 2A); we generated iPSC clones from a

healthy age-matched control and the three LS cell lines. Pluripotency was evaluated using the

microarray-based analysis PluriTest (Müller et al., 2011). All three LS cell lines showed a high

pluripotency score and a low novelty score (Supplemental Figure 2B-C), congruent with the

transcriptional profile of pluripotent stem cells. Moreover, all the reprogrammed cells expressed

the pluripotent markers *NANOG* and *POU5F1* (*OCT4)* (Supplemental Figure 2D) and had a

normal karyotype. The MT-ATP6/PDH cell line showed increased levels of NANOG ($p<0.0001$)

compared to the control.

To assess the ability of the LS and control cell lines to differentiate into the three germ layers,

we performed trilineage differentiation as previously described (Kuang et al., 2019; Roberts et al.,

2019). Commitment to ectodermal fate was evaluated by immunofluorescence staining of the

marker PAX6 (Figure 2A and B), as well as the mRNA expression of the genes *GATA3* and *PAX6*

using RT-qPCR (Figure 2C). The endoderm lineage was assessed by protein expression of the

marker SOX17 (Figure 2A and B) and by the expression of the genes *CDX2* and *SOX17* (Figure

2C). Finally, mesodermal lineage was confirmed by the staining of the protein markers Brachyury

and CXCR4 (Figure 2A and B) and the expression of the genes *TBXT* and *NCAM* (Figure 2C).

No significant differences were detected among the different lines when compared to control.

Clinical data available from the patient with the PDH mutation reports elevated blood pyruvate

levels (Schubert and Vilarinho, 2020; Sofou et al., 2014). High concentrations of pyruvate in the

media have been shown to potentiate the differentiation of human embryonic stem cells (hESCs)

into endodermal and mesodermal lineages in a lineage-specific fashion (Song et al., 2019),

suggesting a differential capacity of these cells to preferentially commit into certain cell fates due

to metabolic dysregulation.

Two-dimensional neural differentiation is not significantly altered by Leigh syndrome-associated mutations.

To determine if the LS mutations impact the commitment and development of the neural lineage, neural progenitor cells (NPCs) were generated by a dual SMAD inhibition protocol (Chambers et al., 2009) (Supplemental Figure 3A). NPCs expressed expected neural markers PAX6, NESTIN, and SOX2 (Figure 3A and Supplemental Figure 3B), with no significant differences between the LS cell lines and control (Figure 3B and Supplemental Figure 3B). The multipotent capacity of NPCs to generate neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes was evaluated using immunostaining and quantification of mRNA levels by RT-qPCR as previously reported (Chambers et al., 2009; TCW et al., 2017; Vescovi and Snyder, 1999). We identified a significant increase in the mean fluorescence intensity of the astrocyte marker S100β in the DLD mutant line (p=0.0185). These results suggest an increased capacity of these cells to commit to the astrocyte lineage. No other differences were observed at protein or mRNA level in the neuronal or oligodendrocyte progenitor lineage. (Figure 3A-C). Thus, LS NPCs are multipotent, capable of differentiation into the main cellular populations of the nervous system.

Neural cell death is a hallmark of LS; thus, we performed a cell viability assay to investigate the sensitivity of the LS-derived NPCs to different apoptotic stimuli (Supplemental Figure 3C). Treatment with DNA damaging agents, etoposide and neocarzinostatin, as well as the microtubule depolymerizing agent nocodazole, did not show increased sensitivity to cell death in LS NPCs compared to control. To evaluate the susceptibility of the NPCs to mitochondrial damage, we treated these cells with the mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation uncoupler, CCCP. No difference was observed in the viability of the LS NPCs compared to control-treated with this mitochondrial toxicant.

LS mutations cause morphological alterations in three-dimensional models of neurodevelopment.

Previous studies using cells from LS patients carrying homozygous *SURF1* (c.769G>A and c.530T>G) and MT-ATP6 (m.9185T>C) mutations showed an abnormal generation of neural lineages (Lorenz et al., 2017) and impaired neurogenesis in cerebral organoids (Inak et al., 2019). Therefore, we investigated the effects of the PDH, DLD, and MT-ATP6/PDH LS mutations on neurogenesis using three-dimensional models of neural development as described previously (Lancaster and Knoblich, 2014; Romero-Morales et al., 2019). Most of these three-dimensional neural systems start with the formation of neuralized embryoid bodies (EBs). EBs are generated from a single cell suspension (Itskovitz-Eldor et al., 2000) plated in ultra-low attachment microwells with neural induction media (Figure 4A). EB diameter was measured on day 5 before plating on Matrigel-coated imaging plates. All three LS mutant lines showed increased diameter compared to control (Figure 4B, PDH vs control & DLD vs control: p<0.0001, MT-ATP6/PDH vs control: p=0.0209).

To investigate the effects of LS-associated mutations in the early stages of CNS development, we generated neural rosettes using EBs grown in the presence of SMAD inhibitor media (Figure 4A) (Elkabetz et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2001). These structures have previously been established to recapitulate the early neural tube formation stage of development (Elkabetz et al., 2008; Wilson and Stice, 2006). Neural rosettes were stained with the tight junction marker ZO-1 (Elkabetz et al., 2008; Hříbková et al., 2018) and the centrosomal marker CDK5RAP2 (Figure 4C). Quantification of the number of neural rosettes per field of view showed a reduction in these structures in the DLD mutant compared to controls (Figure 4D, p<0.001). Consistent with the overall increase in EB diameter (Figure 4B), lumen area quantification showed an increase in the PDH and MT-ATP6/PDH mutants, while the DLD mutant line showed a decrease in their area relative to controls (Figure 4E PDH: p<0.0001, DLD: p=0.0236 and MT-ATP6/PDH: p<0.0001). The neural rosettes obtained from all cell lines followed the expected morphological changes

described previously (Hříbková et al., 2018). The polymerization of α-tubulin and the generation

of the ZO-1 ring at the apical region of the rosettes are conserved in the LS mutants. Increased

neural rosette lumen size has previously been associated with activation of the TGFβ pathway

(Medelnik et al., 2018), Notch and sonic hedgehog (SHH) pathway, and inhibition of WNT i

(Elkabetz et al., 2008). Large rosette formation is thought to be a consequence of coalescence or

fusion of smaller rosettes (Fedorova et al., 2019) or apical domain opening and expansion rather

than a process dependent on cell proliferation (Medelnik et al., 2018).

Leigh syndrome-associated mutations disrupt corticogenesis in cerebral organoids.

To investigate the effects of these mutations during corticogenesis, we generated cerebral

organoids from LS iPSCs (Supplemental Figure 4A). Differences between the cell lines became

apparent as early as the neuroepithelial bud expansion phase. After Matrigel embedding, the MT-

ATP6/PDH mutant cell line showed poor budding with large areas of non-neuroepithelial cells

(Supplemental Figure 4B). Defective organoid formation in this cell line was significantly higher

than control and the other two LS cell lines (Supplemental Figure 4C). A previous report showed

that when iPSCs generated from fibroblasts harboring the same T8993G mitochondrial mutation

were differentiated into EBs, there was rapid regression and death after 7 days in suspension,

while the monolayer culture did not show obvious deficits in cell growth (Grace et al., 2019). Given

that the neuroectoderm expansion phase happens during days 7-10, the degeneration of the MT-

ATP6/PDH organoids after embedding may be consistent with these reports. Higher metabolic

requirements are associated with NPC proliferation and migration in three-dimensional scaffolds

and development (Fang et al., 2020; Homem et al., 2015). As the PDH mutant line did not show

this particular phenotype during the expansion of the neural epithelium, the presence of the

additional mitochondrial mutation in the MT-ATP6/PDH line resulted in the reduction of organoid

formation efficiency.

Cerebral organoid growth was tracked for 100 days (Supplemental Figure 4D). Growth

differences in the average diameter of the organoids became significant at day 80 between the

control and the PDH mutant line ($p < 0.05$). At days 90 and 100, organoids derived from all LS cell

lines were significantly smaller than the controls ($p < 0.05$). Phenotypic information available about

the patient from which the PDH mutant cell line was derived indicates that this particular patient

presented with microcephaly. Hence, we were able to mimic an aspect of the patient phenotype

in vitro using the cerebral organoid model system.

To assess the effect of the LS mutations on development during the first stages of neural

development, we collect mRNA of day 30 organoids to evaluate the pattern of expression of the

different NPC and cortical markers by RT-qPCR (Supplemental Figure 5A). NPC marker *SOX2*

expression was reduced in all three LS mutants (PDH: $p=0.0156$, DLD $p=0.0303$, MT-ATP6/DPH:

$p<0.0001$). Progenitor markers *NESTIN* and *PAX6* expression were also increased in PDH

mutant organoids ($p=0.0156$ and $p=0.0134$, respectively). In the case of MT-ATP6/PDH

organoids, there was a significant reduction in the expression of *PAX6* ($p=0.0231$) and a

significant increase in the expression of the intermediate progenitor cell (IPC) marker *TBR2*

($p=0.0224$). The cortical plate marker *CTIP2* was found to be reduced in both DLD ($p=0.0080$)

and MT-ATP6/PDH ($p<0.0001$); and the neuronal marker βIII-TUBULIN (*TUBB3*) was reduced in

MT-ATP6/PDH ($p=0.0302$). No significant differences were noted in the expression of the

glycoprotein *REELIN* or the cortical plate marker *TBR1* among the different genotypes.

The reduction in the expression of the neural progenitor markers *SOX2* and *PAX6* in the MT-

ATP6/PDH concomitantly with the increase in *TBR2* may suggest a premature commitment into

intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs) (Englund, 2005; Hutton and Pevny, 2011; Sansom et al.,

2009). This premature differentiation into IPCs and the reduced expression of committed neuronal

markers such as *CTIP2* and *TUBB3* may suggest an inability to acquire a neuronal fate in this

particular genotype.

To assess if the differences observed at an mRNA level were maintained at the protein level,

as well as to analyze the overall cytoarchitecture of the organoids at day 30 timepoint, brain

organoids were sectioned and stained for the ventricular zone (VZ), subventricular zone (sVZ),

and cortical plate (CP) markers (Supplemental Figure 5 B-E). Day 30 organoids were obtained

from at least 3 independent batches of differentiation and representative images were obtained

from at least 4 individual organoids per batch. Quantification of the immunofluorescence images

revealed no significant differences among the number of NPC cells positive for the markers SOX2,

PAX6, and NESTIN or IPC marker TBR2 (Supplemental Figure 5F). In agreement with the

defective neuroepithelial expansion, the overall architecture in MT-ATP6/PDH organoids was

compromised. Few ventricle-like structures were present, and the foci of PAX6+ cells were not

organized in the expected radial pattern. Migration of early-born neurons *in vivo* depends on

pioneer Cajal-Retzius neurons that are positive for the glycoprotein REELIN (Lancaster et al.,

2017). Cells positive for this marker were identified in superficial regions of all organoids. Early-

born neurons at this time point are expected to migrate into the CP that will later give rise to the

deep cortical layers (Camp et al., 2015). CTIP2+ and TBR1+ cells were observed in all genotypes.

The neuronal marker Microtubule-associated protein 2 (MAP2) was also present in all samples at

similar levels to control (Supplemental Figure 5E and 5F). The outer radial glia marker

Homeodomain-only protein (HOPX) expression was significantly reduced in the PDH (p<0.0001)

and MT-ATP6/PDH mutant (p=0.0417). Metabolic stress has been correlated with reduced

specification in organoids, especially in oRG and newborn neurons (Bhaduri et al., 2020). Hence,

lower levels of HOPX positive cells in the cell lines harboring a PDH mutation may be associated

with defects in cellular fate specification at this timepoint.

To assess the proper cortical layer fate specification during development, we grew cerebral

organoids until day 100 and probed for upper cortical layer markers (Figure 7) (Florio and Huttner,

2014; Lui et al., 2011; Saito et al., 2011). RT-qPCR analysis of the gene expression at this time

point showed no significant differences in the expression of NPC markers *SOX2*, and *PAX6*; outer

297 Radial Glia (oRG) marker *HOPX* and IPC marker *TBR2*. Major dysregulation was observed in the

298 neuronal markers (Figure 5A). Cortical layer maker *CTIP2* (p<0.0001 in all cases), *TBR1*

299 (p=0.0002 for PDH and DLD, p<0.0001 for MT-ATP6/PDH), *SATB2* (p<0.0001 in all cases) and

300 *BRN2* (p=0.0005 for PDH, p=0.0001 for DLD and p=0.0002 for MT-ATP6/PDH) were significantly

301 reduced in all LS genotypes at this timepoint. Pan-neuronal marker *TUBB3* (p=0.0013 for PDH,

302 p=0.0002 for DLD, and p=0.0003 for MT-ATP6/PDH) was also reduced for all three mutants,

303 suggesting a reduced capacity of commitment to a neuronal fate. Interestingly, the neuronal

304 marker *CUX1* did not show significant differences in expression among cell types. While CUX1 is

305 predominantly expressed in pyramidal neurons of the upper layers II-IV of the developing cortex

306 (Leone et al., 2008; Nieto et al., 2004), its expression has been reported in the subventricular

307 zone (Nieto et al., 2004) and cortical plate (Saito et al., 2011). It has also been reported as being

308 co-expressed with PAX6+ and TBR2+ cells (Cipriani et al., 2015). Due to the reduced expression

309 of the cortical and neuronal markers, the maintained expression of *CUX1* could reflect its

310 conserved expression in NPC and IPC populations rather than in committed upper-layer neurons.

311  Quantification of the immunofluorescence images (Figure 5B-F) showed that the late-born

312 superficial layer marker SATB2 (layer IV) was reduced in PDH (p=0.0305) and DLD (p=0.0013)

313 organoids (Figure 5B and 5F). Cortical layer III marker BRN2 was reduced in the DLD mutant

314 (p=0.0455, Figure 5C and 5F). CTIP2+ cells were also reduced in DLD and MT-ATP6/PDH

315 organoids (p<0.0001 in both cases. Figure 5B-C and 5F). On day 100, MT-ATP6/PDH organoids

316 had a significant increase in PAX6+ cells (p<0.0001) compared to control (Figure 5B, 5C, and

317 5F). The reduction in the number and variety of cell types found in the LS organoids may explain

318 the decrease in their diameter at day 100 (Supplemental Figure 4D).

319  As astrogliosis is a hallmark for LS (Lake et al., 2015), we looked at the expression of

320 astrocyte markers at the mRNA and protein level. q-RT PCR analysis of neuronal marker *TUBB3*

321 reveals a marked downregulation in all three lines (PDH p=0.0013, DLD p=0.0002, and MT-

322 ATP6/PDH p=0.0003) that may be associated with the reduction in the number of cortical neurons.

Astrocyte marker *SOX9* (Sun et al., 2017) did not show major differences in expression when

compared to control. Analysis of other astrocyte markers such as Glial Fibrillary Acidic Protein

(GFAP), S100 calcium-binding protein-β *(S100B)*, Aldehyde Dehydrogenase Family 1 Member

L1 (*ALDH1L1*), and *VIMENTIN* showed an increased, yet not significant, upregulation in some

genotypes (Figure 6A). In the case of DLD, all the above-mentioned markers were increased

compared to the control. The double mutant MT-ATP6/PDH had increased expression of

VIMENTIN and *ALDH1L1*, while PDH showed an increment in *S100B* and *VIMENTIN*. At a protein

level, DLD and PDH cerebral organoids showed increased staining of astrocyte markers GFAP

and S100B, respectively, at day 100 (Figure 5C, 6B, and 6D). S100B was also increased in the

double mutant, but not in a statistically significant manner. Staining for the pan-astrocyte marker

Aldehyde Dehydrogenase-1 Family Member L1 (ALDH1L1) did not show major differences

between the genotypes (Figure 6C and 6D). Immunofluorescence staining of the organoids for

β3-TUBULIN showed a statistical difference between control and DLD (p=0.0174), but not in the

other two mutants. The decrease in the diversity of neuronal cell types and the increase in the

presence of S100β+ cells in the double mutants may suggest a switch to astrocyte fate during

cortical development. Interestingly, the DLD organoids had higher GFAP staining when compared

to control (p=0.0141) that may suggest an increase in the reactivity of the astrocyte population.

Upregulation of the astrocyte markers GFAP, S100β, and VIMENTIN have been associated with

astrocyte reactivity and in response to injury (Clarke et al., 2018; Escartin et al., 2021; Liddelow

and Barres, 2017; Liddelow et al., 2017; Qi et al., 2017; Zamanian et al., 2012). Although the

gene expression of these pan-reactive markers was not significant when compared to control, it

may suggest activation of the glial population in response to the metabolic dysregulation in LS

organoids.

Leigh syndrome-associated mutations disrupt the mitochondrial network in the ventricular zone of cerebral organoids.

Mitochondria in murine NPCs form an elongated network (Khacho et al., 2016) which fragments as cells undergo neurogenesis (Iwata et al., 2020). Mitochondrial morphology was also evaluated in the VZ NPCs of the cerebral organoids. Cells positive for NPC marker SOX2+ demonstrated elongated mitochondrial networks that extend radially from the ventricle-like lumen (Supplemental Figure 6A). These results are significant because it is the first evidence demonstrating that the mitochondrial networks are remodeled in the developing human brain as reported in the developing mouse cortex (Iwata et al., 2020; Khacho et al., 2016). PDH mutant organoid NPCs have an increased axis length of their mitochondrial network in comparison with control (p=0.0078, Supplemental Figure 6B). As mentioned earlier, the stereotypical arrangement of the VZ was compromised in most MT-ATP6/PDH organoids. In the few areas where ventricle-like structures were identified with a conserved SOX2+ VZ, the mitochondrial network appeared more aggregated. This morphology was also observed in the clusters of SOX2+ cells that were scattered throughout the organoid. Quantification of the mitochondrial network for this mutant (Supplemental Figure 6B) showed differences in the mitochondrial network's volume, diameter, surface area, and axis length (p<0.0001, in all cases). A higher volume and diameter may suggest an increase in mitochondrial aggregation in the VZ. Moreover, the difference in mitochondrial length may also correlate with the increased expression of *TBR2* observed by RT-qPCR (Iwata et al., 2020).

As NPCs generated by a dual SMAD monolayer method did not show major differences among the different genotypes, we looked at their mitochondria morphology to evaluate if the differences observed in the organoids were recapitulated in this setup. Characterization and quantification of various parameters of the mitochondrial network using structured illumination microscopy (SIM) showed that while control human NPCs showed elongation of the mitochondrial network, the DLD mutant shows an increase in mitochondrial number and decreased sphericity.

Both DLD and PDH mutants have a significant increase in the number of branches in the network.

(Supplemental Figure 6C-6D) which may reflect an increase in fusion events (Sukhorukov et al.,

2012; Westrate et al., 2014). These parameters suggest that both the DLD and PDH mutant lines

present alterations in mitochondrial morphology, which could be linked to the underlying changes

in metabolic capacity (Rafelski, 2013) and developmental defects (Westrate et al., 2014).

Metabolic dysregulation in Leigh syndrome-derived cerebral organoids

To explore early changes in metabolites, we perform metabolomic profiling of Day 40

organoids from control and LS samples. Metabolomic analysis showed 43 different metabolites

that were statistically dysregulated in the LS organoids when compared to control (Supplemental

Table 2 and Supplemental Figure 7). Out of these metabolites, 8 were dysregulated in PDH, 16

in DLD, and 32 in MT-ATP6/PDH (Figure 7A and Supplemental Figure 7).

The metabolites proline, 6-phosphogluconic acid, and hydroxyphenyllactic acid were

dysregulated in all three LS mutants. Proline concentration was elevated when compared to

control. High levels of proline have been associated with negative effects in brain function by

interference in glutamatergic neurotransmission (Gogos et al., 1999; Vorstman et al., 2009). On

the other hand, 6-phosphogluconic acid was reduced in all three LS cell lines. High concentrations

of this metabolite have been associated with an active pentose phosphate pathway in early brain

development in rats (Hakim et al., 1980) and its supplementation increased the diameter of

neurospheres derived from the embryonic Ts1Cje mouse model of Down syndrome (Seth et al.,

2020). In addition, hydroxyphenyllactic acid was elevated in DLD and PDH mutant organoids but

downregulated in MT-ATP6/PDH. High levels of this metabolite have been reported in association

with high lactate and pyruvate in pediatric lactic acidosis in patients with PDHc deficiency (Kumps

et al., 2002; Stern, 1994).

Pyruvate was also increased in the MT-ATP6/PDH mutant organoids, correlating with the

lactic acidosis expected in the organoids based on the patient phenotypes and the presence of

the PDH mutation that hinders flux from pyruvate into the TCA cycle through acetyl-CoA.

Moreover, the glycolysis/gluconeogenesis intermediate phosphoenolpyruvate was also elevated

in these mutants. Increased levels of phosphoenolpyruvate in rat brains after ischemic injury are

thought to have a protective role in cerebral ischemia *in vivo* (Geng et al., 2021) and in

oxygen/glucose deprivation *in vitro* (Jiang et al., 2019).

Besides the previously mentioned metabolites, MT-ATP6/PDH mutant organoids presented

increased levels of choline, cytidine, and leucine. Choline is a crucial metabolite for normal CNS

development. Neural tube defects have been associated with a lack of choline during early

pregnancy (Zeisel, 2006). It has also been shown to increase cell proliferation and decrease

apoptosis in fetal rat hippocampal progenitor cells (Albright et al., 1999b, 1999a; Zeisel and

Niculescu, 2006). Choline is also crucial for the production of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine,

the sphingolipid sphingomyelin, and myelin (Oshida et al., 2003). Concomitantly, cytidine is used

with choline for the generation of cytidine-5-diphosphocholine, a crucial intermediate in the

biosynthesis of the cell membrane phospholipids phosphatidylcholine and

phosphatidylethanolamine (Cansev, 2006; Rema et al., 2008). Increased abundance of the

branched-chain amino acid leucine has been associated with the metabolic illness maple syrup

urine disease and can be extremely neurotoxic (Bridi et al., 2005; García-Cazorla et al., 2014).

This amino acid is considered ketogenic as its end products can enter the TCA cycle for energy

generation or act as precursors for lipogenesis and ketone body production (Manoli and Venditti,

2016).

Pathway analysis of the dysregulated metabolites (Supplemental Tables 3, 4, and 5) show

overlap in the pyrimidine metabolism, taurine, and hypotaurine metabolism, pentose phosphate

pathway, arginine and proline metabolism, and aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis. Pyrimidine

nucleotides are essential precursors for nucleic acid synthesis and are involved in polysaccharide

and phospholipid biosynthesis, detoxification processes, and protein and lipid glycosylation

(Fumagalli et al., 2017). Taurine and hypotaurine are osmotic regulators in the brain, as well as

agonists to GABAergic and glycinergic neurons (Albrecht and Schousboe, 2005). Its presence in

the developing brain is necessary for the correct development of axons and the formation of

synaptic connections (Sturman, 1993). Dysregulation of the aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis

pathways is well documented as causal etiology for several neurodevelopmental disorders such

as leukoencephalopathies, microcephaly, and Leigh syndrome (Francklyn and Mullen, 2019;

Ognjenović and Simonović, 2018).

We also performed metabolite set enrichment analysis (Figure 7B-C). Besides the previously

mentioned pathways, the Warburg effect or aerobic glycolysis was also shared among the LS

mutants. Although this effect is considered one of the hallmarks of cancer, it has also been

associated with several homeostatic processes, including cell turnover and proliferation, and brain

development (Bubici and Papa, 2019). Energy generation through aerobic glycolysis as a

compensatory mechanism to overcome the metabolic deficiency in LS could suggest a survival

adaptation of the cerebral organoids. Moreover, the shutoff of aerobic glycolysis is critical to

neuronal differentiation in human NPCs. Inability to transition to neuronal oxidative

phosphorylation causes apoptosis due to excessive conversion of pyruvate to lactate, and

potentially a cell fate shift into GFAP-positive glial cells (Zheng et al., 2016b). Considering our

observations that there is a marked deficit in MT-ATP6/PDH mutants to commit and generate

neuronal subtypes and an increased signal in astroglial markers, these mutations may be

impairing the ability to transition from aerobic glycolysis to OXPHOS as previously described with

SURF mutations (Inak et al., 2019, 2021). The preferential switch to a glial fate may be promoted

by astrocytes having low expression levels or lower active levels of the PDHα subunit (Bélanger

et al., 2011; Halim et al., 2010; Itoh et al., 2003; Laughton et al., 2007).

Considering all the previous findings, the cerebral organoid system emerges as a promising

model for the study of the effects of LS-associated mutations in brain development and the effects

of metabolic impairment during corticogenesis.

Discussion

Inborn errors of metabolism are rare genetic disorders resulting from defects in metabolic pathways (Agana et al., 2018; Das et al., 2010). Mitochondrial diseases are the most common group of inherited metabolic disorders and are among the most common forms of inherited neurological disorders (Gorman et al., 2016). These illnesses are challenging not only at the time of diagnosis but also during their medical evolution, as they involve multiple organ systems and have limited therapeutic options (Grier et al., 2018; Parikh et al., 2017; Schaefer et al., 2019).

Leigh syndrome is one of these rare inherited neurometabolic diseases, with more than 75 causal genes identified in both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA. It has an early onset, affecting most patients within their first year of life, although cases during teenage years and adulthood have been reported (Finsterer, 2008; Lake et al., 2016). As it is a highly heterogeneous disease, the establishment of animal and *in vitro* models has been challenging and limited to only select mutations. The few animal models available have been utilized for the development of therapeutic approaches with mixed results. Gene editing using adeno-associated virus in *Ndufs4*-/- mice has shown partial rescue of the phenotype (Di Meo et al., 2017). Supplementation of nicotinamide riboside to *Sco2*-/- mice showed improvement of the respiratory chain defect and increased exercise tolerance due to improved mitochondrial biogenesis (Cerutti et al., 2014). Hypoxia and low oxygen availability in the brain have also been shown to increase the life span and improve neurological findings in *Ndufs4*-/- mice (Ferrari et al., 2017; Jain et al., 2016, 2019).

Molecular testing and prenatal diagnosis of respiratory chain disorders using skin fibroblasts and muscle biopsies for diagnostic and research purposes are becoming mainstream procedures (Baertling et al., 2014; Calvo et al., 2006, 2012; Schubert and Vilarinho, 2020). Nevertheless, heteroplasmy in mitochondrial DNA among tissues can cause less pronounced or absent phenotypes in cultured cells (Baertling et al., 2014). Here we report the characterization and the subsequent generation of brain organoids from three commercially available Leigh syndrome fibroblast cell lines and age-matched control.

Three-dimensional differentiation generates higher numbers of NPCs and more mature

neurons than two-dimensional differentiation (Chandrasekaran et al., 2017; Di Lullo and

Kriegstein, 2017; Muratore et al., 2014; Paşca et al., 2015) in part due to an improved spatial

cellular environment that influences cell fate specification. Tissue architecture, mechanical cues,

cell-to-cell communication (Pampaloni et al., 2007), nutrient accessibility, oxygen tension, as well

as morphogen gradients characteristic of 3D systems (Tibbitt and Anseth, 2012) aid to

recapitulate the development of the central nervous system (CNS) up to approximately 16 weeks

post-fertilization (Camp et al., 2015; Paşca et al., 2015). We observed that all the LS cerebral

organoids failed to thrive at different time points. Although organoid development initially

appeared normal in cell lines with nuclear-encoded LS mutations, at later time points the overall

diameter decreased, presumably due to failure to generate upper-layer neurons. This reduction

of late-born neurons may be due to the overall reduction in the PAX6+ NPCs in both PDH and

DLD compared to controls. Interestingly, PDH cerebral organoids displayed arrested growth very

early on, correlating with the microcephaly observed in the proband.

Clinical data from LS patients include marked gliosis as part of the characteristic findings

(Baertling et al., 2014, 2016; Lake et al., 2015; Schubert and Vilarinho, 2020). While this marked

gliosis is potentially associated with a reactive process secondary to neuronal damage, an

intriguing alternate possibility is that progenitor cells may have an increased propensity to

differentiate down the astrocyte lineage due to LS-causative mutations and mitochondrial-

associated dysregulations. Previous studies have shown that reactive astrocytes acquire

molecular hallmarks of radial glial cells. It was also shown through genetic fate mapping that

mature astroglial cells can dedifferentiate and resume proliferation (Robel et al., 2009, 2011).

Thus, the increase in the glial-specific marker S100β in PDH organoids and DLD multipotency

cultures, as well as in GFAP staining in DLD organoids and the upregulation trend in the mRNA

expression of the astrocyte markers could either reflect that chronic metabolic stress induced by

Leigh syndrome mutations activates a brain injury response, or that the inhibition of mitochondrial

metabolism in neural progenitor cells could cause defects in lineage selection (Escartin et al.,

2021). Due to the differential expression and activation levels of the PDH complex in astrocytes

(Bélanger et al., 2011; Halim et al., 2010), a predisposition of these cell lines to commit to an

astroglial fate cannot be ruled out. Also, longer culture (>100days) of these organoids may allow

for the interrogation of a gliosis phenotype in more detail. Analysis of A1 specific reactivity markers

may point out if the upregulation of *GFAP, S100B, ALDH1L1,* and *VIMENTIN* is associated with

a neuroinflammation type of response that has been associated with neuronal damage (Escartin

et al., 2021; Liddelow et al., 2017).

The formation of lesions in LS has been described as the result of OXPHOS dysfunction and

subsequent ATP depletion. Neuronal dysfunction is suspected to trigger chronic gliosis (Baertling

et al., 2016). In patients, the gliosis phenotype can be accompanied by vascular hypertrophy and

the production of excess ROS, which increases neuronal damage (Lake et al., 2015). However,

due to the lack of vascularization in the organoid model, replicating the vascular abnormalities

associated with LS is not feasible in this system.

In a previous study (Hattori et al., 2016), the metabolic signature analysis of iPSCs derived

from a mitochondrial encoded LS mutation (m.10191T>C) showed differences in the abundance

of pyruvate and lactate, among others. Interestingly, the metabolic difference between control and

LS cells was reported to revert to normal after EB differentiation (Hattori et al., 2016). In our study,

metabolomic analysis from organoids shows that the observed changes in the metabolites are in

line with the clinical observations of LS patients. Changes in blood and cerebral spinal fluid

concentration of lactate and pyruvate are common diagnostic tools for LS (Hattori et al., 2016)

and other mitochondrial diseases (Barshop, 2004; Buzkova et al., 2018; Esterhuizen et al., 2017;

Rahman and Rahman, 2018). While changes in the NADH/NAD+ ratio, *de novo* nucleotide

synthesis, and in other metabolites from the ETC complex III and TCA cycle, were also identified,

these were modest considering the genetic alterations in the mutant cell lines should directly affect

these pathways. This could point out to metabolic compensatory mechanisms that may be

engaged during development. Moreover, the disruption in the metabolic network observed in the

LS cerebral organoids correlates with the severity and mortality of the disease in the probands.

Although aerobic glycolysis was identified as a significantly affected pathway in all the mutants,

the effects of the MT-ATP6/PDH mutation reflected the importance of competent glycolysis to

OXPHOS transition in the early brain development (Zheng et al., 2016b).

The metabolic dysregulation of the affected tissues in LS may have a direct effect on

mitochondrial morphology and function. Mitochondrial fragmentation is a hallmark of glycolytic

cell types such as stem cells and cancer cells (Chen and Chan, 2017; Rastogi et al., 2019).

Moreover, neurogenesis defects have been observed in the context of mitochondrial morphology

dysregulation and are considered to be upstream regulators of self-renewal and cell fate decisions

in stem cells (Iwata et al., 2020; Khacho et al., 2016). In addition, energetic requirements have

been shown to directly impact the capacity of progenitor cells to migrate and thrive in 3D

environments (Zanotelli et al., 2018, 2019). Hence, mitochondrial morphology disruption observed

in the double mutant MT-ATP6/PDH organoids is congruent with the metabolic and

developmental profiles of these mutant organoids. To our knowledge, this is the first time that

mitochondrial morphology in the cortex has been analyzed in a human model system of LS brain

development and highlights the critical function of mitochondrial network plasticity for the proper

specification of cell fate and survival. Studies in murine brains demonstrated a period of plasticity

in postmitotic cells where mitochondrial morphology determines the fate of the daughter cells

(Iwata et al., 2020). Our results also highlight the direct link of mitochondrial morphology with early

events in human brain development.

The profound dysregulation of corticogenesis in the double mutant MT-ATP6/PDH may

suggest that some pregnancies harboring LS-causing mutations may not be viable, which could

lead to an underestimation of the prevalence of the disease in the population (Feeney et al.,

2019). Prenatal genetic evaluation is now being performed for cases where there is a known risk

for mitochondrial mutations (Craven et al., 2017; White et al., 1999). This testing can be performed

as early as 10-12 weeks post conception and is usually requested if there is a history of a

previously affected child or first-degree relative (Nesbitt et al., 2014). Interpretation of these tests

is challenging in the case of mitochondrial mutations due to heteroplasmy; the biopsied tissues

may exhibit a different mutational burden compared with other fetal tissues (Ferlin et al., 1997;

Harding et al., 1992; Nesbitt et al., 2014; Steffann et al., 2007).

Taken together, our study sheds new light on the morphological and functional LS alterations

impacting early events of neurogenesis. We were able to identify new genetic alterations in LS

samples by using whole-exome sequencing and mitochondrial DNA sequencing. We described

the effects of LS mutations on early development, underscoring the critical function of metabolism

in human neurogesis. Our works also provides a comprehensive phenotypic characterization of

available patient samples to encourage their utilization as model systems for uncovering the

mechanisms underlying neuronal cell death in the context of LS and as human platforms for drug

discovery.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Whole exome sequencing identifies novel mutations in Leigh syndrome fibroblasts. A. Schematic of the WES and mitochondrial sequencing workflow. B. Representation of whole-genome sequencing data, highlighting the top 20 genes containing high impact indels. C. Representation of whole-genome sequencing data, highlighting the top 20 genes containing high impact SNPs (increased likelihood of disrupting protein function). D. Mitochondrial sequencing identifies novel mutations in LS fibroblasts. Representation of mitochondrial sequencing data, highlighting mitochondrial genes containing mutations (transitions, deletions, or transversions). Red dots: represent the DLD line. Green dots: represent the PDH line. Orange dots: represent the MT-ATP6/PDH line. E. Representation of the affected proteins in the LS mutant cell lines. PDH and DLD are part of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (PDHc). MT-ATP6 is a subunit of the ATP synthase, represented here as the electro transport chain complex V. PDH: Pyruvate dehydrogenase. DLD: Dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase. MT-ATP6/PDH: Mitochondrially Encoded ATP Synthase Membrane Subunit 6/ Pyruvate dehydrogenase.

Figure 2. Induced pluripotent stem cells derived from Leigh syndrome patient fibroblasts are capable of differentiation into specific lineages. A. Representative images of the three embryonic lineages markers. Ectoderm marker Pax6, endoderm marker SOX17, and mesoderm markers Brachyury and CXCR4. Scale bar: 100μm. B. Immunofluorescence quantification for the aforementioned markers. Three independent differentiations were performed. Positive nuclei for the analyzed markers were divided by the total number of nuclei stained with DAPI. C. RT-qPCR analysis for the ectodermal genes *GATA3* and *PAX6*, ectodermal genes *CDX2* and *SOX17* the mesodermal genes *TBXT* and *NCAM*. Fold change normalized to GPI and GAPDH as housekeeping genes. Graphs represent mean ± SEM from at least three independent experiments.

Figure 3. Leigh syndrome-derived NPCs are multipotent and do not show aberrant mitochondrial

morphology compared to control. A. Representative images of the expression of neural

multipotency markers. Neural progenitor cells stained by PAX6 and NESTIN, neurons marked

with βIII-TUBULIN (TUBB3), oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) were stained with Olig2,

and astrocytes are marked with S100β. Merged panels show the color image of the grayscale

lineage marker and the nuclear staining DAPI in blue. Scale bar: 100μm. B. Immunofluorescence

quantification for the aforementioned markers. Three independent differentiations were

performed. Mean fluorescence intensity for each marker was normalized to the nuclear DAPI

intensity and the intensity values of control. C. RT-qPCR Analysis of the NPC markers *PAX6* and

NESTIN, as well as the multipotency markers *MAP2* and *TUBB3* for neuronal lineage, *S100B* and

GFAP for astrocytic lineage, and *OLIG2* and *FOXO4* for OPCs. Fold change normalized to GPI

and GAPDH as house-keeping genes.

Figure 4. Three-dimensional differentiation reveals abnormalities during induction of neural

rosettes in LS cell lines. A. Schematic of neural rosette generation protocol. B. Embryoid body

diameter is increased in the three LS cell lines. C-E. Representative confocal images of neural

rosettes (C) show decreased numbers of neural rosettes per field in the DLD mutant line (D).

Quantification of the lumen area (μm^2) indicates increased lumen area in the PDH and MT-

ATP6/PDH mutant cell lines and a decreased lumen area in the DLD mutant line (E). Scale bar:

50μm.

Figure 5. Leigh syndrome-derived brain organoids show defects in cortical layer formation at day

100. A. RT-qPCR quantification of the day 100 organoids. Neural progenitor cell populations were

evaluated by the expression of *SOX2* and *PAX6*. Intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs) were

identified with the marker *TBR2* and outer radial glia (oRG) was evaluated by the expression of

HOPX. Markers *CTIP2*, *TBR1*, *SATB2*, *BRN2*, and *CUX1* were assessed for cortical

development. B-D. Representative confocal images of day 100 brain organoids. LS-derived brain

organoids present reduced expression of the upper layer markers SATB2 (B) and BRN2 (C) and

deep layer marker CTIP2 (B & C). Expression of the astrocyte marker S100β was also observed

in the cell lines (C). LS-derived brain organoids express the upper layer marker CUX1 and NPC

marker PAX6 (D). Images were generated from at least three different organoids per genotype

from independent organoid batches. Scale bar for B-D: 100µm. E. Schematic representation of

the expected organization of the brain organoids at day 100. F. Quantification of day

immunofluorescence staining for day 100 brain organoids. Upper layer marker SATB2 was

significantly reduced in PDH mutant (p=0.0305). DLD mutant presented reduced expression of

the cortical layer markers CTIP2 (p<0.0001), SATB2 (p=0.0013), and BRN2 (p=0.0455). The

double mutant MT-ATP6/PDH shows a significant increase in the PAX6+ population (p<0.0001),

as well as reduced expression of the cortical plate marker CTIP2 (p<0.0001). Data are shown as

mean ±SEM. Comparisons were performed as ordinary one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's multiple

comparisons test post-hoc. SVZ: subventricular zone, VZ: ventricular zone, DL: deep layers UL:

upper layers, MZ: marginal zone.

Figure 6. LS brain organoids show dysregulation of neuronal and glial markers at day 100. A.

RT-qPCR analysis of neuronal and astrocytic genes at day 100. Neuronal marker *TUBB3* and

astrocytic markers *SOX9, GFAP*, *S100B*, *VIMENTIN*, and *ALDH1L1* were evaluated. A significant

decrease in the expression of the neuronal marker *TUBB3* was observed in all phenotypes. Fold

change normalized to GPI and GAPDH as housekeeping genes. B-C. Day 100

immunofluorescence images of astrocytic markers GFAP (B) and ALDH1L1 (C), and neuronal

marker βIII TUBULIN (TUBB3). Nuclei in the merged image correspond to the blue channel. Scale

bar: 100µm. D. Immunofluorescence quantification of the neuronal and astrocytic staining. DLD

mutant presented decrease staining in the neuronal marker TUBB3 (p=0.0174) and an increase

in the astrocytic marker GFAP (p=0.0141); The PDH mutant shows a significant increase in the

S100β+ population (p=0.0354). Scale bar for B-C: 100μm. Data are shown as mean ±SEM.

Comparisons were performed as ordinary one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's multiple comparisons

test post-hoc.

Figure 7. Day 40 LS organoids show changes in their metabolic profiles. A. 43 metabolites were

statistically dysregulated (p<0.05 and FDR of 0.01) segregated by affected cell line. A total of

three batches of 40-day organoids per line (4 independent organoids per line per batch) were

analyzed as described in methods. B. Metabolite Set Enrichment Analysis for dysregulated

metabolites enriched in the PDH mutant. C. Metabolite Set Enrichment Analysis for dysregulated

metabolites enriched in the DLD mutant. D. Metabolite Set Enrichment Analysis for dysregulated

metabolites enriched in the MT-ATP6/PDH mutant. Diameter of the node is determined by the

level of enrichment, while the color of the node represents the p-value of the interaction.

 Detailed Methods

 Key Resource Table

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
ANTIBODIES		
Primary Antibodies (Immunocytochemistry)		
Mouse anti-MAP2	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # 131500, AB_2533001
Rabbit anti-GFAP	Agilent Technologies	Cat # Z0334, AB_10013382
Rabbit anti-HOPX	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat # HPA030180, AB_10603770
Mouse anti-mitochondria	Abcam	Cat # ab92824, AB_10562769
Rabbit anti-SOX2	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 5049S, AB_10828386
Rabbit anti-PAX6	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 60433, AB_2797599
Rabbit anti-SOX17	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 81778S, AB_2650582
Rabbit anti-BRACHYURY	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 81694S, AB_2799983
Mouse anti-CD184 (CXCR4)	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 60089
Mouse anti-β3 TUBULIN	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 4466, AB_10270973
Rabbit anti-S100	Abcam	Cat # ab868, AB_306716
Mouse anti-Olig2	Millipore Sigma	Cat # MABN50, AB_10807410
Rat anti-α TUBULIN	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # MA180017, AB_2210201
Mouse anti-ZO-1	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # 339100, AB_2533147
Rabbit anti-CDK5RAP2	Bethyl Laboratories	Cat # IHC00063, AB_2076863
Mouse anti-NESTIN	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 60091, AB_2650581
Chicken anti-TBR2	Millipore Sigma	Cat # AB15894, AB_10615604
Mouse anti-REELIN	Millipore Sigma	Cat # MAB5366, AB_2285132
Rat anti-CTIP2	Abcam	Cat # ab18465, AB_2064130
Rabbit anti-TBR1	Abcam	Cat # ab31940, AB_2200219
Rabbit anti-TOM20	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 42406, AB_2687663
Mouse anti-SATB2	Abcam	Cat # ab51502, AB_882455
Mouse anti-BRN2 (POU3F2)	Millipore Sigma	Cat # MABD51, AB_11204531
Mouse anti-CASP (CUX1)	Abcam	Cat # ab54583, AB_941209
Rabbit anti-ALDH1L1	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 85828S

Secondary Antibodies (Immunocytochemistry)		
Goat anti Chicken Alexa Fluor 647	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-21449, AB_2535866
Goat anti Rat Alexa Fluor 647	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-21247, AB_2535864
Donkey anti Rabbit Alexa Fluor 647	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-31573, AB_2536183
Donkey anti Mouse Alexa Fluor 647	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-31571, AB_162542
Donkey anti Rabbit Alexa Fluor 546	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-10040, AB_2534016
Donkey anti Mouse Alexa Fluor 546	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-10036, AB_2534012
Donkey anti Rabbit Alexa Fluor 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-21206, AB_2535792
Donkey anti Mouse Alexa Fluor 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A-21202, AB_141607
Primary Antibodies (Western Blotting)		
Rabbit anti-PAX6	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 60433, AB_2797599
Mouse anti-NESTIN	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 60091, AB_2650581
Rabbit anti-Sox2	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat # 3579, AB_2195767
Mouse anti- α TUBULIN	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat # T9026, AB_477593
Secondary Antibodies -HRP conjugated (Western Blotting)		
Peroxidase AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)	Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc	Cat # 711-035-152, AB_10015282
Peroxidase AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Mouse IgG (H+L)	Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc	Cat # 715-035-151, AB_2340771
CHEMICALS, PEPTIDE, AND RECOMBINANT PROTEINS		
Y-27632 Rho/Rock pathway inhibitor	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 72307
Dorsomorphin	Millipore Sigma	Cat # P5499
SB431542	REPROCELL	Cat # 04-0010-10
Etoposide	Millipore Sigma	Cat # E1383
Carbonyl cyanide 3-chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP)	Sigma Aldrich	Cat # C2759
Nocodazole	Sigma Aldrich	Cat # M1404
Neocarzinostatin	Sigma Aldrich	Cat # 9162

CRITICAL COMMERCIAL ASSAYS AND KITS		
PluriTest Assay	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# A38154
KaryoStat Assay	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# A38153
Mitochondrial DNA sequencing	Girihlet	
Whole Exome sequencing	Genewiz LLC	
CytoTune iPS 2.0 Sendai Reprogramming Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # A16517
STEMdiff Trilineage Differentiation Kit	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat# 05230
NeuroCult™ media	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 05752
Astrocyte medium	ScienCell	Cat # 1801
CellTiter Blue Viability Assay	Promega	Cat # G8081
DEPOSITED DATA		
Raw and analyzed sequencing data	Done by Creative Solutions (J.P.C, Vanderbilt University	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA626388 https://vandydata.github.io/Romero-Morales-Gama-Leigh-Syndrome-WES/
EXPERIMENTAL MODELS: CELL LINES		
AG16409 control fibroblasts	Coriell Institute	https://www.coriell.org/0/Sections/Search/Sample_Detail.aspx?Ref=AG16409&Product=CC
GM13411 (MT-ATP6/PDH) fibroblasts	Coriell Institute	https://www.coriell.org/0/Sections/Search/Sample_Detail.aspx?Ref=GM13411&Product=CC
GM03672 (PDH Mutant) fibroblasts	Coriell Institute	https://www.coriell.org/0/Sections/Search/Sample_Detail.aspx?Ref=GM03672&Product=CC
GM01503 (DLD Mutant) fibroblasts	Coriell Institute	https://www.coriell.org/0/Sections/Search/Sample_Detail.aspx?Ref=GM01503&Product=CC
SEQUENCE-BASED REAGENTS		
Primers for Trilineage assay		
POU5F1	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward GGGCTCTCCCATGCATTCAAAC Reverse CACCTTCCCTCCAACCAGTTGC
NANOG	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward TGGGATTTACAGGCGTGAGCCAC Reverse AAGCAAAGCCTCCCAATCCCAAAC
GAPDH	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 378404907c2 Forward ACAACTTTGGTATCGTGGAAGG Reverse GCCATCACGCCACAGTTTC
GPI	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward GTGTACCTTCTAGTCCCGCC Reverse GGTCAAGCTGAAGTGGTTGAAGC

Gene	Source	Primer	Sequence
GATA3	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward	TGGAGGAGGAATGCCAATGGG
		Reverse	GCCGGGTTAAACGAGCTGTTCTTG
NESTIN	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 38176299c1	
		Forward	CTGCTACCCTTGAGACACCTG
		Reverse	GGGCTCTGATCTCTGCATCTAC
PAX6	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 189083679c1	
		Forward	TGGGCAGGTATTACGAGACTG
		Reverse	ACTCCCGCTTATACTGGGCTA
CDX2	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward	CTGGAGCTGGAGAAGGAGTTTCAC
		Reverse	GACACTTCTCAGAGGACCTGGCTG
SOX17	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID:145275218c1	
		Forward	GTGGACCGCACGGAATTTG
		Reverse	GGAGATTCACACCGGAGTCA
TBXT	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward	ACAATGCCAGCCCACCTACCAG
		Reverse	CGTACTGGCTGTCCACGATGTCTG
NCAM	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID:316659209c1	
		Forward	GGGGTTGCTTGTCAGTAGC
		Reverse	TTCAGGTTCACCAATCGCTGT
Primers for Multipotency			
S100B	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 114520588c1	
		Forward	TGGCCCTCATCGACGTTTTC
		Reverse	ATGTTCAAAGAACTCGTGGCA
GFAP	Integrated DNA Technologies	Reference: (Marton et al., 2019)	
		Forward	GGCAAAAGCACCAAAGACGG
		Reverse	GGCGGCGTTCCATTTACAAT
O4 (FOXO4)	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 283436081c1	
		Forward	GGCTGCCGCGATCATAGAC
		Reverse	GGCTGGTTAGCGATCTCTGG
OLIG2	Integrated DNA Technologies	Reference: (Marton et al., 2019)	
		Forward	AAGGCAGTTGCTGTGGAAAC
		Reverse	GCAAACAGCTTAGCATTGCG
TUBB3	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 308235961c1	
		Forward	GGCCAAGGGTCACTACACG
		Reverse	GCAGTCGCAGTTTTCACACTC
MAP2	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 87578393c1	
		Forward	CTCAGCACCGCTAACAGAGG
		Reverse	CATTGGCGCTTCGGACAAG
Primers for Brain Organoids			
Reelin	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 223718142c2	
		Forward	ACATCTACAAGTGTTCAGGCATC
		Reverse	TGGTTACCAAACTGGTGGTCA
HOPX	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 21311737a1	
		Forward	GAGACCCAGGGTAGTGATTTGA
		Reverse	AAAAGTAATCGAAAGCCAAGCAC
CTIP2 (BCL11B)	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 12597634c2	
		Forward	TCCAGCTACATTTGCACAACA
		Reverse	GCTCCAGGTAGATGCGGAAG

TBR2 (EOMES)	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 22538469c2 Forward GTGCCCACGTCTACCTGTG Reverse CCTGCCCTGTTTCGTAATGAT
TBR1	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 22547231c1 Forward GCAGCAGCTACCCACATTCA Reverse AGGTTGTCAGTGGTCGAGATA
SOX2	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward CCATGCAGGTTGACACCGTTG Reverse TCGGCAGACTGATTCAAATAATACAG
SATB2	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 289547595c2 Forward GACAGTGGCCGACATGCTAC Reverse AGGCAAGTCTTCCAACTTTGAA
BRN2 (POU3F2)	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 380254475c1 Forward CGGCGGATCAAACTGGGATTT Reverse TTGCGCTGCGATCTTGTCTAT
CUX1	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 321400113c1 Forward GAAGAACCAAGCCGAAACCAT Reverse AGGCTCTGAACCTTATGCTCA
VIMENTIN	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 240849334c2 Forward AGTCCACTGAGTACCGGAGAC Reverse CATTTCACGCATCTGGCGTTC
SOX9	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 182765453c1 Forward AGCGAACGCACATCAAGAC Reverse CTGTAGGCGATCTGTTGGGG
ALDH1L1	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 21614512c3 Forward TCCAGACCTTCCGCTACTTTG Reverse CAGGGGATAGTTCCAGGGGAT
Housekeeping primers		
GAPDH	Integrated DNA Technologies	Harvard Primer Bank, ID: 378404907c2 Forward ACAACTTTGGTATCGTGGAAGG Reverse GCCATCACGCCACAGTTTC
GPI (F1/R1)	Integrated DNA Technologies	Forward GTGTACCTTCTAGTCCCGCC Reverse GGTCAAGCTGAAGTGGTTGAAGC
SOFTWARE AND ALGORITHMS		
Image Studio™ Lite	LI-COR	https://www.licor.com/bio/image-studio-lite/download
Fiji	Schindelin et al., 2012	https://imagej.net/Fiji
GraphPad Prism v8.1.2	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/
NIS-Elements	Nikon Instruments	https://www.microscope.healthcare.nikon.com/products/software/nis-elements
MetaboAnalyst 5.0	(Chong and Xia, 2018; Chong et al., 2018, 2019; Xia and Wishart, 2010, 2011a, 2011b; Xia et al., 2009)	https://www.metaboanalyst.ca/home.xhtml

SnpSift	(Cingolani et al., 2012)	http://snpeff.sourceforge.net/SnpSift.html
R 3.5.3	R Foundation	https://www.r-project.org/
BioCircos	(Cui et al., 2016)	https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/BioCircos/index.html
OTHER		
Mitotracker Red CMXRos	Fisher Scientific	Cat # M7512
Matrigel^{TM}	Corning	Cat # 354277
Gentle dissociation solution	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 07174
Aggrewell^{TM} 800 24-well plate	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 34815
AggreWell™ Rinsing Solution	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 07010
STEMdiff™ Cerebral Organoid Kit	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 08570
STEMdiff™ Cerebral Organoid Maturation Kit	STEMCELL Technologies	Cat # 08571

Lead Contact and Materials Availability

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to the Lead

Contact, Vivian Gama (vivian.gama@vanderbilt.edu).

Experimental Model and Subject Details

The Coriell cell line IDs were as follows: GM01503, GM03672, GM1341. Information about the

Leigh syndrome cell lines used in this study can be found in Supplementary Table1. Control skin

fibroblast cell line AG16409 was also obtained from Coriell Institute, Philadelphia, PA. The donor

was a 12-year-old apparently healthy Caucasian male. Cells were negative for Mycoplasma.

Fibroblasts were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium: Nutrient Mixture F-12

DMEM/F-12 (Gibco cat # 11330032) supplemented with 10% Fetal bovine serum (Sigma cat#

F2442) in 100mm cell culture plates (Eppendorf, cat # 0030702115) in a 37°C 5% CO_2 incubator.

Method Details

Whole Exome sequencing

Fibroblast cell pellets from each cell line (>1 million cells) were shipped on dry ice for whole-

genome exome sequencing to Genewiz, Plainfield, NJ. The Illumina HiSeq-X was used to perform

150nt paired-end sequencing.

Mitochondrial sequencing

Fibroblast cell pellets from each patient (>1 million cells) were shipped on dry ice for mitochondrial

sequencing to Girihlet Inc. Oakland, CA. The sequencing configuration used was 80bp single-end

sequencing, 20 million reads per sample.

hiPSC Generation and Characterization

Human fibroblasts were purchased from healthy control and patients (Coriell Institute,

Philadelphia, PA, USA). Induced pluripotent stem cells were derived from human fibroblasts using

Sendai virus-based reprogramming kit (CytoTune-iPS Sendai Reprogramming Kit; cat #. A13780-

01; Thermo Fisher), according to manufacturer's instructions. After 3-4 weeks, 2-3 colonies per

sample were transferred to fresh 6-well plates and were expanded and gardened for 3 passages

before freezing. All iPSC cell lines were maintained in E8 medium in plates coated with Matrigel

(Corning, cat # 354277) at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Culture medium was changed daily. Cells were

checked daily for differentiation and were passaged every 3-4 days using Gentle dissociation

solution (STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 07174). All experiments were performed under the

supervision of the Vanderbilt Institutional Human Pluripotent Cell Research Oversight (VIHPCRO)

Committee.

Analysis of Pluripotency

The pluripotency of each iPSC clone was determined using a microarray-based tool known as

PluriTest (Thermo Fisher; cat# A38154) as an alternative to the teratoma assay. Samples were

outsourced to Thermo Fisher for PluriTest and further analysis. Low passage iPSC cell pellets

(>1 million cells) were frozen and shipped on dry ice. Additionally, the expression of pluripotency

genes *POU5F1* and *NANOG* was assessed by qPCR.

Analysis of Chromosomal abnormalities

The presence of any chromosomal abnormalities in the newly generated iPSCs was determined

using a microarray-based tool known as KaryoStat (Thermo Fisher; cat# A38153) as an

alternative to chromosomal G-banding. Samples were outsourced to Thermo Fisher for KaryoStat

and further analysis. Low passage iPSC cell pellets (>1 million cells) were frozen and shipped on

dry ice to Thermo Fisher.

Trilineage differentiation

The STEMdiff Trilineage differentiation kit (STEMCELL Technologies, cat# 05230) was used to

functionally validate the ability of newly established iPSCs to differentiate into three germ layers,

as per the manufacturer's instructions. Single-cell suspensions of 2×10^6 cells/well, 5×10^5

cells/well, 2×10^6 cells/well were seeded for ectoderm, mesoderm, and endoderm, respectively, in

their corresponding medium at day 0 in 6 well plates. The cultures were maintained for 7 days, 5

days, and 5 days for ectoderm, mesoderm, and endoderm, respectively. The differentiation was

assessed by immunocytochemistry and qPCR.

NPC differentiation and multipotency characterization

For monolayer differentiation of the iPSCs into NPCs, cells were dissociated into single cells using

Gentle Cell Dissociation Reagent (STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 07174) for 8 minutes at 37°C.

Live cell counts were performed using Trypan blue (0.4%) staining (Invitrogen, cat # T10282)

using a Countess™ Automated Cell Counter. Cells were then seeded in a Matrigel-coated 6-well

plate (Eppendorf, cat # 0030720113) to 2.5×10^6 cells/well with dual SMAD inhibitor media

supplemented with Dorsomorphin (1µM) and SB431542 (10µM) (Chambers et al., 2009)

supplemented with ROCK inhibitor. Daily media changes were performed and passaging of the

cells was done every 7-9 days. Cells for NPC marker analysis were collected at the end of the

first 9 days of differentiation.

Mitochondrial imaging was performed by fixing the NPCs at 90% confluency and staining with

anti-mitochondria (Abcam, cat #ab92824, 1:200 dilution). Structured Illumination Microscopy

(SIM) was accomplished in 3D-SIM mode on a Nikon Instruments N-SIM, equipped with an Apo

TIRF 100x SR 1.49NA objective, DU-897 EMCCD camera (Andor), 405nm and 561nm lasers.

Images presented herein are maximum intensity projections after image stacks were first acquired

(5 phase shifts and 3 rotations of diffraction grating, 120nm/axial step via piezo) and subsequent

stack reconstruction in NIS-Elements software (Nikon Instruments, Inc.). Other than linear

intensity scaling, no further image processing was performed post-reconstruction.

For multipotency analysis, culture media was changed to NeuroCult™ media and maintained for

4 weeks. Samples were then fixed and stained for neuron and oligodendrocyte markers. Astrocyte

differentiation was performed by seeding on a Matrigel-coated plate $1.5x10^6$ cells/cm^2 (TCW et

al., 2017). The following day, the media was changed to Astrocyte medium (ScienCell, cat # 1801)

and maintained for 20 days. Full media changes were done every 2 days. Samples were then

fixed and stained for an astrocyte marker. Images were acquired with a Nikon Instruments Ti2

inverted fluorescence widefield microscope equipped with a Plan Apo Lambda 20X 0.75 NA

objective, DS-Qi2 camera (Nikon Instruments), and X-Cite 120LED light source (Excelitas). The

differentiation was also assessed by qPCR.

Neural rosette differentiation

To generate neural rosettes, we dissociated the cells into a single-cell suspension and seeded

$3.0x10^6$ cells/well of an Aggrewell™ 800 in dual SMAD inhibitor media. EBs were incubated at

37°C with 5% CO2, with minimal disruption during the first 48 hours. Media changes, 50-75% of

the total volume, were performed every 2 days. On Day 5, EBs were harvested according to the

manufacturer protocol and transferred to a 35mm imaging plate (Cellvis, cat # D35-14-1.5-N)

coated with Matrigel. Daily media changes were performed up to day 9 when cells were fixed with

100% ice-cold Methanol (Fisher Scientific, cat # A454-4). Images were acquired on a Nikon

Instruments Ti2 inverted fluorescence microscope, equipped with a Yokogawa X1 spinning disk

head, Andor DU-897 EMCCD, Plan Apo Lambda 0.75 NA 20X objective for representative figures,

and Plan Fluor 0.45 NA 10X objective for neural rosette quantification, piezo Z-stage, as well as

405-,488-,561-, and 647 -nm lasers. Acquisition and analysis were performed using NIS-

Elements. Neural rosette quantification was accomplished by scripting a segmentation-based

image analysis routine to detect, enumerate, and measure rosette lumen area based on the ZO-

1 signal. Briefly, max intensity projections of each field were generated, followed by GPU-based

denoising of the resulting image. Intensity-based thresholding was then applied based on criteria

established for ZO-1 signal segmentation using control images. Restrictions on resultant binaries

were implemented to throw out binaries intersecting image borders, morphometries deviating

severely from rosette associated geometries, as well as for those not meeting minimum size

requirements. This routine could be run in batch across many image stacks to increase the sample

size and robust nature of the data. Measured data was exported to Excel for further analysis.

Cerebral Organoids

Cerebral organoids were generated as described in (Romero-Morales et al., 2019) with some

modifications. Briefly, organoids were generated using the STEMdiff™ Cerebral Organoid Kit

(STEMCELL Technologies; Cat# 08571, 08570). iPSCs were dissociated into single cells using

Gentle Cell Dissociation Reagent (STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 07174) for 8 minutes at 37°C.

Homogeneous and reproducible EBs were generated by using a 24-well plate AggreWell™ 800

(STEMCELL Technologies, cat # 34815). On Day 7, high-quality EBs were embedded in Matrigel

(Corning, cat # 354277). On Day 10, the Matrigel coat was broken by vigorously pipetting up and

down and the healthy organoids were transferred to a 60mm low attachment culture plate

(Eppendorf, cat # 003070119). The plates were then moved to a 37°C incubator and to a Celltron

benchtop shaker for CO2 incubators (Infors USA, cat # I69222) set at 85rpm. Full media changes

were performed every 3–4 days. Transmitted-light images were acquired using an EVOS® XL

Core Imaging System. The software used for processing was ImageJ.

c. For qPCR, all organoids were pooled together for RNA extraction. Day 40 cerebral organoids

were utilized for metabolomics, 4 organoids per genotype were run and analyzed individually.

Organoid tissue preparation and Immunohistochemistry

Tissue preparation was performed as described in (Romero-Morales et al., 2019). Briefly,

organoids were fixed in 4% Paraformaldehyde in Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS), washed 3

times with PBS, and then incubated in 30% sucrose solution overnight at 4°C. Organoids were

embedded in 7.5% gelatin/10% sucrose solution (Sigma, catalog G1890-100G and S7903-250G)

and sectioned with a cryostat (Leica CM1950) at 15um thickness. For immunostaining, slides

were washed with PBS before permeabilization with 0.2% Triton-X in PBS for 1 hr. Tissues were

blocked with blocking medium consisting of 10% donkey serum in PBS with 0.1% Tween-20

(PBST) for 30 min. Incubation with primary and secondary antibodies was done using standard

methods. Confocal images of the organoids were acquired using the aforementioned spinning

disk microscope with Plan Fluor 10X 0.45 NA and Plan Apo Lambda 0.75 NA 20X objectives

(macrostructures) and Apo TIRF 1.49 NA 100X objective (mitochondria imaging). NIS-Elements

software was used for image acquisition and rendering.

RNA Extraction and Synthesis of cDNA

Cells cultured in 6 well plate, were collected after a wash with PBS, using 600µl Trizol reagent.

The samples were spun down at 12,000 g after the addition of 130µl of chloroform and incubated

at room temperature for 3 minutes. The aqueous phase of the sample was collected 200µl at a

time until reaching the edge of phase separation. RNA precipitation was done by incubating with

300µl of isopropanol for 25 minutes, followed by centrifugation at 12,000 g for 10 min at 4°C. The

RNA pellet was washed with ethanol, semi-dried, and resuspended in 30µl of DEPC water. After

quantification and adjusting the volume of all the samples to 1µg/µl, the samples were treated

with DNAse (New England Biolabs, cat # M0303). 10µl of this volume was used to generate cDNA

using the manufacturer's protocol (Thermofisher, cat#4368814).

For RNA isolation from brain organoids, the same protocol mentioned above was followed with

the volumes adjusted for 1mL of Trizol.

Quantitative RT PCR (RT-qPCR)

1ug of cDNA sample was used to run RT-qPCR for the primers mentioned in the table.

QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR machine, SYBR green master mix (Thermo Fisher, cat#4364346),

and manufacturer instructions were used to set up the assay.

Immunocytochemistry

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences, cat # 15710-S) in

PBS for 20 min at 4ºC. Blocking and permeabilization were done in 5% donkey serum (Jackson

ImmunoResearch Inc, cat # 017-000-121) + 0.3% Triton X-100 (Sigma Aldrich, cat # T9284) in

TBS for 1 hr at room temperature. After this, cells were treated with primary and secondary

antibodies using standard methods. Cells were mounted in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories, cat

H-1000) prior to imaging.

Western Blotting

Cultured cells were lysed in 1% Triton buffer containing PMSF (ThermoFisher Scientific, cat #

36978), PhosSTOP (Roche, cat # 4906837001), and protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, cat #

4693132001). Protein concentrations were determined using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) method

(Thermo Scientific, cat # 23227). Gel samples were prepared by mixing 30µg of protein with LDS

sample buffer (Life Technologies, cat # NP0007) and 2-Mercaptoethanol (BioRad, cat # 1610710)

and boiled at 95°C for 5 minutes. Samples were run on 4-20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX precast gels

(BioRad, cat # 4561096) and transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane

(BioRad, cat # 1620177) overnight at 4°C. Membranes were blocked in 5% milk in TBST prior to

primary antibody incubation. Antibodies used for Western blotting are described in the Key

Resource table.

Cell titer blue assay

After the 24-h exposure to individual treatments of 50µM etoposide, 80µM CCCP, 100ng/mL

nocodazole, and 5ng/mL neocarzinostatin, 20 µl of Cell Titer Blue reagent from Cell Titer Blue

assay (Promega, cat # G8081) was added to each well of 96 well plate. Background fluorescence

was calculated by adding 10% Triton in PBS to some wells. The fluorescence generated by the

reduction of resazurin to resorufin by live cells was measured using a Beckman coulter DTX 880

multimode plate reader (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California) (570/600 nm).

Metabolomics analysis

Day 40 brain organoids, at least 4 individual organoids per genotype, were collected rinsed with

ice-cold sterile 0.9% NaCl and flash-freeze in liquid nitrogen. For metabolite extraction, cells were

resuspended in 225uL of cold 80% HPLC grade methanol/20% HPLC grade water per $1x10^6$ cells.

After resuspension, cells were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and thawed rapidly in a 37°C water

bath 3 times. Next debris was removed by centrifugation at max speed in a tabletop

microcentrifuge at 4°C for 15 min. Metabolite-containing supernatant was transferred to a new

tube, dried, and resuspended in 50% acetonitrile while the pellet was used for protein

quantification. Samples were analyzed by Ultra-High-Performance Liquid Chromatography and

High-Resolution Mass Spectrometry and Tandem Mass Spectrometry (UHPLC-MS/MS).

Specifically, the system consisted of a Thermo Q-Exactive in line with an electrospray source and

an Ultimate3000 (Thermo) series HPLC consisting of a binary pump, degasser, and auto-sampler

outfitted with an Xbridge Amide column (Waters; dimensions of 4.6mm × 100mm and a 3.5μm

particle size). Mobile phase A contained 95% (vol/vol) water, 5% (vol/vol) acetonitrile, 10mM

ammonium hydroxide, 10mM ammonium acetate, pH = 9.0; and mobile phase B was 100%

Acetonitrile. The gradient was as follows: 0 min, 15% A; 2.5 min, 30% A; 7 min, 43% A; 16 min,

62% A; 16.1-18 min, 75% A; 18-25 min, 15% A with a flow rate of 400μL/min. The capillary of the

ESI source was set to 275°C, with sheath gas at 45 arbitrary units, auxiliary gas at 5 arbitrary

units, and the spray voltage at 4.0kV. In positive/negative polarity switching mode, an m/z scan

range from 70 to 850 was chosen, and MS1 data was collected at a resolution of 70,000. The

automatic gain control (AGC) target was set at $1x10^6$ and the maximum injection time was 200

ms. The top 5 precursor ions were subsequently fragmented, in a data-dependent manner, using

the higher energy collisional dissociation (HCD) cell set to 30% normalized collision energy in

MS2 at a resolution power of 17,500. Data acquisition and analysis were carried out by Xcalibur

4.1 software and Tracefinder 4.1 software, respectively (both from Thermo Fisher Scientific). The

peak area for each detected metabolite was normalized by the total ion current which was

determined by the integration of all of the recorded peaks within the acquisition window.

Normalized data was uploaded to MetaboAnalyst (https://www.metaboanalyst.ca/home.xhtml) for

analysis. Samples were normalized to control, and a one-way ANOVA was performed to compare

between the groups. Fisher's least significant difference method (Fisher's LSD) was performed

as a post-HOC comparison. Enrichment and pathway analysis was also performed using this

platform.

Bioinformatic Analysis

Bioinformatic analysis began with Variant Call Format (VCF) files provided by GENEWIZ (see

Whole Exome sequencing section above), both for SNP and indels. SnpSift version 4.3t

(Cingolani et al., 2012) was used to process and filter these files for downstream analysis. Details

extracted included gene symbol, Entrez gene ID and name, UniProt ID, Ensembl ID, chromosome

and position, reference variant, alternative variant, quality of the call, allele name, type of SNP,

impact of the SNP, and the genotype of each sample. From these filtered outputs, we generated

SNP/indel reports that allowed us to look at sample-specific SNPs and indels, as well as perform

aggregate-level functions for grouping and statistical analysis.

To generate the SNP/indel circular chromosome plots, the top 20 genes that had variants in all

three samples were plotted, ranked by frequency of variants per gene. The outside track is used

to visualize the chromosomes and marked gene locations. For each sample, we used a single

track to show the variant frequency as a circular scatter plot, with the height of the scatter points

representative of the variant quality metric, which is a Phred-scaled probability that a REF/ALT

polymorphism exists at the variant site. Similarly, for SNPs in the mitochondrial chromosome, we

used the same approach for visualization.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

No statistical methods were used to pre-determine sample sizes. All experiments were performed

with a minimum of 3 biological replicates unless specified. Statistical significance was determined

by unpaired Student's t-test or by one- or two-way ANOVA as appropriate for each experiment.

GraphPad Prism v8.1.2 was used for all statistical analysis and data visualization.

Error bars in all bar graphs represent the standard error of the mean or standard deviation as

described for each Figure, while scattered dot plots were represented with boxes (with median

and SD) and whiskers (minimum and maximum values).

For neural rosette experiments, ROI were randomly selected using the nuclear (DAPI) staining

channel. Images were processed with NIS Elements software with our Neural rosette lumen

identification Macro. Outliers were removed from the neural rosette area analysis as post-

processing quality control for the NIS Element macro using GraphPad Prism v8.1.2. ROUT

(Robust regression and Outlier removal) method was used with a False Discovery Rate of 1%.

For cerebral organoid experiments, 4 independent batches were generated. At time points day

30 and day 100, at least 5 organoids per cell line were collected. Immunofluorescence images of

at least 3 independent organoids were acquired per condition slide. Image processing was done

by NIS Elements and Fiji software. For the organoid quantification, images were processed with

NIS Elements using the General Analysis 3 tool. 3D thresholding macros were generated for each

set of slides and quantified by either bright spot count (nuclear staining) or mean intensity of the

ROI. For the day 30 mitochondria analysis, the ROUT (Robust regression and Outlier removal)

method was used with a False Discovery Rate of 1%.

Organoid efficiency evaluation was performed on day 10 using 4X transmitted-light images

acquired using an EVOS® XL microscope. Two observers were blinded to the cell line identifier

and counted the number of normal and defective (no epithelial buds or more than 75% of the area

is not developed) organoids. Criteria for normal and defective organoids was based on (Lancaster

and Knoblich, 2014).

Software and Data Availability

All raw data in FastQ format for whole-exome sequencing and mitochondrial sequencing have

been deposited to the Short Read Archive as BioProject PRJNA626388, available at

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA626388. All source code and documents are available

via https://vandydata.github.io/Romero-Morales-Gama-Leigh-Syndrome-WES/.

Author contributions

A.R.M. and V.G. designed experiments, interpret the data, and wrote the manuscript. A.R.M., G.L.R., A.R., and M.L.R. performed experiments and analyzed data with technical support of H.T. J.P.C. and L.H. analyzed the genomic data, generated the corresponding figures, and the associated method section. P.M.A provided pluripotency data analysis and technical support for data analysis. B.M generated the neural rosette analysis macro for NIS Elements. N.S.C., G.S.M., and R.P.C. provided technical support, led the experimental design and data analysis for metabolomics and its corresponding method section.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure 1

A

B

C

Figure 4

A

B

C

Control   PDH

α-TUBULIN
CDK5RAP2
Nuclei
ZO-1

DLD   MT-ATP6/PDH

α-TUBULIN
CDK5RAP2
Nuclei
ZO-1

D   **E**

A

PDH	MT-ATP6/PDH		DLD
Deoxyuridine	NADP	Tyrosine	Sorbitol/Galactitol/L-iditol/Manitol
CDP-choline	Phenylalanine	Galactosamine/glucosamine	D-galactonic acid
	Leucine/isoleucine	Pyruvic acid	Guanosine
	Acetylcholine	N-acetylglucosamine 1/6-phosphate	Fructose-1-phosphate
	Lysine	DOPET	Deoxyinosine
	Cystine	Cysteine-S-sulfate	
	Alanine	Choline	
	Phosphoenolpyruvate	L-cysteic acid	
	Cytidine	3- / 7-methylguanine	
	Valine	D-sedoheptulose-7-phosphate	
	Pyrroline hydroxycarboxylic acid	Methionine	
	Histidine	DOPEG	

B PDH

Figure 7

C DLD

D MT-ATP6

Supplemental Information

Supplemental Table 1, Related to Figure 1. Summary characteristics of the Leigh syndrome patient derived fibroblast cell lines including the patient phenotype at diagnosis, the mutations identified, and published literature using the cell line.

Supplemental Table 2, Related to Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 7. Dysregulated metabolites in day 40 LS derived cerebral organoids. LC-MS measured metabolite peak areas were normalized to the total ion count (TIC) by sample and fold change was determined by dividing each LS TIC normalized peak area by the control TIC normalized peak area for each metabolite. One way ANOVA was utilized to identified metabolites that were significantly dysregulated (p<0.05). Post-hoc comparison column using Fisher's least significant difference method (Fisher's LSD) shows the comparisons between different levels that are significant given the p value threshold. Results shown are averages for 3 independent runs with 4 individual organoids per phenotype per run. FDR: False Discovery Rate.

Supplemental Table 3, Related to Related to Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 7. Summary of the metabolic pathways analysis for metabolites enriched in day 40 PDH brain organoids. Statistical p values from enrichment analysis are adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing. Total: total number of compounds in the pathway. Hits: matched number from the uploaded data. Raw p: original p value calculated from the enrichment analysis. Holm p: p value adjusted by Holm-Bonferroni method. FDR p: adjusted p value using False Discovery Rate. Impact: pathway impact value calculated from pathway topology analysis.

Supplemental Table 4, Related to Related to Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 7. Summary of the metabolic pathways analysis for metabolites enriched in day 40 DLD brain organoids. Statistical p values from enrichment analysis are adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing. Total: total number of compounds in the pathway. Hits: matched number from the uploaded data. Raw

p: original p value calculated from the enrichment analysis. Holm p: p value adjusted by Holm-Bonferroni method. FDR p: adjusted p value using False Discovery Rate. Impact: pathway impact value calculated from pathway topology analysis.

Supplemental Table 5, Related to Related to Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 7. Summary of the metabolic pathways analysis for metabolites enriched in day 40 MT-ATP6/PDH brain organoids. Statistical p values from enrichment analysis are adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing. Total: total number of compounds in the pathway. Hits: matched number from the uploaded data. Raw p: original p value calculated from the enrichment analysis. Holm p: p value adjusted by Holm-Bonferroni method. FDR p: adjusted p value using False Discovery Rate. Impact: pathway impact value calculated from pathway topology analysis.

Supplemental Figure 1, Related to Figure 1. A-B. Venn diagram of the distribution of high, moderate and all impact annotations across samples for INDELs (A) and SNPs (B). Pie charts of the annotation distributions within samples. C. Top 15 genes with high impact SNP variants identified in the WES analysis. Number of overlapping SNPs per sample are denoted in as vertical bars, while the number of SNPs present in each phenotype are noted in the horizontal bars. *ZNF717*: Zinc finger protein 717, *HYDIN*: HYDIN axonemal central pair apparatus protein, *FRG2C*: FSHD region gene 2 family member C, *CDC27*: Cell division cycle 27, *TRBV10-1*: T cell receptor beta variable 10-1, *KIR2DL4*: Killer cell immunoglobulin like receptor, two Ig domains and long cytoplasmic tail 4, *ANKRD36C*: Ankyrin repeat domain 36C, *DUX4L6*: Double homeobox 4 like 6, *KIR3DL1*: Killer cell immunoglobulin like receptor, three Ig domains and long cytoplasmic tail 1, *DUX4L4*: Double homeobox 4 like 4 , *KIR2DL1*: Killer cell immunoglobulin like receptor, two Ig domains and long cytoplasmic tail 1, *KIR2DL3*: Killer cell immunoglobulin like receptor, two Ig domains and long cytoplasmic tail 3, *KRT18*: Keratin 18, *LDB3*: LIM domain binding 3, *MUC6*: Mucin 6.

Supplemental Figure 2, Related to Figure 2. Characterization of Leigh syndrome iPSCs. A. Schematic representation of the fibroblast reprogramming protocol. B-C. Pluripotency characterization of the LS iPSCs. Samples were analyzed against samples in a reference data set (The International Stem Cell Initiative, 2018) (B). The distribution of the samples compared with a non-iPSC control shows clustering of the samples in the high pluripotency and low novelty quadrant (C). D. qPCR for the pluripotency genes *POU5F1* and *NANOG (*p < 0.001*).* Fold change normalized to GPI and GAPDH as house-keeping genes. iPSC: induced pluripotent stem cells, NPC: neural progenitor cells, Multipot: neural multipotency differentiation.

Supplemental Figure 3, Related to Figure 3. Leigh syndrome derived NPCs are multipotent and do not present increased sensitivity to pharmacological stressors. A. Schematic of two-dimensional neural differentiation. B. Immunoblot of protein expression of neural markers PAX6,

NESTIN, and SOX2 (Left). Quantification of protein expression of neural markers PAX6, NESTIN and SOX2. Band density normalized to TUBULIN as a loading control (Right). C. Leigh syndrome NPCs do not show enhanced sensitivity towards different stressors. LS NPCs have similar cell viability compared to control when exposed to the DNA damaging agents etoposide and neocarzinostatin, the mitochondrial toxicant CCCP, and the microtubule destabilizer nocodazole.

Supplemental Figure 4. MT-ATP6/PDH brain organoids display defective differentiation at day 10. A. Schematic of the brain organoid generation protocol. B. Brightfield images (4X) of day 10 brain organoids. MT-ATP6/PDH shows disorganized cellular growth that do not resemble neuroepithelial buds. Scale bar: 300μm. C. Quantification of the defective organoids at day 10 by cell line. D. Brain organoid growth curves. LS derived brain organoids show reduction in size when grown for 100 days. * $p < 0.05$ for Control and PDH mutant; ‡ $p < 0.05$ for Control and DLD mutant, φ $p < 0.05$ for Control and MT-ATP6/PDH mutant.

Supplemental Figure 5. Leigh syndrome brain organoids show defects in SVZ/VZ and CP formation. A. qPCR quantification of the day 30 organoids. Neural progenitor cell populations were evaluated by the expression of *SOX2*, *PAX6* and *NESTIN*. Intermediate progenitor cells were identified with the marker *TBR2*. Marginal zone marker *REELIN*, cortical plate markers *TBR1* and *CTIP2*, and neuronal marker *TUBB3* were also evaluated. Fold change normalized to GPI and GAPDH as house-keeping genes. B. Schematic representation of the expected organization of the brain organoids on day 30. C-E. Representative immunostaining confocal images of day 30 brain organoids. MT-ATP6/PDH mutant presents severe disorganization of the SVZ/VZ markers PAX6 and TBR2, as well as the neural progenitor marker NESTIN (C). Cajal-Retzius neurons positive for REELIN were observed in the surface of the organoids (D). Cortical plate markers CTIP2 and TBR1 (D), as well as outer radial glia marker HOPX and the neuronal marker MAP2 (E). For E, nuclei in merge image correspond to the blue channel. Scale bar: 100μm. Images were generated from at least three different organoids per genotype from 3 independent

organoid batches. F. Quantification of day immunofluorescence staining for day 30 brain organoids. Outer radial glia marker HOPX was reduced PDH mutant (p<0.0001) and MT-ATP6/PDH mutant (p=0.0417) derived brain organoids. SVZ: subventricular zone, VZ: ventricular zone, CP: cortical plate, MZ: marginal zone

Supplemental Figure 6, Related to Figure 5. Leigh syndrome derived organoids show defects in mitochondrial morphology in the SVZ compartment. A. Representative confocal images of day 30 brain organoids showing mitochondrial morphology (TOM20). The red line divides the Sox2+ neural progenitor cells surrounding the lumen (L) from newly committed neurons. MT-ATP6/PDH mutant organoids show disorganization and fragmentation of the mitochondrial network compared to control. Scale bar: 10μm. B. Quantification of average mitochondrial volume, diameter, surface area, and major axis length are shown. Graphs represent mean ± SEM from at least three independent SVZs per phenotype from 3 independent organoid batches. Quantification was performed by 3D reconstruction of the mitochondrial network in interest. C. Representative super-resolution images of mitochondrial morphology (human anti-mitochondria) in LS and control NPCs. Scale bar: 5μm. D. Quantification of average mitochondrial number, volume, mitochondrial sphericity, and mitochondrial branching are shown, in which a spherical object would have a value of 1.0. Graphs represent mean ± SEM from at least three independent experiments (n > 20 cells per genotype).

Supplemental Figure 7, Related to Figure 7 and Supplemental Table 2. Day 40 LS organoids show changes in their metabolic profiles. Individual graph bars for the 43 metabolites identified as statistically dysregulated (p<0.05 and FDR of 0.01) in LS Organoids when compared to control. Statistical values can be found in Supplemental Table 2. A total of three batches of 40-day organoids per line (4 independent organoids per line per batch) were analyzed as described in methods.

A

B

Sample	Pluritest Result	Pluricor	NovelCor
Control	Pass	38.62112	1.61562
PDH	Pass	37.78063	1.547368
DLD	Pass	36.43402	1.626429
MT-ATP6/PDH	Pass	36.21865	1.509551
Non iPSC control	Fail	-48.9629	2.790166

C

D

A

B

C

A

B

C

D

A

Control | PDH

DLD | MT-ATP6/PDH

TOM20/**Nuclei**

B

Volume — <0.0001

Eq Diameter — <0.0001

Surface area — <0.0001

Major axis length — 0.0078, <0.0001

C

Control | PDH | DLD | MT-ATP6/PDH

Mitochondria/**Nuclei**

D

Count — p=0.0413

Volume

Sphericity — p=0.0381

Branch Object Count — p=0.0061, p=0.0388

Cell line	Phenotype	Mutation	References
GM03672	1 y/o female, Caucasian. Developmental regression; microcephalic; elevated blood lactic acid and pyruvate; only affected family member	PDH (E1) LOF Pyruvate dehydrogenase (79delC, Arg27fs)	Hinman et al. 1989; Huh et al. 1990; Johnson et al. 2019
GM01503	3y/o female, Caucasian. Lactic acidosis, psychomotor delay; sister also affected. Subnormal activation of pyruvate dehydrogenase complex in disrupted fibroblasts	DLD (E3) Dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase (A100G, Thr34Ala)	Cooper et al, 1969; Murphy JV, 1973; Sorbi& Blass, 1982; Hinman et al. 1989; Huh et al. 1990; Vo et al. 2007; Johnson et al. 2019
GM13411	8 month old male, Chinese. Lactic acidosis; developmental delay. Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy. Symmetric neural necrosis. Fibroblast: 90% heteroplasmy	MT-ATP6 (T8993G, Leu156Arg) PDH (E1) LOF Pyruvate dehydrogenase (79delC, Arg27fs)	Pastores et al. 1994; Iyer et al.2012; Ma et al. 2014; Galera-Monge et al. 2016; Zheng et al. 2016; Johnson et al. 2019

Metabolite	f.value	p.value	-LOG10(p)	FDR	Fisher's LSD
leucine / leucineiso	32.463	3.17E-11	10.499	7.00E-09	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
alanine	28.604	2.04E-10	9.6912	2.25E-08	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
valine	18.839	5.25E-08	7.2801	3.87E-06	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
kynurenine	17.496	1.27E-07	6.896	7.02E-06	DLD - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
thymine	13.799	1.77E-06	5.7523	7.82E-05	DLD - Control; Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
tyrosine	13.55	2.14E-06	5.6703	7.87E-05	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
glutamine	13.161	2.88E-06	5.5408	9.09E-05	Control - DLD; Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - DLD; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
pyruvic acid	12.95	3.39E-06	5.4697	9.37E-05	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
nicotinamide	12.723	4.05E-06	5.3925	9.95E-05	Control - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
deoxyuridine	12.392	5.26E-06	5.2794	0.00011615	PDH - Control; PDH - DLD; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
pyridoxine	11.7	9.16E-06	5.0381	0.00018405	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; Control - PDH; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
sorbitol / galactitol / L-iditol / manitol	11.289	1.28E-05	4.8919	0.00023619	DLD - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - PDH
acetylcholine	10.88	1.80E-05	4.7444	0.00030625	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
guanosine	10.42	2.66E-05	4.5755	0.00041955	DLD - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - PDH
hydroxyphenyllactic acid	10.302	2.94E-05	4.5318	0.00043306	DLD - Control; Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
phosphoenolpyruvate	9.3744	6.59E-05	4.1812	0.00091016	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
cystine	8.3901	0.00016027	3.7951	0.0020835	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
N-acetylaspartic acid	8.239	0.00018425	3.7346	0.0022622	Control - DLD; Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - DLD; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
lysine	7.7264	0.00029759	3.5264	0.0034614	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
methionine	6.9562	0.00062316	3.2054	0.0067872	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
galactosamine / glucosamine	6.921	0.00064493	3.1905	0.0067872	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
cytidine	6.8316	0.00070382	3.1525	0.0070702	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
histidine	6.6085	0.00087664	3.0572	0.0084224	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
L-cysteic acid	6.5655	0.00091465	3.0387	0.0084224	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
pyrroline hydroxycarboxylic acid	6.3042	0.0011864	2.9258	0.010293	Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - DLD; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
D-galactonic acid	6.2562	0.0012448	2.9049	0.010293	DLD - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - PDH
thymidine	6.2461	0.0012575	2.9005	0.010293	DLD - Control; PDH - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
choline	6.1696	0.0013579	2.8671	0.010718	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
F1P	6.0835	0.001481	2.8295	0.011286	DLD - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH
proline	5.6016	0.0024208	2.616	0.017833	DLD - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; PDH - Control
taurine	5.3747	0.0030613	2.5141	0.021824	DLD - Control; PDH - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
6-phosphogluconic acid	5.202	0.0036652	2.4359	0.025313	Control - DLD; Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; Control - PDH
NADP	5.1267	0.0039663	2.4016	0.026562	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
uric acid	4.9978	0.0045425	2.3427	0.027934	DLD - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
phenylalanine	4.9917	0.0045714	2.3399	0.027934	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
deoxyinosine	4.981	0.0046237	2.335	0.027934	DLD - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - PDH
D-sedoheptulose-7-phosphate	4.9702	0.0046767	2.3301	0.027934	Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
DOPET	4.9279	0.0048903	2.3107	0.028441	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
cysteine-S-sulfate	4.8891	0.0050957	2.2928	0.028876	MT-ATP6/PDH - Control; MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
3- / 7-methylguanine	4.8504	0.0053089	2.275	0.029331	Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
N-acetylglucosamine 1/6-phosphate	4.8231	0.0054652	2.2624	0.029459	Control - MT-ATP6/PDH; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH
DOPEG	4.4575	0.0080819	2.0925	0.042526	MT-ATP6/PDH - DLD; MT-ATP6/PDH - PDH
CDP-choline	4.3847	0.0087424	2.0584	0.044932	PDH - Control; DLD - MT-ATP6/PDH; PDH - MT-ATP6/PDH

Metabolite	Total	Expected	Hits	Raw p	-LOG10(p)	Holm adjust	FDR	Impact
Pyrimidine metabolism	39	0.20129	2	0.0157	1.8041	1	1	0.1172
Taurine and hypotaurine metaboli	8	0.04129	1	0.0406	1.391	1	1	0.4286
Vitamin B6 metabolism	9	0.046452	1	0.0456	1.3408	1	1	0.0784
Pentose phosphate pathway	22	0.11355	1	0.1083	0.96538	1	1	0.1196
Glycerophospholipid metabolism	36	0.18581	1	0.1717	0.76513	1	1	0.0193
Arginine and proline metabolism	38	0.19613	1	0.1805	0.74359	1	1	0.0778
Primary bile acid biosynthesis	46	0.23742	1	0.2146	0.66836	1	1	0.0076
Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis	48	0.24774	1	0.2229	0.65181	1	1	0

Metabolite	Total	Expected	Hits	Raw p	-LOG10(p)	Holm adjust	FDR	Impact
Purine metabolism	65	0.62903	4	0.00271	2.5662	0.22805	0.228	0.0059
Pyrimidine metabolism	39	0.37742	3	0.00544	2.2645	0.45142	0.228	0.0971
Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabo	28	0.27097	2	0.02858	1.5439	1	0.8	0.2003
D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolisr	6	0.058065	1	0.05677	1.2459	1	0.916	0
Nitrogen metabolism	6	0.058065	1	0.05677	1.2459	1	0.916	0
Taurine and hypotaurine metabolism	8	0.077419	1	0.07501	1.1249	1	0.916	0.4286
Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis	48	0.46452	2	0.07632	1.1174	1	0.916	0
Arginine biosynthesis	14	0.13548	1	0.12779	0.89352	1	1	0
Nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism	15	0.14516	1	0.1363	0.86549	1	1	0.1943
Fructose and mannose metabolism	20	0.19355	1	0.17774	0.75021	1	1	0.0304
Pentose phosphate pathway	22	0.2129	1	0.19379	0.71267	1	1	0.1196
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	32	0.30968	1	0.26974	0.56905	1	1	0
Arginine and proline metabolism	38	0.36774	1	0.31205	0.50578	1	1	0.0778
Tryptophan metabolism	41	0.39677	1	0.33233	0.47842	1	1	0.0942
Primary bile acid biosynthesis	46	0.44516	1	0.36491	0.43782	1	1	0.0076

Metabolite	Total	Expected	Hits	Raw p	-LOG10(p)	Holm adjust	FDR	Impact
Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis	48	0.71226	6	4.35E-05	4.3617	0.0036523	0.0036523	0
Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	28	0.41548	4	0.00059684	3.2241	0.049538	0.025067	0.20032
Cysteine and methionine metabolism	33	0.48968	3	0.011653	1.9336	0.95556	0.32629	0.10446
Arginine and proline metabolism	38	0.56387	3	0.017166	1.7653	1	0.33051	0.13058
Nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism	15	0.22258	2	0.019673	1.7061	1	0.33051	0.1943
Citrate cycle (TCA cycle)	20	0.29677	2	0.034034	1.4681	1	0.47648	0.04634
Pyruvate metabolism	22	0.32645	2	0.040643	1.391	1	0.48771	0.20684
Glycolysis / Gluconeogenesis	26	0.38581	2	0.055171	1.2583	1	0.54228	0.20594
Phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis	4	0.059355	1	0.058102	1.2358	1	0.54228	0.5
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	32	0.47484	2	0.079815	1.0979	1	0.55522	0
Glycine, serine and threonine metabolism	33	0.48968	2	0.084213	1.0746	1	0.55522	0
D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism	6	0.089032	1	0.085928	1.0659	1	0.55522	0
Nitrogen metabolism	6	0.089032	1	0.085928	1.0659	1	0.55522	0
Glycerophospholipid metabolism	36	0.53419	2	0.097841	1.0095	1	0.5848	0.02582
Pyrimidine metabolism	39	0.57871	2	0.11206	0.95053	1	0.5848	0.03727
Taurine and hypotaurine metabolism	8	0.11871	1	0.11297	0.94705	1	0.5848	0
Ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis	9	0.13355	1	0.1262	0.89895	1	0.5848	0
Tyrosine metabolism	42	0.62323	2	0.12681	0.89685	1	0.5848	0.13972
Phenylalanine metabolism	10	0.14839	1	0.13924	0.85624	1	0.5848	0
Biotin metabolism	10	0.14839	1	0.13924	0.85624	1	0.5848	0
Arginine biosynthesis	14	0.20774	1	0.18957	0.72223	1	0.75827	0
Purine metabolism	65	0.96452	2	0.25062	0.60098	1	0.9489	0
Selenocompound metabolism	20	0.29677	1	0.25982	0.58533	1	0.9489	0
Pentose phosphate pathway	22	0.32645	1	0.28191	0.54989	1	0.98669	0.11955
Lysine degradation	25	0.37097	1	0.31387	0.50324	1	1	0
Glutathione metabolism	28	0.41548	1	0.34447	0.46285	1	1	0.0018
Tryptophan metabolism	41	0.60839	1	0.46262	0.33477	1	1	0.09417