In-situ observation of mitochondrial biogenesis as the early event of apoptosis

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23 **Graphical abstract**

Highlights

- A dual fluorescence reporter system was successfully constructed for in-situ observation of mitochondrial biogenesis in living cells.

- The whole process of radiation-induced mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis was scrutinized.

- The conception of the relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis was revised.

- Assessment of the early event of mitochondrial biogenesis is critical for prediction of the late fate of cells.

SUMMARY

Mitochondrial biogenesis is a cell response to external stimuli which is generally believed to suppress apoptosis. However, during the process of apoptosis, whether mitochondrial biogenesis occurs in the early stage of the apoptotic cells remains unclear. To address this question, we constructed the COX8-EGFP-ACTIN-mCherry HeLa cells with recombinant fluorescent proteins respectively tagged on the nucleus and mitochondria, and monitored the mitochondrial changes in living cells exposed to gamma-ray radiation. Besides in situ detection of mitochondrial fluorescence changes, we also examined the cell viability, nuclear DNA damage, reactive oxygen species (ROS), Mitochondrial superoxide, citrate synthase activity, ATP, cytoplasmic and mitochondrial calcium, mitochondrial DNA copy number and expression of transcription genes related to mitochondrial biogenesis as well as the apoptosis biomarkers. As a result, we confirmed that significant mitochondrial biogenesis took place preceding the radiation-induced apoptosis, and the change of mitochondrial biogenesis at early time was closely correlated with the apoptotic cells at late stage. The involved mechanism was also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Mitochondrial biogenesis is a physiological response of cells to external stress that may cause increase of energy demand, and it plays an important role in cell metabolism regulation, signal transduction and mitochondrial ROS regulation (Luo et al., 2016; Vyas et al., 2016). Mitochondrial biogenesis maintains cell homeostasis by ensuring the quality of mtDNA and regulating the renewal of organelles (Yambire et al., 2019), and it has been extensively explored in recent years due to the relevant interests in human aging, neurodegenerative diseases, cell metabolic diseases and tumors(Fanibunda et al., 2019).

Since mitochondrial regulation plays a very critical role in controlling the cell fate, it is also intriguing for researchers to explore the relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis. Generally, apoptosis is mediated by the activation of the caspase pathways which are associated with mitochondrial damage accompanied by destruction of electron transfer, oxidative phosphorylation, ATP production and change of cell redox potential(Burke, 2017). In fact, some studies have claimed that there is a negative correlation between mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis, i.e., apoptosis is normally suppressed by mitochondrial biogenesis. For example, it has been reported that Ca^{2+}-mediated apoptotisis can be inhibited by enhanced mitochondrial biogenesis (Dam et al., 2013), or, on the other hand, apoptosis may occur by inhibiting mitochondrial biogenesis(Cao et al., 2017). Also, in the study of radiation-induced apoptosis, mitochondrial biogenesis was observed and analyzed (Rai et al., 2018), and it was claimed that enhancement of mitochondrial biogenesis could significantly reduce the proportion of apoptosis caused by ionizing radiation(Yu et al., 2013). However,

concerning the whole process of apoptosis, whether and how mitochondrial biogenesis

takes place in the early period in the apoptotic cells exposed to the external stimuli such

as ionizing radiation remains elusive.

In order to scutinize the relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and

apoptosis, it is thus crucial to monitor the mitochondrial changes in the whole process

of apoptotic cells. At present, there are not many methods available to study the

influence of external factors on mitochondrial changes. One of the conventional

methods is to probe the change of mitochondrial gene copy numbers(Yu, 2011). Another

approach is to use fluorescent proteins. Fluorescent proteins are beneficial for studying

the living cells with reporting gene expression, which can provide information on

protein locations and expression levels as well as the involved biochemical

activities(Newman et al., 2011). Actually, study of mitochondrial process using

fluorescent proteins is now gaining increasing attention (Katajisto et al., 2015;

Melentijevic et al., 2017; Ruan et al., 2017). Recent development is to make use of

multiple different fluorescent proteins with different excitation/emission spectra, so that

the precision of transcriptional measurements can be ensured by using the reference

color for normalization (Miyashiro and Goulian, 2007). In such a circumstance, the

ratio of dual fluorescence can be used to eliminate the possible fluorescence

measurement errors(Miyashiro and Goulian, 2007). So, with application of this dual

fluorescence approach, nowadays researchers are able to observe and analyze the

temporal and spatial life trajectories of living cells (Jadhav and Shivdasani, 2019), and

maybe more importantly, to scrutinize the early events leading to various bio-effects

such as apoptosis as end-point fate in the living cells (Yu et al., 2020).

Therefore, in the present work, we attempted to apply the dual recombinant

fluorescent proteins to monitor the mitochondrial biogenesis induced by injuring

radiation, and in this way, to examine whether and how the early event of mitochondrial

biogenesis would be related to the prominent bio-effects such as apoptosis. For the

effect of radiation as the external stimuli to the cells, it is known that ionizing radiation

(such as α-, γ-, X-rays, protons, heavy ions) can readily cause various detrimental

damages to living cells, which can lead to the change of genetic information, cell

mutations, genomic instability, and apoptosis (O'Driscoll and Jeggo, 2006).

Mitochondrion, as the important subcellular organelle, is one of the major targets of

ionizing radiation(Leach et al., 2001). On the other hand, radiation can also effectively

induce mitochondrial biogenesis (Das et al., 2020). For the establishment of the dual

fluorescent system for in-situ observation of mitochondrial biogenesis in living cells,

we constructed the stable fluorescent reporter cell lines by lentiviral transfection to

achieve mitoGFP and nuclear mCherry. As a result, we fulfilled the task of in-situ and

real-time observation of mitochondrial changes in the living cells, and observed the

effect of mitochondrial biogenesis occurring in the early process of the apoptotic cells.

By analyzing the fluorescence ratio of mitoGFP and nuclear mCherry fluorescence, we

could therefore more reliably examine the relationship between the early mitochondrial

biogenesis and late apoptosis. The detailed mitochondrial/apoptotic processes were

analyzed, and the involved mechanism was discussed.

RESULTS

Construction of dual-fluorescent stably transfected cell lines

In order to construct a universal dual-fluorescence gene reporter vector, we considered to make use of the simplicity of vector construction and referred to the previously reported dual-fluorescence reporter system, and so we chose the CMV promoter to express the dual-fluorescence target proteins. The mitochondrial reporter expression system is generally localized in the stroma, targeting the leader peptide (MSVLTPLLLRGLTGSARRLPVPRAKIHSLGDP) on the VIIIa subunit of cytochrome C oxidase (COX8) (Haggie and Verkman, 2002) (Figure 1A). As such, we constructed the pLVX-mCherry-actin lentiviral vector (Figure 1B).

To establish the cell line stably co-expressing COX8-EGFP and ACTIN-mCherry, we transfected the HeLa cells with the plasmid containing the expression sequence of COX8-EGFP, and obtained the COX8-EGFP expression cells. After screening by G418 for 2 weeks, the stably transfected cell line was obtained. The COX8-EGFP-mCherry-ACTIN co-expressing HeLa cell line was further established based on the COX8-EGFP expressing cells with lentiviral transfection system. From the as-constructed HeLa cells, we could monitor the cell activities in real time using the living cell workstation. As shown in Figure 1C, with the change of time, we observed the stable expression of GFP located in mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase, and also confirmed the stable expression of mCherry associated with the actin proteins in the cells. To be noted, the intensity of mCherry fluorescence associated with actin expression was relatively quite

constant with the change of time, indicating that actin fluorescence could be applied as

the internal standard for the fluorescence reporting system.

In order to further confirm the GFP expression right on the targeted mitochondria,

we then labeled the mitochondria with TMRE dye in the GFP-tagged cells and then

examined the dye-stained cells with a confocal microscope. As shown in Figure 1D, the

COX8 protein fluorescence (Green) proteins and mitochondrial fluorescence (Red)

were indeed co-localized in the cells.

In order to verify the universal validity of our as-constructed dual fluorescence

reporting system for observing mitochondrial biogenesis, we also used mitochondrial

biogenesis's initiator 5-Aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide ribotide (AICAR) as for the in-

depth testing, or, as the positive control (Komen and Thorburn, 2014). The applied drug

concentration was 0.5 mM. As shown in the Figures 2A-B, compared with the non-

AICAR treatment group, the AICAR treated group showed increased fluorescence ratio

with time. This experiment therefore confirmed that the dual fluorescence system we

constructed is feasible and effective for monitoring mitochondrial biogenesis.

Furthermore, the correlation between GFP and mitochondrial biogenesis related protein

expression were also confirmed by the WB assay (Figures 2C-D). We testified the co-

expression levels of GFP protein together with the mitochondrial target protein (e.g.

COX8) for the cells treated by AICAR. Technically, cytochrome c (CytoC) was

measured in the experiment instead of COX8 as COX8 is the subunit of CytoC oxidase.

As shown in Fig. 2C, both GFP and CytoC were in the same trend of expression of

levels for the mitochondrial biogenesis proteins including PGC1-α, NRF1 and TFAM.

Besides, we also examined the AICAR-induced biomarker proteins expression levels

related to mitochondrial biogenesis. Figure 2D shows that for the cells treated with

AICAR, the expression levels of GFP, CytoC, PGC1-α, NRF1 and TFAM increased

significantly in comparison with the untreated group. Also, with the increase of AICAR

treatment time, the protein expression levels of mitochondrial biogenesis marker

proteins (PGC1, NRF1, TFAM) also increased concomitantly (see Figure S1). All these

results therefore confirmed the validity of our fluorescence report system suitable for

mitochondrial biogenesis monitoring.

In-situ observation of the dual fluorescence reporter system for the evaluation of

the radiation-induced mitochondrial changes

With the establishment of this dual-fluorescence reporter system, we then employ

the laser fluorescence confocal microscope to observe the biological effect in the living

cells with the treatment of gamma-ray (γ-ray) irradiation. The COX8-EGFP encoding

mitochondria (Green), the ACTIN-mCherry encoding actin (Red), and the DAPI-

stained nuclei were observed. The representative images together with the

corresponding quantitative analysis of fluorescence intensity are shown in Figure 3A.

Figure 3A presents the fluorescent images of the cells by confocal microscopy,

indicating that the intracellular mitochondrial content increased with radiation dose.

Compared with the control group (0 Gy), the irradiated group showed mitochondrial

fluorescence enhancement, and it was significantly enhanced especially for the 1 and 2

Gy cases (Figure 3B). The fluorescent images intuitively show that the number of

mitochondria increased with increasing radiation dose, confirming that the dual

fluorescence reporter system can directly reflect the relevant mitochondrial responses

and changes in the living cells.

To investigate the mitochondrial fluorescence enhancement of the cells exposed to

ionizing radiation, the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) from the dual fluorescence

reporter system was utilized. This MFI ratio change was also obtained by employing

the High Content Imaging and Screening (HCS) system, with the results shown in

Figure 3C. The HCS living cell workstation recorded the changes of cell fluorescence

within 24 hours after cell irradiation (the videos were also recorded, see Videos S1, S2,

S3 in the Supporting Information). The results indicate that for 1 Gy, the fluorescence

ratio GFP/mCherry increased with time, while for 2 Gy and 4 Gy cases, the

fluorescence ratio increased significantly with the irradiation dose during the first

interval of 1-12 hours, but afterwards, it decreased to some extent, though still higher

than that of the control (non-irradiated cells). The reduction in MFI suggested that the

mitochondria of the irradiated cells with higher radiation doses were actually more

detrimentally damaged by the radiation than that received lower radiation doses. Figure

S2 shows the numerical changes of two fluorescence channels detected by flow

cytometry. The MFI ratio of $EGFP^+$: $mCherry^+$ was calculated, and it was found that

the fluorescence ratio was positively correlated with the radiation dose. The result by

the flow cytometry (Figure S2) also confirms there were significant differences between

the irradiated and non-irradiated groups. To be noted, in order to verify the validity or

reliability of actin fluorescence as an internal reference even under the irradiation

condition, in-situ observation of real-time fluorescence data were also recorded after

irradiation which showed that there was no significant difference in fluorescence

expression within 24 hours (Figure S3).

Radiation effect on cell viability, survival rate, cell cycle, apoptosis, DNA damage

and mitochondrial membrane damage

To investigate the radiation effect, the cell viability was measured by CCK-8

method, showing that the cell viability decreased with the increase of radiation dose

(Figure 4A). The toxic effect of radiation on cells was also examined using LDH kit,

which revealed that the radiation-induced toxicity was indeed increased significantly

with radiation dose (Figure 4B). Also, the colony-forming method was used to analyze

the inhibitory effect of γ-ray on HeLa cell survival. With increase of γ-ray irradiation

dose, the cell survival rate was only 30% after 4 Gy irradiation (Figure 4C), confirming

that the cell survival rate decreased with the rise of radiation dose.

In addition, the cell cycle and apoptosis were assessed for the cells irradiated with

γ-ray. Apoptotic cells were detected by flow cytometry after irradiation using Annexin

V-PI methods (Figure 4D). Through statistics and comparison of the number of

apoptotic cells, it was found that with the increase of radiation dose, the number of

apoptotic cells also increased significantly (Figure 4E). Cell cycle was analyzed by flow

cytometry, and the results showed that all groups of cells had G2 arrest after 24 hours

of irradiation, especially at 2 Gy and 4 Gy irradiation doses showed significant G2 arrest

(Figure 4F).

Furthermore, in order to explain the reasons for the radiation effects, the radiation

induced damages on DNA and mitochondrial membrane, together with the

accompanied cytosolic ROS (cROS) and mitochondrial-ROS (mROS) levels, were also

examined, as shown by the results in Figure 5. In the experiments, the

immunofluorescence method was used to detect DNA damage, CellROX Green probe

was used to label cytosolic ROS, mitoSOX-Red probe was used for mitochondrial ROS

level, and JC-1 was used to label mitochondrial membrane potential. Figure 5A shows

that with increase of the radiation dose, the cytosolic ROS expression level increased

significantly, and the statistical results showed that the ROS level in the irradiated cells

increased with the increase of the radiation dose (Figure 5C). At the dose of 2 Gy, the

cROS level was the highest, and for the 4 Gy group, there was a significant difference

compared with the non-irradiated group. Besides, we also employed a mitochondrial

biogenesis inhibitor, namely cyclosporin A (CsA), as for the negative control. Indeed,

with the treatment of CsA, the cROS level was significantly increased (Figure 5C).

ROS could induce mitochondrial damage, which would further activate the positive

feedback circuit, resulting in more ROS production in damaged mitochondria.

Therefore, we also used MitoSOX probe to detect mitochondrial ROS (Figure 5B). We

observed an insignificant increase in the mitochondrial ROS level with increasing

radiation dose compared with that of the control group (Figure 5D). Similarly, after

treated with 50 nM CsA, the level of mitochondrial ROS was increased due to the

inhibition of mitochondrial biogenesis. To be noted, mROS can be released into the

cytoplasm through mitochondrial permeability transition pore (mPTP), which is also an

important source of cROS in the cytoplasm. Therefore, we could expect that ionizing

radiation would as a result also cause the increase of both mROS and cROS

simultaneously.

For the mitochondrial damage evaluation, it is known that mitochondrial

membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) is produced by proton pump of electron transport chain,

which is necessary for ATP production. Therefore, we also evaluated $\Delta\Psi_m$ using JC-1

staining. As shown in Figures 6A-B, the promotion of JC-1 monomers enhanced

significantly with the increase of radiation dosage. It was found that $\Delta\Psi_m$ was markedly

lower depending on the increased radiation dosage. After CsA (50 nM) treatment, the

mitochondrial membrane potential decreased (Figure 6C).

As the ionizing radiation induced DSB of DNA, we expected that there would also

be enhanced DNA repair process in the irradiated cells. Indeed, we observed the

fluorescence from γ-H2AX and the co-localization of 53BP1 foci after the radiation

exposure. Figure 7 shows the number of foci increased significantly with the increase

of radiation dose, while the number of foci of 53BP1 was the largest at 2 Gy but then

decreased with radiation dose, implying that at higher radiation dose the cell received

severer damage son the DNA repair ability became weaker.

Verification of mitochondrial calcium and ATP level

Mitochondrial calcium plays a key role in regulating cell homeostasis, which has a

dual regulation mechanism. On one hand, mitochondrial calcium can affect cell activity

by activating oxidative metabolism, mitochondrial respiration and ATP synthesis. On

the other hand, the increase of mitochondrial calcium influx is also one of the

inducements of apoptosis and necrosis. In our experiment, we employed a cytoplasmic

calcium probe (Fluo-4 AM) and a mitochondrial calcium probe (Rhod-2 AM) to detect

the changes of calcium in the cytoplasm and mitochondria, and we obtained the result

as shown in Figure 8A, which indicates that with the increase of radiation dose, the

fluorescence intensity of Fluo-4 AM and Rhod-2 AM increased significantly. The

analysis of the fluorescence intensities shows that the increase of calcium content in

cytoplasm and mitochondria was positively correlated with radiation dose (Figures 8B-

C). In addition, we treated the cells with CsA, which could inhibit the mitochondrial

biogenesis, and the result confirmed that CsA also significantly improved the calcium

release in both cytoplasm and mitochondria.

The imbalance of calcium homeostasis can further increase the production of

reactive oxygen species and trigger the imbalance of mitochondrial energy metabolism

(including the release of cytochrome c and apoptosis caused by permeability transition

pore). The level of ATP is a marker to detect the level of mitochondrial energy

metabolism, so we also detected the expression of ATP in cells at different time points

(6, 12, 24 h) with different radiation doses (1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy). As shown in Figure 9, at

each time point, with the increase of radiation dose, intracellular ATP level decreased

significantly. For the same radiation dose, the expression level of ATP decreased

significantly with the increase of time.

Verification of mitochondrial biogenesis, apoptosis and mitophagy.

To further verify the mitochondrial biogenesis induced by radiation, the copy number of mitochondrial DNA was evaluated firstly. Total DNA was extracted from HeLa cells 6-24 hours after irradiation. As shown in Figure 10A, the copy number of mitochondrial DNA changed significantly after cell irradiation. Indeed, under the same radiation dose, mitochondrial DNA number increased significantly compared with that of the non-irradiated cells. At 6 and 12 hours, the ratio of mitochondrial DNA to nuclear DNA increased significantly with the increase of irradiation dose. At 24 hours, the ratio was the highest at 1 Gy, and decreased with the increase of radiation dose.

Citrate synthase (CS) is the initial enzyme of tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle. It exists in almost all cells that can be oxidized and metabolized, and it is also an important exclusive marker of mitochondrial matrix. Since CS enzyme is a key biomarker of mitochondrial biogenesis, we therefore also detected the activity of CS enzyme change after irradiation. As shown in the Figure 10B, at 6 hours, with the increase of radiation dose, CS increased significantly, suggesting that radiation stimulated mitochondrial biogenesis at the early stage. At 24 hours, low dose irradiation (1 Gy) could still increase the activity of CS, while it was reduced at higher radiation doses (2 Gy, 4 Gy), indicating that when the radiation damage became severer, mitochondrial biogenesis would diminish in the late stage of cell process. In addition, we also applied CsA as the inhibitor of mitochondrial biogenesis for the negative control. Indeed, after CsA treatment, the activity of CS decreased, and this decrease was more significant with

increase of time.

Furthermore, to explore the correlation between mitochondrial biogenesis and

apoptosis under the condition of radiation, the related marker proteins were also

examined. For the mitochondrial change, the related protein expression levels of PGC-

1α, NRF1, TFAM and Mfn1 at different times (6 h, 12 h, 24 h) with different radiation

doses (0 Gy, 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy) were assessed by Western blots (Figure 10C). At early

stage (6 hours) of the process, the expression level of PGC-1α, p-AMPK, TFAM protein

was increased with radiation dose. On the other hand, for the apoptosis, the related

protein expression levels of apoptosis-related marker proteins (BAX, Bcl-2, CytoC,

Caspase-3, Cleaved Caspase-9, PARP) were examined. As shown in Figure 8, the

expression levels of crucial apoptosis proteins did not differ significantly at early time

(6 h), but their expression levels increased significantly afterwards (12 h, 24 h). So these

results unambiguously demonstrate that the mitochondrial biogenesis at early time was

positively correlated to the apoptosis in the late stage.

So, as shown above, in the early stage after radiation, mitochondrial biosynthesis

would be stimulated and increased, but with the lapse of time, for the larger irradiation

dose, we found the decrease of mitochondrial energy metabolism (including the

decrease of citrate synthase, mitochondrial membrane potential, mitochondrial DNA

copy number, etc) and the inhibition of mitochondrial biogenesis. As the mitochondrial

damage became severer, we also expected that mitophagy might play an important role

to clear up the dysfunctional mitochondria, because mitophagy is an important

degradation   mechanism   to   eliminate   dysfunctional   mitochondria   through

autophagosomes(Montava-Garriga and Ganley, 2019). Therefore, we examined

mitophagy by stably transfecting the mKeima plasmid to target the expression on the

mitochondria of HeLa cells. mKeima fluorescent protein can change its excitation

wavelength and show different color fluorescence at different pH values. Under pH

neutral condition, it can be excited to green fluorescence at 485 nm, while under acidic

condition, it can be excited to red fluorescence at 560 nm. We thus evaluated the

intensity ratio of 560 nm to 485 nm fluorescence bands to determine the occurrence of

mitophagy. As shown in Figure 11A, the ratio increased significantly with the increase

of radiation dose, suggesting that at higher radiation dose mitophagy became dominant.

AICAR, as a stimulant of mitochondrial biogenesis (positive control), also induced

mitophagy, while CsA as an inhibitor of mitochondrial germinating (negative control),

did not induce mitophagy (Figure 11B). To be noted, the mitophapy became most

prominent at 9 hours after irradiation of the cells (Figure S4). These results indicate that

the early-staged radiation-induced mitochondrial germination would be suppressed by

the subsequent mitophagy, and if the mitochondrial damage was aggravated at higher

dose radiation, the mitochondrial biogenesis was then diminished in the late-stage of

the cell process.

DISCUSSION

Mitochondria as the cell energy factory play a vital role in cell homeostasis(Lill and

Freibert, 2020). In response to external stimuli, mitochondrial biogenesis can be elicited

in order to provide the cells with extra energy(Barros and McStay, 2019). Previously, many

studies had reported that mitochondrial biogenesis could suppress apoptosis(Yu et al.,

2013), i.e., apoptosis is negatively correlated with mitochondrial biogenesis. Some

studies even claimed that apoptosis occurred because of the absence of mitochondrial

biogenesis(Martins et al., 2015). But this understanding is not accurate, because to the

best of our knowledge, mitochondrial biogenesis should be occurring as the early event

prior to apoptosis, though it might be reduced or diminished later during the process of

cell apoptosis. So, to explore the relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and

apoptosis, it is important to scrutinize the whole cell process and examine the respective

bio-effects at different time points. Would mitochondrial biogenesis occur preceding

the apoptosis? And, if there would be mitochondrial biogenesis occurring as the early

event of the apoptosis, how would it change with time? With these questions and

considerations, we thus initiated this research, and applied ionizing radiation as the tool

to induce both mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis in the cells, to explore the time-

dependent relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis. As a result, we

have thus achieved the following results with some new findings and elaborated

understandings.

Firstly, we have constructed the dual fluorescence report system that can be

effectively used for mitochondrial biogenesis study. To probe the changes taking place

in mitochondria, we have especially developed the approach using mitochondrial-

tagged recombinant fluorescent proteins. To the best of our knowledge, it is actually the

first time to apply the dual fluorescence ratio approach to study the biological effects

of mitochondria. According to the in situ and real-time observation of fluorescence in

the cell workstation and the high-throughput analysis of fluorescence ratio through

high-content quantitative analysis system, we have thus developed a new method of

using dual fluorescent reporter system for the the study of mitochondrial biogenesis,

which has been proved to be quite effective and reliable. As we know, the fluorescent protein reporting system has the advantages of real-time, convenient, fast, and non-destructive(Betzig et al., 2006). Besides, it has also an advantage in the study of subcellular organ localization and protein stress regulation(Llopis et al., 1998). Previously, people often used fluorescent dye probes for studying effect involved with mitochondria. For example, Mukhopadhyay et al. used Annexin V and Sytox Green and MitoSOX Red fluorescent probes to study the detection of apoptosis and mitochondrial superoxide so as to establish the method for detecting living cells by laser confocal scanning microscopy and flow cytometry (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). But the disadvantages of fluorescent dyes are the toxicity to cells, as well as the light quenching under long-period real-time observation. Compared to fluorescent dyes, fluorescent proteins are more stable and have minimal toxicity and can generate visible fluorescence in vivo (Westermann and Neupert, 2000). Actually, GFP reporter protein is now commonly used to detect mitochondrial changes(Hanson et al., 2004; Mahajan et al., 1998). In this work, in particular, we have constructed the dual fluorescence reporting system based on fluorescence proteins for monitoring the mitochondrial biogenesis process. We have also verified the effectiveness of this system designed for monitoring mitochondrial biogenesis. For this purpose, we apply AICAR to activate mitochondrial biogenesis as the positive control (Komen and Thorburn, 2014), as AICAR is an activator of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) that can permeate cell membranes(Rai et al., 2015). AMPK (AMP activated protein kinase) is an activator of mitochondrial biogenesis and key regulator of energy homeostasis caused by external

factors (Kim et al., 2016). The main function is to phosphorylate PGC-1α protein, or

affect the transduction of SIRT1 signaling pathway(Mihaylova and Shaw, 2011). Our

result clearly shows that AICAR indeed induced the up-regulation of key protein levels

of mitochondrial biogenesis. The prominent merit of such a dual fluorescent protein

reporter system is that it is not only suitable for the real-time in situ observation for a

long time, but also facilitates the precise fluorescence evaluation with the reference

fluorescent protein for intensity normalization, so that the interference from

background signal noise can be best avoided. Therefore, by analyzing the ratio of the

fluorescence intensity of mitochondrial DNA to that of nuclear DNA expression, the

early event of mitochondrial biogenesis under irradiation condition can be readily

observed and evaluated, and with this approach we can thus sensitively track the early

process that which would eventually lead to the late event of apoptosis.

Secondly, with the as-constructed dual fluorescence report system, we have

observed the radiation-induced mitochondrial biogenesis together with the apoptosis.

Ionizing radiation has been used for cancer therapy for they can directly or indirectly

cause DNA damage and kill the cancer cells(Spitz et al., 2004).　With DNA damage

in the nucleus, cells may undergo cell cycle arrest required for repairing the damage or

cell death including apoptosis(Bernstein et al., 2002). In parallel, mitochondria is also

considered to be involved in the radiation induced effects, where more reactive oxygen

species (ROS) would be produced which may affect the cells profoundly. Actually, it

has been well documented that exposure of cells to ionizing radiation could activate

ROS to produce oxidases, regulate antioxidants, and alter metabolic activity in response

to oxidative damage(Azzam et al., 2012). In both the nucleic or mitochondrial processes, more ATP is required to elicit mitochondria biogenesis either directly or indirectly(Kulms et al., 2002; Srinivas et al., 2019). So, it is not surprising that mitochondria biogenesis could take place as one of the consequences of radiation-induced bio-effects (Galluzzi and Kroemer, 2008). But interestingly, in our fluorescence measurements, we found that the fluorescence ratio increased and reached the maximum at 6 h after irradiation, but afterwards the fluorescence ratio decreased gradually. According to our established mitochondrial fluorescence report system, this suggests that in the early stage, mitochondrial biogenesis was indeed initiated and enhanced. In this process of mitochondrial biogenesis, mitochondrial DNA and mitochondrial mass were maintained to keep the cell homeostasis and metabolism(Huangyang et al., 2020). But in the late stage of the radiation effect, the fluorescence ratio decreased, showing that the function of mitochondrial biogenesis gradually diminished. We can also understand this change by relating it to the ROS elevation. There was increase of ROS caused by radiation, which continuously increased the oxidative stress and damaged the mtDNA and the mitochondrial integrity. For the role of ROS, it is generally accepted that normal range of ROS may induce stress response by changing the expression of related nuclear genes, and certain level of ROS can save cells by maintaining energy metabolism (Srinivas et al., 2019); but when the ROS level exceeds the tolerant threshold, ROS can then induce the transition of mitochondrial membrane permeability, leading to the activation of the caspase pathway and promoting cell apoptosis. In our experiment, we detected the increase of

ROS level in cytoplasm and mitochondria, the increase of calcium ion level in

cytoplasm and mitochondria, the decrease of ATP level and mitochondrial membrane

potential, the decrease of mitochondrial DNA copy number and mitochondrial citrate

synthase activity. All these results are consistent with each other. Also, given the

increase of radiation dose, we detected the related caspase-related proteins and found

that the increase of pro-apoptotic proteins such as cytochrome c. Release of cytochrome

c is an indicator for the apoptosis, in which the oxidative stress would damage mtDNA

and other components of the cells(Lee and Wei, 2005). Here, we especially notified that

the mitochondrial fluorescence intensity change rates were quite different after the cell

exposure to the radiation. The larger the irradiation dose, the higher the fluorescence

ratio reduction rate. All these observations are actually the typical features for the

radiation-induced apoptotic process.

Thirdly, our new observation has revealed the more subtle but very important

relationship which had largely been substantially or largely ignored by previous studies.

We noticed that in the beginning of the process, the mitochondrial biogenesis was

actually positively rather negatively associated with the apoptotic stress, and the trend

of fluorescence change was consistent with the number of apoptotic cells. This is

actually contrary to the conventional view on the relationship between mitochondrial

biogenesis and apoptosis. In the past, there were few reports concerning the dynamic

process of mitochondrial biogenesis, and the mainstream opinion or understanding on

the relationship between mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis was that these two

processes normally appear to be antagonistic. For example, many studies showed that

the apoptosis occurred simultaneously with the suppression, or, that apoptosis took

place with even missing the observation of mitochondrial biogenesis (Lin et al., 2020;

Martins et al., 2015; Vayssiere et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2017). This is actually not true

or accurate, because mitochondrial biogenesis as an earlier event did occur preceding

the apoptosis, as we have clearly demonstrated in this study.

The reason for this misleading of understanding is largely due to the ignorance of

the investigation of the dynamic process of the cells. Generally, people tend to choose

just several time check points for inspecting the apoptosis and mitochondrial biogenesis.

But which time check points are most suitable for the correct evaluation? What cautions

should be taken to avoid the wrong evaluation when especially concerning the

relationship between the processes in the involvement? To solve this, we actually need

to establish more precise method to study the cellular effect in its dynamic process, and

so to scrutinize the processes of both mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis in their

logical time sequence. This is also one of the main purposes of this study. It is

understandable why people had not focused on the study of processes, as we realized

that there had been lack of tool/method for the monitoring the whole process regarding

the mitochondrial changes in situ and in a nondestructive way. For example, the

traditional methods include using real-time quantitative PCR to detect the copy number

of mitochondrial DNA, or using Western blot assay to identify the changes of marker

protein level of mitochondrial biogenesis. These methods cannot achieve in-situ and

real-time observation in living cells. On the contrary, the fluorescence protein method

can be used to observe the mitochondrial biogenesis in real time as especially useful for

studying the early events prior to apoptosis. Therefore, in this work, we for the first

time attempted to construct the fluorescent reporting system which could let us to track

the change of mitochondrial biogenesis. Based on the fluorescence signal, the dual

fluorescence ratio can help us to predict the radiation effects or the cell fate according

to the fluorescence change of these irradiated cells.

In particular, from the fluorescence data obtained from Figure 3C, we can calculate

the fluorescence ratios, and so we can retrieve the MFI ratios in each irradiation dose

group (0 Gy, 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy) at an early time, as shown in Figures 12 A-B. Strikingly,

this result is consistent with the cells in the apoptotic state at 24 h (Figure 4E). In the

late stage (24 hours), the fluorescence ratio becomes smaller as the irradiation dose

increases. It is understandable because the apoptosis is actually dependent on the early

biochemical events in the cells(Holler et al., 2000). In this way, we may therefore infer

or predict the late apoptotic state of cells by observing the early-staged changes in terms

of mitochondrial fluorescence ratio. On the other hand, it is also seen that this

fluorescence ratio was significantly reduced after 24 h (Figure 12C), which is not

concomitant with the apoptosis at 24 h (Figure 4E). This suggests again that it is very

critical to evaluate both the processes by choosing the right time check points.

Finally, we have also tried to understand the mechanism for the mitochondrial

biogenesis related to the radiation-induced apoptosis. Generally, it is believed that the

biogenesis of mitochondria is a very complex biological process, which can maintain

the cell homeostasis by controlling the self-renewal of subcellular organelles and

maintaining mitochondrial DNA (Scarpulla, 2008). The initiation of mitochondrial

biogenesis is normally triggered by the reception of energy demand signals caused by external stress (Popov, 2020), while at the same time, mitochondrial biogenesis itself is a protection way for cell's self-renewal. Since it is well-known that ionizing radiation is an effective way to stimulate the cell mitochondrial biogenesis, we thus employed the tool of ionizing radiation to treat the cells. As a result, we have successfully proved that some marker proteins of mitochondrial biogenesis are involved in the biological effects of radiation. We have found that the protein expression levels of nuclear respiratory factor1 (NRF1), peroxisome proliferative activated receptor, gamma, coactivator 1 alpha (PGC-1α), transcription factor A, mitochondrial (TFAM) increased with radiation dose. NRF1 is a transcription factor with a vital role in mitochondrial functional genes(Virbasius et al., 1993). As a transcription coactivator, PGC-1α is a central regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis and energy metabolism, and has become a hot target for cancer treatment because of its relationship with cell death and oxidative metabolism(Wang et al., 2019) (Bost and Kaminski, 2019) (Wu et al., 1999). TFAM is a key activator of mitochondrial (mt) DNA transcription. mtDNA is reported to be very susceptible to oxidative stress(May-Panloup et al., 2005). With the confirmation of these factors, we have thus also again unambiguously confirmed that this mitochondrial biogenesis is indeed related to radiation-induced cell adaptation and apoptosis.

But how to explain the suppression or disappearance of mitochondrial biogenesis for the higher dose of radiation observed in the late stage of the cell process which corresponds to the apoptosis? In our experiments, we observed that mitochondrial biogenesis increased in the early stage of the cell process, but with the increase of

radiation dose, the mitochondrial biogenesis decreased substantially in the late stage.

Firstly, we speculate that this change of mitochondrial biogenesis is related to DNA

repair ability, and with increased radiation damage, the DNA repair mechanism was

destroyed. It was previously reported that mitochondrial biogenesis can enhance DNA

repair ability, and mitochondrial biogenesis is closely related to DNA repair ability(Li

et al., 2020) (Fu et al., 2008). For example, it was reported that doxorubicin, a drug

which can induce DSBs of DNA as accompanied by mitochondrial biogenesis (Kluza

et al., 2004). Normally, there are two main repair pathways of DSBs in mammalian

cells: non homologous end joining (NHEJ) and homologous recombination mediated

repair (HR) (Löbrich and Jeggo, 2005). Mitochondrial biogenesis can promote DNA

repair by inducing chromatin changes in DSB and regulating the activity of DNA repair

factors, and this upstream factor has been found to be the silent information regulator

(SIRT) (Paredes and Chua, 2016). SIRT is a family of sirtuins that depend on NAD^+

lysine deacetylases, which may play an important role in mitochondrial biogenesis and

cell metabolism(Chalkiadaki and Guarente, 2015). On the other hand, DSB repair can

be achieved by NHEJ which can activate DNA-PK (Davis et al., 2014), while DNA-

PK can activate AMPK signal pathway, which is just closely related to mitochondrial

biogenesis (Park et al., 2017). In our experiment, we have indeed observed the change

of DNA repair as reflected by the change of 53BP1, and this change is just concomitant

with the mitochondrial biogenesis. Secondly, we also speculate that the mitochondrial

autophagy induced by radiation occurred, which subsequently cleared up the ROS-

damaged and dysfunctional mitochondria. According to the analysis of the mitophagy

result, we found that mitophagy increased with radiation dose at 9 hours after the cell

irradiation, although 24 hours after the irradiation, this process also diminished with the

death of the cells.

So, with the above findings and discussion of mechanisms, we can therefore

concisely describe the process of radiation affecting cells as schematically depicted in

Figure 13. After a certain dose of radiation, DNA damage occurs, and the cell cycle is

blocked in order to initiate the repair process. At the same time, radiation produces a

large amount of ROS in the cell and affects the homeostasis of the cell. To resist the

radiation stress or damage, mitochondria then start to provide more energy for DNA

repair and maintenance of cell metabolism and homeostasis, leading to mitochondrial

biogenesis. Next, with the continuous increase of ROS in cytoplasm and mitochondria,

the increase of calcium ions released to mediate the imbalance of mitochondrial energy

metabolism homeostasis, the decrease of ATP level and the decrease of citrate synthase

activity, the decrease of mitochondrial membrane potential which eventually led to the

release of Pro apoptotic protein cytochrome c and the activation of apoptotic caspase

pathway, the programmed cell death was elicited, with the diminishing of mitochondrial

biogenesis in the late stage of the cell process.

CONCLUSION

In this work, we have constructed a dual fluorescence reporting system, which

makes use of the intensity ratio of multiple fluorescence tags to observe the changes of

mitochondria in real time, and these changes are related to ionizing radiation-induced

mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis. We have also demonstrated that ionizing

radiation can effectively cause mitochondrial biogenesis, so that it can be an efficient

tool for the study of mitochondrial biogenesis. Particularly, for the exploration of the

involved mechanisms, we have scrutinized the relationship between this mitochondrial

biogenesis and apoptosis by considering the time sequence of occurrence. Our results

have unambiguously proved that these two processes are not antagonistic if they are

evaluated at right time points, but on the contrary, they may be positively correlated if

we relate the mitochondrial biogenesis taking place at the early time to the apoptosis

occurring at the late stage. Therefore, this work not only provides an effective method

for directly observing the mitochondrial biogenesis process in living cells, but also

demonstrates how to evaluate the biological effects correctly with right timing, with

which we may be able to predict the cell fate such as apoptosis through the observation

of the early event of cell process.

STAR METHODS

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for reagents may be directed to the lead contact, Qing

Huang (huangq@ipp.ac.cn).

Materials Availability

Reagents or materials used in this work may be requested from the Lead Contact by

signing a completed material transfer agreement.

Data and code availability

Original data generated by this study are available upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Reagents

The *Escherichia coli* DH5a and DNA Ladder were purchased from Transgen (Beijing,

China). *Nhe*I, *Hind*III, *EcoR*I, *Not*I restriction enzymes, T4 DNA Ligase, and Q5 High-

Fidelity DNA Polymerase were purchased from NEB (MA, USA). Plasmid pEGFP-N1

was purchased from Clonetech Biotechnology (CA, USA). Plasmid pLVX-mCherry,

PUC57 were stored in our laboratory. Plasmids of psPAX2 (# 12260) and pMD.2G

(#12259) were purchased from Addgene. PCR purification and gel extraction kits were

obtained from Axygen (CA, USA). TRIzol™ reagent, Lipofectamine 2000 were

purchased from Invitrogen (CA, USA). Primescript II 1st strand cDNA Synthesis Kit,

RT-qPCR kit and Total genomic DNA extraction kit were purchased from TAKARA

(Dalian, China). G418 and Hoechst 33342 were purchased from Targetmol (Shanghai,

China). Citrate Synthase Assay Kit was purchased from Solarbio (Beijing, China).

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) probe (CellROX Green and MitoSOX Red) was

purchased from Invitrogen. JC-1 dye was purchased from Beyotime. 5-

Aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide ribotide (AICAR) was purchase from Selleck (MA,

USA). The antibodies of PGC-1α, NRF1, TFAM, Mfn1, BAX, Bcl-2, CytoC, Caspase-

3, Cleaved Caspase-9, PARP, γH2AX(S139), GFP, p-AMPK were purchased from

Bimake (MA, USA), 53BP1, anti-β-Actin antibody was purchased from CST (MA,

USA). Alexa Fluor® 488 Goat Anti-Mouse (IgG) secondary antibody, Alexa Fluor®

647 Goat Anti-Rat (IgG) secondary antibody were purchased from Invitrogen (CA,

USA).

METHOD DETAILS

Creation of stably transfected cell lines

Generation of plasmids. Firstly, the pEGFP-N1-COX8 expression plasmid was constructed. Briefly, the DNA sequence of cytochrome c oxidase 8A subunit was found from Genbank (NM_004074.2) (Hendrickson et al., 2010). Then, two complementary oligonucleotide strands were obtained by amplification using PCR, and the restriction sites of the *Nhe*I and *Hind*III were added at both ends. The sequences of oligonucleotide strands were listed in Table S1 (Supporting information). The DNA sequence (COX8A) was ligated on the PUC57 plasmid. Then, the appropriate oligonucleotides were annealed and ligated into pEGFP-N1 cloning cut with *Nhe*I and *Hind*III. After incubation overnight at 37°C, the target plasmids were extracted from the bacterial fluid using the EndoFree Maxi Plasmid kit.

Secondly, the PLVX-mCherry-Actin expression plasmid was constructed. Total RNA was extracted from HeLa cells by Trizol reagent and served as the template for cDNA synthesis, and then it was reversely transcribed using Primescript II 1st strand cDNA synthesis kit. The primers were designed according to the sequence of actin (Genbank no. NM_10277): *EcoR*I tailed forward (5′-gtcGAATTCatggatgatgatatcgccgcgc-3′) and *Not*I tailed reverse (5′-TATGCGGCCGCctagaagcatttgcggtggac-3′) primers which are named as Fw-actin-EcoRI and Rv-actin-NotI, respectively. The length of the amplified product was 1128 bp. The PCR product was separated by electrophoresis, and the target fragment was

recovered after gel cutting and purification. The target gene fragment (actin) and the

expression vector (pLVX-mCherry) with the same restriction site (*EcoR*I and *Not*I)

were digested by restriction enzymes respectively, and then ligated with T4 ligase and

transformed into *E. coli* DH5a for plasmid amplification.

Production of lentiviral supernatant and transduction of COX8-EGFP-mCherry-ACTIN-HeLa. Briefly, positive monoclonal cells (COX8-EGFP-HeLa cells) were

constructed. When HeLa cells grew to the concentration of 80% in complete medium,

they were then transfected with pEGFP-COX8 plasmid with lipofectamine 2000. After

24-48 h of transfection, G418 was added to screen positive monoclonal cells.

The lentiviral supernatant was prepared according to the protocol provided by

addgene (http://www.addgene.org/tools/protocols/plko/#A). When the confluence of

HEK293T cells cells in the 6-well plate reached 80%, Lipofectamine 2000 was used to

transfect the pLVX-mCherry-ACTIN plasmid and the viral packaging helper plasmid

psPAX2, pMD.2G into the cells. After incubation for 8h, the medium was replaced with

the fresh medium containing serum, and the supernatant was collected 24 hours and 48

hours later. The virus supernatant was filtered through a 0.45 µm pore so as to infect

COX8-EGFP-HeLa cells. Next, the COX8-EGFP-HeLa cells were cultured in a 6-well

plate to 70% confluence, then the medium was removed, and the virus supernatant was

mixed with fresh medium containing 8 µg/ml polybrene in equal proportions and added

to the culture plate. The fresh medium was replaced after 24 hours and the medium

containing 1 µg/ml puromycin was changed at 48 hours to start screening to obtain

664   stable cell lines.

Cell Culture, Synchronization and Gamma irradiation

HeLa, HEK-293T cell lines were purchased from American Type Cultures

Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA). The HeLa and HEK-293T cells were cultured in

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, HyClone) containing 10% fetal bovine

serum (FBS, Gibco BRL). All cells were maintained at 37 °C in 5% CO2.

The cell cycle synchronization method was detailed in the previous work

(Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2020). The cells were incubated with thymidine (2.5 mM)

for 18 hours, washed once with PBS buffer and replaced with fresh medium for 14

hours, and then 2.5 mM thymidine was added again to the cells which were then

incubated for 18 hours. The efficiency of synchronization was tested by flow cytometry

using cell cycle analysis kit (Multisciences).

HeLa cells were irradiated by gamma-ray provided by a Biobeam Cs137 irradiator

(cat no. GM 2000; Gamma-Service Medical, Leipzig, Germany), with the doses of 1,

2, and 4 Gy at the dose rate of 3.37 Gy/ min. In the control group, the cells were taken

out of the incubator without irradiation.

680 **Cell viability, LDH measurements and colony-formation assays**

681 Cell viability was measured with CCK-8 assay kit (Dojindo, Japan). Briefly, 24 h

682 prior to irradiation treatment, ca. 6000 cells were plated in 96-well plates in a final

683 volume of 100 μl, and then cultured for 24 h. And after adding the CCK-8 solution, the

684 plate was incubated for another 1 h. The optical density was measured at 450 nm using

685 a microplate reader (SpectraMax M5, Molecular Devices, USA). The amount of LDH

686 released into the medium was assayed using the LDH-Cytotoxicity Assay Kit II

687 (Dojindo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For the colony formation

688 assay, 500 cells were seeded in 6-well plate. After being irradiated, the cells were

689 cultured at 37°C for about 2 weeks. After carefully washing twice with PBS, 4%

690 paraformaldehyde was added to fix the cells. The the cells were then stained with crystal

691 violet solution and evaluated.

692 **Analysis of Cytosolic ROS and Mitochondrial ROS**

693 Cytosolic ROS and mitochondrial ROS were detected by CellROX Green and

694 MitoSOX Red probes, respectively. The HeLa cells were plated in corning 96-well plate

695 at a density of 8000 cells/ well, cultivated overnight. At 6 h after irradiation, cells were

696 incubated with 5 μM CellROX Green probe or 5 mM MitoSOX Red probe staining

697 solution for 30 min. Then, the HeLa cells were washed with HBSS buffer thrice and

698 incubated with 2 μg/ml Hoechst 33342 for 10 min. Fluorescent signals were analyzed

699 by Thermo CX5 HCS fluorescence microscopy.

700 **Analysis of mitochondrial membrane potential**

701 Mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) was measured using the JC-1 probe with

the mitochondrial membrane potential assay kit (Beyotime, China) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the HeLa cells were seeded in 96 well plates with

8000 cells per well and cultured overnight at 37 °C. After 12 hours of irradiation, the

HeLa cells were incubated with 1 mg/ml JC-1 and 2 μg/ml Hoechst 33342 in dark for

20 minutes, washed with HBSS buffer for 3 times, and then photographed with Thermo

CX5 HCS fluorescence microscope or quantitatively analyzed with flow cytometry.

The monomer fluorescence (green) of JC-1 was observed at emission Em=521 nm with

excitation Ex=485 nm, and the aggregated fluorescence (red) of JC-1 was observed at

Em=607 nm with Ex=560 nm.

Annexin V-FITC/PI staining and cell cycle analysis

The HeLa cells were seeded at 2×10^5 cell /well in 6-well plates and irradiation

with gamma-ray. After 24 h, the cells were fixed with cold ethanol and then stained with

propidium iodide according to kit manuscript (MultiSciences). The cells (about 20,000)

were analyzed by flow cytometry (Beckman CytoFLEX, USA). The total cells were

washed once and resuspended in Annexin V binding buffer, and then stained with 5 μl

Annexin V and 5μl PI (Roche, Germany) for 20 min and analyzed with Beckman

CytoFLEX flow cytometry. Ten thousand events were collected for each sample.

Evaluation of citrate synthase (CS) activity

Citrate synthase (CS) activity was determined using a citrate synthase activity

assay kit (Solarbio, China). According to the instruction of the kit, the protein

concentration was determined after cell lysis. Then, 7 μL protein was mixed with other

reagents in the kit and put into a slit quartz cuvette. The initial absorbance A1 was

recorded at 412 nm for 10 seconds. The whole quartz cuvette was then put into a 37 ℃

water bath. After 2 minutes of reaction, it was taken out, and the absorbance A2 was

recorded at 412 nm, so the OD value was calculated Δ A=A2-A1. CS enzyme activity

was calculated according to the formula provided with the assay kit.

Intracellular Ca^{2+} Measurement

The HeLa cells were loaded with the Ca^{2+} indicator Fluo-4 AM probe to assess the

intracellular calcium signaling after cell irradiation at 6 h. Rhod-2 AM was used to

monitor the changes in mitochondrial calcium concentrations. Fluorescent signals were

analyzed by Thermo CX5 HCS fluorescence microscopy.

Mito-Keima mitophagy analysis

The HeLa cells were transfected with the mKeima-Red-Mito-7 plasmid using

Lipo2000. After irradiation with gamma-ray, the nuclei were stained with Hoechst

33342. The fluorescence was measured with Thermo CX5 HCS fluorescence

microscope and the ratio of fluorescence at 560 nm over fluorescence at 485 nm Keima

fluorescence was calculated to reflect the level of mitophagy.

Determination of ATP levels

Intracellular ATP measured using a luciferin/luciferase assay kit (Invitrogen,

USA). Cells were cultured in a black 96 well plates at density of 1×10^5 cells per well.

After irradiated with gamma-ray, the cells were washed with HBSS and then lysed

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Luminescence (which is proportional to

the amount of ATP) was measured with SpectraMax M5 microplate reader.

Measurement of mitochondrial to nuclear DNA ratio (mtDNA/ nDNA)

Total genomic DNA of HeLa cells was extracted after irradiation using Total

genomic DNA extract kit (TAKARA, China). Human nuclear GAPDH gene (forward:

5′- CAGAACATCATCCCTGCCTCTAC-3′; reverse: 5′-

AAGGGTTGTAGTAGCCCGTAG-3′) and the mtDNA ND1 gene (forward: 5′-

TTCTAATCGCAATGGCATTCCT-3′; reverse: 5′-

AAGGGTTGTAGTAGCCCGTAG-3′), as well as a primer were used to detect the

mtDNA copy number. The real-time quantitative PCR analysis was performed using

SYBR Premix Ex Taq II (TAKARA, China) on LightCycler 480 PCR System (Roche,

Germany). The calculations were analyzed with $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Analysis of mean fluorescence intensity（MFI）of dual fluorescent protein

MFI of the dual fluorescent protein was analyzed using a flow cytometer. The cells

were treated with different radiation doses and collected at different time points, washed

with PBS buffer, then assessed by flow cytometry (Beckman CytoFLEX, USA). The

data were analyzed using Flow Jo software. The ratio of the MFI of EGFP to MFI of

mecherry was used for calculation and analysis. Each irradiated dose sample group was

analyzed for ca. 10,000 cells, and three measurements were repeated.

Furthermore, the High-Content Screening system Cell Insight CX5 HCS (Thermo

Fisher, Waltham, MA) was used for automatic photo quantitative analysis(Sun et al.,

2016). The dual-fluorescent protein HeLa cells were seeded in 96-well plates by

irradiated 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy gamma-ray. The nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342

(Targetmol). Fluorescence ratios of protein expression of mitochondrial expressed

COX8-EGFP and actin-mCherry were statistically analyzed by cellomics software

(Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA).

Laser scanning confocal fluorescence microscopy

All the images were obtained using 488 nm and 561 nm lasers to excite cox8-

EGFP-actin-mCherry, while the 405 nm laser lines was used to excite DAPI. The

imaging was performed in line mode, the z-stack was over-sampled and photographed

at the height of 0.7 microns, and the image was acquired on the LEICA SP8 confocal

microscope system. The contrast and brightness of the image were adjusted by

Application Suite X (LEICA).

Western blotting analysis and immunofluorescence staining assay

Total proteins were extracted from cells using RIPA lysis buffer with a protease

inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Germany). The proteins were quantified using Thermo

Scientific Pierce BCA Protein Assay. The protein level of Bax, Bcl-2, caspase-3,

cleaved caspase-9, Cytoc, p-AMPK, PARP, TFAM, Mfn1, PGC-1α, GFP and loading

control β-Actin were determined by Western blotting assay.

For immunofluorescence staining, HeLa cells were grown on chamber slides. After

γ-ray irradiation or mock irradiation, they were fixed with cold methanol for 10 minutes

and permeated with 0.5% Triton X-100 in PBS for 20 minutes. After blocking for 1

hour, the cells were incubated with the primary antibody overnight and then incubated

with the fluorescently labeled secondary antibody for 1 hour at 37°C. Samples

investigated by laser confocal microscopy (LEICA). Image auto-quantification and co-

localized foci were recognized by CellProfiler version 4

(www.cellprofiler.org)(McQuin et al., 2018).

Statistical analysis

Data were presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was

assessed by one-way or two-way ANOVA via GraphPad Prism software (Prism version

9, San Diego, CA, USA). P-Value < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

QH conceived the idea and supervised the research. CS and QH designed and performed the experiments, analyzed and interpreted data, performed statistical analysis, and wrote the manuscript. XZ, YM, PW and QZ provided technical assistance in the experiments. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

DISCLOSURES

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. Generation of the dual-fluorescent protein reporter system

 (**A**) Schematic illustration of the pEGFP-cox8 reporter system.

 (**B**) Schematic illustration of the pLVX-actin-mCherry reporter system.

 (**C**) Live imaging of EGFP-Cox8-mCherry-Actin-HeLa cells within 16 hours. Arrow

 points to the observed dynamic changes of cell proliferation.

 (**D**) Confocal microscopy observation of co-localization of GFP-COX8 on the

 mitochondria. The GFP-COX8-HeLa cells were stained with TMRE (200 nM) for 20

 minutes before the examination by confocal microscopy. Scale bar: 10 μm.

 Figure 2. Verification of mitochondrial biogenesis phenomenon observed by the

 dual fluorescence reporting system

 (**A**) The cells were treated with mitochondrial biogenesis inducer drug (AICAR, 0.5

 mM) and observed using high-content imaging and screening (HCS) system after

 different treatment hours. In the figures, green color indicates the mitochondria

 encoding COX8-EGFP, red color shows the actin encoded by actin-mCherry, and blue

 color represents the DAPI stained nuclei. Scale bar: 25 μm.

 (**B**) The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) ratios of HeLa cells treated by AICAR after

 different hours, in comparison with the non-AICAR treated cells as the control group.

 (**C**) Western blot (WB) assay for the HeLa cells which were treated with mitochondrial

 biogenesis inducer drug (AICAR, 0.5 mM). Total proteins were extracted after 12 hours.

 (**D**) The graph shows the comparison of the relative intensity for expressions of GFP

999   and mitochondrial biogenesis marker proteins between the non-AICAR treated group

1000   and the AICAR treated group. Bar graphs are presented as mean ± sd, n = 3.

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Figure 3. In-situ observation of the biological effects of gamma-radiation via the

dual-fluorescence reporter system

(**A**) HeLa-cox8-EGFP-actin-mCherry cells were exposed to 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy gamma-

ray and incubated for 24 h and observed with confocal laser scanning microscope.

Green color indicates the mitochondria encoding COX8-EGFP, red color shows the

actin encoded by actin-mCherry, and blue color represents the DAPI stained nuclei.

Scale bar: 25 μm.

(**B**) The ratio comparison for the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of GFP over

mCherry fluorescence intensities quantified in the Figure 3A. The MFI was determined

by ImageJ software. Bar graphs are presented as mean ± sd, n = 3.

(**C**) The cellular mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) measured by Thermo High Content

Imaging and Screening (HCS) system. HeLa-Cox8-EGFP-actin-mCherry cells were

exposed to 1 Gy, 2 Gy, and 4 Gy gamma-ray respectively. MFI changed with time after

the γ-ray irradiation.

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Figure 4. Detection of the radiation effect on HeLa cells exposed to different

radiation doses

(**A**) CCK-8 assay for cell viability.

(**B**) LDH assay for cell cytotoxicity.

(**C**) Colony formation assay of HeLa cells after 14 days under different radiation doses.

(**D**) Flow cytometry results of Annexin V-PI assay.

(**E**) Apoptotic cells at different radiation doses.

(**F**) Cell cycle examination. The experiment was performed 3 times. Data are presented

as Mean±SD; $P < 0.01$(******); $P < 0.001$(*******); ns: not significant compared with untreated

cells.

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Figure 5. Analysis of cytosolic ROS (cROS) evel and mitochondrial ROS (mROS)

level after irradiation of the cells

(**A**) cytosolic ROS assessment using CellROX Green probe at 6 h.

(**B**) mitochonrial ROS assessment using MitoSOX Red probe at 6 h.

(**C**) The graph shows the representative MFI histogram of CellROX Green (cytosolic

ROS production).

(**D**) The graph shows the representative MFI histogram of MitoSOX (mitochondrial

superoxide production). n = 500 cells calculated per group. Scale bar: 20 μm

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Figure 6. Analysis of mitochondrial membrane potential change after irradiation

of the cells

(**A-B**) Mitochondrial membrane potential change was assessed by JC-1 staining at 12h

after irradiation. JC-1 monomers (green) and aggregates (red) were detected by

fluorescence microscopy (**A**) and flow cytometry (**B**). scale bars: 10 μm.

(**C**) The graph shows the proportion of JC-1 monomers change with different irradiation

doses.

Figure 7. Comparative analysis of γ-H2AX and 53BP1 foci generated in the irradiated cells

(**A**) Representative images for DNA damage detection when the cells were exposed to radiation with different radiation doses. Green: γ-H2AX; red: 53BP1; Blue: DNA nucleus stained with DAPI; Scale bars: 10 μm.

(**B**) The percentage of population with the noted number of γ-H2AX foci corresponding to the respective fluorescence images.

(**C**) The percentage of population with the noted number of 53BP1 foci corresponding to the respective fluorescence images. At least 100 nuclei per genotype were used for quantification. Image auto-quantification was performed with CellProfiler version 4 (www.cellprofiler.org).

Figure 8. Radiation induces mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation

(**A**) Photomicrograph shows the radiation induced change and cellular distribution of Ca^{2+} stained with Fluo-4 AM and mitochondrial calcium using Rhod-2 AM.

(**B-C**) Bar diagram shows alteration in Ca^{2+} concentration in HeLa cells stained with Fluo-4 AM (5 μM) and Rhod-2 AM (1 μM), respectively, analyzed using fluorescence microscope and imaging by imageJ software. Images were captured under fluorescence microscope with 20X objective. n = 500 cells calculated per group. Scale bar: 20 μm.

Figure 9. Effects of intracellular ATP depletion by radiation

HeLa cells treated with different doses of radiation (0, 1, 2 and 4Gy). Quantitative

analysis of intercellular ATP level in percentage. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 and ***P < 0.001

indicated significant differences compared to non-treated cells group. All the results are

presented as mean ± SD; n=3.

Figure 10. Radiation interferes with mitochondrial function and mediates apoptosis

(**A**) Effect of gamma-gay irradiation on mitochondrial DNA copy number. HeLa cells

were exposed to gamma-ray at doses of 1 Gy, 2 Gy and 4 Gy, respectively. After 6, 12,

24 hours, total genomic DNA was extracted and used as a template to detect the

mtDNA/ nDNA ratio by RT-qPCR. Data are presented as Mean±SD; #: significant

compared with unirradiated group; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$.

(**B**) Effect of irradiation on the activity of citrate synthase (CS). HeLa cells were

exposed to gamma-ray at doses of 1 Gy, 2 Gy and 4 Gy, respectively. After 6, 24 hours,

the expression level of citrate synthase activity was detected by UV-Vis

spectrophotometer.

(**C**) Western blot assay of the related proteins after radiation treatment. HeLa cells were

treated with different doses of irradiation (0, 1, 2, 4 Gy), and total proteins were

extracted at different time points. The WB assay shows the changes of expression of

mitochondrial biogenesis marker proteins (PGC-1α, p-AMPK, NRF1, TFAM and Mfn1)

and apoptotic marker proteins (BAX, Bcl-2, CytoC, Caspase-3, Cleaved Caspase-9,

PARP) with time.

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Figure 11. Mitophagy activity assessed using mKeima in HeLa cells

Elevated levels of mitophagy were observed following irradiation with 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4

Gy after 9 hours. AICAR (0.5mM) and mitophagy inhibitor (CsA, 50 nM) were also

applied as the positive and negative controls. n = 500 cells calculated per group. Scale

bar: 20 μm.

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Figure 12. Analysis of mitochondrial biogenesis and apoptosis

(**A**) Analysis of EGFP/mCherry ratio in High Content Screening (HCS) at 6 h.

(**B**) Analysis of EGFP/mCherry ratio in High Content Screening (HCS) at 12 h.

(**C**) Analysis of EGFP/mCherry ratio in High Content Screening (HCS) at 24 h.

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Figure 13. Schematic diagram of biochemical events after ionizing radiation

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1118 **Figure 6**

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 Figure 11

Figure 12

1141 **Figure 13**

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1143 # Supplementary Information

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1145 **Table S1**

1146 Oligonucleotides for amplify PCR product of COX8

Oligonucleotides	Sequence 5′ → 3′	size (bp)
Oligo1	CTAGAGATCTGGTACCGTCGAC	154
	TGCAGAGATCCGCTAGGGG	
	TACTCCGTGCCATCATGTCC	
	GTCCTGACGCCGCTGCTGC	
	TGCGGGGCTTGACAGGCTC	
	GGCCCGGCGGCTCCCAGTG	
	CCGCGCGCCAAGATCCATT	
	CGTTGCCGCCGGAGGGG	
Oligo2	AGCTTCCCCTCCGGCGGCAACG	155
	AATGGATCTTGGCGCGCGG	
	CACTGGGAGCCGCCGGGC	
	CGAGCCTGTCAAGCCCCGC	
	AGCAGCAGCGGCGTCAGG	
	ACGGACATGATGGCACGGA	
	GTACCCCTAGCGGATCTCT	
	GCAGTCGACGGTACCAGAT	
	CT	

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Figure S1. Western blot assay for verifying the effect of AICAR on mitochondrial biogenesis

HeLa cells were treated with mitochondrial biogenesis inducer drug (AICAR, 0.5 mM), and the whole cell extracts were collected at different time points. The mitochondrial biogenesis marker proteins (PGC-1α, NRF1 and TFAM) are indicated in the plot.

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Figure S2. The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) was determined by flow cytometry for the HeLa cells with or without irradiation.

HeLa-cox8-EGFP-actin-mCherry cells were exposed to 1 Gy，2 Gy，4 Gy gamma-ray and incubated for the indicated periods. The analysis and comparison MFI obtained from the dual-fluorescent measurements by flow cytometry.

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Figure S3. The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Actin-mCherry was determined by living fluorescence microscopy for the HeLa cells with with or without irradiation (1 Gy).

(**A**) Fluorescence images and bright field images were taken at 0, 6, 12 and 24 hours after irradiatied with 1 Gy dose.

(**B**) The histogram is the statistical chart of the mean fluorescence intensity of Actin-mCherry.

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Figure S4. Mitophagy activity assessed using mt-Keima in HeLa cells

Elevated levels of mitophagy were observed following irradiation with 1 Gy, 2 Gy, 4 Gy. The fluorescence ratio of red fluorescence to green fluorescence (560 nm/ 485 nm) at different time points (2, 5, 7, 9 and 24 hours) was calculated by high content fluorescence analysis system. n = 1000 cells calculated per group.

1183 **S1 Video**

1184 **S2 Video**

1185 **S3 Video**

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1187 In-situ real-time video of dual fluorescence reporter system of irradiated cells (Video

1188 S1, Video S2, Video S3)

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