Short Title: Lipid complement of *Arabidopsis* leaf mitochondria

Defining the lipidome of Arabidopsis leaf mitochondria: Specific lipid complement and lipid

biosynthesis capacity

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capable in generating several phospholipid classes with the assistant of membrane contact site-

localized proteins.

Summary

Mitochondria are considered as power stations of the cell, playing critical roles in various

biological processes such as energy conversion, stress responses and programmed cell death. To

maintain the structural and functional integrities of mitochondria, it is crucial to achieve a

defined membrane lipid composition between different lipid classes wherein specific

proportions of individual lipid species are present. Although mitochondria are capable of self-

synthesizing a few lipid classes, many phospholipids are synthesized in the endoplasmic

reticulum and transferred to mitochondria via membrane contact sites, as mitochondria are

excluded from the vesicular transportation pathway. However, knowledge on the capability of

lipid biosynthesis in mitochondria and the precise mechanism of maintaining the homeostasis of

mitochondrial lipids is still scarce. Here we describe the lipidome of mitochondria isolated from

Arabidopsis leaves, including the molecular species of glycerolipids, sphingolipids and sterols to

depict the lipid landscape of mitochondrial membranes. In addition, we define proteins involved

in lipid metabolism by proteomic analysis. Proteins putatively localized to the membrane

contact sites are proposed based on the proteomic results and online databases. Collectively,

our results suggest that leaf mitochondria are capable, with the assistant of membrane contact

site-localized proteins, in generating several lipid classes including phosphatidylethanolamines,

cardiolipins, diacylgalactosylglycerols and free sterols. We anticipate our work to be a

foundation to further investigate the functional roles of lipids and their involvement in

biochemical reactions in plant mitochondria.

Introduction

Mitochondria are considered as semiautonomous organelles. According to a widely accepted hypothesis, they descend from proteobacteria that have been engulfed to form an eukaryotic cell. The two involved cells established an endosymbiosis (Gray et al., 1999). Mitochondria play crucial roles in various cellular processes, including ATP generation, stress responses and initiation of programmed cell death (Jacoby et al., 2012). The mitochondria of plant cells even have extended functions, many of which are related to photosynthesis (Braun, 2020). Mitochondria are enclosed by two membranes, the outer (OM) and the inner (IM) mitochondrial membranes, that both require defined protein and lipid compositions to maintain their functional integrity (Horvath and Daum, 2013; Michaud et al., 2017). The majority of the mitochondrial proteins is encoded by the nuclear genome, synthesized in the cytoplasm and post-translationally imported into the organelle. At the same time, a few proteins are encoded by the mitochondrial genome and synthesized within the organelle. Recent studies have largely broadened the knowledge of protein import in mitochondria, to the OM, the intermembrane space, the IM and the matrix (Wiedemann and Pfanner, 2017). However, current understanding of the biosynthesis and transport of lipids in plants, although fundamentally important constituents of the mitochondria, is still very limited.

Wide varieties of lipid species compose biological membranes. According to the backbones of the lipid molecules, they are classified into three main lipid categories – glycerolipids, sphingolipids and sterols. To delineate the molecular species in this study, we later use the taxonomy containing two colon-separated units for the numbers of carbons and double bonds in the fatty acyl moiety, and an additional unit after a semicolon for the number of hydroxyl groups (when present) (Liebisch et al., 2020). Mitochondrial membranes contain high amounts of glycerophospholipids, such as phosphatidylcholine (PC) and phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), but are low in sphingolipids and sterols (Moreau et al., 1974; Bligny and Douce, 1980). Most of these lipids are produced in the ER and are sorted to mitochondria and other organelles afterwards. Nevertheless, mitochondria have also their own capacity to generate some specific lipid classes. For instance, cardiolipin (CL) is synthesized in the IM and is present exclusively in mitochondria (Douce et al., 1972; Babiychuk et al., 2003). It plays essential roles in establishing the cristae in the IM and in maintaining the mitochondrial ultrastructure. CL is formed through

the condensation of phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and diacylglycerol (DAG) and finally consists of

four acyl chains. The inner envelope of the plastid is the major site for generating PG molecules

(Müller and Frentzen, 2001). However, enzymes involved in PG biosynthesis are identified in

mitochondria as well, suggesting that mitochondria are capable of self-synthesizing PG and thus

CL (Babiychuk et al., 2003). In plants, the PG synthesizing enzymes,

phosphatidylglycerolphosphate (PGP) synthase and PGP phosphatase (PGPP), are associated

with mitochondria, and plastids; whereas CL synthase (CLS) localizes exclusively in the IM (Xu et

al., 2002; Katayama et al., 2004). Notably, although mitochondrial lipid biosynthesis is not the

major lipid source in plant cells, it is critical for certain organisms. In yeast, mitochondria are the

major supplier of PE (Horvath and Daum, 2013). They generate PE from phosphatidylserine (PS)

by phosphatidylserine decarboxylase (PSD). In *Arabidopsis*, three PSD enzymes have been

identified and PSD1 localizes in mitochondria, providing PE molecules *in situ* (Nerlich et al.,

2007). Reversely, some PS molecules are converted from PE through the base-exchange

pathway that substitutes the head groups of PE with serine molecules by PS synthase1, PSS1

(Yamaoka et al., 2011). While knowing mitochondria are capable of synthesizing PG, CL, PS and

PE, its competence toward other lipid classes is still poorly understood (Li-Beisson et al., 2013).

Lipid trafficking between ER, mitochondria and plastids is essential for mitochondrial membrane

biogenesis (Horvath and Daum, 2013; Michaud et al., 2017). Based on studies in yeast and

mammals, glycerophospholipid biosynthesis takes place at a distinct membrane stretch of the

ER, the mitochondria-associated membrane (MAM), wherein both ER and mitochondrial

proteins have been identified (Vance, 1990). Elevated activities of PE, PC and PS synthesizing

enzymes have been detected in purified yeast MAM. Moreover, this distinct membrane domain

seems to occur ubiquitously among plants and animal cells, suggesting its critical role during

evolution and in mediating lipid transfer between ER and mitochondria (Morré et al., 1971;

Staehelin, 1997; Achleitner et al., 1999; Michaud et al., 2016). Although mitochondria and

plastids work closely together in numerous pathways in plants, the lipid transport mechanism

between these two organelles is largely unknown. Nevertheless, a few studies have suggested

the relevance of lipid trafficking between these two organelles for survival, especially under

environmental stresses. During phosphate starvation, higher numbers of mitochondria – plastid

junctions are established (Jouhet et al., 2004). At the same time, drastic lipid remodeling of

mitochondria, plastids and plasma membrane arises. PC and PE are degraded to release the

phosphate residues for essential biological processes and the remaining molecules are recycled

to generate the typical plastidial glyceroglycolipid, digalactosyldiacylglycerol (DGDG). This

coincides with increased levels of CL in mitochondria isolated from *Arabidopsis* suspension cells

and calli (Michaud et al., 2017). In *Arabidopsis*, the protein complex involved in lipid trafficking

and tethering of the two mitochondrial membranes, the mitochondrial transmembrane

lipoprotein (MTL) complex, has been identified recently (Michaud et al., 2016). MTL is composed

of more than 200 subunits and it has been demonstrated that MTL promotes the translocation

of PE from IM to OM and the import of DGDG from plastids to mitochondria during phosphate

starvation. Furthermore, mutation of a newly identified MTL subunit, digalactosyldiacylglycerol

synthase suppressor 1 (DGS1), leads to alteration of plastidial and mitochondrial lipid

composition and deficiency in mitochondrial biogenesis (Li et al., 2019). The characterization of

the MTL complex provides an initial insight in understanding the mechanism of lipid trafficking

between mitochondria and plastids.

In this study, we aimed to characterize the lipid metabolism of *Arabidopsis* leaf mitochondria

and conducted an in-depth lipidomic analysis, providing the molecular species information of all

lipid categories including glycerolipids, sphingolipids and sterols to illustrate the lipid landscape

of mitochondria in *Arabidopsis* leaves. In combination with a proteomic approach, we intended

to specify the capacity of lipid biosynthesis and modification in plant mitochondria, defining lipid

species and classes that may be generated by mitochondria. We additionally propose putative

membrane contact site-localizing proteins and their roles in interorganelle communication. Our

results suggest that leaf mitochondria possess a defined lipid composition wherein specific lipid

molecular species appear. In addition, lipid trafficking between mitochondria, ER and plastids via

membrane contact sites provides assistance in maintaining the homeostasis of the lipid

composition in mitochondria.

Results

Purity of mitochondrial fractions

A combinatorial approach by lipidomics, proteomics and mining of online databases was applied

to investigate the lipid composition as well as the capacity of lipid metabolism of *Arabidopsis*

leaf mitochondria. Mitochondria were isolated by differential centrifugation combined with

Percoll density gradient centrifugation. To ensure and evaluate the purity of the mitochondrial

fractions, all samples were investigated by two-dimensional (2D) blue native (BN)/SDS PAGE and

by shotgun proteome analyses. Our mitochondrial fractions proved to be of good quality. The

two photosystems were not detectable on our 2D gels. Only trace amounts of the large subunit

from Rubisco, the most abundant protein in leaves, were visible in the leaf mitochondrial

fractions (L-mito) on BN/SDS gels, and the small subunit of Rubisco was barely visible (Fig. 1A,

Supplemental Fig. S1). Mitochondria isolated from dark-grown *Arabidopsis* cell culture (C-mito)

were investigated by the same procedure and used as an established control for contamination

from chloroplasts. The L-mito and C-mito fractions were highly similar (Fig. 1, Supplemental

Fig. S1). In addition, the purity of the mitochondrial fractions was investigated by label-free

quantitative shotgun proteomics. Building on the proteome data (Supplemental Tab. S1), the

proportion of mitochondria-localized proteins was calculated to be in the range of 87 to 94 %

(Fig. 1B, Supplemental Fig. S2). These results indicate that the mitochondrial fractions are of

high purity.

Figure 1. Purity of mitochondrial fractions. The purity of mitochondrial fractions was determined

by 2D blue native / SDS PAGE **(A)** and by summed-up peptide intensities of subcellular

compartments based on protein assignments as given by the Subcellular localization database

for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon; www.suba.live) **(B).**

A: Mitochondria were isolated from *Arabidopsis* leaves (L-mito) and cell cultures (C-mito).

Proteins were separated by 2D Blue native PAGE and Coommassie-stained. Numbers on top and

to the left of the 2D gels refer to the masses of standard protein complexes / proteins (in kDa),

the roman numbers above the gels to the identity of OXPHOS complexes. I+III$_2$: supercomplex

consisting of complex I and dimeric complex III; I: complex I; V: complex V; III$_2$: dimeric complex

III; IV: complex IV. The small (S; 14.5 kDa) and the large (L; 53.5 kDa) subunit of Rubisco are

indicated by green arrows. Biological replicates of the 2D gels and reference gels for

mitochondrial and chloroplast fractions from *Arabidopsis* are shown in Fig. S1.

PC, PE and CL are strongly enriched glycerolipids in plant leaf mitochondria

Glycerolipids are the most abundant lipids not only in mitochondria but also generally in plant tissues, accounting for more than 90 % of the overall lipids in leaves (Li-Beisson et al., 2013). Glycerophospholipids are fundamental to all biological membranes, while glyceroglycolipids are critical for photosynthetic membranes and localize mainly in plastids of vegetative tissues (Hölzl and Dörmann, 2019). Therefore, a quantitative approach based on TLC-GC was applied on determining the proportion of the major glycerolipid classes in L-TE and L-mito (Fig. 2). In L-TE, glyceroglycolipids including monogalactosyldiacylglycerols (MGDG; 38.9 ± 1.1 %) and DGDG (22.3 ± 3.8 %) contribute to the majority of the overall lipids; while glycerophospholipids, PC (35.7 ± 6.0 %) and PE (37.2 ± 0.3 %), are the most abundant lipids in L-mito. CL accounts for 4.0 ± 0.9 % in the lipidome of L-mito; however, it was not detectable in L-TE because of its low abundance in total cellular lipids. PG, as the precursor of CL, consists 5.6 ± 2.1 % of the overall lipids in L-mito.

Figure 2. Lipid class profiles of purified mitochondria and total leaf extracts. Glycerolipids of leaf total extract (L-TE) and mitochondria isolated from leaves (L-mito) were analyzed quantitatively by TLC-GC approach. Data of L-TE represent mean values in mol % from three independent

experiments ± SD; data of L-mito represent mean values in mol % from two independent

experiments ± SEM. PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; CL, cardiolipin; PG,

phosphatidylglycerol; MGDG, monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; DGDG, digalactosyldiacylglycerol.

Specific molecular glycerolipid species are enriched in plant leaf mitochondria

Glycerophospholipids are the most abundant lipids in mitochondria (Fig. 2) (Daum and Vance,

1997). The most abundant PC and PE molecular species in mitochondria with the acyl chains

18:2/18:3, 18:2/18:2 and 18:3/18:3 account for more than 60 % in both lipid classes (Fig. 3a;

Supplemental Tab. S2). The species 16:0/18:2, 16:0/18:3 of both lipid classes however were

depleted by about 50 % in this organelle in comparison to L-TE. PS (18:0/18:2) composes up to

38.3 % in L-mito with an increase of $2^{4.3}$ fold comparing to L-TE. The accumulation of this lipid

species was the most remarkable one that was even visible when the fatty acid profiles of the

different lipid classes were calculated from the molecular species data, showing an enrichment

of 18:0 in mitochondria on the expense of 16:0 (Supplemental Fig. S3). Together the main

molecular species of these three lipid classes have a C18/C18 acyl chain composition in

common.

Figure 3. Profiles of molecular glycerolipid species and the according fold changes between L-

mito and L-TE. Heat maps of (a) glycerophospholipids, (b) glyceroglycolipids and (c)

diacylglycerols illustrate the difference of species distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses.

Each block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are presented and

summarized to 100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent

experiments. Binary logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than 0.5 to inspect

the fold changes (FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **) indicate p values <

0.05 and < 0.01, respectively, by Student's t-test. PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE,

phosphatidylethanolamine; PS: phosphatidylserine; PI: phosphatidylinositol; PA phosphatidic

acid; DAG: Diacylglycerol; CL, cardiolipin; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; MGDG,

monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; DGDG, digalactosyldiacylglycerol.

An important intermediate in glycerolipid metabolism is phosphatidic acid (PA), serving as

precursor or product for numerous glycerolipids including PC, PE, PG, phosphatidylinositol (PI)

and DAG. PA (16:0/18:2), PA (16:0/18:3) and PA (18:2/18:3) are the most abundant PA species in

both fractions, L-mito and L-TE. Notably, only a minor molecular PA species (16:0/16:0; 1.3 mol

%) accumulates preferentially in mitochondria with an enrichment of $2^{5.3}$ fold comparing to L-TE.

DAG as the other important lipid intermediate displays a higher complexity in its species profile.

DAG (16:0/18:2), DAG (16:0/18:3), DAG (18:2/18:3) and DAG (18:3/18:3) build a substantial

amount (>65 mol %) of the DAG profile in L-mito (Fig. 3c). As in case of PA, only the minor DAG

species (16:0/16:0) shows a $2^{2.2}$ fold increase in L-mito compared to L-TE.

PG is formed from PA in the envelopes of plastids and mitochondria and serves as precursor for

the mitochondrial lipid CL (Babiychuk et al., 2003). Hydrolysis and condensation of PG lead to

the formation of DAG and CL correspondingly. PG (16:0/18:2) and PG (16:0/18:3) are the major

species in L-mito, but only the former species is enriched in mitochondria ($2^{1.1}$ fold). In addition,

unsaturated PG species are significantly enriched in L-mito, which contribute to the structures of

the down-stream CL molecules. CL (72:10) and CL (72:11), composed of 18:2 and 18:3 acyl

chains, are the most abundant CL (Fig. 3a).

Glycerophospholipids serve not only as membrane building blocks but are also important

precursors for signaling molecules in the cell. PI, phosphatidylinositol monophosphate (PIP) and

phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP_2) exert regulatory functions in cell development and

polarity determination (Heilmann, 2016). In L-mito, molecular species with 16:0/18:2 and

16:0/18:3 acyl chains compose up to 80 % of PI and PIP_2; yet PIP was not detectable in L-mito.

PI (16:0/16:1) and PI (18:0/18:1) were only detectable in the mitochondrial extracts, and

PI (18:0/18:2) is significantly enriched in L-mito for $2^{1.2}$ fold in comparison to L-TE (Fig. 3a). On

the other hand, we obtained higher signals of PIP_2 (18:1/18:2) in L-mito.

Glyceroglycolipids carry carbohydrate residues as their head groups; for instance, the galactose-

containing lipids, MGDG and DGDG contain one and two galactoses, respectively (Hölzl and

Dörmann, 2019). MGDG (16:3/18:3) and DGDG (18:3/18:3) are the major components of the

overall glyceroglycolipids in both L-TE and L-mito (Fig. 3b). The amount of MGDG (16:0/18:3)

and MGDG (18:2/18:2) are specifically elevated in L-mito for $2^{1.5}$ and $2^{1.4}$ folds, respectively,

compared to L-TE. In contrast, the species MGDG (16:1/18:1) and MGDG (16:3/18:2) are

significantly decreased in L-mito. In summary, the major mitochondrial lipids PC, PE, PS and CL

consist primarily of C18/C18 species, while PI, PIP2 and PG consist primarily of C16/C18 species

and the lipid precursors DAG and PA resemble a mixture of both backbones.

Proteomic analyses provides insights into the leaf mitochondrial glycerolipid metabolism

capacity

To further analyze the proteome of the mitochondrial fractions, their protein composition was

investigated for enzymes from lipid metabolism. Subsequently, their biological function and the

subcellular localization were retrieved from The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR) and

the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon) databases

(Supplemental Fig. S4).

About 40 proteins involved in the biosynthesis and modification of fatty acids and more complex

lipids were identified in mitochondrial extracts (Supplemental Tab. S3). Four enzymes from

glycerophospholipid metabolism were detected in all mitochondrial fractions (Fig. 4). Two

glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenases were identified (SDP6 and GPDHp), being involved in an

early step of glycerophospholipid biosynthesis. Phosphoethanolamine cytidylyltransferase

(PECT) was detected in our study by similar abundances in the L-mito and C-mito samples. CL is

synthesized after the condensation of PG and CDP-DAG by CL synthase (CLS) or after the

transacylation of monolyso-CL by monolysocardiolipin acyltransferase (LCLAT or Tafazzin)(Xu et

al., 2006). CLS and Tafazzin were identified in the shotgun proteomic analysis in this study with a

higher abundance in C-mito compared to L-mito. PG is synthesized from PA via CDP-DAG by

phosphatidylglycerophosphate synthase 1 (PGP1) (Xu et al., 2002) and it was only detected in C-

mito samples. Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase 1 (PSD1) synthesizes PE by decarboxylating the

headgroup of PS (Birner et al., 2001; Nerlich et al., 2007). Again in our study PSD1 was only

detected in C-mito samples. Interestingly PE and PC can be interconverted into each other via

PA and the detected phospholipase Dα1 (PLDα1) enzyme activity. PLDα1 was preferentially

found in C-mito samples. PIP and PIP$_2$ can be degraded by *myo*-inositol polyphosphate 1-

phosphatase (SAL1). Although many enzymes involved in phosphoinositide metabolism have

been annotated to localize in mitochondria, only SAL1 was identified in our approach in the C-

mito samples.

a Glycerophospholipid metabolism

L-mito			C-mito			Locus	Name	Function
						AT2G38670	PECT1	Ethanolamine-phosphatecytidylyltransferase
						AT2G39290	PGP1	CDP-DAG-G3P3-phosphatidyltransferase1
						AT3G10370	SDP6	Glycerol-3-phosphatedehydrogenase
						AT3G15730	PLDα1	PhospholipaseDalpha1
						AT4G04870	CLS	Cardiolipinsynthase
						AT4G16700	PSD1	PSdecarboxylaseproenzyme1
						AT1G78690	LCLAT	Monolysocardiolipinacyltransferase
						AT5G40610	GPDHp	Glycerol-3-phosphatedehydrogenase

b Glyceroglycolipid metabolism

L-mito			C-mito			Locus	Name	Function
						AT4G33030	SQD1	Sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol1

c Phosphoinositide metabolism

L-mito			C-mito			Locus	Name	Function
						AT5G63980	SAL1	Inositolpolyphosphate1-phosphatase

Figure 4. Mitochondrial localized proteins that are related to glycerolipid biosynthesis. (a)

Glycerophospholipid, (b) glyceroglycolipid and (c) phosphoinositide metabolism. Proteins

identified and/or localized in mitochondria were labeled (i) blue: proteins identified in the

proteomic analysis of this study and also predicted to localize in mitochondria, (ii) green:

proteins identified in the proteomic analysis of this study in mitochondria but predicted to

localize in other organelles, (iii) bold font: exclusively localized in mitochondria and (iv) italic

font: only identified in one of the mitochondrial populations. Heat maps visualize the protein

abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves and cell

cultures. Predicted protein localization was based on The Arabidopsis Information Resource

(TAIR; www.arabidopsis.org) and the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins

(SUBAcon; www.suba.live).

The biosynthesis of glyceroglycolipids takes place in the plastids envelopes by MGDG and DGDG

synthases (MGDs and DGDs), respectively (Hölzl and Dörmann, 2019). MGDG is generated by

adding a galactose head group to DAG; subsequent addition of another galactose by DGD1

generates DGDG. The detected specific species profiles of mitochondrial glyceroglycolipids may

suggest at least for a specific transport from plastids to mitochondria (Fig. 3b). The sulfolipid

SQDG is synthesized in two steps. Uridine diphosphate (UDP)-glucose is first combined with a

sulfite by UDP-sulfoquinovose synthase 1 (SQD1), followed by transferring the sulfoquinovose

head group to DAG and thus forms SQDG. Although SQD1 was identified in the C-mito samples

in this study, we did not detect SQDG lipids in any of the mitochondrial samples. Together we

could exclusively localize three biosynthetic steps to mitochondria: (i) CLS and catalyzing the

formation of CL as well as (ii) PSD1 and (iii) PECT1 facilitating PE formation.

Specific molecular sphingolipid and sterol species suggest a function in mitochondria

Sphingolipids and sterols are important modulators of membrane microdomains and play

critical roles in regulating the balance between cell survival and apoptosis. Therefore we profiled

next their mitochondrial compositions. For sphingolipids both simple and complex sphingolipids

were measured, including long-chain bases (LCB), phosphorylated LCB (LCB-P), ceramides (Cer),

glucosylceramides (GlcCer) and glycosyl inositol phosphoceramides (GIPC) (Fig. 5). All

sphingolipids have LCBs, 18-carbon amino-alcohols, as their backbones. Phytosphingosine

(18:0;3), hosting three hydroxyl groups, is the most abundant free LCB in both L-mito and L-TE

(Fig. 5a). However, dihydrosphingosine (18:0;2) is highly enriched in L-mito as well as

phosphorylated dihydrosphingosine (18:0;2-P), which is the major component in the LCB-P pool

of L-mito (64.7 %). LCBs can be further *N*-acylated to generate Cer, the basic structure of

complex sphingolipid classes. Addition of glucoses to Cer generates GlcCer, following sequential

extension of phosphoinositol, hexose and/or hexose derivatives generate series of GIPCs. Series

0, A and B GIPCs carry one, two and three additional hexoses on the head groups of inositol

phosphoceramides, respectively (Cacas et al., 2012; Haslam and Feussner, 2022). Similar to LCB

and LCB-P, only specific species were enriched in L-mito (Fig. 5b): Cer (18:0;3/24:0;1),

GlcCer (18:1;2/24:1;1) and series A hexose-carrying GIPC (H-GIPC) (18:1;3/24:1;1). Remarkably,

GIPCs were only detectable in mitochondrial samples (both L-mito and C-mito) in our approach.

However, proteins related to sphingolipid metabolism were neither identified in plant

mitochondria via proteomic analyses, nor retrieved from online databases.

Figure 5. Profiles of molecular sphingolipid species, the according fold changes between L-mito

and L-TE and general sphingolipid biosynthesis pathway in combination with mitochondrial

enriched lipids. Heat maps of (a) long chain bases, long chain base-phosphates and (b) complex

sphingolipids illustrate the difference of species distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses. Each

block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are presented and summarized to

100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent experiments. Binary

logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than 0.5 to inspect the fold changes

(FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **) indicate p values < 0.05 and < 0.01,

respectively, by Student's t-test.

The common structure of sterols is a four-ring system, cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene,

with possible conjugation of hydroxyl groups and acyl chains. In plants, a complex mixture of

sterols can be found, including brassicasterol, campesterol, cholesterol, sitosterol and

stigmasterol (Cacas et al., 2012). Campesterol was identified as major free sterol with 61.7 % in

L-mito (Fig. 6). From the group of steryl glycosides cholesteryl and isofucosteryl glycoside

accumulated preferentially in L-mito. Considering SE, 16:0 and 18:0 containing cholesteryl esters

were enriched $2^{3.4}$ and $2^{5.3}$ folds, respectively, in L-mito. For ASG however the situation was

blurred. DWF1 was the only protein related to sterol metabolism that we identified in plant

mitochondria via proteomic analyses. In summary, we observed an accumulation of GIPCs and

free campersterol in leaf mitochondria.

Figure 6. Profiles of molecular sterol species, the according fold changes between L-mito and L-TE and general sterol biosynthesis pathway in combination of mitochondrial localized proteins and enriched lipids. Heat maps of (a) free sterols (b) steryl glycosides (SG) and (c) acylated steryl glycosides (ASG) and steryl esters (SE) illustrate the difference of species distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses. Each block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are presented and summarized to 100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent experiments. Binary logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than 0.5 to inspect the fold changes (FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **) indicate p values < 0.05 and < 0.01, respectively, by Student's t-test.

Mitochondria harbor various additional metabolic pathways for the synthesis of lipophilic

molecules. More than 20 fatty acid biosynthesis-related proteins were identified in our

mitochondrial proteome (Supplemental Fig. S5). They contribute to the synthesis of lipoic acid,

ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinones. Abundance, function and predicted localization of

these proteins are specified in Supplemental Tab. S1 and S3.

Lipid molecules can be imported by mitochondria

Transport of DGDG from plastids to mitochondria and reallocation of PE from IM to OM via the

MTL complex have been demonstrated under phosphate-depleting conditions (Michaud et al.,

2016). The MTL complex has more than 200 subunits and 11 have been verified to associate

physically with the core subunits, Mic60 and Tom40, as previously shown by immunoblotting

(Michaud et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019). In our mitochondrial proteome, 186 of the subunits (87 %)

were identified including all the 11 verified ones (Fig. 7). The newly identified MTL subunit,

DGS1, which links mitochondrial protein to lipid transport, is present in all mitochondrial

extracts.

L-mito	C-mito	Locus	Name	Description
		AT1G06530	PMD2	Peroxisomal and mitochondrial division factor 2
		AT1G27390	TOM20-2	Translocase of outer membrane 20 kDa subunit 2
		AT2G37410	TIM17-2	Translocase inner membrane subunit 17-2
		AT2G42210	B14.7	Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit family protein
		AT3G20000	TOM40	Translocase of the outer mitochondrial membrane 40 kDa
		AT3G27080	TOM20-3	Translocase of outer membrane 20 kDa subunit 3
		AT4G39690	Mic60	Mitochondrial contact site and cristae organizing system subunit
		AT5G12290	DGS1	dgd1 suppressor 1
		AT5G13430	RISP	Ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase iron-sulfur subunit
		AT5G40930	TOM20-4	Translocase of outer membrane 20 kDa subunit 4
		ATMG00160	COX2	Cytochrome oxidase 2

L-mito	C-mito	Locus	Name	Function
		AT3G19820	DWF1	Delta(24)-sterol reductase

Figure 7. MTL complex-associated proteins in mitochondria. Our proteomic analyses covered

186 of the 214 hypothetical subunits in the MTL complex (listed in Supplemental Tab. S3); 11

have been investigated by immunoblotting approaches in previous studies. Heat maps visualize

the protein abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves

and cell cultures. Proteins with high and low abundance are depicted in yellow and black,

respectively.

In addition, at least 16 outer envelope (OE)-localized proteins from plastids were co-purified

with mitochondria, with higher abundance in C-mito (Fig. 8). They account for 3.4 % (16/471) of

the identified plastidial proteins, which are enriched by more than two folds in comparison to

the proportion of OE proteins in plastids (46/3002, 1.5 %) (Inoue, 2007, 2011; Simm et al., 2013;

Kim et al., 2019). The enrichment of OE proteins in mitochondrial extracts suggests for a close

physical interaction between mitochondria and plastidial OE membrane. For instance, the

membrane contact sites, which were not disrupted during the isolation procedure, and

therefore are present in the mitochondrial samples as membrane patches.

L-mito	C-mito	Locus	Name	Function
		AT2G16640	TOC132	Translocon complex in the outer envelope membrane 132
		AT2G28900	OEP16-1	Outer plastid envelope protein 16-1
		AT2G43950	OEP37	Outer envelope protein 37
		AT3G06510	GGGT	Galactolipid:galactolipid galactosyltransferase
		AT3G17970	TOC64-III	Translocon at the outer membrane of chloroplasts 64-III
		AT3G46740	TOC75-III	Translocon at the outer envelope membrane of chloroplasts 75-III
		AT3G52420	OEP7	Outer envelope membrane protein 7
		AT4G02510	TOC159	Translocon at the outer envelope membrane of chloroplasts 159
		AT5G05000	TOC34	Translocon at the outer envelope membrane of chloroplasts 34
		AT5G19620	OEP80	Outer envelope protein of 80 kDa

386 **Figure 8.** Identified plastid outer envelope proteins in mitochondrial extracts. Our proteomic

387 analyses identified 12 outer envelope-localized proteins. Heat maps visualize the protein

388 abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves and cell

389 cultures. Proteins with high and low abundance are depicted in yellow and black, respectively.

Discussion

In this study, we present an in-depth dataset of lipid molecular species from glycerolipids,

sphingolipids and sterols of Arabidopsis leaf mitochondria. With the assistance of online

resources, we assigned and confirmed central lipid biosynthesis steps within these

mitochondrial fractions. Furthermore, we confirmed and expanded our knowledge on the

existence of a protein complex for lipid trafficking between mitochondria and other organelles.

In the past, the most abundant plant mitochondrial glycerolipid classes, such as PC, PE, PI, PA,

CL, MGDG and DGDG, from *Arabidopsis* cell cultures and calli under phosphate-depleted

conditions have been quantified with TLC-GC (Michaud et al., 2017). However, a TLC-GC-based

approach lacks the molecular species information concerning acyl chain length and unsaturation

degree of the lipids, which are critical parameters to determine the membranes physical

properties. In addition, neither sphingolipids nor sterols of mitochondria were profiled to our

very best knowledge formerly in *Arabidopsis*.

In our study, mitochondria were purified by differential and Percoll density gradient

centrifugations. Much effort was made to document purity of the resulting organelle fraction: (i)

visual inspection of the protein complex composition by 2D BN / SDS PAGE and (ii) label-free

quantitative shotgun proteins in combination with SUBAcon evaluation. The SUBAcon database

integrates worldwide knowledge on subcellular localization information of Arabidopsis proteins

based on *in vitro* or *in vivo* protein targeting experiments, mass spectrometry-based analyses of

organellar fractions, protein-protein interaction data and bioinformatics tools for subcellular

localization prediction. Based on the latter approach, purity of our mitochondrial fractions can

be estimated to be in the range of 90% (87 to 94%, Supplemental Fig. S2). Traces of chloroplasts

were present in our fractions. However, even Rubisco, which is considered to be the most

abundant chloroplast protein, was detectable only as a very faint spot on the 2D BN/SDS gel of

the L-mito fraction (Fig. 1). Finally, quantitative lipidomics revealed the purity of our

mitochondrial fraction. MGDG, DGDG, PG and SQDG are the main components of plastidial

membranes (Hölzl and Dörmann, 2019). In *Arabidopsis* chloroplasts, the ratio of MGDG : DGDG :

PG : SQDG is about 1:0.5:0.1:0.3 (Awai et al., 2006). In contrast, a distinct ratio of 1:0.3:0.4:0 was

detected in L-mito in this study (Fig. 2). Moreover, only a few specific MGDG and DGDG

molecular species are enriched in L-mito compared to L-TE (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the cross-

contamination from intact plastids or bulk plastidial membranes are insignificant. On the other

hand, more than 85 % of the subunits of the MTL complex (deduced from its composition in

yeast mitochondria, Fig. 7) and many OE proteins (Fig. 8) were identified in the mitochondrial

samples via our proteomics approach, strongly suggesting that a close contact between

mitochondria, the ER and chloroplasts exists in our preparations. We conclude that the

identified chloroplast lipids and proteins rather originate from small pieces of plastidial

membranes and, importantly, the mitochondria-plastid contact sites, which are present in our

mitochondrial fraction and contribute to the measured lipid composition. While the protein

complexes connecting ER and mitochondria have been well described in yeast, their roles in

mediating and/or facilitating lipid translocation are less defined in plants. In contrast to yeast, to

our knowledge only one tethering protein has been described in flowering plants up to now

(Michaud et al., 2016).

With the proteomic and lipidomic datasets as well as the online resources in hand, we assigned

central lipid biosynthesis reactions and refined models for a possible exchange of lipid

molecules between mitochondria, ER and plastids in plants in Fig. 9. Previous studies in yeast

and mammalian cells have shown that mitochondria are capable of synthesizing PE, PA, PG and

CL (Flis and Daum, 2013; Horvath and Daum, 2013; Tatsuta et al., 2014). Here, we expand the

knowledge that at least the glycerolipids PE and CL can be generated and/or modified in

Arabidopsis leaf mitochondria. Considering PE biosynthesis, the rate-limiting enzymes in CDP-

ethanolamine and PS decarboxylation pathways, PECT1 and PSD1, respectively, were identified

in our mitochondrial samples with higher abundance in C-mito (Fig. 4). It suggests that the

generation of mitochondrial PE in the cell culture may be more active in comparison to the

leaves. Moreover our observation was supported by earlier studies that localized PECT1 at the

mitochondrial periphery and PSD1 in mitochondria in *Arabidopsis* (Mizoi et al., 2006; Nerlich et

al., 2007). PE is one of the most abundant glycerophospholipids in biological membranes.

Therefore, a high demand is expected to supply mitochondria for their biogenesis in actively

dividing cell cultures. The other major component of biological membranes is PC. It is

considered to be synthesized in the ER and then transferred through protein complexes

connecting ER and mitochondria to mitochondria. The structural information of the enriched

lipid species provides evidences for the biosynthesis in the ER as well. Many PE and PC species in

mitochondrial samples have longer acyl moieties with 22 to 26 carbons, which can only be

synthesized in the ER (Haslam and Kunst, 2013). Conventionally, the majority of PS biosynthesis

was assumed to take place in the ER and before being transferred to mitochondria as well. PS

and PE, although they are able to interconvert, have distinct lipid profiles from each other,

suggesting that only selected lipid species are the substrates of PSD1. In addition, inositol

polyphosphate phosphatase 1 (SAL1), which is an enzyme that is involved in phosphoinositide

degradation and generates inositol phosphates, was identified in our mitochondrial samples

with higher abundance in C-mito comparing to L-mito. This finding confirmed a previous report

that localized it in both mitochondria and plastids (Estavillo et al., 2011). Inositol phosphates

play crucial roles in many biological processes including gene expression and regulation of cell

death through sphingolipids (Alcázar-Román and Wente, 2008; Donahue et al., 2010). Removal

of head groups from glycerophospholipids, mostly PC and PE, by phospholipase Dα1 (PLDα1)

results in PA, serving as important precursor in other glycerophospholipid biosynthesis

pathways (Fig. 9). Comparing to L-TE, the most enriched PA species in L-mito carry 16:0 and 18:0

fatty acyl moieties. This corresponds to the enriched PI, PG and DAG species in L-mito,

suggesting that PA may serve as an interconverting hinge between these glycerolipids in plant

mitochondria. While our study detected PLDα1 preferentially in C-mito samples, previous

studies localized it in the cytosol or at the plasmamembrane (Du et al., 2013). This may suggest

that PLDα1 localizes to contact sites either between plasmamembrane and mitochondria or

between ER and mitochondria. In addition, two glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenases were

identified (SDP6 and GPDHp). Whereas SDP6 was detected in mitochondria before, GPDHp was

localized in the plastid (Nandi et al., 2004; Quettier et al., 2008).

Figure 9. Model of lipid biosynthesis and trafficking within and between mitochondria, ER and plastids in *Arabidopsis*. Lipid synthesis and transfer between membranes are indicated by black and blue arrows, respectively. Proteins identified in L-mito or C-mito with additional ER or plastidic localization based on The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; www.arabidopsis.org) and the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon; www.suba.live) are considered as putative contact-site localized proteins (dashed frame). Lipid biosynthesis-related proteins indicated in other studies are depicted in grey. Full names and functions of involved proteins are itemized in Supplemental Tab. S1. OM, mitochondrial outer membrane; IM, mitochondrial inner membrane; OE, plastid outer envelope; IE, plastid inner envelope; MTL, mitochondrial transmembrane lipoprotein complex. DHAP, dihydroxyacetone phosphate; G3P, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; MAG, monoacylglycerol; DAG, diacylglycerol; Etn, ethanolamine; TAG, triacylglycerol; IP, inositol phosphate; PGP, phosphatidylglycerol phosphate; SQDG, sulfoquinovosyl diacylglycerol.

An enzyme being involved in synthesizing PG from PA is PGP1. It was found in our proteomic analysis in C-mito samples (Fig. 4). CL can be synthesized through condensation of PG and DAG by CLS, or addition of acyl chains to monolyso-CL by monolysocardiolipin acyltransferase (LCLAT or Tafazzin). All identified enzymes involving in PG and CL biosynthesis, PGP1, CLS and LCLAT,

are more abundant in C-mito compared to L-mito. PGP1 was previously found to localize to both

mitochondria and plastids (Babiychuk et al., 2003), while CLS was localized to mitochondria

(Katayama et al., 2004). This suggests an intensive interaction between mitochondria and

plastids in cell cultures because (1) high amounts of proteins localized in contact sites imply a

closer connection between the two organelles; (2) more CLS is required to convert the plastid-

derived PG which is transferred to mitochondria presumably via membrane contact sites; (3)

active energy generation is vital for actively dividing cells and thus a high amount of CL is

required to assemble the respiratory chain complexes in mitochondria. Although PG is the

precursor for CL synthesis, the abundance in L-mito is significantly less than in L-TE, probably

because a substantial amount in L-TE originates from plastids and PG is directly converted into

CL in mitochondria (Fig. 2).

Typically, glyceroglycolipids such as MGDG, DGDG and SQDG are considered to be synthesized in

plastids and are transferred to other organelles upon stress. For instance, DGDG is transferred

from plastidial membranes to other compartments including mitochondrial membranes and the

plasma membrane during phosphate starvation to compensate the loss of PC and PE (Jouhet et

al., 2004). In addition to vesicular transportation and lipid trafficking via contact sites, emerging

evidences support the hypothesis of lipid synthesis in *trans* in yeast and plants (Mehrshahi et al.,

2013; Tavassoli et al., 2013; Michaud et al., 2017). That is, enzyme located at one membrane

might be capable to catalyze the reaction on another membrane when they are in close

apposition. In this way, neither tethering proteins nor massive lipid remolding under stress

conditions is required, if the mitochondria can acquire lipids without setting up the junctions to

other organelles. Therefore, we suspect that the DGDG biosynthesis enzymes, DGD1/2, catalyze

the reactions in *trans* or at the mitochondria-plastid contact sites, providing DGDG molecules to

compensate the loss of glycerophospholipids in real time (Fig. 4b). In addition, several subunits

of the MTL complex were identified in our proteomic approach including Tom40, Mic60, DGS1

etc. (Fig. 7). It establishes a lipid trafficking system removing DGDG from plastids and allocating

PE between the IM and OM. Rapid remodeling of the mitochondrial membranes is supported by

in *trans* lipid biosynthesis and the MTL complex, likely in close cooperation with other

complexes. However, the underlying mechanism of this lipid transportation machinery is still

largely unknown. SQDG synthase (SQD1) was identified exclusively in C-mito, but no SQDG

molecules were detected (Fig. 4b). Earlier reports localized SQD1 in chloroplasts (Essigmann et

al., 1998), suggesting that SQD1 is either co-purified with plastid envelope membranes from cell

cultures or is localized in .

Sphingolipid biosynthesis takes place at the ER membrane and subsequently in the Golgi

apparatus for the addition of carbohydrate residues. Interestingly, in the last decade, several

sphingolipid-metabolizing enzymes have been identified in mitochondria purified from yeast

and mammalian systems, including Cer synthase and ceramidase (Bionda et al., 2004; Kitagaki et

al., 2007; Novgorodov et al., 2011). In animal models, mitochondria-synthesized Cer plays a

crucial role in cerebral ischemia-induced mitochondrial dysfunction. The connection between

sphingolipids and mitochondria-promoted apoptosis has been proposed in plants as well.

Recent studies in *Arabidopsis* have demonstrated that the ratio between LCB-P and Cer is

involved in maintaining the balance of cell survival and apoptosis (Watanabe et al., 2013; Bi et

al., 2014). However, no sphingolipid biosynthesis enzyme has been identified in plant

mitochondria hereto. GIPCs are the most abundant sphingolipids in mitochondria, although still

minor comparing to glycerophospholipids. It is known that PM-localized GIPCs are important in

signal transduction and intercellular recognition (Lenarčič et al., 2017; Ali et al., 2018). GIPCs

may as well establish the communication between mitochondria and other organelles, although

further analysis is required to understand the functions of sphingolipids in plant mitochondria.

Sterols, although taking part in both biotic and abiotic stress responses, are at low abundance in

mitochondrial samples. Sterol biosynthesis primarily takes place in the ER (Schaller, 2003).

Among them, sterol C-24 reductase (DWF1) was identified both in L-mito and C-mito, with

higher abundance in C-mito. DWF1 has been proposed to mediate the biosynthesis of all

phytosterols with higher specificity towards campesterol in Arabidopsis, but this protein was

localized to ER membranes (Klahre et al., 1998; Youn et al., 2018). Therefore, we suggest DWF1

as an additional contact site localized protein (Fig. 7). High amount of campesterol was detected

in L-mito, suggesting the existence of an onsite biosynthesis and/or sterol transporter to

facilitate the import of campesterol from the ER. However, unlike mammalian cells wherein

cholesterol transport proteins such as steroidogenic acute regulatory protein, StAR (Clark et al.,

1995), and MLN64 (Charman et al., 2010) have been identified, little is known about sterol

transporters in plants.

Conclusions

In summary, we expanded the knowledge regarding lipid biosynthesis and modification in plant mitochondria by performing a global lipidome analysis of Arabidopsis leaf mitochondria to provide their in-depth lipid molecular species profile including glycerolipids, sphingolipids and sterols. Our proteome data confirmed that PE and CL can be synthesized in these organelles partially by the assistance of putative contact-site localized proteins and / or in *trans* lipid biosynthesis. Based on the proteomic results, we propose and confirm the existence of membrane contact site-localized proteins and their aspects in lipid biosynthesis pathways. This study serves as a foundation for additional researches in unveiling the functional roles of mitochondrial lipids and the mechanisms of mitochondria-dependent signaling pathways.

Materials and methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Rosette leaves of wild-type *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh Columbia-0 were used for both extracting total lipid extract and purifying mitochondria. After sowing the seeds in pots with three-day cold stratification at 4 °C, seedlings were grown under 16 h-day length at 24 °C with 60 % relative humidity and 150 μmol photons m^{-2} sec^{-1} for one week. Young seedlings were transferred to large trays and grown with equal spacing for another three weeks before further experimental procedures.

Suspension culture of *Arabidopsis thaliana*

Suspension cultures were established starting from sterilized seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana* wild-type Columbia-0, grown on MS medium plates containing 0.8 % agar. Plant pieces were transferred to B5 medium agar plates and cultivated for several weeks in the dark for callus induction. Callus was finally transferred into liquid B5 medium including 3 % (w/v) sucrose, 0.01 % (w/v) 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid and 0.001 % (w/v) kinetin. Cultures were incubated on a shaker at 24 °C in the dark. Callus was transferred weekly into new liquid medium (3 g / 100 ml).

Mitochondria isolation

From Arabidopsis rosettes

The mitochondria isolation procedure was described previously (Schikowsky et al., 2018). About

200 g of four-week-old *Arabidopsis* rosettes were collected and homogenized at 4 °C with a

waring blender in 1 liter disruption buffer (0.3 M sucrose, 60 mM TES, 25 mM tetrasodium

pyrophosphate, 10 mM potassium dihydrogen phosphate, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mM glycine, 1 %

PVP40, 1 % BSA, 50 mM sodium ascorbate, 20 mM cysteine; pH 8.0) by three times for 10 sec

with 30 sec intervals. The following procedures were performed on ice or at 4 °C. Two layers of

miracloth with supporting gauze were used to filter the homogenate into a beaker. The

remaining plant debris was first grinded with additional sea sand for 10 min by mortar and

pestle, and then filtered again through miracloth. The filtrates were combined and centrifuged

at 2,500 g for 5 min to eliminate the cell debris. Centrifugation with higher speed at 15,250 g for

15 min was applied on the supernatant to pellet mitochondria and other organelles. The

resulting pellets were resuspended with a paintbrush in wash buffer (0.3 M sucrose, 10 mM TES,

10 mM potassium dihydrogen phosphate; pH 7.5). The samples were adjusted to the final

volume of 12 ml with wash buffer and transferred to a Dounce homogenizer. Two strokes of

pestle were performed to disrupt large organelles like chloroplasts. Aliquots of 1 ml samples

were transferred carefully to Percoll gradients which had been established beforehand by

69,400 g centrifugation for 40 min in one-to-one ratio of Percoll and Percoll medium (0.6 M

sucrose, 20 mM TES, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM potassium dihydrogen phosphate, 2 mM glycine;

pH 7.5). Mitochondria were separated from other components by centrifuging in the gradients

at 17,400 g for 20 min. The resulting mitochondrial fractions formed white clouds at the bottom

half of the gradients and were collected by Pasteur pipettes to clean centrifuge tubes. The

clean-up procedures were performed three to five times by filling up wash buffer in the

centrifuge tubes and pelleting the mitochondria with 17,200 g for 20 min, until the resulting

pellet was firm. After each washing steps, two to three pellets were combined in one tube until

all mitochondria from one biological replicate were pooled together. The mitochondrial pellets

were weighed, resuspended with wash buffer and aliquoted at the concentration of 0.1 g/ml.

From cell cultures

Mitochondria isolation from *Arabidopsis thaliana* suspension cell culture was carried out as

described before (Farhat et al., 2019). About 200 g fresh cells were harvested and homogenized

using disruption buffer (450 mM sucrose, 15 mM MOPS, 1.5 mM EGTA, 0.6 % (w/v) PVP40, 2 %

(w/v) BSA, 10 mM sodium ascorbate, 10 mM cysteine; pH 7.4) and a waring blender. During

several washing steps, cell fragments were removed (centrifugation twice for 5 minutes at

2,700 g and once for 5 minutes at 8,300 g). Crude mitochondria were pelleted at 17,000 g for

10 minutes, resuspended in washing buffer (0.3 M sucrose, 10 mM MOPS, 1 mM EGTA; pH 7.2),

homogenized using a Dounce homogenisator and loaded onto discontinuous Percoll gradients

(phases of 18 %, 23 % and 40 % Percoll in gradient buffer (0.3 M sucrose, 10 mM MOPS, 0.2 mM

EGTA; pH 7.2)). After ultracentrifugation (90 minutes, 70,000 g), purified mitochondria were

collected from the 23 %-40 % interphase. For Percoll removal, several washing steps

(10 minutes, 14,500 g) were performed using resuspension buffer (0.4 M mannitol, 1 mM EGTA,

10 mM tricine; pH 7.2) to gain a firm pellet of purified mitochondria.

Each of the three independently purified mitochondria populations from 4-week old rosette

leaves (L-mito) and 200 g cell cultures (C-mito), respectively were used for all experiments.

BN/SDS-PAGE

Gel electrophoresis procedures (blue-native (BN) and SDS PAGE) were performed as described

previously (Senkler et al., 2018), based on the published protocol given in (Wittig et al., 2006).

Label-free quantitative shotgun proteomics

Protein sample preparation

Sample preparation for shotgun proteome analysis was performed as described before (Thal et

al., 2018). The protein content of the mitochondrial fractions was determined using a Bradford

assay kit (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, USA). 50 µg protein of each sample were loaded onto a

SDS gel for sample purification (Thal et al., 2018). Electrophoresis was stopped when the

proteins reached the border between the stacking and the separating gel. Gels were

subsequently incubated in fixation solution (15% (v.v) ethanol; 10% (v.v) acetic acid) for 30 min,

stained for 1 h with Coomassie Brilliant Blue G250, and finally the protein band at the border of

the two gel phases was cut out into cubes with edge lengths of approximately 1 mm.

Trypsination of the proteins was carried out as described previously (Fromm et al., 2016).

Shotgun proteomic LC-MS analysis

Label-free quantitative mass spectrometric analyses of whole mitochondrial protein samples

from cell culture and long day *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves were performed as outlined before

(Thal et al., 2018) using an Ultimate 3000 UPLC coupled to a Q Exactive Orbitrap mass

spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Dreieich, Germany).

Data processing

In a first step, the resulting MS data were processed using the Proteome Discoverer Software

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany) and searched with the Mascot search engine

(www.matrixscience.com) against the tair10 protein database (downloaded from

www.arabidopsis.org). For quantitative analyses, MS data were further processed as outlined

before (Rugen et al., 2019) using the MaxQuant software package (version 1.6.4.0), the

Andromeda search engine (Cox and Mann, 2008) and the tair10 protein database. For

determination of sample purity, peptide intensities were used, combined with the subcellular

locations of assigned proteins as given by SUBAcon from the SUBA platform (www.suba.live)

(Hooper et al., 2017). A proteomic heatmap was generated using the NOVA software

(www.bioinformatik.uni-frankfurt.de/tools/nova/index.php)(Giese et al., 2015). Identified

proteins of all six datasets (three biological replicates of leave total mitochondrial protein (L-

mito 1,2,3) and cell culture total mitochondrial protein (C-mito 1,2,3)) were hierarchically

clustered in a heatmap based on iBAQ (intensity Based Absolute Quantification) values (for

primary results see Supplemental Tab. S1).

Lipid extraction

Total lipid extract from leaf (L-TE) was obtained as described (Tarazona et al., 2015). Briefly,

mixture of 150 mg frozen leaf powder or 100 mg mitochondria and 6 ml extraction buffer

(propan-2-ol : hexane : water, 60:26:14 (v.v.v)) was incubated at 60 °C with shaking for 30 min.

After centrifugation at 800 g for 20 min, the clear supernatant was transferred to clean tubes

and evaporated under stream of nitrogen gas until dryness. Samples were reconstituted in

800 µl of TMW (tetrahydrofuran (THF) : methanol : water, 4:4:1 (v.v.v)). Procedure for extracting

the mitochondrial lipids was adjusted by substituting the water fraction of the extraction buffer

by equal volume of the mitochondrial aliquot. Further process was continued as described

above.

TLC-GC quantification

TLC separation of lipid classes

Lipid extracts from 500 mg mitochondria and 50 mg leaves were spotted onto TLC 60 plates (20

× 20 cm^2, Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) in parallel with corresponding standards (Merck

KGaA). Extracts were developed by a solvent mixture of chloroform : methanol : acetic acid

(65:25:8 (v.v.v)). After visualizing the lipid spots under 528 nm UV light, the bands were

scrapped out and converted to fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) before GC analysis.

Acidic transesterification

Glycerolipids were transesterified by acidic methanolysis (Miquel and Browse, 1992) and

converted to fatty acid methyl esters (FAME). The lipid-bound silica powder from corresponding

spots on TLC plate were scrapped out and added to 1 ml FAME solution (methanol : toluene :

sulfuric acid : dimethoxypropane, 33:17:1.4:1 (v.v.v.v)) with 5 µg tripentadecanoin as an internal

standard. After 1 h incubation at 80 °C, 1.5 ml saturated NaCl solution and 1.2 ml hexane were

added subsequently. The resulting FAME was collected from the hexane phase, dried, and

reconstituted in 10 µl acetonitrile.

GC/FID analysis

Lipid-bound fatty acids were analyzed after converting to FAMEs by a 6890N Network GC/FID

System with a medium polar cyanopropyl DB-23 column (30 m × 250 µm × 25 nm; Agilent

Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany) using helium as the carrier gas at 1 ml min^{-1}. Samples were

injected at 220 °C with an Agilent 7683 Series injector in split mode. After 1 min at 150 °C, the

oven temperature raised to 200 °C at the rate of 8 °C min^{-1}, increased to 250 °C in 2 min, and

held at 250 °C for 6 min. Peak integration was performed using the GC ChemStation (Agilent

Technologies).

Lipid derivatization

Phosphate-containing lipids - phosphatidic acids (PA), phosphoinositides (PIPs) and long-chain base phosphates (LCB-P) - were derivatized to enhance their chromatographic separation and mass spectrometric detection. Methylation procedure was applied on PA and PIPs as followed. Aliquots of 100 µl lipid extracts were first brought to dryness under stream of nitrogen gas and reconstituted with 200 µl methanol. Methylation reaction took place after the supply of 3.3 µl trimethylsilyldiazomethane. After 30 min incubation at room temperature, the reaction was terminated by neutralizing with 1 µl of 1.7 M acetic acid. Samples were dried under nitrogen gas and redissolved in 100 µl TMW. Acetylation procedure was applied on LCB-P. Aliquots of 100 µl lipid extracts were brought to dryness and reconstituted with 100 µl pyridine and 50 µl acetic anhydride. After 30 min incubation at 50 °C, samples were dried under stream of nitrogen gas with 50 °C water bath. To redissolve the samples, 100 µl TMW was used as the final solvent to proceed with lipid analysis.

Global lipidomic analysis with LC-MS

Analysis conditions and system setup were as described (Tarazona et al., 2015). Samples were separated by an ACQUITY UPLC system (Waters Crop., Milford, MA, USA) with a HSS T3 column (100 mm x 1 mm, 1.8 µl; Waters Crop.), ionized by a chip-based nanoelectrospray using TriVersa Nanomate (Advion BioScience, Ithaca, NY, USA) and analyzed by a 6500 QTRAP tandem mass spectrometer (AB Sciex, Framingham, MA, USA). Aliquots of 2 µl were injected and separated with a flow rate of 0.1 ml min^{-1}. The solvent system composed of methanol : 20 mM ammonium acetate (3:7 (v.v)) with 0.1 % (v.v) acetic acid (solvent A) and THF : methanol : 20 mM ammonium acetate (6:3:1 (v.v.v)) with 0.1 % (v.v) acetic acid (solvent B). According to the lipid classes, different linear gradients were applied: start from 40 %, 65 %, 80 % or 90 % B for 2 min; increase to 100 % B in 8 min; hold for 2 min and re-equilibrate to the initial conditions in 4 min. Starting condition of 40 % solvent B were utilized for long-chain bases (LCB) and phosphorylated long-chain bases (LCB-P); 80 % for diacylglycerol (DAG); 90 % for steryl esters (SE); 65 % for the remaining lipid classes. Retention time alignment and peak integration were performed with MultiQuant (AB Sciex). Quantitative results were calculated according to the amount of internal standards.

Biosynthesis pathways construction

The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; www.arabidopsis.org), the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon; www.suba.live), Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG; www.genome.jp/kegg) and the shotgun proteomic analyses of L-mito and C-mito were combined to construct the lipid biosynthesis pathways in plant mitochondria. Additionally, lipidomics data are depicted in the pathways to illustrate the biosynthetic fluxes.

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Figure S1. Purity inspection of mitochondrial protein complexes and supercomplexes by two-dimensional blue-native/SDS PAGE. Mitochondrial fractions isolated from Arabidopsis leaves (L-mito 1 and L-mito 3) and from Arabidopsis cell cultures (C-mito1 and C-mito 3) were separated by 2D PAGE and Coomassie-stained (corresponding gels of fractions L-mito 2 and C-mito 2 see Fig. 1). Numbers on top and to the left of the 2D gels refer to the masses of standard protein complexes / proteins (in kDa), the roman numbers above the gels to the identity of OXPHOS complexes (see Fig. 1 for detailed information). The arrows indicate the large (L; 53,5 kDa) and the small (S; 14.5 kDa) subunit of Rubisco. 2D blue-native/SDS reference gels for mitochondrial and chloroplast fractions (Mito-ref, Cp-ref) from Arabidopsis thaliana are given to the bottom of the figure (gels were taken from Klodmann et al. 2011 and Behrens et al. 2013). Identity of the protein complexes visible on the chloroplast reference gel: PSI – photosystem I; PSII – photosystem II; Rub – Rubisco; LHCII – light harvesting complex II.

Supplemental Figure S2. Purity of mitochondrial fractions as determined by label-free quantitative shot gun proteomics. Three mitochondrial fractions isolated from Arabidopsis leaves (L-mitos) and cell cultures (C-mitos) were analysed. Summed-up peptide intensities were calculated for subcellular compartments based on protein assignments as given by SUBAcon (The Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins; www.suba.live). Blue: mitochondria; green: plastids; gray: others; numbers in %.

Supplemental Figure S3. Fatty acid profiles of the glycerolipids from L-mito, L-TE, C-mito and C-TE. Heat maps illustrate the difference of the fatty acid distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses. Each

column represents one lipid class wherein the acyl moieties of all species are listed and summarized to

100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent experiments.

Supplemental Figure S4. Workflow for the construction of the biosynthesis pathways. Multiple

databases were combined to build the lipid biosynthesis pathways in mitochondria, The Arabidopsis

Information Resource (TAIR; www.arabidopsis.org), the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis

proteins (SUBAcon; www.suba.live), Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG;

www.genome.jp/kegg) and the proteomic datasets of isolated mitochondria in this study. Information of

protein localizations and backbones of the biosynthesis pathways were obtained from TAIR, SUBAcon

and KEGG, respectively.

Supplemental Figure S5. Additional lipid biosynthesis enzymes which do not match with analyzed lipid

classes in this study. Enzymes of (a) fatty acid biosynthesis, (b) unsaturated fatty acid biosynthesis, (c)

lipoic acid metabolism and (d) ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis illustrate the

general lipid biosynthesis in Arabidopsis mitochondria. Heat maps visualize the protein abundance based

on shotgun proteomic analyses of three independent experiments of purified mitochondria from leaves

and cell culture. Blue: proteins identified in the proteomic analysis of this study and also predicted to

localize in mitochondria; green: proteins identified in the proteomic analysis of this study but predicted

to localize in other organelles; bold font: exclusively localized in mitochondria; italic font: only identified

in one of the mitochondrial populations. Further full names and functions are itemized in Table S1. In the

heat maps, proteins with high and low abundance are depicted in yellow and black, respectively.

Predicted protein localization was based on The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR;

www.arabidopsis.org) and the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon;

www.suba.live).

Supplemental Table S1. Overall proteins identified in the proteomic approach.

Supplemental Table S2. Overall lipids identified in the lipidomic approach.

Supplemental Table S3. Lipid biosynthesis-related proteins identified in the proteomic

approach.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Purity of mitochondrial fractions. The purity of mitochondrial fractions was determined by 2D blue native / SDS PAGE **(A)** and by summed-up peptide intensities of subcellular compartments based on protein assignments as given by the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins (SUBAcon; www.suba.live) **(B).**

A: Mitochondria were isolated from *Arabidopsis* leaves (L-mito) and cell cultures (C-mito). Proteins were separated by 2D Blue native PAGE and Coommassie-stained. Numbers on top and to the left of the 2D gels refer to the masses of standard protein complexes / proteins (in kDa), the roman numbers above the gels to the identity of OXPHOS complexes. I+III$_2$: supercomplex consisting of complex I and dimeric complex III; I: complex I; V: complex V; III$_2$: dimeric complex III; IV: complex IV. The small (S; 14.5 kDa) and the large (L; 53.5 kDa) subunit of Rubisco are indicated by green arrows. Biological replicates of the 2D gels and reference gels for mitochondrial and chloroplast fractions from *Arabidopsis* are shown in Fig. S1.

B: Mitochondrial fractions from *Arabidopsis* leaves and cell cultures were analyzed by label-free quantitative shotgun proteomics. Peptide intensities assigned to subcellular compartments were summed-up and averaged results for L-mitos and C-mitos were visualized by pie charts (for detailed results see Fig. S2). Blue: mitochondria; green: plastids; gray: others; numbers in %.

Figure 2. Lipid class profiles of purified mitochondria and total leaf extracts. Glycerolipids of leaf

total extract (L-TE) and mitochondria isolated from leaves (L-mito) were analyzed quantitatively

by TLC-GC approach. Data of L-TE represent mean values in mol % from three independent

experiments ± SD; data of L-mito represent mean values in mol % from two independent

experiments ± SEM. PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; CL, cardiolipin; PG,

phosphatidylglycerol; MGDG, monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; DGDG, digalactosyldiacylglycerol.

Figure 3. Profiles of molecular glycerolipid species and the according fold changes between L-

mito and L-TE. Heat maps of (a) glycerophospholipids, (b) glyceroglycolipids and (c)

diacylglycerols illustrate the difference of species distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses.

Each block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are presented and

summarized to 100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent

experiments. Binary logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than 0.5 to inspect

the fold changes (FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **) indicate p values <

0.05 and < 0.01, respectively, by Student's t-test. PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE,

phosphatidylethanolamine; PS: phosphatidylserine; PI: phosphatidylinositol; PA phosphatidic

acid; DAG: Diacylglycerol; CL, cardiolipin; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; MGDG,

monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; DGDG, digalactosyldiacylglycerol.

Figure 4. Mitochondrial localized proteins that are related to glycerolipid biosynthesis. (a)

Glycerophospholipid, (b) glyceroglycolipid and (c) phosphoinositide metabolism. Proteins

identified and/or localized in mitochondria were labeled (i) blue: proteins identified in the

proteomic analysis of this study and also predicted to localize in mitochondria, (ii) green:

proteins identified in the proteomic analysis of this study in mitochondria but predicted to

localize in other organelles, (iii) bold font: exclusively localized in mitochondria and (iv) italic

font: only identified in one of the mitochondrial populations. Heat maps visualize the protein

abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves and cell

cultures. Predicted protein localization was based on The Arabidopsis Information Resource

(TAIR; www.arabidopsis.org) and the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins

(SUBAcon; www.suba.live).

Figure 5. Profiles of molecular sphingolipid species, the according fold changes between L-mito

and L-TE and general sphingolipid biosynthesis pathway in combination with mitochondrial

enriched lipids. Heat maps of (a) long chain bases, long chain base-phosphates and (b) complex

sphingolipids illustrate the difference of species distribution based on LC-MS/MS analyses. Each

block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are presented and summarized to

100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three independent experiments. Binary

logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than 0.5 to inspect the fold changes

(FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **) indicate p values < 0.05 and < 0.01,

respectively, by Student's t-test.

Figure 6. Profiles of molecular sterol species, the according fold changes between L-mito and L-

TE and general sterol biosynthesis pathway in combination of mitochondrial localized proteins

and enriched lipids. Heat maps of (a) free sterols (b) steryl glycosides (SG) and (c) acylated steryl

glycosides (ASG) and steryl esters (SE) illustrate the difference of species distribution based on

LC-MS/MS analyses. Each block represents one lipid class wherein the detected species are

presented and summarized to 100 %. Data represent mean values in mol % from three

independent experiments. Binary logarithm was applied when the mean values are higher than

0.5 to inspect the fold changes (FC) between L-mito and L-TE. One and two asterisks (*, **)

indicate p values < 0.05 and < 0.01, respectively, by Student's t-test.

Figure 7. MTL complex-associated proteins in mitochondria. Our proteomic analyses covered

186 of the 214 hypothetical subunits in the MTL complex (listed in Supplemental Tab. S3); 11

have been investigated by immunoblotting approaches in previous studies. Heat maps visualize

the protein abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves

and cell cultures. Proteins with high and low abundance are depicted in yellow and black,

respectively.

Figure 8. Identified plastid outer envelope proteins in mitochondrial extracts. Our proteomic

analyses identified 12 outer envelope-localized proteins. Heat maps visualize the protein

abundance of three independent experiments of mitochondria purified from leaves and cell

cultures. Proteins with high and low abundance are depicted in yellow and black, respectively.

Figure 9. Model of lipid biosynthesis and trafficking within and between mitochondria, ER and

plastids in *Arabidopsis*. Lipid synthesis and transfer between membranes are indicated by black

and blue arrows, respectively. Proteins identified in L-mito or C-mito with additional ER or

plastidic localization based on The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR;

www.arabidopsis.org) and the Subcellular localization database for Arabidopsis proteins

(SUBAcon; www.suba.live) are considered as putative contact-site localized proteins (dashed

frame). Lipid biosynthesis-related proteins indicated in other studies are depicted in grey. Full

names and functions of involved proteins are itemized in Supplemental Tab. S1. OM,

mitochondrial outer membrane; IM, mitochondrial inner membrane; OE, plastid outer envelope;

IE, plastid inner envelope; MTL, mitochondrial transmembrane lipoprotein complex. DHAP,

dihydroxyacetone phosphate; G3P, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; MAG, monoacylglycerol; DAG,

diacylglycerol; Etn, ethanolamine; TAG, triacylglycerol; IP, inositol phosphate; PGP,

phosphatidylglycerol phosphate; SQDG, sulfoquinovosyl diacylglycerol.

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