Mitochondrial fatty acid synthesis coordinates mitochondrial oxidative metabolism

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Abstract:

Cells harbor two systems for fatty acid synthesis, one in the cytoplasm (catalyzed by fatty

acid synthase, FASN) and one in the mitochondria (mtFAS). In contrast to FASN, mtFAS is

poorly characterized, especially in higher eukaryotes, with the major product(s), metabolic roles,

and cellular function(s) being essentially unknown. Here we show that hypomorphic mtFAS

mutants display a severe loss of electron transport chain (ETC) complexes and exhibit

compensatory metabolic activities including reductive carboxylation. This effect on ETC

complexes appears to be independent of protein lipoylation, the best characterized function of

mtFAS, as mutants lacking lipoylation have an intact ETC. Finally, mtFAS impairment blocks the

differentiation of skeletal myoblasts *in vitro*. Together, these data suggest that ETC activity in

mammals is profoundly controlled by mtFAS function, thereby connecting anabolic fatty acid

synthesis with the oxidation of carbon fuels.

Keywords:

Mitochondria, fatty acid synthesis, electron transport chain, reductive carboxylation, lipoylation,

TCA cycle, metabolism, respiration, OXPHOS, muscle

Abbreviations:

ACP – acyl carrier protein, ETC – electron transport chain, FAS – fatty acid synthesis, FASN –

fatty acid synthase, LYRM – leucine tyrosine arginine motif, mtFAS – mitochondrial fatty acid

synthesis, OGDH – oxoglutarate dehydrogenase, OXPHOS – oxidative phosphorylation, PAGE

– polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, PDH – pyruvate dehydrogenase, TCA – tricarboxylic acid

Introduction

Fatty acids play diverse cellular roles, including providing the hydrophobic tails of membrane phospholipids, energy storage in the form of triglycerides, and as cell signaling molecules. Aside from the import of exogenous fatty acids, mammalian cells use the well-known and well-studied cytoplasmic enzyme fatty acid synthase (FASN) to make palmitate, which is further modified to form the diverse array of cellular fatty acids (Smith, 1994). However, it is much less appreciated that mitochondria also harbor a spatially and genetically distinct fatty acid synthesis pathway (mtFAS) (reviewed in (Nowinski et al., 2018)). In contrast to FASN, which is a very large protein that contains several domains and encompasses all of the enzymatic activities necessary for FAS condensed in a single polypeptide chain, the mtFAS pathway is comprised of at least six enzymes all encoded by separate genes. These enzymes catalyze sequential steps to achieve one cycle of two-carbon addition to a growing acyl chain (Figure 1A). The nascent fatty acids are covalently attached to the mitochondrial acyl carrier protein (ACP), which acts as a soluble scaffold upon which the acyl chains are built. In each cycle of the pathway, malonyl-CoA is converted to malonyl-ACP, which then undergoes a condensation reaction with the growing fatty acyl chain on ACP, extending the chain by two carbons and releasing a CO_2 molecule. Thereafter, the remaining enzymes in the pathway must carry out a series of reduction and dehydration reactions to fully reduce the acyl chain to a saturated fatty acid, which is the substrate for further cycles of two-carbon addition. Among the several differences between MtFAS and cytoplasmic FAS, FASN exclusively produces palmitate, whereas mtFAS appears to have at least two major products.

Although the human genes responsible for each step in the mtFAS pathway have been identified, and their ability to complement the orthologous mutants in yeast has been demonstrated (Autio et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2009; Joshi et al., 2003; Miinalainen et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2003), few loss-of-function studies have examined the

consequences of mtFAS deficiency in mammalian systems. Inducible knockout of the

mitochondrial malonyl CoA-acyl carrier protein transacylase (*Mcat*) using a Cre driver that

expresses in most tissues in mice results in a severe phenotype characterized by weight loss,

reduced muscle strength, and shortened lifespan despite the persistence of residual MCAT

protein (Smith et al., 2012). Knockout of the mitochondrial 2-enoyl thioester reductase, *Mecr*, is

lethal in mice due to a placental defect (Nair et al., 2017), while the inducible knockout of *Mecr*

specifically in Purkinje cells leads to loss of this cell population and recapitulates many

phenotypes of MePaN syndrome, the human disease caused by *Mecr* mutation (Gorukmez et

al., 2019; Heimer et al., 2016; Nair et al., 2018). Similarly, *Mecr* knockdown has been shown to

inhibit the growth of hepatocellular carcinoma cells (Cai et al., 2019). While these detrimental

phenotypes are clear, the molecular consequences of mtFAS loss remain poorly understood.

MtFAS currently has one known product: an eight-carbon saturated fatty acid, octanoate,

that is subsequently converted to lipoic acid. This important cofactor is required for the catalytic

activity of a number of mitochondrial enzymes, most notably pyruvate dehydrogenase and α-

ketoglutarate dehydrogenase (Brody et al., 1997; Wada et al., 1997), but also branched chain

amino acid dehydrogenase, the H protein of the glycine cleavage system, and 2-oxoadipate

dehydrogenase (reviewed in (Solmonson and DeBerardinis, 2018)). This observation, made

more than 20 years ago, has guided mtFAS-focused research for the past two decades. Studies

have shown that loss of lipoic acid synthesis and/or failure to efficiently transfer lipoic acid to its

target proteins is lethal in mice (Ni et al., 2019; Yi and Maeda, 2005), and attributed other

mitochondrial changes as downstream of lipoic acid synthesis (Smith et al., 2012). However,

though the mouse studies described above have demonstrated striking phenotypes that result

from loss of mtFAS, they fail to distinguish between direct effects of loss of protein lipoylation

versus loss of other mtFAS function(s). Although lipoic acid unmistakably has important central

functions in mitochondrial metabolism, there is reason to be skeptical that the sole function of

mtFAS is the production of lipoic acid.

In addition to the eight-carbon precursor for lipoic acid, it is clear that mtFAS also produces

longer acyl chains of at least 14 carbons, yet the identity of these lipids and their cellular

functions are uncertain (Angerer et al., 2017; Witkowski et al., 2007). Perhaps more surprisingly,

these longer acyl chains appear to partially be maintained in attachment to ACP (Angerer et al.,

2017), further complicating the question of their cellular functions. We set out to systematically

examine the cellular functions of the mtFAS pathway by mutating genes that encode three

distinct steps in the pathway, *Mcat*, *Oxsm*, and *Mecr*. For comparison, we also engineered cells

with loss of *Lipt1*, the terminal enzyme in the production of lipoylated enzymes downstream of

mtFAS. We found that several phenotypes resulting from loss of the mtFAS pathway are not

related to lipoic acid, but must instead be due to loss of other products or functions of mtFAS. In

particular, we find that loss of mtFAS, but not lipoic acid synthesis, leads to a profound

impairment in the assembly of the mitochondrial electron transport chain machinery, with the

attendant consequences on metabolism and cell behaviors. Our data therefore suggest that the

mtFAS pathway acts as a key regulator of mitochondrial respiratory metabolism.

Results

Mitochondrial fatty acid synthesis is an essential pathway that does not contribute to

synthesis of cellular lipids

The enzymes of mtFAS are ubiquitously expressed in mammalian tissues, with the highest

expression in skeletal muscle and heart (Triepels et al., 1999). Therefore, we chose cultured

skeletal myoblasts as a model system in which to examine the role of this pathway. We

employed a CRISPR/Cas9-based strategy to mutate three genes encoding enzymes in the

mtFAS pathway, using two different guide RNA sequences per gene. We targeted *Mcat*,

encoding the malonyl-CoA ACP transacylase, *Oxsm*, encoding the beta-ketoacyl synthase that

condenses malonyl-ACP with the growing acyl chain, and *Mecr*, encoding the terminal

reductase in each cycle of two-carbon unit addition (Figure 1A). It is important to note that

because mtFAS is a cycle that requires all enzymes for each stepwise two-carbon addition, loss

of each individual enzyme blocks fatty acid synthesis at an early, albeit distinct step. *Mcat*

mutants should be unable to attach any carbon to ACP, whereas *Oxsm* mutants should be able

to produce malonyl-ACP, and *Mecr* mutants could at most build short four-carbon acyl chains.

We observed roughly 70-80% editing efficiency for all six of the guides utilized (based on T7E1

assays, data not shown). We found that transfection with Cas9 and sgRNAs targeting mtFAS

genes led to smaller colonies at one-week post-single cell sorting relative to control guides

(Figure supplement 1A). Many of the smallest clones stopped growing and/or did not survive

expansion. After screening more than 100 of the surviving single cell clones, we failed to identify

a single null mutant for any of the three genes targeted. This finding was not altogether

unexpected, given that at least one other knockdown study concluded that NDUFAB1, the

mammalian mitochondrial ACP, is essential in HEK293T cells (Feng et al., 2009). Indeed, The

Broad Institute's Depmap lists NDUFAB1 as a "common essential" gene, and the mtFAS genes

all display negative gene effects, indicating they are essential in at least some cell lines (Broad,

2020). Taken together, our results strongly support the conclusion that the mtFAS pathway is

essential in cultured skeletal myoblasts.

Although no complete null clones were generated, we were able to isolate several clonal cell

lines with markedly decreased abundance of MCAT, OXSM, and MECR. These clones also had

no detectable lipoylation of PDH and OGDH subunits (DLAT and DLST, respectively) in isolated

mitochondrial fractions (Figure 1B), and grew slowly relative to control clones (Figure

supplement 1B). MECR has been reported to have dual localization to the cytoplasm in addition

to mitochondria (Kim et al., 2014), so we performed sub-cellular fractionation to assess these

two MECR populations in our mutant cells. We observed an overall decrease in MECR

expression that was most pronounced in the mitochondrial compartment (Figure supplement

1C). We thus moved forward with the characterization of these presumably hypomorphic cell

lines.

As mentioned previously, the canonical function of mtFAS is the production of octanoate,

the eight-carbon precursor for lipoic acid synthesis. However, some have speculated that

mtFAS might also generate fatty acids that contribute to phospholipid synthesis. Seminal

studies found 3-hydroxymyristate as the predominant acyl modification on mitochondrial ACP in

fungi (Mikolajczyk and Brody, 1990; Schneider et al., 1997). A more recent effort to identify the

predominant lipid species found a variety of medium and long chain acyl species, raising the

possibility of multiple products in addition to octanoate (Angerer et al., 2017). Although mtFAS

mutant yeast display changes in steady-state lipids, the interpretation of this observation is

confounded by other phenotypes of these cells (Schneider et al., 1995). In the only study that

examines the role of mtFAS in lipid synthesis in mammals, transient knockdown of ACP did not

change the abundance of mitochondrial lipids; however, this does not exclude the possibility

that cytoplasmic FAS can compensate for loss of mtFAS (Clay et al., 2016).

We therefore set out to test whether mtFAS contributes to cellular phospholipid pools in the

presence and absence of the cytosolic fatty acid synthase, FASN. In wild type and *Oxsm* mutant

cell lines, we stably expressed hairpins targeting *FASN*, which encodes the cytoplasmic fatty

acid synthase, or a scrambled control (Figure 1C). We then fed the cells uniformly labeled ^{13}C-

glucose and observed labeling in cellular lipids to define the relative contributions of cytoplasmic

FAS and mtFAS to various cellular lipid pools. By monitoring accumulation of the m+2

isotopologue over time, we observed a dependence on FASN expression, but not mtFAS for the

synthesis of new phospholipids (shown are two representative PC species, Figure 1D & 1E).

Higher order isotopologues from additional cycles of elongation by fatty acid synthesis (e.g. m +

4, m + 6, m + 8, and so on) did not show labeling above background in this experiment.

Similarly, fatty acid methyl esther analysis (FAMES) showed an effect of *FASN* knockdown, but

not *Oxsm* mutation, on incorporation of U^{13}C-glucose into c16:0 and c18:0 lipids, which

confirmed that the m+2 labeling of phospholipids is likely in the fatty acid tails (Figure

supplement 1D). These experiments demonstrate that longer acyl chains synthesized by mtFAS

do not contribute to cellular fatty acid and phospholipid pools and likely perform some other

function.

Mutation of mtFAS results in a profound mitochondrial respiratory phenotype and loss of

ETC complexes

Given the known and hypothesized functions of mtFAS, we next assayed mitochondrial

function in the mtFAS mutant cells. We performed a standard Seahorse mitochondrial stress

test in high glucose media and found that the mtFAS mutant cells displayed a roughly 30-40%

decrease in basal respiration rate compared with controls (Figure 2A). More strikingly, the

mtFAS mutants exhibited a lack of spare respiratory capacity, with FCCP-stimulated uncoupled

respiration rates that were similar to the initially measured basal respiration (Figure 2A).

Interestingly, *Oxsm* and *Mecr* mutants exhibited an increased basal extracellular acidification

rate, suggesting that these cell lines compensate for decreased respiration via increased

glycolysis, whereas *Mcat* mutants do not (Figure supplement 2A). In agreement with the

observed decrease in cellular respiration, mtFAS mutants also show a markedly decreased

mitochondrial membrane potential, as measured by the ratio of MitoTracker Red to MitoTracker

Green fluorescence (Figure 2B,C and Figure supplement 2B).

Concurrent decreases in mitochondrial membrane potential and respiration can have

several causes ranging from altered substrate utilization and TCA cycle activity to decreased

expression and/or activity of electron transport chain (ETC) complexes. Therefore, we examined

OXPHOS complex expression and assembly via blue-native PAGE analysis. Strikingly, fully

assembled ETC complex I (CI), complex II (CII), and complex IV (CIV) were almost completely

absent in mtFAS mutant mitochondria (Figure 2D). Complex V was also decreased in

abundance, albeit to a lesser magnitude than that seen for CI, CII, and CIV. In contrast,

complex III (CIII) was relatively unaffected by loss of mtFAS, although CIII-containing

supercomplexes (SC) were absent, likely resulting from loss of CI and CIV. Furthermore, while

CIII abundance and assembly were relatively unaffected, its activity was reduced in each of the

mtFAS-deficient cells (Figure supplement 2C). Altogether, these results depict a severe

respiratory deficiency in mtFAS mutant cells, characterized by the striking loss of stably

assembled OXPHOS complexes in mtFAS mutant mitochondria. Notably, this contrasts sharply

with FASN, deletion of which does not affect fatty acid oxidation in muscle (Funai et al., 2013).

mtFAS supports ETC assembly via the post-translational stabilization of LYRM proteins

To further examine the mechanisms underlying loss of ETC complexes in mtFAS mutant

cells, we performed an unbiased quantitative proteomics experiment on duplicate whole cell

lysates from three mtFAS mutant clones (one *Oxsm* and two *Mecr* mutants) and two control

clones. Overall, there was no general trend for the steady-state abundance of mitochondrial

proteins, with 77 proteins being statistically more abundant and 34 proteins being decreased in

abundance (Figure 3A). We also observed that the majority of the proteins that comprise

OXPHOS complexes were likewise similar in abundance between control and mtFAS mutant

cells, including those in Complexes I, II and IV (Figure 3A,B), despite the decrease in

abundance of the completely assembled complexes by blue-native PAGE (Figure 2D).

However, a subset of eight OXPHOS proteins displayed significantly decreased abundance in

both *Oxsm* and *Mecr* mutant cell lines compared to controls, including NDUFA6, NDUFA12,

NDUFS4, NDUFS6, SDHB, COX5a, COX5b, and ATPIF1 (Figure 3A,B). To test whether these

changes were transcriptional, we performed RNAseq analysis on control and mtFAS mutant

cells. However, we found no significant changes in the abundance of transcripts encoding ETC

component proteins (Figure 3C and Figure supplement 3A-C), implying that the observed

decrease in abundance of these proteins is likely due to post-translational regulation.

The two proteins that were most decreased in abundance, NDUFA6 and SDHB (Figure

3D,E), also stood out because of their relationships with the leucine-tyrosine-arginine motif

(LYRM) protein family, a family of small proteins chiefly comprised of late-stage ETC assembly

factors (Angerer, 2015). In many cases, such as for Complex II, LYRM proteins (SDHAF1 and

SDHAF3) bind to and facilitate the insertion of a target protein (in this case SDHB) in the final

stage of ETC complex assembly (Ghezzi et al., 2009; Na et al., 2014). In other cases, such as

for Complex I, the LYRM proteins NDUFA6 and NDUFB9 are actually stable subunits of the fully

assembled complex (Fiedorczuk et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016). LYRM proteins are also found as

a stable component of the NFS-containing iron-sulfur cluster biogenesis (ISC) complex

(LYRM4) as well as in an assembly intermediate of the mitochondrial ribosome (AltMid51)

(Boniecki et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2017). High-throughput interactomics studies in mammalian

systems and targeted experiments in yeast have identified physical interactions between ACP

and several LYRM proteins (Floyd et al., 2016; Huttlin et al., 2015; Majmudar et al., 2019; Van

Vranken et al., 2018). Interestingly, the ACP protein found in complex with LYRM proteins

appears often to have maintained its acyl modification, which is generated through the

sequential actions of the mtFAS enzymes as described above (Angerer et al., 2014; Cory et al.,

2017; Runswick et al., 1991; Van Vranken et al., 2016). Studies have shown that the acyl chain

on ACP is intimately involved in these physical interactions, folding into the middle of the LYRM

proteins, but the role of ACP acylation in its varied functions is mostly untested (Angerer et al.,

2017; Boniecki et al., 2017; Cory et al., 2017; Fiedorczuk et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016).

In addition to the structurally verified ACP-LYRM interactions, three other LYRM family

members with known target proteins have been suggested to interact with ACP based on high-

throughput interactomics studies: SDHAF1 and SDHAF3, discussed above, and LYRM7, which

mediates the addition of UQCRFS1 in the last step of complex III assembly (Floyd et al., 2016;

Huttlin et al., 2015; Na et al., 2014; Sanchez et al., 2013). Thus, we hypothesized that the

decreased abundance of SDHB (Figure 3E) could be explained by interaction of ACP with

SDHAF1 and/or SDHAF3. To verify whether ACP in fact interacts with these additional LYRM

family members, we expressed epitope-tagged variants of ACP and each LYRM in cells and

confirmed their physical interaction via co-immunoprecipitation and immunoblotting (Figure

supplement 3D). Along with other published data (Van Vranken et al., 2018), the finding that

NDUFA6, a known LYRM protein, and SDHB, the target of two known LYRM proteins, exhibit

decreased abundance in mtFAS mutant cell lines supports the hypothesis that interaction with

an acylated ACP is required for the complex assembly functions of these LYRM proteins.

This finding prompted us to examine the abundance of other LYRM proteins and their

targets in the mtFAS mutant cell lines. Indeed, LYRM4 and its target NFS1 were also

significantly decreased in abundance in our whole cell proteomics dataset, implying that LYRM4

also requires acylated ACP for the stability and function of itself and NFS1 (Figure 3F,G).

Interestingly, NDUFB9, the other CI LYRM, and UQCRFS1, a subunit of CIII and the target of

LYRM7, were not significantly decreased in abundance in mtFAS mutant cells (Figure

supplement 3E,F), implying that either the interactions between ACP and these LYRM proteins

is not dependent on acylation and mtFAS, or that other compensatory mechanisms are at play.

We performed immunoblot analysis of UQCRFS1 and found that it was also decreased in

abundance similarly to other LYR targets, perhaps explaining the observed decrease in CIII

activity despite the partial maintenance of complex assembly (Figure 3H).

Finally, ACP has also been found to interact with an assembly intermediate of the

mitochondrial ribosome through a novel LYRM protein called altMiD51 and its target, MALSU1

(Brown et al., 2017). Brown et al. proposed that this interaction might negatively regulate

mitochondrial translation because MALSU1, altMiD51, and ACP bind the large mitochondrial

ribosomal subunit in a way that precludes small subunit binding, but the role of ACP acylation in

this interaction is unclear (Brown et al., 2017; Dibley et al., 2020; Rathore et al., 2018). Despite

this proposed role of ACP in mitochondrial translation, we found that the abundance of

mitochondrially encoded proteins was unchanged in the mtFAS mutant cell lines (Figure

supplement 3G). Importantly, this includes MTCO1 and MTCO2, two subunits of CIV, strongly

implying that the diminution of CIV in mutant cells does not result from loss of mitochondrial

translation. Interestingly, however, MALSU1 was significantly decreased in abundance (Figure

supplement 3H), which raises the possibility that MALSU1 downregulation might be a

compensatory adaptation that the cells make to avoid collapse of mitochondrial translation upon

loss of mtFAS.

Impairment of mtFAS induces reductive labeling of TCA cycle intermediates

The profound defects observed in mitochondrial respiration led us to examine mitochondrial

and cellular metabolism more comprehensively in our mtFAS mutants. We first performed

steady-state metabolomics analysis on control and mtFAS mutant cells. Purines were among

the most significantly depleted metabolites in mtFAS mutants, but we observed no change in

pyrimidines (Figure supplement 4A,B, all measured metabolites in Supplementary Table 1).

Purine depletion may be a result of decreased activity of another lipoylated protein – the glycine

cleavage H protein, which plays a role in purine biosynthesis (Fujiwara et al., 1991). mtFAS

mutants exhibited robust pyruvate accumulation, in agreement with the decreased lipoylation

and reduced activity of PDH, but only a minor and statistically insignificant increase in

intracellular lactate (Figure 4A and Figure supplement 4C). Similarly, no significant changes

were observed in the abundance of glutamine or glutamate (Figure supplement 4D,E). In

contrast, the TCA cycle intermediates citrate, fumarate, and malate all showed significantly

decreased abundance (Figure 4B-D). Aspartate, the synthesis of which requires the TCA cycle

metabolite oxaloacetate and an electron acceptor such as the ETC (Birsoy et al., 2015; Sullivan

et al., 2015), was strongly depleted in the mtFAS mutant cells (Figure 4E).

To further understand how TCA cycle metabolism is affected by impairment of mtFAS, we

fed the cells uniformly labelled ^{13}C-glutamine for 24 hours and assessed labeling of TCA cycle

intermediates to monitor glutamine contribution to TCA cycle flux (schematic in Figure 4F). This

experiment led to three observations that were particularly interesting. First, glutamate cycling in

the TCA cycle is decreased in the mtFAS mutant cells. We observed no differences in glutamine

uptake in mutant cells compared to controls (Figure supplement 4F). However, in pre-steady

state measurements we observed reduced labeling of glutamate in mtFAS mutants (Figure

supplement 4G). Furthermore, after 24 hours of labeling, the mtFAS-deficient cells showed

reduced fractional enrichments of the glutamate m+3 and m+1 isotopologues, which are

synthesized on subsequent turns of the TCA cycle (Figure 4G). In contrast, the m+5

isotopologue contributes a larger fraction of the total pool (Figure 4G). These data are

consistent with decreased processivity of the TCA cycle in cells lacking mtFAS.

Secondly, we observed that labeling of TCA cycle intermediates shows a clear distinction

between succinate and later metabolites. Like glutamate, succinate labeling is initially slow

(Figure supplement 4H). After 24 hours in ^{13}C-glutamine, however, similar to what we observe

for glutamate labeling, in control cells subsequent rounds of the TCA cycle cause m+2

succinate to accumulate. In mtFAS mutant cells, m+2 succinate labeling is reduced while m+4

accumulates, indicating its decreased cycling in the TCA cycle (Figure 4H). In contrast, m+4

labeling of fumarate, malate, and citrate are all markedly lower at short time points (Figure

supplement 4I-K), and remain low after 24 hours (Figures 4I-K), along with m+4 aspartate,

which is derived from m+4 citrate (Figure 4L). These data and the reduced abundances of

fumarate and malate support a block of the TCA cycle at the succinate dehydrogenase (SDH)

catalyzed step, and is in agreement with our data that demonstrate decreased steady state

SDHB stability and a near-complete loss of fully assembled Complex II (Figures 2D and 3H).

Finally, the third observation we made from these data is that mtFAS mutants displayed

significantly increased levels of m+5 citrate (Figure 4K), which is formed from the reductive

carboxylation of α-ketoglutarate, and is the canonical marker of reductive carboxylation.

Accordingly, we also saw significant increases in m+3 fumarate, malate, and aspartate (Figures

4I,J and L), which are formed from this pathway downstream of m+5 citrate (Mullen et al.,

2012). Previous analysis of the reductive pathway concluded, as we observed here, that cells

with ETC defects continue to produce succinate by the oxidative pathway, perhaps to generate

reducing equivalents to drive reductive carboxylation(Mullen et al., 2014). In summary, these

data support the conclusion that oxidative cycling of TCA cycle intermediates is decreased

overall, with a particular block at the SDH-catalyzed step. Furthermore, mtFAS mutants invoke

reductive carboxylation to produce citrate, and reductive labeling of downstream metabolites is

also increased. Reductive carboxylation is often seen in models of ETC inhibition or mutation

(Mullen et al., 2011) and further supports the model that mtFAS mutants display significant ETC

dysfunction.

Loss of ETC assembly and reductive carboxylation are not downstream of loss of protein

lipoylation.

The best-studied function of mtFAS is the biosynthesis of octanoate, the eight-carbon

precursor of lipoic acid, but it also produces longer acyl chains. This raises the possibility that

there are at least two independent mechanisms whereby mtFAS might act on mitochondrial

function: one via lipoic acid synthesis and another in which these longer acyl chains facilitate the

acyl-ACP dependent activation of LYRM proteins in ETC complex assembly. Therefore, we

decided to determine whether the metabolic phenotypes observed in mtFAS mutant cells are

also found in cells containing an intact mtFAS system, but lacking the ability to transfer lipoic

acid to target proteins, including the 2-ketoacid dehydrogenases (2KADHs). We created mutant

cell lines for *Lipt1*, the gene that encodes the terminal enzyme in protein lipoylation (Figure 5A).

In these mutants, synthesis of octanoate and longer acyl chains by mtFAS should be

unaffected, as Lipt1 catalyzes the terminal step in lipoic acid transfer to its target proteins

downstream of mtFAS (reviewed in (Solmonson and DeBerardinis, 2018)). Similar to mtFAS

mutants, *Lipt1* mutant cells displayed undetectable protein lipoylation (Figure 5A). The fact that

mtFAS mutants and *Lipt1* mutants both have drastically reduced protein lipoylation, below the

limit of detection via western blotting, allows us to attribute any phenotypes observed in mtFAS

mutants that are not phenocopied by *Lipt1* mutants to non-lipoic acid products of mtFAS.

Like mtFAS mutants, Lipt1 mutants display an analogous, albeit somewhat milder

respiratory phenotype (Figure 5B). However, in sharp contrast to the destabilization of ETC

complexes observed in mtFAS mutants, *Lipt1* mutants largely maintain an assembled ETC, with

similar levels of CI, CII, and SC as in control cells (Figure 5C). Notably, CV was more

destabilized in *Lipt1* mutants than in mtFAS mutants, suggesting a mtFAS-independent mode of

CV regulation by LIPT1 outside of lipoic acid (Figure 5C). Nevertheless, it appears that the

mtFAS-dependent regulation of CI and CII is essentially independent of lipoic acid synthesis

and therefore likely involves some other lipid product of mtFAS.

Finally, we wanted to determine which portions of the metabolic phenotypes resulting from

mtFAS loss are attributable to loss of protein lipoylation. We found that, in contrast to mtFAS

mutants, *Lipt1* mutants had normal abundance of TCA cycle metabolites (Figure 5D). U^{13}C-

glutamine flux experiments showed that LIPT1 loss caused a reduction in oxidative labeling and

at most a small increase in reductive labeling of fumarate and malate (Figure 4E), consistent

with its small effects on OCR and ETC assembly and with similar labeling effects in fibroblasts

from LIPT1-deficient patients (Ni et al., 2019). In all, our data strongly support a model in which

mtFAS-dependent acyl chains facilitate acyl-ACP/LYRM interactions to support the biosynthesis

of ETC complexes independent of lipoic acid.

Impairment of mtFAS impedes skeletal myoblast differentiation

C2C12 myoblasts are muscle precursor cells that remain proliferative in culture unless

stimulated to terminally differentiate. However, upon examination of the quantitative proteomics

experiment described above, we noticed that the largest group of proteins with decreased

abundance were all related to the terminal differentiation of muscle cells (Figure 6A,

Supplementary Table 2). Although some of these differences did not reach statistical

significance, likely due to the low abundance of these proteins in proliferative myoblast cultures,

we were nonetheless intrigued by this observation, which might imply a defect in myoblast

differentiation. Indeed, when treated with differentiation medium for up to seven days, mtFAS

mutant cell lines almost completely failed to differentiate, as monitored by the formation of

multinucleated myotubes (Figure 6B and Figure supplement 6A).

Muscle cell differentiation is controlled by a transcription factor cascade in which MyoD

activates the transcription of Myogenin (Myog), and Myog in turn activates the transcription of

many terminal differentiation genes, such as myosin heavy chain (MHC, encoded by *Myh1*)

(Zammit, 2017). To further explore the effect of mtFAS mutation on differentiation, we

immunoblotted for MyoD, Myog, and MHC in proliferative conditions (day −1) and at 1, 3, and 7

days of culture in differentiation medium. Although MyoD expression was largely unaffected in

mtFAS mutant cells, Myog induction appeared to be decreased or absent in mtFAS cells (Figure

6C). Similarly, the Myog target protein MHC was almost undetectable in mtFAS mutant cells

(Figure 6C). To further explore the mechanism underlying impairment of Myog induction and

muscle cell differentiation, we performed RNA-Seq analyses on cells grown at early time points

in differentiation (day −1, day 0, and day 1). The results confirmed no difference in *MyoD*

transcript expression, but showed both a delay and blunting of induction of the *Myog* transcript

as well as those of its target genes such as *Myh1* and myogenic differentiation genes generally

(Figure 6D,E and Figure supplement 5B-D). Another Myog target, the transcription factor Mef2c,

is also involved in the feed forward propagation of the myogenic program (Ji et al., 2009;

Rogerson et al., 2002). Interestingly, in two of the three mtFAS mutant clones assayed, *Mef2c*

transcripts were also strikingly down-regulated compared with control (Figure 6D,E), which

raises the possibility that it plays a particularly important role in the connection of mtFAS and

mitochondrial metabolism with myocyte differentiation.

Myog induction and myogenic differentiation requires extensive epigenetic remodeling (Asp

et al., 2011). Several cellular demethylases, including DNA demethylases and Jumonji histone

demethylases use alpha-ketoglutarate (αKG) as a methyl acceptor, and the αKG to succinate

ratio has been shown to affect demethylase activity (Pavlova and Thompson, 2016; Soloveychik

et al., 2016). Steady state metabolomics analysis of mtFAS mutant cell lines revealed a large

increase in αKG as well as in the αKG/succinate ratio (Figure 6F), suggesting a possible

mechanism for the impairment of *Myog* induction and myocyte differentiation.

Discussion

Here we have shown that three genes in the mtFAS pathway (*Mcat*, *Oxsm*, and *Mecr*) are

likely essential in cultured mammalian skeletal myoblasts. Hypomorphic mutants of these genes

lead to loss of detectable protein lipoylation, without affecting structural phospholipids such as

PC. Strikingly, mtFAS impairment results in a profound mitochondrial phenotype characterized

by loss of assembled ETC complexes I, II, and IV. Quantitative proteomics analysis revealed the

specific decreases in the abundance of two LYRM proteins, NDUFA6, a subunit of CI, and

LYRM4, a member of the ISC complex, along with its target protein, NFS1, and another LYRM

target, SDHB. Importantly, the LYRM proteins that coordinate SDHB in CII assembly, SDHAF1

and SDHAF3, were not identified in our proteomics dataset, however we infer that they are likely

also decreased in abundance in mtFAS mutant cells, giving rise to the observed effect on

SDHB. RNA-Seq analyses confirmed that the decreased abundance of these proteins is not a

result of transcriptional down-regulation, but likely reflects post-translational destabilization. Our

data together with that from multiple other eukaryotic model systems support a model in which

this effect is mediated through the physical interaction of acyl-ACP with LYRM proteins,

resulting in their acylation-dependent activation and functional assembly of ETC complexes

(Angerer et al., 2017; Van Vranken et al., 2018).

Like mtFAS mutants, *Lipt1* mutants lose any detectable protein lipoylation and have

impaired mitochondrial respiration. However, the acylation-dependent activation of LYRM

proteins and ETC complex assembly appears to require lipid products of mtFAS other than

lipoic acid, as although *Lipt1* mutants lose protein lipoylation, they maintain mitochondrial ETC

complexes I-IV. This finding is supported by studies in yeast that reached a similar conclusion

based upon a suppressor mutation which can rescue OXPHOS in the absence of lipoic acid

restoration (Kursu et al., 2013; Van Vranken et al., 2018). We also found that mtFAS mutants

and *Lipt1* mutants both undergo significantly decreased oxidative TCA cycling, however only

mtFAS mutants appear to display decreased abundance of TCA cycle intermediates and

robustly employ reductive carboxylation. We infer that these metabolic effects are likely

downstream of loss of ETC complex function, as has been previously reported in the literature

(Mullen et al., 2011). As both mtFAS mutants and *Lipt1* mutants have undetectable lipoic acid

levels, but only mtFAS mutants have impaired synthesis of longer acyl chains on ACP, these

data suggest that it is these longer acyl chains that are important for the interaction of acyl-ACP

and activation of LYRM proteins. These findings also have implications for how patients with

mutations in the lipoic acid pathway vs. the mtFAS pathway are treated.

It is important to note that some of the effects we observe on ETC assembly cannot be

explained by the known interactions between LYRMs and acyl-ACP. For example, it is unclear

how mtFAS impairment leads to the instability of Complex IV. One possibility is simply that CIV

is less stable outside of its association with respiratory supercomplexes, which are almost

completely absent in mtFAS mutant cells, likely as a result of Complex I loss. Alternatively,

COX5A and COX5B are among the most affected ETC subunits by proteomics, and could be

the targets of either a novel LYRM protein or another mtFAS-dependent mechanism. In

mammals, the LYRM family includes at least eleven proteins but as this motif is degenerate and

poorly defined, there are likely to be many that are still undiscovered. Of the currently annotated

LYRM proteins, at least three (LYRM1, LYRM2, and LYRM9) have no known molecular target,

although LYRM2 has recently been implicated in CI assembly in addition to NDUFA6 and

NDUFB9 (Dibley et al., 2020). The extent to which these novel LYRM proteins require ACP

acylation for function is also unknown.

Similarly, further study into the difference(s) between LYRMs that depend on ACP acylation

and those that do not is warranted. As mentioned above, we observed decreases in abundance

of two LYRM proteins, NDUFA9 and LYRM4, and can infer the destabilization of SDHAF1 and

SDHAF3 from the decreased abundance of SDHB. Conversely, we did not observe

destabilization of NDUFB9 and UQCRFS1 upon mtFAS mutation, implying that NDUFB9 and

LYRM7 are not dependent on ACP acylation for their stability and functions, although orthologs

in other eukaryotes seemed to be (Angerer et al., 2017; Van Vranken et al., 2018). However, it

is possible that this effect could result from residual mtFAS activity, as complete knockout of the

mtFAS pathway proved impossible in this system. Furthermore, at least in the case of

UQCRFS1 and LYRM7, the maintenance of CIII may have been clonally selected for as cells

require CIII function for quinone oxidation and dihydroorotate dehydrogenase activity to make

uridine (Khutornenko et al., 2014; Khutornenko et al., 2010). Therefore, cells that lack CIII are

auxotrophic for orotate or uridine, and lack of these metabolites in the culture medium may have

provided selective pressure for clones that employ some mechanism to escape the mtFAS-

dependent regulation of CIII. In fact, it is tempting to speculate that assembly of CIII may be an

essential function of mtFAS in mammalian cells.

Finally, the question of why cells have evolutionarily maintained a parallel pathway for lipid

synthesis in mitochondria remains interesting, especially given recent research demonstrating

the transfer of lipids between endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, and various other

organelles, implying that the answer cannot simply be compartmentalization. Acetyl-CoA is the

nearly universal fuel of mitochondrial oxidative metabolism, being the convergence point of the

catabolism of carbohydrates, fatty acids, ketones and some amino acids. Acetyl-CoA is also the

common substrate of mtFAS and the TCA cycle, where it is broken down to produce the

reduced NADH and $FADH_2$ that fuel the electron transport chain. Thus, the interaction of acyl-

ACP with the LYRM proteins to facilitate ETC assembly has high potential to be a regulatory

mechanism whereby acetyl-CoA regulates its own catabolism (Kastaniotis et al., 2004; Kursu et

al., 2013; Van Vranken et al., 2018). In other words, as acetyl-CoA is the substrate for mtFAS, it

is required for ACP acylation, which in turn is required for interaction with and activation of

LYRM proteins and ETC assembly. The assembled ETC catalyzes the oxidation of NADH and

$FADH_2$, which drives the TCA cycle and consumption of acetyl-CoA. Thus, when acetyl-CoA is

low, ACP acylation is diminished, ETC assembly is blunted, TCA cycling slows, and acetyl-CoA

consumption falls. This hypothesis is supported by the observation that yeast with defects in

mitochondrial pyruvate metabolism exhibit blunted ACP acylation and impaired ETC assembly

(Van Vranken et al., 2018). This elegant regulatory cycle provides cells with a potential

mechanism to monitor acetyl-CoA substrate availability and adjust ETC complex levels

accordingly, avoiding situations where the ETC sits idle in the absense of substrate, and

reducing the attendant deleterious consequences, such as the production of reactive oxygen

species. Similarly, it could potentially allow cells to ramp up oxidative capacity in settings of

excess mitochondrial acetyl-CoA.

Human mutations in genes encoding enzymes of the mtFAS pathway are rare, but continue

to be discovered (Gorukmez et al., 2019; Heimer et al., 2016; Li et al., 2020). Intriguingly,

patients with *Mecr* mutations exhibit muscle weakness and we show herein that mtFAS

mutation interferes with the normal differentiation of cultured myoblasts (Figure 6). The

implications of these studies for the broader population remain to be seen, however. For

example, many age-related human diseases exhibit evidence of decreased mitochondrial

respiration, including frequent defects in OXPHOS complex assembly, suggesting the

interesting possibility that alterations in mtFAS might contribute to mitochondrial impairments in

human disease. The role(s) of mtFAS in aging and more prevalent diseases that also involve

mitochondrial pathologies such as diabetes, heart disease, and cancer are essentially

unstudied. One recent publication suggested that lipoylation of PDH and expression of *Oxsm*

may be decreased in some tissues in diabetic mice (Gao et al., 2019). This raises the intriguing

prospect that augmenting mtFAS pathway function could "boost" or rescue mitochondrial

oxidative metabolism in settings where mitochondrial respiration is sub-optimal. Recent studies

have shown enhancement of mitochondrial metabolism upon ACP overexpression, although the

molecular mechanisms and dependence of these phenotypes on mtFAS are unclear (Hou et al.,

2019; Zhang et al., 2019). It is therefore important to thoroughly examine how this pathway

functions both in normal biology and in disease settings. Understanding the rate limiting steps in

the cycle, its mode of regulation, and the mechanisms through which it can be manipulated

could one day allow mtFAS to be harnessed therapeutically to build better mitochondria and

treat metabolic disease.

Materials and Methods

***Mcat*, *Oxsm*, and *Mecr* mutant cell lines**

C2C12 immortalized mouse skeletal myoblasts (ATCC CRL-1772) were grown in DMEM with

4.5 g/L glucose, glutamine, and sodium pyruvate (Corning, 10-013-CV) supplemented with 10%

FBS (Sigma, F0926) at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2. To generate

mtFAS knockout clones, two guides per gene were designed targeting exon 1 or exon 2 of the

mouse *Mcat*, *Oxsm*, and *Mecr* genes (see key resources table for sequences) and cloned in the

pLentiCRISPR v2 vector. Parental C2C12 cells were transfected with

pLentiCRISPRv2_sgmtFAS or empty vector and 48 hours later the cells were sorted based on

GFP signal and plated in a 96-well plate to obtain single cell colonies. Colony number and size

was assessed by brightfield microscopy. Clones were screened based on MCAT, OXSM, and

MECR protein levels. Three *Oxsm* and *Mecr* mutant clones, three control clones, and two *Mcat*

mutant clones were ultimately selected for further experiments. For growth assays,

Quantification of single cell clone number and colony size 7 days after single cell sort. Small

clones = <150 cells, Med = 150-500 cells, Large = >500 cells. B. Cells were plated at 100,000

cells/plate in 10 cm dishes and counted every 24 hours.

Stable FASN knockdown

HEK293T cells were transiently transfected with pLKO.1 shFASN or scramble shRNA control

along with the lentiviral packaging plasmids psPAX2 and pMD2.G using polyethylenimine. 48

hours after transfection, viral supernatant was collected, filtered through a 0.45 μm

polyethersulfone membrane, and stored at 4°C. 10 μg/mL Polybrene (EMD Millipore, TR-1003-

G) was added and a 1:1 mixture of viral supernatant and fresh growth medium (DMEM +

10%FBS) was applied directly to *Oxsm* mutant cells, along with wild type C2C12 controls, and

incubated for 16 hours at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. Viral media was

discarded and replaced with fresh growth media and cells were allowed to recover and expand

for 24 hours. After the recovery period, stably infected cells were selected with 2 μg/mL

puromycin for 1 week. Knockdown of FASN was confirmed via immunoblotting as described

below.

Lipt1 **mutant cell lines**

C2C12 myoblasts were grown in DMEM High Glucose (Sigma, D5796) supplemented with 10%

FBS (Gemini Bio-Products #100-106) and penicillin/streptomycin (HyClone) at 37°C in a

humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2. To establish LIPT1 mutant clones, 2 guides were

designed targeting the coding region of the mouse *Lipt1* gene and cloned in the px459 vector.

Parental C2C12 cells were transfected with px459_sgLIPT1 or empty vector and three days

later the cells were sorted based on GFP signal. GFP positive cells were subsequently plated to

obtain single cell colonies and screened based on LIPT1 protein levels and lipoylation of

pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH) and 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase (OGDH). Two *Lipt1* mutant

clones and one wild type clone were ultimately selected for further experiments.

Crude mitochondrial isolation

Cells were harvested by incubation with 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (Gibco, 25200-072), pelleted,

washed once with ice cold sterile PBS (Gibco, 10010-023), and frozen at -80°C. Upon thawing,

cells were resuspended in 1 mL CP-1 buffer (100mM KCl, 50mM Tris-HCl, 2mM EGTA, pH 7.4)

and mechanically lysed by 10 passes through a 27-gauge needle, and centrifuged at 700 x g to

pellet unlysed cells and debris. Supernatant was moved to a new tube and centrifuged at

10,000 x g to pellet crude mitochondrial fraction. Post-mitochondrial supernatant (PMS) was

saved for immunoblotting or discarded. Mitochondrial pellets were resuspended in a small

volume of CP-1 buffer equal to approximate pellet volume and used in assays described below.

SDS-PAGE and Immunoblotting

Whole cell lysates were prepared by scraping cells directly into Ripa buffer (50mM Tris-HCl, 1%

NP-40, 0.5% Na-Deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 150mM NaCl, 2mM EDTA) supplemented with

protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma Aldrich P8340, Roche Molecular 04906845001),

incubated on ice for 45 minutes with vortexing every 5 min, and then centrifuged at 16,000 x g

for 10 minutes at 4°C to remove insoluble material. Supernatant was saved as whole cell lysate

(WCL). WCL, PMS, and/or crude mitochondrial fractions were normalized for total protein

content via BCA Assay (Thermo Scientific 23225). Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE on

Tris-glycine gels (Invitrogen XP04205BOX) and transferred to nitrocellulose or PVDF

membranes. Immunoblotting was performed using the indicated primary antibodies which are

listed in the key resources table according to the manufacturers' recommendations, and

analyzed by Licor Odyssey.

Blue Native-PAGE

Crude mitochondrial fractions were isolated and normalized for total protein content as

described above. Blue Native (BN) PAGE was performed using the Invitrogen NativePAGE

system. 100 μg of mitochondria were pelleted at 10,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C and

resuspended in 1x pink lysis buffer (Invitrogen, BN20032). Digitonin (GoldBio D-180-2.5) was

added to a final concentration of 1% mass/volume. Samples were incubated on ice for 15

minutes, then spun for 20 minutes at 20,000 x g. 6 μL of NativePAGE sample buffer (Invitrogen,

BN20041) was added and 10 μL of sample was run on precast 3-12% NativePAGE gels

(Invitrogen, BN2011BX10) with NativePAGE anode buffer (Invitrogen, BN2001) and dark blue

cathode buffer (Invitrogen, BN2002) at 150 V for 1 hour then switched to light blue cathode

buffer (Invitrogen, BN2002) and run at 30 V overnight. Gels were subsequently transferred to

PVDF at 100 V, washed with methanol, and blotted with the indicated primary antibodies which

are listed in the key resources table according to the manufacturers' recommendations.

Secondary anti-mouse HRP antibody listed in the key resources table and SuperSignal West

Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Thermo, 34096) was used to visualize bands on film

(GeneMate, F-9024-8X10).

Flux lipidomics

Quadruplicate biological replicates of mtFAS mutant and control cells were plated at 35%

confluence in normal growth medium, then switched to labeling media (DMEM base (Corning,

17-207-CV), supplemented with 25 mM U^{13}C-glucose (Cambridge Isotopes, CLM-1396) and

4mM glutamine (Sigma G7513)) for 0, 0.25, 0.5, or 1 population doubling time. Samples were

harvested at 70% confluence via incubation with 0.25% trypsin (Gibco, 25200-072), and

pelleted at 300 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C.

Lipids were extracted from cell pellets in a randomized order using a solution of 225 μL

methanol (MeOH) containing internal standards (IS) (Avanti SPLASH LIPIDOMIX, 10 μL each /

sample) and 750 μL methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) (Matyash et al., 2008). The samples were

sonicated for 1 minute, rested on ice for 1 hour, briefly vortexed every 15 minutes then 188 μL

dd-H_2O was added to induce phase separation. All solutions were pre-chilled on ice. The

sample was then vortexed for 20 seconds, rested at room temperature for 10 minutes, and

centrifuged at 3,000 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C. The upper, organic phases were collected and

evaporated to dryness under vacuum. Lipid samples were reconstituted in 250 μL isopropyl

alcohol. Concurrently a process blank sample was brought forward as well as a pooled quality

control (QC) sample, prepared by taking equal volumes (~10 μL per sample) from each sample

after final resuspension. Lipid extracts were separated on a Waters Acquity UPLC CSH C18 1.7

μm 2.1 x 100 mm column maintained at 65 °C connected to an Agilent HiP 1290 Sampler,

Agilent 1290 Infinity pump and Agilent 6530 Accurate Mass Q-TOF dual AJS-ESI mass

spectrometer. For positive mode, the source gas temperature was set to 225 °C, with a drying

gas flow of 11 L/min, nebulizer pressure of 40 psig, sheath gas temp of 350 °C and sheath gas

flow of 11 L/min. VCap voltage was set at 3500 V, nozzle voltage 1000 V, fragmentor at 110 V,

skimmer at 85 V and octopole RF peak at 750 V. For negative mode, the source gas

temperature was set to 300 °C, with a drying gas flow of 11 L/min, a nebulizer pressure of 30

psig, sheath gas temp of 350 °C and sheath gas flow 11 L/min. VCap voltage was set at 3500

V, nozzle voltage 2000 V, fragmentor at 100 V, skimmer at 65 V and octopole RF peak at 750

V. Samples were analyzed in a randomized order in both positive and negative ionization

modes in separate experiments acquiring with the scan range *m/z* 100 – 1700. Mobile phase A

consists of ACN:H_2O (60:40 *v/v*) in 10 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% formic acid, and

mobile phase B consists of IPA:ACN:H_2O (90:9:1 *v/v*) in 10 mM ammonium formate and 0.1%

formic acid. The chromatography gradient for both positive and negative modes starts at 15%

mobile phase B then increases to 30% B over 2.4 minutes, it then increases to 48% B from 2.4

– 3.0 minutes, then increases to 82% B from 3 – 13.2 minutes, then increases to 99% B from

13.2 – 13.8 min where it was held until 16.7 minutes and then returned to the initial conditions

and equilibrated for 5 minutes. Flow was 0.4 mL/min throughout, injection volume was 3 µL for

positive and 10 µL negative mode. Tandem mass spectrometry was conducted using the same

LC gradient at collision energy of 25 V. QC samples (n=8) and blanks (n=4) were injected

throughout the sample queue and ensure the reliability of acquired data. Results from LC-MS

experiments were collected using Agilent Mass Hunter (MH) Workstation and analyzed using

the software packages MH Qual, MH Quant, and Lipid Annotator (Agilent Technologies, Inc.).

FAMES fluxomics

Lipid extracts were saponified by an addition of 1 mL of 5% HCl in MeOH. Samples were

vortexed for 15 seconds then placed into a sand bath heated at 80°C for 2 hours. The resulting

methanolysis reaction products were extracted with hexanes (3 X 1 mL) by vortexing for 15

seconds and then centrifuged for 4 minutes at 10,000 x g. Supernatants were transferred to new

tubes and gently dried under a nitrogen stream at room temperature. Samples were

resuspended in 200 µL EtOAc and transferred to GC-MS vials with insert. GC-MS analysis was

performed with an Agilent 5977b GC-MS HES-MSD and an Agilent 7693A automatic liquid

sampler. Samples were injected (1 µL) 10:1, with an inlet temperature of 250°C. The gas

chromatograph had an initial temperature of 67°C for one minute followed by a 50°C/min ramp

to 197°C, a second ramp of 10°C/minute up to 325°C began immediately with a hold time of 2

minutes. A 30-meter Agilent Zorbax DB-5MS with 10 m Duraguard capillary column was

employed for chromatographic separation. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a rate of 1

mL/minute. A gain of 5.0 was used for data acquisition. High Efficiency Source and quadrupole

temperatures were held at 275 °C and 190 °C, respectively.

Kinetics (Fluxomics) Calculation

Target compounds were fed to the emass software created by the Rockwood group (Rockwood

and Haimi, 2006). This software calculated masses and relative abundances for all isotopes

observed so if for one compound only M2 was observed and another went out to M5, emass

would calculate M0-M2 for compound 1 and M0-M5 for compound 2. Matrixes of the theoretical

isotopic abundances and the measured isotopic abundances were created. The multiplicative

inverse of each matrix was calculated and then the dot product of the theoretical inverse matrix

and the measured inverse matrix was calculated. The data from one row of the resulting matrix

(all rows are identical) is then sum normalized. In an unlabeled sample M0 will be measured as

1 and all other isotopes should be 0 (standard Metabolomic Flux Analysis).

Cytochrome bc_1 complex (CIII) and Citrate Synthase (CS) Activity Assays

CIII and CS activities were measured following the protocol published in (Spinazzi et al., 2012).

For CIII activity assay, 10 µg of purified mitochondria was mixed in 990 µL of the assay buffer

(25 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.5), 75 µM oxidized cytochrome c, 500 µM KCN, 100 µM

EDTA (pH 7.5), 0.025% (volume/volume) Tween-20). After the baseline reading at 550 nM for 2

min, the reaction was started by adding 10 µl of 10 mM decylubiquinol and the increasing

absorbance at 550 nm was measured for the next 3 min. In parallel CIII-independent

cytochrome c reduction was measured by adding antimycin A in a separate reaction mixture

and subtracted from the reaction without antimycin A. CIII activity was calculated and expressed

as nmole/min/mg. CS activity was measured by incubating 5 µg of purified mitochondria in 950

µL of the assay buffer (100 mM Tris (pH 8.0), 0.1% (volume/volume) Triton X-100, 100 µM

DTNB (5,5'-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid)), 300 µM Acetyl CoA). After reading the baseline

activity at 412 nm for 2min, the reaction was started by adding 50 µL of 10 mM oxaloacetic acid

(OA) and monitored the increase in the absorbance at 412 nm for 3 min. CS activity was

calculated by subtracting the baseline increase at 412 nm from the increase after addition of OA

and expressed as nmole/min/mg.

Seahorse Experiments

Seahorse experiments were performed on a Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer. Cells from n=2 clones

(Mcat mutants) or n=3 clones (Oxsm, Mecr mutants and controls) were plated in 8 wells of a 96-

well seahorse plate at a density of 6,000 cells/well in DMEM + 10% FBS. The morning of the

experiment, cells were washed 2x and then media was replaced with DMEM (Sigma D5030)

supplemented with 25mM glucose, 2mM glutamine and 1mM pyruvate, pH 7.4. A standard

mitochondrial stress test was performed using 1μM oligomycin, 3μM FCCP, and 0.5 μM

Rotenone + 0.5μM Antimycin A. Assay protocol was standard (3 measurements per phase,

acute injection followed by 3 min mixing, 0 min waiting, and 3 min measuring). Data were

normalized to total cellular protein per well (Thermo BCA Kit cat. 23225). Results were analyzed

in WAVE software and processed through the XF Mito Stress Test Report.

Mitochondrial membrane potential microscopy and quantitation

Cells were plated in chambered coverglass (Fisher, 155409) and allowed to adhere overnight.

Media was changed and replaced with fresh DMEM + 10% FBS containing 25 nM MitoTracker

Red CMXROS and 50 nM MitoTracker Green (Invitrogen M7512 and M7514). Cells were

incubated with dyes for 30 minutes at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO2, then washed

twice and replaced with fresh media, and imaged using a Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 fluorescence

microscope (Carl Zeiss) equipped with 40x oil-immersion objective. Digital fluorescence and

differential interference contrast (DIC) images were acquired using a monochrome digital

camera (AxioCam 506, Carl Zeiss). Images were exported from Zeiss Zen software package

and analyzed for fluorescence intensity using FiJi ImageJ. Images are representative of n≥38

images from two clones imaged in two independent experiments.

Co-immunoprecipitation of ACP-Flag and LYRM-V5 proteins

10cm plates of HEK293T cells were transiently transfected with 10 µg of total DNA using

Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, 11668019). DNA was made up of equal amounts of empty

vector, pcDNA3.1 hNDUFAB1-Flag, and pcDNA3.1 LYRM-V5 constructs alone or in

combination as indicated. 48 hours after transfection, cells were collected by incubation with

0.25% trypsin, washed, and pelleted at 300g. Crude mitochondria were isolated as described

above and protein content was assessed via BCA assay. 500 µg of crude isolated mitochondria

were pelleted and resuspended in 500 µL of XWA buffer (20 mM HEPES, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM

MgCl2, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 150 mM NaCl, 2.1 mg/mL NaF, 10.8 mg/mL β-

glycerophosphate, pH 7.4) then lysed by incubation in 0.7% digitonin for 30 minutes rotating at

4°C. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 20,000g for 20 minutes, and

supernatant was incubated with 20 µL anti-Flag agarose beads (Sigma, F2426) for 2 hours

rotating at 4°C. Beads were washed 3 times with XWA buffer and samples were eluted in 40 µL

of 1x Lamelli buffer (10% glycerol, 50 mM Tris HCl, pH 6.8, 1% SDS) for 10 minutes at 65°C.

Samples were loaded on Tris-Glycine gels, separated by SDS-PAGE, and immunoblotted for

Flag and V5 as described above. Results are representative of three separate experiments.

Quantitative proteomics

Duplicate biological samples of two control clones, two *Oxsm* mutant clones, and two *Mecr*

mutant clones were grown in standard proliferative conditions to 70% confluence and harvested

by incubation with 0.25% trypsin, pelleted at 300 g, washed with sterile PBS, flash frozen in

liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. As only eleven samples could be run with the SL-TMT

protocol, one *Oxsm* clone had only one sample analyzed and was ultimately omitted from the

results.

Protein extraction, digestion, and TMT labeling. Samples were processed using the SL-TMT

protocol as described previously (Navarrete-Perea et al., 2018). Specifically, mitochondrial

pellets were resuspended in 200 µL of lysis buffer (8M urea, 200mM EPPS pH 8.5 plus 1X

cOmplete protease and phosphatase inhibitor) and syringe lysed (10 times with 21-gauge

needle). Following a BCA assay to estimate protein concentration, all lysates were reduced (20

min with 5mM TCEP at room temperature), alkylated (20 min with 10mM iodoacetamide, at

room temperature in the dark), and quenched (20 min with 10mM DTT, at room temperature in

the dark). Proteins were precipitated by chloroform methanol precipitation, as described

previously (Paulo and Gygi, 2015). Precipitated proteins were resuspended in 200mM EPPS pH

8.5 (~1mg/ml) and digested first with LysC (Wako) for 3 hours at 37°C shaking on a vortexer

(speed =50%) followed by a 6 hour trypsin digestion at 37°C (sequencing grade, Pierce). Both

enzymes were added in the presence of beads and at a 1:100 protease-to-peptide ratio.

Following digestion, the samples were centrifuged as above and held to the magnet for 2 min.

Digested peptides were simply transferred into a new tube. The beads were then washed with

50 µL of 0.2M EPPS pH8.5, which was combined with the initial elution. We added a final

volume of 30% acetonitrile to the eluted peptides and labelled the 50 µg of peptide with 100 µg

of TMT directly into the digestion mixture. To check mixing ratios, 2 µg of each sample were

pooled, desalted, and analyzed by mass spectrometry. Using normalization factors calculated

from this "label check," samples were mixed 1:1 across all 11 channels and desalted using a 50

mg Sep-Pak solid phase extraction column. The approximately 300 µg of peptide were

fractionated with basic pH reversed-phase (BPRP) HPLC, collected in a 96-well plate and

combined down to 24 fractions prior to desalting and subsequent LC-MS/MS processing (Paulo,

2014; Paulo and Gygi, 2017).

Mass spectrometry analysis. Mass spectrometric data were collected on an Orbitrap Fusion

mass spectrometer coupled to a Proxeon NanoLC-1000 UHPLC. The 100 µm capillary column

was packed with 35 cm of Accucore 150 resin (2.6 µm, 150Å; ThermoFisher Scientific). The

SPS-MS3 method use used to reduce ion interferences that may result in ratio compression

(Gygi et al., 2019; Paulo et al., 2016). Peptides in each fraction were separated using a 150 min

gradient from ~5 to 35% acetonitrile. The scan sequence began with an MS1 spectrum

(Orbitrap analysis, resolution 120,000, 350−1400 Th, automatic gain control (AGC) target 5E5,

maximum injection time 100 ms). The top ten precursors were then selected for MS2/MS3

analysis. MS2 analysis consisted of collision-induced dissociation (CID), quadrupole ion trap

analysis, automatic gain control (AGC) 2E4, NCE (normalized collision energy) 35, q-value 0.25,

maximum injection time 120 ms), and isolation window at 0.7. Following acquisition of each

MS2 spectrum, we collected an MS3 spectrum in which multiple MS2 fragment ions are

captured in the MS3 precursor population using isolation waveforms with multiple frequency

notches. MS3 precursors were fragmented by HCD and analyzed using the Orbitrap (NCE 65,

AGC 1.5E5, maximum injection time 150 ms, resolution was 50,000 at 400 Th). Spectra were

converted to mzXML via MSconvert (Chambers et al., 2012). Database searching included all

entries from the Mus musculus Database (UniProt; August 2017). The database was

concatenated with one composed of all protein sequences for that database in the reversed

order. Searches were performed using a 50-ppm precursor ion tolerance for total protein level

profiling. The product ion tolerance was set to 0.9 Da. These wide mass tolerance windows

were chosen to maximize sensitivity in conjunction with SEQUEST searches and linear

discriminant analysis (Beausoleil et al., 2006; Huttlin et al., 2010). TMT tags on lysine residues

and peptide N termini (+229.163 Da) and carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues (+57.021

Da) were set as static modifications, while oxidation of methionine residues (+15.995 Da) was

set as a variable modification. Peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) were adjusted to a 1% false

discovery rate (FDR) (Elias and Gygi, 2007, 2010). PSM filtering was performed using a linear

discriminant analysis, as described previously (Huttlin et al., 2010) and then assembled further

to a final protein-level FDR of 1% (Elias and Gygi, 2007). Proteins were quantified by summing

reporter ion counts across all matching PSMs, also as described previously (McAlister et al.,

2012). Reporter ion intensities were adjusted to correct for the isotopic impurities of the different

TMT reagents according to manufacturer specifications. The signal-to-noise (S/N)

measurements of peptides assigned to each protein were summed and these values were

normalized so that the sum of the signal for all proteins in each channel was equivalent to

account for equal protein loading. Finally, each protein abundance measurement was scaled,

such that the summed signal-to-noise for that protein across all channels equals 100, thereby

generating a relative abundance (RA) measurement.

Technical replicates from the geometric mean-normalized proteomics data were averaged.

Heatmaps were generated by calculating the average value for the GFP replicates and dividing

each replicate (experimental and control) by this value for each protein. A list of ETC component

proteins was passed into the xpressplot.heatmap() function from XPRESSplot (Berg et al.,

2020; Waskom, 2018) and further formatting was performed using Matplotlib (Hunter, 2007).

The volcano plot for the Mecr vs GFP proteomics data was generating by providing lists of

Mitocarta (Calvo et al., 2016; Pagliarini et al., 2008) and ETC proteins and the technical-

replicate, geometric-normalized dataframe for both GFP and Mecr replicates to the

xpressplot.volcano() function (Berg et al., 2020).

***Lipt1* KO Seahorse Experiments**

Seahorse experiments were performed on a Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer. Cells were plated at a

density of 10,000 cells/well in DMEM + 10% FBS. The morning of the experiment, cells were

washed 2x and then media was replaced with Seahorse media: DMEM (Sigma D5030)

supplemented with 10mM glucose, 2mM glutamine and 1mM pyruvate, pH 7.4. A standard

mitochondrial stress test was performed using 2μM oligomycin, 1μM Carbonyl cyanide m-

chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP), and then 1μM Antimycin A. Assay protocol was standard (3

measurements per phase, acute injection followed by 3 min mixing, 0 min waiting, and 3 min

measuring). Data were normalized to 10,000 cells/well. Results were analyzed in WAVE

software and processed through the XF Mito Stress Test Report.

Glutamine Tracing Experiments

C2C12 cells were plated in a 60mm plate at a density of 100,000 cells/plate. The following day,

media was changed to tracing media: DMEM (Sigma 5030) supplemented with 2.5mM glucose,

4mM [U-^{13}C]glutamine, 1mM pyruvate, and 5% dialyzed FBS. Cells were harvested 24 hours

later by washing once with ice-cold normal saline and then quenched with 800 µL 80:20

methanol:water. Methanol lysates were then subjected to three rapid freeze-thaw cycle and then

spun at 16,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The supernatants, with 1µL d27-myristic acid added

(Sigma 68698) (GCMS only) as an internal control, were evaporated using a SpeedVac

concentrator.

Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (LCMS)

A replicate plate was set up during tracing experiments to assess relative metabolite

concentrations using LCMS and harvested as described above. Dried metabolites were

reconstituted in 100 µl of 0.03% formic acid in analytical-grade water, vortexed and centrifuged

to remove insoluble material. The supernatant was collected and subjected to targeted

metabolomics analysis as described on an AB SCIEX QTRAP 5500 liquid chromatography/triple

quadrupole mass spectrometer (Applied Biosystems SCIEX) (Kim et al., 2000). The injection

volume was 20 µl. Chromatogram review and peak area integration were performed using

MultiQuant (version 2.1, Applied Biosystems SCIEX). The peak area for each detected

metabolite was normalized against the total ion count of that sample.

Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GCMS) derivatization

The supernatants, with 1µL d27-myristic acid added as an internal control, were evaporated

using a speed vac. Dried metabolites were re-suspended in 30µL anhydrous pyridine with

10mg/mL methoxyamine hydrochloride and incubated at room temperature overnight. The

following morning, the samples were cooked at 70°C for 10-15min and then centrifuged at

16,000 x g for 10min. The supernatant was transferred to a pre-prepared GC/MS autoinjector

vial containing 70µL N-(tert-butyldimethylsilyl)-N-methyltrifluoroacetamide (MTBSTFA)

derivatization reagent. The samples were incubated at 70°C for 1 hour following which aliquots

of 1µL were injected for analysis. Samples were analyzed using either an Agilent 6890 or 7890

gas chromatograph coupled to an Agilent 5973N or 5975C Mass Selective Detector,

respectively. The observed distributions of mass isotopologues were corrected for natural

abundance.

C2C12 differentiation experiments

MtFAS mutants and controls were seeded in 10 cm plates and grown in DMEM (Corning, 10-

013-CV) supplemented with 10% FBS (Sigma, F0926) to 70% confluency (Day -1). The next

day at 95% confluency cells were switched to DMEM supplemented with 2% horse serum

(Thermo, 16050122)(Day 0). For the next 7 days, media was changed and replaced with fresh

DMEM + 2% horse serum every 24 hours. Samples were imaged via brightfield microscopy or

harvested for immunoblotting or RNAseq experiments at the indicated time points after

switching to differentiation medium.

RNA-Seq

RNA isolation and quality assessment: Four replicates of each genotype (GFP, *Mcat*, *Oxsm*,

and *Mecr* mutants) were grown and harvested at Day -1, Day 0, and Day 1 of the differentiation

time course as described above —with the exception of GFP Day 0, which only had three

replicates. Total RNA was extracted from one confluent 10 cm dish per replicate using TRI

Reagent (Zymo Research, R2050-1-200) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, cells

were homogenized in 1 ml of TRI reagent for 5 mins. After addition of 0.2 mL of chloroform, the

homogenate was shaken vigorously for 15 s, allowed to stand for 15 mins at RT and centrifuged

at 12,000xg for 15 min at 4°C. The aqueous phase was mixed with 0.5 mL of 2-propanol and 10

µg of glycogen (Thermo Scientific, R0561) and RNA was precipitated overnight in -20°C. The

precipitated RNA was pelleted at 15,000xg for 30 min at 4°C, washed with 1 mL of 75% EtOH

and dissolved in nuclease-free water. RNA quantity and purity were assessed using the

NanoDrop One spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher) and RNA integrity was assessed using the

Agilent RNA ScreenTape Assay.

Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep (RIN 8-10) with UDI: Intact poly(A) RNA was

purified from total RNA samples (100-500 ng) with oligo(dT) magnetic beads and stranded

mRNA sequencing libraries were prepared as described using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded

mRNA Library Prep kit (20020595) and TruSeq RNA UD Indexes (20022371). Purified libraries

were qualified on an Agilent Technologies 2200 TapeStation using a D1000 ScreenTape assay

(cat# 5067-5582 and 5067-5583). The molarity of adapter-modified molecules was defined by

quantitative PCR using the Kapa Biosystems Kapa Library Quant Kit (cat#KK4824). Individual

libraries were normalized to 1.30 nM in preparation for Illumina sequence analysis. NovaSeq 2 x

50 bp Sequencing: Sequencing libraries (1.3 nM) were chemically denatured and applied to an

Illumina NovaSeq flow cell using the NovaSeq XP chemistry workflow (20021664). Following

transfer of the flowcell to an Illumina NovaSeq instrument, a 2 x 51 cycle paired end sequence

run was performed using a NovaSeq S1 reagent Kit (20027465). Data Analysis: Reads were

trimmed of adaptor sequence using cutadapt (v.2.8)(Martin, 2011). Trimmed reads were aligned

to the mouse genome (mm10) using STAR (v.2.5)(Dobin et al., 2013) with the parameters '--

outFilterMismatchNoverLmax 0.2 --sjdbOverhang 49 --outReadsUnmapped Fastx --outSAMtype

BAM SortedByCoordinate --quantMode GeneCounts' and with '–sjdbGTFfile' supplied with

transcript annotations from Ensembl (Mus_musculus.GRCm38.99.chr_patch_hapl_scaff.gtf).

Three samples were censored from further analyses (one replicate each of GFP day minus one,

Mcat day zero, and Oxsm day one) due to outlier status relative to all remaining samples.

Differential expression was determined using DESeq2 (v.1.26.0)(Love et al., 2014). Count data

were shrunk using the 'apeglm' option of the DESeq2 function 'lfcShrink'.

Quantification and Statistical Analyses

For flux lipidomics and metabolomics, mitoTracker quantification, and Seahorse cellular

respiration, statistically significant differences were determined using GraphPad Prism 8. Data

were analyzed by one-way or two-way Anova as appropriate followed by Dunnett's multiple

comparison test (when compared only to control) or Tukey's multiple comparison test (when

comparing all groups, such as for lipid isotopologue analysis). A p-value of 0.05 was considered

to be statistically significant. For RNAseq and quantitative proteomics, analyses are described in

the corresponding sections.

Author Contributions:

Conceptualization, S.M.N. and J.R.; Methodology, S.M.N., A.S., S.F.R., J.A.P., J.A.M., J.E.C.,

S.P.G., R.J.D., and J.R.; Investigation, S.M.N., A.S., S.F.R., C.L.B., S.F., S.L., Y.O. and M.J.;

Formal Analysis, S.M.N., A.S., J.A.M, B.C.N., J.A.B., and J.T.M.; Visualization, S.M.N., J.A.B.,

and J.T.M.; Writing – Original draft, S.M.N.; Writing – Review & Editing, S.M.N., A.S., S.F.,

C.L.B., J.T.M., D.R.W., R.J.D., and J.R.; Resources, K.F., S.P.G., R.J.D., J.R.; Supervision,

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The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: MtFAS is an essential pathway in mammalian skeletal myoblasts but does not

contribute to synthesis of major cellular lipids. A. Schematic of the mitochondrial fatty acid

synthesis pathway and downstream lipoic acid synthesis. B. Crude isolated mitochondrial

fractions from duplicate single cell clones of *Mcat*, *Oxsm*, and *Mecr* mutants, compared with

GFP control clonal cell lines, were separated via SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted for the

indicated targets. * = Lipoic acid band (reprobe of earlier blot). # = non-specific bands C. Whole

cell lysates from stable cell lines generated by infecting *Oxsm* mutant cells (OxsmΔ) or GFP

controls with shRNA constructs targeting *FASN* (shFASN) or scramble control (shScramble)

were separated by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted for FASN or tubulin. D.-E. Stable cell lines

created in (C.) were incubated with $U^{13}C$-glucose for the indicated number of doublings,

harvested, lipids extracted, and analyzed via LC-MS. Shown are quantitation of m+2

isotopologues for two representative phospholipid species, PC 16:0_16:0 and PC 16:0_18:0. †

= $p<0.001$, ‡ = $p<0.0001$, error bars are SEM.

Figure 2: MtFAS mutants display profound loss of mitochondrial respiration and ETC

complexes. A. Cells from three clones of each of the indicated genotypes were seeded in eight

wells of a 96-well seahorse plate and allowed to adhere overnight, then equilibrated and treated

with the indicated drugs following standard mitochondrial stress test protocols from the

manufacturer to determine Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR). # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ =

$p<0.0001$ all comparisons are to GFP control, error bars are SEM. B. Cells of the indicated

genotype were seeded in chambered coverglass slides, stained with Mitotracker Red and

Mitotracker Green, and imaged. C. Ratio of MitoTracker Red to MitoTracker Green fluorescence

of cells from 30 fields of view quantified using Fiji ImageJ. * = $p<0.05$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ =

$p<0.0001$ all comparisons are to GFP control, error bars are SD. D. Mitochondrial lysates

generated from the indicated cell lines were normalized for total protein by BCA assay,

incubated with 1% digitonin, then separated by blue-native PAGE and immunoblotted with the

indicated antibodies.

Figure 3: Posttranslational loss of ETC components in mtFAS mutants is specific to LYR

proteins and their targets. A.-B. Duplicate samples from the indicated cell lines were grown

under proliferative conditions and subjected to TMT labeling and quantitative proteomics

analysis. A. Volcano plot of compiled Mecr clones vs. GFP controls showing all proteins (gray),

mitochondrial proteins (blue), and electron transport chain subunits (ETC, red). Dashed gray

lines indicate cutoffs for significance at -log10(p-value) = 1.3 and log2(Fold Change) = .59. B.

Heatmap depicting $\log_2$(Fold Change) of OXPHOS subunits in the indicated cell lines. C.

Quadruplicate samples from mtFAS mutant cells and controls were grown under proliferative

conditions. Total RNA was isolated, used as input for for mRNA library prep, and sequenced.

Resulting data were aligned to the mouse genome and analyzed for differential expression. ETC

subunit-encoding transcripts are shown in red vs. all other transcripts (gray). D.-G. Relative

abundance of the indicated LYR proteins or their targets in the indicated cell lines from the

quantitative proteomics experiment described in A.-B. # = p<0.01, † = p<0.001, ‡ = p<0.0001,

error bars are SD. All statistical comparisons shown are between mtFAS mutants and GFP-1

clone; p-values when compared with GFP-2 clone were similar or smaller than when compared

with GFP-1 clone. H. Crude mitochondrial lysates generated from the indicated cell lines by

differential centrifugation were normalized for total protein by BCA assay, separated by SDS-

PAGE, and immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies.

Figure 4: Impairment of mtFAS promotes switch from oxidative to reductive

mitochondrial metabolism. A.–E. Triplicate biological samples from mtFAS mutant cell lines or

GFP control were grown under standard proliferative conditions in high glucose media (25mM)

and harvested for steady-state metabolomics analysis by LC-MS. Shown are relative pool sizes

for the indicated metabolites. * = p<0.05, # = p<0.01, † = p<0.001, ‡ = p<0.0001, error bars are

SD. F. Schematic of isotopomeric labeling of TCA cycle intermediates upon feeding with U[13]C-

glutamine. Black circles indicate ^{13}C carbons derived from labeled glutamine via oxidative TCA

cycle flux (left). Purple circles indicate ^{13}C carbons derived from labeled glutamine via reductive

carboxylation (right). G.-L. Triplicate biological samples of the indicated genotype were labeled

for 24 hours with U^{13}C-glutamine, harvested, and analyzed via GC-MS for the indicated

metabolites and their isotopologues. * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ = $p<0.0001$, error

bars are SD.

Figure 5: MtFAS mutant phenotypes are not recapitulated by loss of lipoic acid alone. A.

Immunoblot for the indicated proteins in whole cell lysates from Lipt1 mutant and control cell

lines. B. In triplicate experiments, cells of each of the indicated clones were seeded in eight

wells of a 96-well seahorse plate and allowed to adhere overnight, then equilibrated and treated

with the indicated drugs following standard mitochondrial stress test protocols from the

manufacturer to determine Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR). # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ =

$p<0.0001$ all comparisons are to GFP control, error bars are SEM. C. Mitochondrial lysates

generated from the indicated cell lines by differential centrifugation were normalized for total

protein by BCA assay, incubated with 1% digitonin, then separated by BN-PAGE and

immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies. D. Four biological replicates from mtFAS mutant

cell lines or GFP control were grown under standard proliferative conditions and harvested for

steady-state metabolomics analysis by LC-MS. Shown are relative pool sizes for the indicated

metabolites. * = $p<0.05$, error bars are SD. E. Four biological samples of the indicated genotype

were labeled for 24 hours with U^{13}Cglutamine, harvested, and analyzed via GC-MS for the

indicated metabolites and their isotopologues. * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, error bars

are SD.

1014

Figure 6: MtFAS is required for skeletal myoblast differentiation. A. Volcano plot of

quantitative proteomics experiment showing Mecr mutant samples (n=4) vs. GFP (n=4) controls;

all proteins (gray), and proteins associated with the differentiated skeletal muscle lineage (red).

Dashed lines indicate cutoffs for significance at -$\log_{10}$(p-value) = 1.3 and $\log_2$(Fold Change) =

.59. B.-C. Cells of the indicated genotypes were plated and grown for 24 hours under

proliferative conditions (day -1), then switched to 2% horse serum differentiation medium at 95%

confluency (day 0). Medium was replaced daily for the indicated number of days. Plates were

imaged (B) or whole cell lysates were collected at the indicated time points, separated by SDS-

PAGE, and immunoblotted for the indicated proteins (C). D.-E. Quadruplicate samples from

mtFAS mutant cells and controls were grown under proliferative conditions to 95% confluency

then switched to 2% horse serum differentiation medium for 24 hours. Total RNA was isolated,

used as input for mRNA library prep, and sequenced. Resulting data were aligned to the mouse

genome and analyzed for differential expression. Transcripts for differentiation related proteins

from panel (A) are shown in purple vs. all other transcripts (gray). F. Relative steady state pool

sizes of the indicated metabolites in mtFAS mutant cell lines vs. GFP controls grown in

proliferative conditions from steady-state LC-MS metabolomics analysis. * = $p < 0.05$, # = $p < 0.01$,

† = $p < 0.001$, ‡ = $p < 0.0001$, error bars are SD.

1032

1033   **Supplementary Figure Legends**

1034

Figure supplement 1: mtFAS is required for growth of cultured skeletal myoblasts but

does not significantly contribute to cellular fatty acids. A. Quantification of single cell clone

colony size 7 days after single cell sort. Small clones = <150 cells, Med = 150-500 cells, Large =

>500 cells. B. Cells were plated at 100,000 cells/plate in 10 cm dishes and counted every 24

hours. # = $p < 0.01$, all groups compared with control, † = $p < 0.001$, all groups compared with

control, error bars SEM. C. Sub-cellular fractionation of Mecr mutant cell lines and control.

Whole cell lysate (WCL), post mitochondrial supernatant (PMS), and mitochondrial lysate (Mito)

was isolated from each cell line indicated, normalized for total protein via BCA assay, and

immunoblotted for Mecr or VDAC as a mitochondrial marker control. D. Control (GFP) or Oxsm

mutant (OxsmΔ) cells were stably infected with shRNA targeting FASN (shFASN) or control

(shScramble) then incubated with U^{13}C-glucose for one doubling were harvested, lipids

extracted and saponified, and analyzed via FAMES analysis. Shown are quantitation of c16:0

and c18:0 fatty acids. ns = non-significant, * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, error bars are

SEM.

1049

Figure supplement 2: ETC complex assembly and activity is regulated by interaction of

LYRM proteins with ACP. A. Cells from three clones of each of the indicated genotypes were

seeded in eight wells of a 96-well seahorse plate and allowed to adhere overnight, then

equilibrated and treated with the indicated drugs following standard mitochondrial stress test

protocols from the manufacturer to determine ExtraCellular Acidification Rate (ECAR). B. Cells

of the indicated genotype were seeded in chambered coverglass slides, stained with Mitotracker

Red and Mitotracker Green, and imaged. Fluorescence of cells from 30 fields of view was

quantified using Fiji ImageJ. * = $p<0.05$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ = $p<0.0001$ all comparisons are to GFP

control, error bars are SD. C. Crude mitochondrial fractions were isolated from triplicate

biological samples of mtFAS mutant and control cells using differential centrifugation. Isolated

mitochondria were normalized for protein content via BCA assay and analyzed for Bc1-complex

activity and citrate synthase activity (CS). ns = non-significant, # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, error

bars are SD.

1063

Figure supplement 3: Transcription of ETC subunit encoding genes and translation of

mitochondrially encoded proteins are unaffected in mtFAS mutants. A.-C. Quadruplicate

samples from mtFAS mutant cells and controls were grown under proliferative conditions. Total

RNA was isolated, used as input for mRNA library prep, and sequenced. Resulting data were

aligned to the mouse genome and analyzed for differential expression. ETC subunit encoding

transcripts are shown in red vs. all other transcripts (black). C. Cumulative distribution plots

showing no difference in abundance between ETC encoding transcripts vs. all other genes for

the indicated mtFAS mutant vs. GFP control, $p > 0.05$, Wilcoxon rank-sum test. D. HEK293T

cells were transiently transfected with human NDUFAB1-Flag or empty vector control along with

the indicated LYRM-V5 constructs, grown for 48 hours after transfection, harvested, and crude

mitochondrial lysates were prepared by differential centrifugation. Flag immunoprecipitation was

performed and eluates were blotted with the indicated antibodies alongside 10% of input. E.-H.

Duplicate samples from the indicated cell lines were grown under proliferative conditions and

subjected to TMT labeling and quantitative proteomics analysis. Relative abundance of the

indicated LYR protein (E.), LYR target (F.), mitochondrially encoded proteins (G.), and MALSU1

(H.). * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, error bars are SD. All statistical comparisons shown are between

mtFAS mutants and GFP-1 clone.

1081

Figure supplement 4: Impairment of mtFAS causes changes in purine abundance and

TCA cycle flux. A.–E. Triplicate biological samples from mtFAS mutant cell lines or GFP control

were grown under standard proliferative conditions in high glucose media (25mM) and

harvested for steady-state metabolomics analysis by LC-MS. Shown are relative pool sizes for

the indicated metabolites. * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, error bars are SD. F.-N. Triplicate biological

samples of the indicated genotype were labeled with $U^{13}C$glutamine for 5 minutes, 15 minutes,

30 minutes, or 1 hour, harvested, and analyzed via GC-MS for the indicated metabolite

isotopologues. * = $p<0.05$, # = $p<0.01$, † = $p<0.001$, ‡ = $p<0.0001$, error bars are SD. Symbols

indicate statistical comparison to GFP control in the order *Mcat*, *Oxsm*, *Mecr*.

1091

Figure supplement 5: Skeletal myoblast differentiation is delayed in mtFAS mutant cell

lines. A. Cells of the indicated genotypes were plated and grown for 24 hours under proliferative

conditions (day -1), then switched to 2% horse serum differentiation medium at 95% confluency

(day 0). Medium was replaced daily for the indicated number of days. Plates were imaged at the

indicated time points. B.-C. Quadruplicate samples from mtFAS mutant cells and controls were

plated and allowed to adhere overnight, then harvested at Day -1 (proliferative, ~70%

confluency), Day 0 (~95% confluent), or Day 1 after switching to 2% horse serum differentiation

medium for 24 hours. Total RNA was isolated, used as input for mRNA library prep, and

sequenced. Resulting data were aligned to the mouse genome and analyzed for differential

expression. Transcripts for differentiation related proteins from panel (A) are shown in purple vs.

all other transcripts (gray). B. Oxsm mutant vs. GFP controls after 24 hours in differentiating

media. C. Cumulative distribution plots of differentiation related transcripts vs. all other genes for

the indicated genotypes, $p > 0.05$, Wilcoxon rank-sum test. D. Change in expression of

transcripts from Day -1 to Day 0 for mtFAS mutant cell lines and GFP controls.

1106

1107   **Supplemental Table Legends**

1108

1109   **Supplemental Table 1:** All steady-state metabolites measured via LCMS. Values shown are

1110   average fold change from mean GFP abundance.

1111

1112   **Supplemental Table 2**: Relative expression of proteins associated with skeletal muscle

1113   differentiation from SL-TMT experiment. Values are arbitrary units.

1114

1115   **Resource Availability**

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1117   All unique/stable reagents generated within this study are available from the corresponding

1118   author, Jared Rutter, (rutter@biochem.utah.edu) upon request without restriction.

1119

Data and Code Availability

The quantitative proteomics data RAW files will be made available upon request, in addition that

data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Perez-Riverol

et al., 2019) partner repository with the dataset identifier {pending}. The code used to process

these data is available at Github https://github.com/j-berg/nowinski_2020.

Sequencing data have been deposited at the Gene Expression Omnibus

(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo) under accession number GSE148617, and will be made

publicly available before publication.

1128

1129 **Supplemental Table 1:**

1130

Metabolite	GFP-1	Mcat-1	Oxsm-1	Mecr-1
OXOGLUTARATE	1.000	14.342	22.874	16.937
GLUTATHIONE REDUCED	1.000	2.590	9.888	5.128
OXIDIZED GLUTATHIONE	1.000	3.229	7.622	4.521
2-HYDROXYGLUTARIC	1.000	4.121	4.670	2.290
INOSINE	1.000	0.797	3.535	0.521
HYPOXANTHINE	1.000	1.303	3.394	0.771
DEOXYGUANOSINE-MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	1.437	3.118	1.101
BETAINE ALDEHYDE	1.000	2.179	3.085	3.982
6-HYDROXYDOPAMINE	1.000	2.085	3.051	3.791
N-METHYLGLUTAMATE	1.000	2.995	2.845	3.340
OXOADIPATE	1.000	3.345	2.832	2.380
NICOTINAMIDE MONONUCLEOTIDE	1.000	0.981	2.782	1.168
AMINOADIPATE	1.000	2.086	2.649	2.014
PYRUVATE	1.000	2.641	2.318	3.455
GUANOSINE MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	0.954	2.102	0.860

CYSTEINE	1.000	1.032	1.949	1.620
2-KETOHEXANOIC	1.000	2.995	1.822	1.308
Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate	1.000	0.911	1.818	2.217
URATE-2	1.000	4.273	1.817	1.944
URATE-1	1.000	4.273	1.816	1.944
ADENOSINE-MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	0.979	1.804	0.632
DIETHANOLAMINE	1.000	1.141	1.725	1.052
3-METHYL-2-OXOVALERATE	1.000	2.918	1.686	1.125
DL-2-AMINOCTANOATE	1.000	0.876	1.662	1.456
KETOLEUCINE	1.000	2.873	1.655	1.110
KYNURENINE	1.000	1.979	1.650	1.300
4-GUANIDINOBUTANOATE-2	1.000	1.682	1.567	1.231
TRIMETHYLAMINE	1.000	1.844	1.538	1.408
URIDINE MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	1.313	1.536	1.289
AICAR	1.000	0.721	1.532	1.190
N,N-DIMETHYLARGININE	1.000	1.967	1.532	1.621
Octanoate	1.000	1.231	1.496	1.498
LPC(18:1)	1.000	2.071	1.458	1.226
CYTIDINE MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	1.318	1.449	0.670
4-HYDROXY-3-METHOXYPHENYLGLYCOL	1.000	1.450	1.446	1.798
SPERMIDINE	1.000	1.247	1.446	1.169
3-Hydroxysebacic acid	1.000	1.244	1.425	1.369
OXOPROLINE	1.000	2.313	1.402	1.466
hexanoylcarnitine	1.000	1.220	1.395	1.842

MANDELATE	1.000	0.865	1.390	1.545
2-HYDROXYPHENYLACETATE	1.000	1.067	1.377	1.545
CYTIDINE	1.000	3.482	1.341	1.308
PALMITATE	1.000	0.968	1.336	1.284
LPC(16:0)	1.000	2.650	1.317	1.425
6-Phosphonoglucono-D-lactone	1.000	0.645	1.302	2.068
HYDROXYISOCAPROIC	1.000	1.292	1.298	1.497
MANNOSE 6-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.527	1.298	1.507
ACETOIN	1.000	1.245	1.288	1.221
GLUCOSE 6-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.543	1.274	1.515
GLUCOSE 1-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.541	1.273	1.513
FRUCTOSE 6-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.541	1.273	1.513
D-RIBOSE 5-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.786	1.268	1.366
GLUTARATE	1.000	1.238	1.263	1.323
DEOXYCYTIDINE-DIPHOSPHATE	1.000	0.531	1.259	0.297
SEDOHEPTULOSE-7-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.439	1.244	1.333
BETA-GLYCEROPHOSPHATE	1.000	1.207	1.231	1.082
RIBULOSE-5-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.754	1.229	1.325
URIDINE 5'-DIPHOSPHATE	1.000	1.344	1.229	1.316
Ribose-5-phosphate	1.000	0.756	1.227	1.326
Xylulose-5-phosphate	1.000	0.751	1.225	1.323
7-HYDROXYOCTANOATE	1.000	1.124	1.224	1.242
SPERMINE	1.000	0.521	1.222	1.276
undecanedioic acid	1.000	1.140	1.219	1.273
GLYCEROL 3-PHOSPHATE	1.000	1.194	1.218	1.052

LEUCINE	1.000	0.958	1.217	0.915
METHYL 4-AMINOBUTYRATE	1.000	1.828	1.215	1.137
O-SUCCINYL-HOMOSERINE-2	1.000	0.993	1.200	1.410
SUBERATE	1.000	1.093	1.194	1.226
Dimethyl adipate	1.000	1.092	1.193	1.213
PROPIONYLCHOLINE	1.000	1.185	1.190	1.270
2-ETHYLOCTANEDIOATE	1.000	1.139	1.190	1.254
SEBACATE	1.000	1.139	1.190	1.254
DEOXYCYTIDINE MONOPHOSPHATE-1	1.000	1.017	1.188	1.255
DEOXYINOSINE	1.000	0.988	1.186	1.095
6-CARBOXYHEXANOATE	1.000	1.116	1.169	1.241
L-CARNITINE	1.000	1.049	1.163	1.526
Azelaic acid	1.000	1.173	1.161	1.209
Butyrylcarnitine	1.000	1.180	1.161	1.536
CREATINE	1.000	1.012	1.158	1.099
GLYCOLATE	1.000	0.625	1.152	2.708
4-HYDROXYBENZOATE	1.000	1.049	1.143	0.998
LACTATE	1.000	1.412	1.142	1.397
AZELATE	1.000	1.145	1.142	1.179
THYMIDINE	1.000	1.258	1.141	1.086
SALICYLATE	1.000	1.020	1.136	1.235
MONOMETHYLGLUTARATE	1.000	1.171	1.135	1.184
NICOTINAMIDE-1	1.000	1.777	1.124	1.248
GLYCERALDEHYDE	1.000	1.405	1.123	1.376
P-HYDROXYPHENYLACETATE	1.000	0.700	1.123	1.140

2-METHYLGLUTARATE	1.000	1.133	1.118	1.176
METHYGLUTARATE	1.000	1.166	1.118	1.181
N-ACETYLNEURAMINATE	1.000	1.755	1.114	0.815
ADIPATE	1.000	1.052	1.113	1.131
LYSINE	1.000	1.734	1.110	1.025
4-HYDROXYPHENYLPYRUVATE	1.000	1.348	1.105	0.792
3-HYDROXYMETHYLGLUTARATE	1.000	1.349	1.099	0.966
DEOXYGUANOSINE	1.000	1.168	1.097	1.162
BUTANOATE	1.000	1.524	1.089	1.083
4-HYDROXYBENZALDEHYDE	1.000	1.347	1.080	0.762
PANTOTHENATE	1.000	2.106	1.078	0.682
THYMIDINE-MONOPHOSPHATE	1.000	0.800	1.072	0.607
NAD+	1.000	1.270	1.068	1.022
octanoylcarnitine	1.000	1.324	1.058	1.234
DEOXYCYTIDINE-1	1.000	1.612	1.056	0.882
PYRAZOLE	1.000	1.213	1.054	0.824
SACCHARATE	1.000	0.844	1.049	0.988
7-HYDROXYOCTANOATE DIMER	1.000	1.068	1.047	1.003
GLYCEROPHOSPHOCHOLINE	1.000	2.345	1.039	0.870
URIDINE	1.000	1.203	1.036	1.257
PYROGLUTAMATE	1.000	2.255	1.034	2.031
HYPOTAURINE	1.000	0.559	1.033	1.901
6-PHOSPHOGLUCONATE	1.000	0.661	1.033	1.166
TAURINE	1.000	0.689	1.031	1.444
N-METHYLASPARTATE	1.000	0.735	1.024	0.995

GLUTAMATE	1.000	0.735	1.024	0.995
MEVALONATE	1.000	1.130	1.017	1.477
SUCCINATE	1.000	2.157	1.016	0.868
2-DEOXY-D-GLUCOSE	1.000	0.947	1.009	0.227
GLUCURONATE	1.000	0.814	1.009	1.236
ITACONATE	1.000	1.129	1.007	1.047
GALACTARATE	1.000	1.157	1.003	1.067
GALACTURONATE	1.000	0.807	1.001	1.212
TYROSINE	1.000	1.548	0.996	0.842
HOMOSERINE	1.000	0.018	0.994	1.280
ALLOTHREONINE	1.000	0.018	0.994	1.281
N-ACETYLASPARAGINE	1.000	1.280	0.986	0.795
3-(3,4,5-Trimethoxyphenyl)propanoic acid	1.000	1.102	0.980	0.860
2-AMINOPHENOL-2	1.000	1.427	0.978	1.034
XANTHOSINE	1.000	1.247	0.977	0.902
PHENYLETHANOLAMINE	1.000	1.041	0.976	1.019
PYRIDOXINE-2	1.000	1.533	0.976	1.121
PYRIDOXINE-1	1.000	1.533	0.975	1.121
Dodecanoic acid	1.000	0.938	0.971	1.211
L-ORNITHINE	1.000	1.148	0.966	0.963
4-ACETAMIDOBUTANOATE	1.000	1.766	0.965	1.040
URACIL-1	1.000	1.194	0.964	0.922
4-PYRIDOXATE	1.000	2.121	0.961	1.134
2-METHYLMALEATE	1.000	0.978	0.949	0.897

TRYPTOPHAN	1.000	1.589	0.942	0.778
THREONINE	1.000	0.790	0.941	0.899
BETAINE	1.000	1.086	0.940	0.795
METHYLTHIOADENOSINE	1.000	1.120	0.936	0.889
GLYCOCHOLATE	1.000	1.915	0.932	0.935
N,N,N-TRIMETHYLLYSINE	1.000	0.985	0.927	1.009
D-ORNITHINE	1.000	1.230	0.924	0.946
UREA	1.000	0.994	0.922	1.288
METHIONINE-1	1.000	1.381	0.921	0.819
GLYCERATE	1.000	1.286	0.919	1.053
DIHYDROXYACETONEPHOSPHATE	1.000	0.493	0.913	0.629
Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate	1.000	0.499	0.909	0.640
3-(2-HYDROXYPHENYL)PROPANOATE	1.000	0.978	0.908	1.544
ERYTHROSE-4-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.589	0.907	1.292
TRIGONELLINE	1.000	0.943	0.906	0.945
Isovalerylcarnitine	1.000	1.468	0.901	1.140
PIPECOLATE	1.000	1.069	0.900	0.750
PHENYLALANINE	1.000	1.437	0.894	0.789
NICOTINATE-1	1.000	1.052	0.884	0.793
NICOTINAMIDE-2	1.000	1.403	0.884	0.907
ARGININE	1.000	1.136	0.882	0.918
HIPPURATE	1.000	1.941	0.880	0.895
METHIONINE SULFOXIDE	1.000	0.653	0.867	0.822
CREATININE	1.000	1.123	0.858	0.709
XANTHINE-2	1.000	1.683	0.856	0.814

O-ACETYLSERINE	1.000	0.761	0.849	0.789
PHENYLLACTATE	1.000	0.996	0.847	1.394
5-HYDROXYTRYPTOPHAN	1.000	1.707	0.845	0.695
PHOSPHOCREATINE	1.000	0.750	0.843	0.801
1-AMINOCYCLOPROPANECARBOXYLATE	1.000	0.880	0.838	0.883
RHAMNOSE	1.000	1.118	0.833	0.682
ISOLEUCINE	1.000	1.278	0.832	0.939
FOLATE	1.000	1.768	0.831	0.949
RAFFINOSE	1.000	1.188	0.829	0.923
DEOXYCARNITINE	1.000	0.739	0.814	1.076
HISTIDINE	1.000	0.931	0.812	0.836
METHIONINE-2	1.000	1.447	0.801	0.668
STACHYOSE	1.000	1.179	0.797	0.840
ASPARAGINE	1.000	0.456	0.796	0.677
ALLANTOIN	1.000	1.511	0.796	0.830
GLYCOCHENODEOXYCHOLATE	1.000	1.834	0.794	0.919
RIBOFLAVIN	1.000	1.917	0.792	0.893
BENZYLAMINE	1.000	1.147	0.791	0.814
URACIL-2	1.000	1.137	0.790	0.786
S-ADENOSYLMETHIONINE	1.000	1.087	0.786	0.450
2-HYDROXY-4-(METHYLTHIO)BUTANOATE	1.000	0.704	0.783	1.854
N-ALPHA-ACETYLLYSINE	1.000	1.166	0.782	0.627
N-ACETYLMETHIONINE	1.000	0.685	0.779	1.088

GLUCONATE	1.000	0.413	0.757	1.413
VALINE	1.000	1.152	0.741	0.787
4-GUANIDINOBUTANOATE	1.000	1.041	0.740	0.741
N-ACETYLASPARTATE	1.000	0.883	0.740	0.709
GLYCINE	1.000	0.806	0.739	0.839
GALACTITOL	1.000	0.882	0.730	1.035
MANNITOL	1.000	0.882	0.730	1.035
GLYOXYLATE	1.000	0.838	0.720	1.067
2-HYDROXYBUTYRATE	1.000	0.941	0.712	0.602
GLUTAMINE	1.000	0.859	0.697	0.584
HYDROXYPHENYLLACTATE	1.000	0.826	0.689	1.462
1-METHYL-L-HISTIDINE	1.000	1.061	0.688	0.376
3,4-Dihydroxyhydrocinnamic acid	1.000	0.824	0.686	1.451
Hydroxyphenyllactic acid	1.000	0.827	0.665	1.496
KYNURENATE	1.000	1.048	0.653	0.731
N-ACETYLALANINE	1.000	0.623	0.649	1.515
CARNOSINE	1.000	0.872	0.638	1.402
GLUTARYLCARNITINE	1.000	2.196	0.637	0.776
N-ACETYLGLYCINE	1.000	0.768	0.624	0.612
PROPIONYLCARNITINE	1.000	1.413	0.623	0.705
2-HYDROXYPYRIDINE	1.000	1.007	0.621	0.595
CITRULLINE	1.000	0.745	0.617	0.843
HEXOSE	1.000	0.815	0.617	1.475
GLUCOSAMINE 6-PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.325	0.614	1.020
ETHYLMALONATE	1.000	1.232	0.571	0.688

URIDINE DIPHOSPHATE GLUCOSE	1.000	1.098	0.562	0.749
CITRAMALATE	1.000	1.048	0.562	0.509
UDPgalactose	1.000	1.128	0.553	0.772
SALSOLINOL-2	1.000	1.541	0.547	0.747
N-ACETYLLEUCINE	1.000	1.059	0.536	0.625
O-PHOSPHOETHANOLAMINE	1.000	0.309	0.533	0.624
ETHANOLAMINE PHOSPHATE	1.000	0.310	0.532	0.627
BETA-ALANINE	1.000	0.399	0.519	0.794
SERINE	1.000	0.516	0.497	0.600
SARCOSINE	1.000	0.402	0.492	0.771
URIDINE DIPHOSPHATE-N-ACETYLGLUCOSAMINE	1.000	1.069	0.484	0.836
URIDINE DIPHOSPHATE-N-ACETYLGALACTOSAMINE	1.000	1.078	0.474	0.844
ANSERINE	1.000	0.950	0.459	0.873
N-FORMYL-L-METHIONINE	1.000	0.327	0.448	1.210
SALSOLINOL-1	1.000	1.082	0.420	0.762
cis-ACONITATE-1	1.000	0.727	0.399	0.498
PHOSPHOSERINE	1.000	0.473	0.396	0.670
N-ACETYLPUTRESCINE	1.000	0.360	0.384	0.342
PHENYLACETATE	1.000	0.883	0.383	1.421
N-ACETYLPHENYLALANINE	1.000	1.005	0.382	0.487
FUMARATE	1.000	0.490	0.379	0.935
MALEATE	1.000	0.489	0.369	0.905
SORBITOL	1.000	0.540	0.366	1.144

MALATE	1.000	0.412	0.336	0.898
O-ACETYLCARNITINE-2	1.000	0.685	0.315	0.275
L-ALANINE	1.000	0.299	0.311	0.443
D-ALANINE	1.000	0.294	0.309	0.438
OPHTHALMATE-2	1.000	0.670	0.301	0.448
DIMETHYLGLYCINE	1.000	0.730	0.300	1.356
CITRATE	1.000	0.712	0.300	0.449
PROLINE	1.000	0.802	0.281	0.588
GAMMA-AMINOBUTYRATE	1.000	0.185	0.241	1.302
PORPHOBILINOGEN-1	1.000	1.162	0.214	0.949
O-ACETYLCARNITINE	1.000	0.388	0.213	0.266
PHOSPHORYLCHOLINE	1.000	0.093	0.196	0.338
GUANIDINOACETATE	1.000	0.165	0.176	0.070
ASPARTATE	1.000	0.128	0.139	0.235
CYSTINE	1.000	0.663	0.005	0.005

1131

1132 **Supplemental Table 2:**

1133

Gene Symbol	Description	GFP-1	GFP-2	Oxsm-1	Mecr-1	Mecr-2
Cdh15	CAD15_MOUSE Cadherin-15	14.80	12.63	5.22	8.53	5.35
Myod1	MYOD1_MOUSE Myoblast determination protein 1	12.88	10.20	5.15	9.85	7.56
Tnnt3	TNNT3_MOUSE Troponin T, fast skeletal muscle	23.46	11.06	3.71	6.21	3.24

Tnni2	TNNI2_MOUSE Troponin I, fast skeletal muscle	26.59	9.76	2.73	6.25	2.42
Tnnt2	TNNT2_MOUSE Troponin T, cardiac muscle	29.13	8.47	2.11	6.04	2.08
Tnni1	TNNI1_MOUSE Troponin I, slow skeletal muscle	29.93	10.61	1.46	4.71	1.33
Tnnc1	TNNC1_MOUSE Troponin C, slow skeletal and cardiac muscles	32.32	11.36	0.78	3.76	0.77
Myh1	MYH1_MOUSE Myosin-1	29.34	13.57	2.80	2.02	1.56
Mb	MYG_MOUSE Myoglobin	32.32	11.36	1.44	2.31	1.41
Chdh	CHDH_MOUSE Choline dehydrogenase, mitochondrial	19.97	25.70	1.09	1.60	1.28
Cd44	CD44_MOUSE CD44 antigen	17.76	13.15	4.69	5.60	6.53
Mylpf	MLRS_MOUSE Myosin regulatory light chain 2, skeletal muscle isoform	33.08	9.48	2.23	2.60	1.62
Myh3	MYH3_MOUSE Myosin-3	33.53	9.34	2.91	2.11	1.30
Acta1	ACTS_MOUSE Actin, alpha skeletal muscle	29.41	11.38	1.84	3.74	2.61
Myl1	MYL1_MOUSE Myosin light chain 1/3, skeletal muscle isoform	29.19	12.41	2.05	3.13	1.92
Myl4	MYL4_MOUSE Myosin light chain 4	21.07	8.25	8.05	4.75	5.17

Myl6b	MYL6B_MOUSE Myosin light chain 6B	28.33	7.25	2.69	5.25	4.18
Sorbs2	SRBS2_MOUSE Isoform 2 of Sorbin and SH3 domain-containing protein 2	30.69	13.23	2.43	1.57	1.34
Csrp3	CSRP3_MOUSE Cysteine and glycine-rich protein 3	32.20	11.30	1.17	3.02	1.01
Nrap	NRAP_MOUSE Nebulin-related-anchoring protein	25.07	15.64	2.70	3.72	0.45
Klhl41	KLH41_MOUSE Kelch-like protein 41	19.74	12.08	5.16	5.67	4.70
Ccdc141	A2AST1_MOUSE Coiled-coil protein associated with myosin II and DISC1	27.08	13.57	2.55	3.18	1.65
Neb	A2AQA9_MOUSE Protein Neb	25.63	10.39	3.78	4.87	3.42
Bin1	BIN1_MOUSE Myc box-dependent-interacting protein 1	22.25	11.53	5.00	5.80	4.14
Ckm	KCRM_MOUSE Creatine kinase M-type	20.99	13.62	3.52	6.25	3.63
Ckb	KCRB_MOUSE Creatine kinase B-type	23.97	13.29	2.69	3.22	4.93
Ank1	ANK1_MOUSE Isoform Mu7 of Ankyrin-1	19.68	22.43	0.98	4.80	0.80
Trim72	TRI72_MOUSE Tripartite motif-containing protein 72	27.22	10.64	3.59	4.78	2.27

Itga7	ITA7_MOUSE Integrin alpha-7	17.66	13.34	5.37	5.96	4.66
Akap6	E9Q9K8_MOUSE Protein Akap6	19.39	14.68	4.31	5.04	3.17
Dusp27	DUS27_MOUSE Inactive dual specificity phosphatase 27	15.61	14.64	5.26	6.56	3.95

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Figure 2

Figure 3

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Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5