Mitochondrial ETF insufficiency drives neoplastic growth by selectively optimizing cancer bioenergetics

David Papadopoli[1,2*], Ranveer Palia[1,3], Predrag Jovanovic[1,3], Sébastien Tabariès[4], Emma Ciccolini[1,3], Valerie Sabourin[1], Sebastian Igelmann[5], Shannon McLaughlan[6], Lesley Zhan[6], HaEun Kim[3], Nabila Chekkal[6], Krzysztof J. Szkop[7], Thierry Bertomeu[8], Jibin Zeng[1], Julia Vassalakis[9], Farzaneh Afzali[9], Slim Mzoughi[10], Ernesto Guccione[10], Mike Tyers[11], Daina Avizonis[4,12], Ola Larsson[7], Lynne-Marie Postovit[9], Sergej Djuranovic[13,14], Josie Ursini-Siegel[1,2,3,6], Peter M. Siegel[3,4,6], Michael Pollak[1,2,3*], Ivan Topisirovic[6*]

[1]Lady Davis Institute, SMBD JGH, McGill University, Montréal, QC H3T 1E2, Canada.

[2]Gerald Bronfman Department of Oncology, McGill University, Montréal, QC H3A 0G4, Canada.

[3]Department of Experimental Medicine, McGill University, Montréal, QC H3A 0G4, Canada.

[4]Rosalind and Morris Goodman Cancer Institute, McGill University, Montréal, QC H3A 1A3, Canada

[5]VIB Center for Cancer Biology, Department of Oncology, KU Leuven and Leuven Cancer Institute (LKI), Herestraat 49, 3000 Leuven, Belgium.

[6]Department of Biochemistry, McGill University, Montréal, QC H3A 0G4, Canada.

[7]Department of Oncology-Pathology, Science for Life Laboratory, Karolinska Institute, 171 77, Stockholm, Sweden.

[8]Institute for Research in Immunology and Cancer, Université de Montréal, Montréal, QC H3T 1J4, Canada.

[9]Department of Biomedical and Molecular Sciences, Queen's University, Kingston, ON K7L 3N6,

Canada.

[10]Center of OncoGenomics and Innovative Therapeutics (COGIT), Department of Oncological

Sciences, Tisch Cancer Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, 10029

United States.

[11]Program in Molecular Medicine, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, ON M5G 0A4,

Canada. Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5S 1A8,

Canada.

[12]Metabolomics Innovation Resource, McGill University, Montréal, QC, Canada.

[13]Department of Cell Biology and Physiology, Washington University School of Medicine, St.

Louis, MO 63110, United States.

[14]Department of Molecular Biology, Cell Biology and Biochemistry, Brown University,

Providence, RI 02903, United States.

*Correspondence david.papadopoli@mail.mcgill.ca (D.P), michael.pollak@mcgill.ca (M.P.),

ivan.topisirovic@mcgill.ca (I.T.)

Keywords: Electron transfer flavoprotein dehydrogenase (ETFDH), cancer metabolism, mRNA

translation, mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR), 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1).

Abstract

Mitochondrial electron transport flavoprotein (ETF) insufficiency causes metabolic diseases

known as a multiple acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (MADD). In contrast to muscle, ETFDH

is a non-essential gene in acute lymphoblastic leukemia NALM-6 cells, and its expression is

reduced across human cancers. ETF insufficiency caused by decreased ETFDH expression

limits flexibility of OXPHOS fuel utilization but paradoxically increases cancer cell bioenergetics

and accelerates neoplastic growth by activation of the mTORC1/BCL-6/4E-BP1

axis. Collectively, these findings reveal that while ETF insufficiency is rare and has detrimental

effects in non-malignant tissues, it is common in neoplasia, where ETFDH downregulation leads

to bioenergetic and signaling reprogramming that accelerate neoplastic growth.

Main

The mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) transfers electrons from reducing

equivalents (NADH and $FADH_2$) towards complexes I/II, or from peripheral metabolic enzymes

that reduce coenzyme Q (ubiquinone, Q) to ubiquinol (QH_2) [1]. The electron transfer flavoproteins

(ETFA and ETFB) accept electrons generated by the catabolism of branched-chain amino acids

and fatty acids [2-4]. ETFs interact with ETF dehydrogenase (ETFDH or ETF-ubiquinone

oxidoreductase) [5], which controls electron flow towards complex III (Supplementary Fig.1A).

Loss-of-function mutations in ETF/ETFDH occur in metabolic diseases known as multiple acyl-

CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (MADD) [6,7]. ETFDH is also essential for complex III activity in

skeletal muscle [8]. Surprisingly, we observed that in contrast to muscle, ETFDH is one of the most

non-essential metabolic genes in cancer cells. Paradoxically, ETFDH downregulation leads to

enhanced mitochondrial biogenesis and increased bioenergetic capacity of cancer cells. ETF

insufficiency resulting from reduction in ETFDH levels triggers a tradeoff favored by cancer cells,

whereby reduced flexibility in fuel utilization for oxidative phosphorylation is offset by signaling

from mitochondria to mTORC1 that remodels cancer cell bioenergetics to augment neoplastic

growth.

ETFDH abrogation accelerates tumor growth

87 ETFDH is essential in skeletal muscle cells [8]. Intriguingly, a CRISPR-Cas9 knock out (KO)

88 screen performed in a human acute lymphoblastic leukemia cell line (NALM6) [9] ranked *ETFDH*

89 as a top non-essential metabolic gene that clustered with well-established tumor suppressors *TP53*

90 and *RB1* (Supplementary Fig.1B). Mining DepMap also revealed that *ETFDH* is essential in only

91 1 out of 1150 cancer cell lines [10]. This motivated us to examine the role of ETFDH in cancer.

ETFDH mRNA levels are reduced in patient samples across different cancer types, including colon (Supplementary Fig.1C) and breast cancer (Supplementary Fig.1D). Immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining confirmed that ETFDH protein levels are significantly reduced in colorectal cancer vs. non-adjacent patient-derived tissues (NAT) (Fig.1A).

We next abrogated the *ETFDH* gene using a CRISPR-Cas9 approach in a variety of cancer cell lines including HCT-116 (human colorectal cancer), NT2197 (murine HER2+ breast cancer), 4T1 (murine triple negative breast cancer cells), and NALM6 cells (Supplementary Fig.1E-H). We also investigated the effects of ETFDH loss in non-transformed normal murine mammary gland (NMuMG) cells (Supplementary Fig.1I), a parental immortalized mammary epithelial cell line that was transformed with an oncogenic ErbB2 variant to generate NT2197 cells [11]. Notwithstanding their high baseline proliferation rates, ETFDH ablation significantly increased proliferation across all tested cancer cell lines (Supplementary Fig.1E-H). This was not caused by the inadvertent effects of the CRISPR-Cas9, as rescuing ETFDH expression in HCT-116 and NT2197 cells reverted proliferation rates to levels comparable to ETFDH-proficient controls (Supplementary Fig.1E-F). In contrast, ETFDH abrogation did not affect proliferation of non-transformed NMuMG cells (Supplementary Fig.1I). ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells also formed more colonies in soft agar (surrogate measurement of cellular neoplastic potential [12]) as compared to empty vector infected controls (WT EV), and ETFDH KO cells in which ETFDH was re-expressed (ETFDH Rescue) (Supplementary Fig.1J).

Based on these findings, we tested the impact of ETFDH loss on neoplastic growth *in vivo*. WT EV, ETFDH KO, or ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells were injected orthotopically in the caeca of SCID-BEIGE mice. Loss of ETFDH significantly increased the tumor growth rate and volume at endpoint relative to control and ETFDH Rescue cells (Fig.1B-C). ETFDH loss also increased

NT2197 tumor growth and the final tumor volume as compared to ETFDH-proficient tumors

following orthotopic mammary fat pad injections in SCID-BEIGE mice (Fig.1D-E). Altogether,

these results show that *ETFDH* is an non-essential gene in cancer that is under-expressed across

different cancer types, and that its disruption enhances neoplastic growth, while not affecting

proliferation of non-transformed cells.

ETFDH abrogation results in ETF insufficiency that paradoxically increases bioenergetic

capacity of cancer cells

In non-cancerous cells, ETFDH transfers electrons from catabolism of fatty acids and amino acids

to the ETC (Supplementary Fig.2A). Palmitate oxidation (monitored by oxygen consumption) and

^{13}C leucine labelling into citrate (citrate m+2) were strongly attenuated by ETFDH abrogation in

HCT-116 cells (Supplementary Fig.2B-C), which confirmed that ETF plays a role in fatty and

amino acid catabolism in malignant cells. Thus, ETFDH loss induces ETF insufficiency in cancer

cells that mirrors defects observed in non-malignant tissues. Surprisingly, ETFDH loss in HCT-

116 cells increased oxygen consumption and extracellular acidification, relative to control WT EV

and ETFDH Rescues (Fig.2A-B). ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells produced higher levels of ATP from

oxidative phosphorylation (*J* ATP ox) as compared to ETFDH-proficient cells (Fig.2C-D).

Consequently, ETFDH loss increased the bioenergetic capacity of HCT-116 cells (Fig.2E).

Comparable results were observed in NT2197 cells (Supplementary Fig.2D-H). Collectively, these

findings suggest that although ETF insufficiency limits the ability of cancer cells to utilize lipids

and amino acids, it paradoxically upregulates their mitochondrial metabolism and bioenergetic

capacity.

Glutamine plays an important role in fueling mitochondrial metabolism and *de novo* nucleotide

biosynthesis to support cancer cell proliferation[13]. ETFDH abrogation increased glutamine uptake

and glutamate production in both HCT-116 (Fig.2F) and NT2197 (Supplementary Fig.2I) cells.

ETFDH loss increased ¹³C-glutamine incorporation in the forward direction (green) and the

reverse direction (purple) of the citric acid cycle (CAC; Fig.2G-H, Supplementary Fig.2J),

suggesting higher glutamine tracing into the CAC, as well as increased reductive glutamine

metabolism. Indeed, the steady state levels of several nucleotides were also increased following

ETFDH loss (Supplementary Fig.2K). To highlight the dependence of glutamine in contributing

to the proliferation of cells upon ETFDH abrogation, HCT-116 WT EV and ETFDH KO cells

were grown in the absence or presence of glutamine. Accordingly, ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells

exhibited greater sensitivity to glutamine deprivation than control WT EV cells (Fig.2I).

Collectively, these data demonstrate that ETF insufficiency in cancer cells remodels mitochondrial

metabolism and increases the glutamine consumption and anaplerosis.

ETFDH loss induces intracellular accumulation of amino acids, mTOR signaling and protein

synthesis

Consistent with the established role of ETFDH in amino acid catabolism [2], and reduction of leucine

consumption upon ETFDH abrogation (Supplementary Fig.2C), steady state levels of most

intracellular amino acids were increased in ETFDH KO vs. WT HCT-116 and NT2197 cells

(Fig.3A). Moreover, ETFDH-deficient HCT-116 cells exhibited higher rates of protein synthesis

relative to ETFDH-proficient cells (Fig.3B). Amino acids activate the mechanistic target of

rapamycin (mTOR) which stimulates protein synthesis [14]. Indeed, mTORC1 signaling was higher

in ETFDH-deficient than ETFDH-proficient HCT-116 and NT2197 cells as illustrated by

increased phosphorylation of ribosomal protein S6 kinases (S6K1/2; Thr389) and their substrate

ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6; Ser240/244) (Fig.3C). Re-expression of ETFDH in ETFDH KO cells

resulted in normalization of mTORC1 signaling to the levels observed in WT EV cells (Fig 3D).

mTORC2 signaling was also augmented upon ETFDH abrogation in HCT-116 and NALM6 cells

as evidenced by increased AKT phosphorylation (Ser473) (Supplementary Fig.3A-B). Despite

bioenergetic rewiring, ETFDH loss did not exert a major effect on the activity of adenosine

monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK) as monitored by its phosphorylation (Thr172)

or phosphorylation of its substrate acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC at S79) (Supplementary Fig.3A-

B).

Consistent with mTOR hyperactivation, ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were more sensitive

to the active site mTOR inhibitor Torin1 [15] as compared to their ETFDH-proficient counterparts

(Supplementary Fig.3C). To further determine which mTOR complex is responsible for mediating

the hyper-proliferative phenotype triggered by ETFDH loss, we selectively inactivated mTORC1

or mTORC2 by depleting RAPTOR or RICTOR, respectively using small hairpin RNA (shRNA)

in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells (Supplementary Fig.3D). Depletion of RAPTOR, but not

RICTOR strongly attenuated the proliferation of ETFDH KO cells (Supplementary Fig.3E-F).

Moreover, the anti-proliferative effects of bisteric mTORC1-specific inhibitor BiS-35x [16] were

stronger in ETFDH KO vs. ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells (Supplementary Fig.3G). Altogether,

these data suggest that mTORC1, but not mTORC2 acts as a major mediator of hyper-proliferative

phenotype triggered by ETFDH loss in cancer cells. Accordingly, the effects of amino acid

deprivation on phospho-rpS6 (Ser240/244), and phospho-4E-BP1 (Ser65) were attenuated in

ETFDH KO vs. WT control cells, which is consistent with the intracellular accumulation of amino

acids upon ETFDH disruption (Fig.3E-G). In turn, serum stimulation (Stim) resulted in

comparable induction in phosphorylation of rpS6 (Ser240/244) and 4E-BP1 (Ser65) in ETFDH-

deficient and proficient cells (Fig.3E). Collectively, these findings suggest that ETFDH loss

induces mTORC1 signaling at least in part by increasing intracellular amino acid levels.

Amino acid deprivation leads to general control nonderepressible 2 (GCN2)-dependent

phosphorylation of the alpha subunit of eIF2 and subsequent induction of activating transcription

factor 4 (ATF4) synthesis during the integrated stress response (ISR) [17]. Consistent with an

increase in intracellular amino acid, phosho-eIF2α (S51) levels appeared to be modestly reduced

in ETFDH-deficient vs. proficient HCT-116 cells under both serum starvation and amino acid

depletion (Supplementary Fig.3H). However, the ETFDH status in the cells did not affect ATF4

levels at baseline or upon amino acid depletion (Supplementary Fig.3H). Altogether, these data

demonstrate that ETFDH loss induces mTORC1 signaling and protein synthesis, which appears to

be at least in part driven by intracellular accumulation of amino acids.

ETFDH loss diminishes 4E-BP1, but not 4E-BP2 protein levels

mTORC1 positively controls cell proliferation through the eukaryotic translation initiation factor

4E-binding proteins (4E-BPs; 4E-BP1-3 in mammals) [18]. Of note, 4E-BP3 is expressed in a tissue-

restricted manner, and does not appear to play a major role in regulating proliferation [18]. mTORC1

phosphorylates 4E-BPs to promote eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4F (eIF4F) complex

assembly by dissociating 4E-BPs from eIF4E, thereby stimulating cap-dependent translation

initiation [19]. Consistent with the increased mTORC1 activity, ETFDH-deficient cells exhibited

increased phosphorylation of 4E-BP1 (Ser65), which was rescued upon re-expression of ETFDH

in HCT-116 and NT2197 cells (Fig.4A). Unexpectedly, we observed that ETFDH loss coincided

with a dramatic reduction in total 4E-BP1 protein levels in HCT-116 (Fig.4A), NT2197 (Fig.4A),

NALM6 (Supplementary Fig.4A), and 4T1 cells (Supplementary Fig.4B). We also treated WT and

ETFDH KO HCT-116 cell lysates with λ-phosphatase to exclude potential confounding effects of

different 4E-BP1 phosphorylation states, which confirmed that disruption of ETFDH is paralleled

by reduction in 4E-BP1 levels (Fig.4B). Notably, loss of ETFDH did not exert a major effect on

4E-BP2 protein abundance in HCT-116 (Fig.4A), NT2197 (Fig.4A), or 4T1 cells (Supplementary

Fig.4B). In addition, 4E-BP1, but not 4E-BP2 protein levels were reduced in ETFDH-deficient

HCT-116 as compared to WT tumors (Fig.4C-E). Strikingly, loss of ETFDH in non-transformed

NMuMG cells did not exert a major effect on mTORC1 signaling (Supplementary Fig.4C) and

failed to alter 4E-BP1 protein levels (Supplementary Fig.4C). Collectively, these findings indicate

that ETF insufficiency is paralleled by a selective decrease in 4E-BP1 protein levels in cancer, but

not non-transformed cells.

Decrease in 4E-BP1 protein levels underpins the bioenergetic rewiring induced by ETF

insufficiency in cancer cells.

Considering that in mammals 4E-BPs play a major role in mediating the effects of mTORC1 on

proliferation, neoplastic growth, mitochondrial functions and protein synthesis [18,20,21], we next

investigated whether the observed decrease in 4E-BP1 levels contributes to increased proliferation

and tumor growth caused by ETFDH abrogation. To this end, we overexpressed 4E-BP1 protein

in ETFDH-deficient NT2197 cells by infecting them with a retrovirus wherein *EIF4EBP1*

expression was driven by an exogenous promoter [18]. Importantly, 4E-BP1 overexpression in

ETFDH KO NT2197 cells decreased eIF4F complex assembly, as evidenced by m^7-GTP pulldown

(Fig.4F). 4E-BP1 overexpression also reduced oxygen consumption in ETFDH KO NT2197 cells,

relative to empty vector infected cells (Fig.4G). Moreover, restoring 4E-BP1 protein levels

decreased cell proliferation (Supplementary Fig.4D) and anchorage-independent growth

(Supplementary Fig.4E) of ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells. Lastly, 4E-BP1 overexpression decreased

growth and the final volume of tumors formed by NT2197 ETFDH KO cells in SCID-BEIGE mice

(Fig.4H-I). Collectively, these data indicate that decreased 4E-BP1 protein levels mediate the pro-

neoplastic effects of ETF insufficiency.

The mTORC1/4E-BP axis stimulates mitochondrial biogenesis and metabolism by altering

the translation of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial mRNAs including mitochondrial transcription

factor A (TFAM) [21,22]. ETFDH loss increased mitochondrial DNA levels (Fig.4J) and mass

(Supplementary Fig.4F) which was paralleled by TFAM induction (Fig.4K). Collectively, these

data show that the loss of 4E-BP1 plays a prominent role in mediating the effects of ETF

insufficiency on bioenergetic reprogramming of cancer cells.

ETFDH loss decreases *EIF4EBP1* transcription via BCL-6

We next set out to determine the level(s) at which 4E-BP1 protein levels are downregulated in

ETF insufficient cancer cells. ETFDH loss did not have a major effect on 4E-BP1 protein synthesis

or turnover (Supplementary Fig.4G-H), but it decreased the *EIF4EBP1* mRNA levels in ETFDH-

deficient vs. ETFDH-proficient HCT-116 (Fig.4L) and NT2197 cells (Fig.4M). *EIF4EBP1* and

ETFDH mRNA levels were also positively correlated in tumors isolated from colorectal

adenocarcinoma patients (Supplementary Fig.4I). In turn, consistent with no apparent differences

in 4E-BP2 protein levels, the levels of *EIF4EBP2* mRNA were unaffected by the ETFDH status

in both cell lines (Fig.4L-M). Notably, observed decrease in *EIF4EBP1* mRNA levels was not

caused by the effects of ETFDH loss on mRNA stability (Supplementary Fig.4J). Based on these

data, we concluded that ETFDH abrogation is paralleled by suppression of *EIF4EBP1*

transcription and sought to identify transcription factors that may mediate the effects of ETFDH

abrogation on suppression of *EIF4EBP1* expression. ATF4, Snail and Slug have been shown to

stimulate transcription of *EIF4EBP1*, but not *EIF4EBP2* [23,24]. However, ATF4, Snail and Slug

proteins remain unchanged upon ETFDH disruption (Supplementary Fig.3H, Supplementary

Fig.5A). We also re-analyzed publicly available RNA-seq datasets, which revealed that

EIF4EBP1, but not *EIF4EBP2* expression was increased following STAT1 abrogation in MT4788

breast cancer cells [25]. Indeed, we observed that MT4788 STAT1 KO cells have increased 4E-BP1

protein levels relative to parental cells (Supplementary Fig.5B). Accordingly, ETFDH KO cells

displayed increased STAT1 and downregulated 4E-BP1 protein levels (Supplementary Fig.5C).

To determine the impact of STAT1 on *EIF4EBP1* or *EIF4EBP2* promoter occupancy, we

performed chromatin immunoprecipitation qPCR (ChIP-qPCR) assay in control (WT EV),

ETFDH KO, or ETFDH rescue HCT-116 cells (Supplementary Fig.5D-E). Binding of STAT1 was

however comparable to IgG across all tested cell lines thereby suggesting that is unlikely that

STAT1 directly suppresses *EIF4EBP1* transcription in the context of ETFDH loss (Supplementary

Fig.5D-E). Furthermore, reactive oxygen species (ROS) can also influence redox-responsive

transcription [26]. Although loss of ETFDH induced ROS levels (Supplementary Fig.5F), 4E-BP1

protein abundance was not altered following treatment with the antioxidant N-acetyl-cysteine

(NAC) (Supplementary Data Fig.5G).

We next investigated the potential role of B-cell lymphoma 6 (BCL-6) [27-29], which was

previously suggested to suppress *EIF4EBP1* transcription [30]. Notably, *ETFDH* abrogation in HCT-

116 and NT2197 cells resulted in a marked increase in BCL-6 protein levels, compared to ETFDH-

proficient control cells (Fig.5A). These changes in BCL-6 protein levels were mTOR-sensitive

(Fig.5B) and not accompanied by the alterations in *BCL6* mRNA abundance (Fig.5C), which is

consistent with recently reported mTOR-dependent translational activation of BCL-6 [31-33]. Indeed,

BCL6 mRNA translation was increased in HCT-116 ETFDH KO relative to WT cells (Fig.5D).

Taken together, these data point out that ETFDH disruption induces BCL-6 protein synthesis in an

mTOR-dependent manner. ETF insufficiency increased BCL-6 binding to the *EIF4EBP1*, but not

the *EIF4EBP2* promoter (Fig.5E-F). BCL-6 silencing in NT2197 and 4T1 ETFDH KO cells

increased 4E-BP1 protein levels (Fig.5G-H). Depletion of BCL-6 also attenuated proliferation of

4T1 ETFDH KO cells (Fig.5I). Collectively, these findings show that BCL-6 mediates the effects

of ETF insufficiency on reduction in *EIF4EBP1* expression and increased proliferation of cancer

cells.

ETFDH acts as a haploinsufficient tumor suppressor.

Data available in cBioPortal from 2683 samples across cancer types [34] indicate that missense or

truncating mutations in ETFDH are rare (0.3%) (Fig.6A). This suggests that ETFDH is not lost,

but rather downregulated in human cancers. We observed that DNA methylation inhibitors, 5-

azacytidine (5-aza) and 5-aza-2′-deoxycytidine (5-aza-2-deoxyC) increased ETFDH protein levels

in HCT-116 cells (Fig.6B), thus suggesting that one of the potential mechanisms of downregulated

ETFDH expression in neoplasia may stem from increased DNA methylation. Based on these

observations, we developed a model that more closely reflects ETFDH downregulation, but not a

complete loss, in human tumors using a method based on targeted poly(A) track insertion within

endogenous genes [35]. The length of the poly(A) track directly correlates with the reduction in

amount of protein produced, allowing for the investigation of gene-dosage effects on ensuing

phenotypes [35,36]. Accordingly, mutants were designed by inserting poly(A) tracks of 12 and 18

adenosines [12A, equivalent to 4 consecutive AAA (Lys) codons (AAA)4; 18A, equivalent to 6

consecutive AAA (Lys) codons (AAA)$_6$], as well as a control track (CTRL) [6 consecutive lysine

AAG codons (AAG)$_6$] (Supplementary Fig.6A, see methods). Based on an Alphafold rendered

structure (version 2) [37,38], we chose residue 38 in an unstructured loop as an insertion site

(Supplementary Fig.6B). Of note, (AAA)$_6$ and (AAG)$_6$ stretches are translated in the equal number

of Lys residues, whereby (AAA), but not (AAG), stretches decrease ETFDH protein levels

(Fig.6C). (AAG)$_6$ construct was thus used as a control to mitigate potential inadvertent effects of

the insertion of poly-Lys on the ETFDH function. (AAA)$_4$ and (AAA)$_6$ stretches progressively

reduced ETFDH protein abundance as compared to constructs harboring the (AAG)$_6$ track

(Fig.6C). The reduction in ETFDH protein levels was mirrored by a gene-dose dependent increase

in mTORC1 signaling, BCL-6 expression and reduction in 4E-BP1, but not 4E-BP2 protein levels

(Fig.6C). Accordingly, *Eif4ebp1* mRNA levels were reduced in *ETFDH* dose-dependent manner,

while *Eif4ebp2* mRNA levels remained unaffected (Fig.6D). Moreover, reduction in ETFDH

protein levels correlated with increased mtDNA content (Fig.6E), oxygen consumption (Fig.6F),

ATP production from OXPHOS (*J*ATPox) (Fig.6G), bioenergetic capacity (Fig.6H), and cell

proliferation (Fig.6I). Finally, ETFDH KO NT2197 tumors carrying (AAA)$_6$ insertions exhibit

increased tumor growth and larger final tumor volumes relative to control tumors expressing

(AAG)$_6$ insertions in SCID-BEIGE mice (Fig.6J-K). Altogether, these findings show that ETFDH

gene-dosage influences neoplastic growth, thus suggesting that ETFDH may act as a

haploinsufficient tumor suppressor.

Lastly, we determined whether the catalytic activity of ETFDH is required for its tumor

suppressive activity. To achieve this, we re-expressed WT or ETFDH mutant (Y304A,G306E)

with disrupted catalytic activity [8] in HCT-116 ETFDH KO cells. Notwithstanding that both

ETFDH variants were expressed to comparable levels, in contrast to WT, ETFDH (Y304A,G306E)

mutant failed to suppress mTORC1 signaling and decrease 4E-BP1 levels (Supplementary Figure

6C), reduce proliferation (Supplementary Fig.6D) or perturb the bioenergetic profiles of HCT-116

ETFDH KO cells (Supplementary Fig.6E-F). Taken together, these data suggest the catalytic

activity of ETFDH is required for its tumor suppressive actions.

Discussion

Notwithstanding that ETFDH mutations play a detrimental role in MADD metabolic disorders, we

show that ETF insufficiency caused by reduced *ETFDH* expression plays a major role in rewiring

cancer metabolism and signaling to stimulate neoplastic growth. Reduction of ETFDH levels

appears to be a common feature of cancer cells and is likely a consequence of DNA

hypermethylation (Fig.6B), an event that is frequently observed among tumor suppressor genes [39].

Indeed, ETFDH was found among the most under-expressed metabolic enzymes in a study that

compiled cancer microarray datasets [40]. Moreover, recent studies highlighted crosstalk between

aberrant mTOR signaling and epigenetic perturbations [41-44], which further reinforces the

plausibility that epigenetic reprograming in cancer cells may underpin the pro-neoplastic role of

ETFDH downregulation and/or explain resulting phenotypes.

Intriguingly, although ETF insufficiency limits the flexibility of cancer cells in using fuels

(e.g., lipids and amino acids) for OXPHOS, it triggers signalling events that establish a feed-

forward loop via mTORC1, leading to increased BCL-6 levels and reduced *EIF4EBP1*

transcription (Fig.6L). ETF insufficiency thus orchestrates enhanced mTORC1 signaling with

downregulation of 4E-BP1 protein levels to reprogram protein synthesis and ultimately increase

mitochondrial biogenesis and functions thereby providing a selective proliferative advantage to

cancer cells (Fig.6L). To this end, ETF insufficiency allows cancer cells to trade their metabolic

flexibility for increased bioenergetic capacity and a re-wired signaling state that favors neoplastic

growth. Importantly, while ETFDH plays an essential role in muscle, we did not observe a major

effect of ETFDH disruption on proliferation, mTOR signaling or 4E-BP1 levels in non-

transformed murine breast epithelial NMuMG cells. These observations suggest that ETF

insufficiency causes remodeling of signaling and metabolic networks that are favourable to cancer

cells.

Our findings are consistent with previously attributed tumor-suppressive effects of 4E-BP1

[45-50]. More recently, it has been demonstrated that under certain contexts 4E-BPs may play a

beneficial role for tumor survival. For instance, 4E-BPs may facilitate tumor growth by regulating

global and selective mRNA translation under periods of cellular stress [51,52], including suppression

of fatty acid biosynthesis under glucose deprivation [53,54]. Collectively, these findings demonstrate

that 4E-BPs are likely to play more complex, context dependent roles during cancer progression

than previously anticipated. Moreover, the role of different 4E-BP proteoforms in cancer was in

general thought to be redundant. Our findings however demonstrate that in the context of ETF

insufficiency selective decrease in 4E-BP1, but not 4E-BP2 levels plays a role in driving neoplastic

growth thereby suggesting that 4E-BP1 and 4E-BP2 may play hitherto unappreciated non-

overlapping roles in neoplasia.

Several metabolites can be sensed via signaling partners upstream of mTORC1, including

leucine, arginine, methionine/SAM, and threonine [55]. Branched-chain amino acids (leucine,

isoleucine, and valine), which are among the highest upregulated metabolites in ETFDH deficient

cells (Fig 3A) serve as ETFDH substrates, and have been described to display strong activation

capabilities towards mTORC1 in the literature [56,57]. Glutamine can also activate mTORC1 through

Arf family of GTPases [58]. Indeed, glutamine can supplement the non-essential amino acid (NEAA)

pool through transamination [59] and amino acid uptake [60]. Accordingly, the maintenance of NEAA

that are non-ETFDH substrates may be supported by the global metabolic rewiring fueled by

enhanced glutamine metabolism in ETFDH-deficient cells. Deciphering the mechanisms leading

to accumulation of specific amino acids and their role in ETFDH-dependent mTORC1 modulation

is warranted.

In conclusion, we show that ETF insufficiency caused by reduced ETFDH expression

remodels signaling and mitochondrial metabolism in a manner that drives neoplastic growth

(Fig.6L), while either being neutral (NMuMG) or deleterious (muscle cells) in non-malignant cells.

These findings explain how disruption of mitochondrial enzyme, rather than reducing cellular

fitness, is common in cancer because it increases mitochondrial energy flux to drive neoplastic

growth.

Figure 1: ETFDH loss promotes tumor growth

A) ETFDH protein levels in non-adjacent tissue (NAT) or grade 3 cancerous tissue (Tumor) were

determined by immunocytochemistry (IHC) of colorectal cancer tissue microarray. Staining

intensity of DAB in arbitrary units (A.U) is shown. Data are presented as means +/- SEM (NAT

n=14, Tumor n=13), **$p<0.01$, unpaired Student's t test.

B-C) Tumor growth of WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells following intra-

caecal injection (B) and endpoint tumor volumes (C). Growth was assessed by luminescence

(photons). Data are presented as means +/- SEM (WT EV n=6, ETFDH KO n=8, ETFDH Rescue

n=8), *$p<0.05$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

D-E) Tumor growth of WT and ETFDH KO NT2197 cells following mammary fat-pad injection

(D) and endpoint tumor volumes (E). Growth was assessed using a caliper. Data are presented as

means +/- SEM (WT n=17, ETFDH KO n=17), *$p<0.05$, unpaired Student's t test.

Figure 2: Absence of ETFDH promotes mitochondrial metabolism

A-B) Oxygen consumption (A) and extracellular acidification (B) in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells were determined using a Seahorse bioanalyzer. Data are normalized to cell count and presented as means +/- SD (n=4), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

C) Basal J ATP calculations from WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells. J ATP ox represents ATP production from oxidative phosphorylation, while J ATP glyc is ATP production from glycolysis. Comparison between J ATP ox (grey bars; top) and J ATP glyc (white bars; bottom) is shown. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=4), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

D-E) Bioenergetic plot for Basal, FCCP, and Monensin J ATP fluxes (D) and bioenergetic capacity (E) of WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=4), *$p<0.05$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

F) Glutamine uptake and glutamate production in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells. Results are shown as fold changes of ETFDH KO cells relative to WT cells. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=3), *$p<0.05$, paired Student's t test.

G) Schematic of ^{13}C-glutamine tracing throughout the citric acid cycle (CAC). Isotopomers labelled in green depict ^{13}C-glutamine tracing in the forward direction of the CAC, while those in purple represent reverse tracing.

H) Relative abundance of ^{13}C-labelled metabolites in the forward (green) and reverse (purple) directions from WT (blue) and ETFDH KO (red) NT2197 cells. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=3), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$, paired Student's t test.

I) Proliferation of WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells grown in the absence or presence of

glutamine for 48 hours. Results are shown as fold changes of cell counts under glutamine

deprivation relative to those under glutamine repleted conditions. Data are presented as means +/-

SD (n=3), *p<0.05, paired Student's *t* test.

Figure 3: ETFDH loss bolsters mTORC1 signaling and downregulates 4E-BP1 protein levels.

A) Amino acid profile in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 and NT2197 cells. Data are presented as

fold change in amino acid levels in ETFDH KO compared to WT cells (n=3).

B) Puromycin incorporation assays in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells. Levels and

phosphorylation status of indicated proteins were determined via western blotting using indicated

antibodies. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3). Quantification of

puromycin incorporation is presented as fold change in ETFDH KO vs. WT cells.

C) Levels and phosphorylation status of indicated proteins in WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 and

NT2197 cells were determined by western blotting. β-Actin served as a loading control

(representative blots of n=3).

D) Levels and phosphorylation status of indicated proteins in WT EV, ETFDH KO, or ETFDH

Rescue HCT-116 and NT2197 cells were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a

loading control (representative blots of n=3).

E) Total and phosphoprotein levels in WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were determined by

western blotting using indicated proteins. Cells were serum starved overnight, then depleted of

amino acids for indicated timepoints (0, 10, 30, 60 minutes), or stimulated with FBS for 4 hours

(Stim). β-Actin was used as loading control (representative blots of n=3).

F) Quantification of pS6(S240/244)/S6 ratio from data presented in panel E. Data are presented as

means +/- SD (n=3), $*p<0.05$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

G) Quantification of p4E-BP1(S65)/4E-BP1 ratio from data presented in panel E. Data are

presented as means +/- SD (n=3), $*p<0.05$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

Figure 4: Repression of *EIF4EBP1* transcription mediates the effects of ETFDH loss on cancer

bioenergetics and tumor growth

A) Levels and phosphorylation status of indicated proteins in WT EV, ETFDH KO, or ETFDH

Rescue HCT-116 and NT2197 cells were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a

loading control (representative blots of n=3).

B) Levels of indicated protein in λ-phosphatase treated WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 and NT2197

cell lysates were monitored by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control

(representative blots of n=3).

C) Indicated protein levels in WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 tumors were determined by western

blotting. AKT was used as loading control (WT n=8, ETFDH KO n=11).

D-E) Quantification of 4E-BP1 (D) and 4E-BP2 (E) from tumors described in panel C. Data are

presented as means +/- SEM (WT n=8, ETFDH KO n=11), ***$p<0.001$, unpaired Student's *t* test.

F) m^7GDP pulldown assay in ETFDH KO and ETFDH KO overexpressing 4E-BP1 (ETFDH KO

4E-BP1) NT2197 cells. Specified protein levels in m^7GDP pulldown or input were determined by

western blot. β-Actin was used as loading control (input) and to exclude contamination in the

pulldown material (m^7GTP bound) (representative blots of n=3).

G) Oxygen consumption of ETFDH KO and ETFDH KO 4E-BP1 NT2197 cells. Data are

normalized to cell count and presented as means +/- SD (n=5), **$p<0.01$, Student's *t* test.

H-I) Tumor growth of ETFDH KO and ETFDH KO 4E-BP1 NT2197 cells following mammary

fat-pad injection (H) and endpoint tumor volumes (I). Growth was assessed using caliper

measurements. ETFDH KO measurements are the same as in Fig.1D, as these growth curves were

obtained in the same experiment. Data are presented as means +/- SEM (ETFDH KO n=17,

ETFDH KO 4E-BP1 n=18), **$p<0.01$, unpaired Student's *t* test.

J) Mitochondrial DNA in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells was quantified

by qPCR. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) content was normalized to genomic DNA (gDNA). Data

are presented as fold change relative to WT EV cells +/- SD (n=3), *p<0.05, **p<0.01, one-way

ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

K) Levels of indicated proteins in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells were

assessed by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

L) *EIF4EBP1* and *EIF4EBP2* mRNA levels in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-

116 cells were determined by RT-qPCR. *PP1A* was used as a house-keeping gene. Data are

presented as fold change of *EIF4EBP1/PP1A* and *EIF4EBP2/PP1A* ratios relative to WT EV cells

(set to 1) +/- SD (n=3), *p<0.05, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

M) *Eif4ebp1* and *Eif4ebp2* mRNA abundance in WT and ETFDH NT2197 KO cells was

determined by RT-qPCR. *Actb* was used as a house-keeping gene. Data are presented as fold

change in *Eif4ebp1/Actb* and and *Eif4ebp2/Actb* ratios relative to WT cells +/- SD (n=3), *p<0.05,

paired Student's *t* test.

Figure 5: Loss of ETFDH increases BCL-6 levels leading to BCL-6-dependent inhibition of

EIF4EBP1 transcription.

A) Levels of indicated proteins in WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 and NT2197 cells were determined

by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

B) Levels of indicated proteins in ETFDH KO NT2197 cells treated with DMSO or Torin1

(250nM) for 4 hours were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control

(representative blots of n=3).

C) *BCL6/Bcl6* mRNA abundance in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 and NT2197 cells was

determined by RT-qPCR. *PP1A* mRNA was used as a control for HCT-116 experiments, while

Actb mRNA was used as a control for NT2197 experiments. Data are presented as fold change in

EIF4EBP1/PP1A and *EIF4EBP2/PP1A* (HCT-116) and *Eif4ebp1/Actb* and and *Eif4ebp2/Actb*

(NT2197) ratios relative to WT cells +/- SD (n=3), paired Student's *t* test.

D) Polysome profiling of WT and ETFDH HCT-116 KO cells. The absorbance at 254nm (AU

254nm) was used to monitor distribution of the 40S-, 60S- ribosomal subunits, monosomes (80S)

and polysomes across the gradient. *BCL6* mRNA abundance from polysome gradient fractions was

obtained using RT-qPCR. Data are shown as a mean percentage of mRNA in each fraction relative

to cumulative corresponding mRNA amount across the whole gradient +/-SD (n=3).

E-F) Binding events of BCL-6 to the promoters of *EIF4EBP1* and *EIF4EBP2* were determined by

ChIP-qPCR. IgG was used a negative control. Data are presented as % of input (n=3), *p<0.05,

two-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

G) The levels of indicated proteins in ETFDH KO NT2197 cells transfected with siRNA targeting

BCL-6 (siBCL-6) or control, scrambled siRNA (siCTRL) were determined by western blotting. β-

Actin was used as loading control (representative blots of n=2).

H) Levels of indicated proteins in ETFDH KO 4T1 cells infected with shRNAs targeting BCL-6

(shBCL-6 #1 or shBCL-6#2) or control, scrambled shRNA (shCTRL) were monitored by western

blotting. β-Actin served as loading control (representative blots of n=3).

I) Proliferation of ETFDH KO shCTRL, shBCL-6 #1, or shBCL-6#2 4T1 cells. Data are presented

as cell count means (n=3), *p<0.05, one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

Figure 6: Reduced expression of ETFDH increases mitochondrial metabolism and tumor growth

A) ETFDH mutations from 2683 samples across multiple cancer types. Number of missense and truncating mutations are shown relative to samples with no mutations. Data are acquired from the ICGC/TCGA Pan-Cancer Analysis of Whole Genomes Consortium [34], accessed from the cBioPortal server (www.cbioportal.org).

B) Levels of indicated proteins in WT HCT-116 cells treated with 2.5μM 5-azacytidine (5-aza), 10μM 5-aza-2' -deoxycytidine (5-aza-2-deoxyC), or a vehicle (DMSO) for 72 hours were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

C) Levels and the phosphorylation status of indicated proteins in ETFDH KO NT2197 cells expressing ETFDH harboring $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, $(AAA)_6$ tracks were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

D) *Eif4ebp1* and *Eif4ebp2* mRNA abundance in $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells were determined by RT-qPCR. *Actb* was used as a house-keeping gene. Data are presented as fold change in *Eif4ebp1/Actb* and *Eif4ebp2/Actb* ratios relative to $(AAG)_6$ NT2197 cells (n=3), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

E) Mitochondrial DNA content in $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells were monitored by qPCR. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) content was normalized to genomic DNA (gDNA) content. Data are presented as mean fold change relative to $(AAG)_6$ NT2197 cells -/+ SD (n=3), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

F) Oxygen consumption of $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells was determined using Seahorse bioanalyzer. Data are normalized to cell count and presented as means +/- SD (n=4), one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

G-H) Bioenergetic Plot for Basal, FCCP, and Monensin J ATP fluxes (G) and Bioenergetic

Capacity (H) derived from $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells. Data are presented as

means +/- SD (n=4), one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

I) Proliferation of $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells. ETFDH rescue measurements are

the same as in Supplementary Fig.1F. Data are presented as cell count means +/- SD (n=4),

**$p<0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test.

J-K) Tumor growth of $(AAG)_6$ and $(AAA)_6$ NT2197 cells following mammary fat-pad injection

(J) and endpoint tumor volumes (K). Growth was assessed using calipers. Data are presented as

means +/- SEM ($(AAG)_6$ n=6-12, $(AAA)_6$ n=11-13), **$p<0.01$, unpaired Student's t test.

L) Schematic representation of the model whereby reduction in ETFDH levels accelerates tumor

growth. Reduction of ETFDH triggers accumulation of intracellular amino acids thus increasing

mTORC1 signaling. This is orchestrated with BCL-6-dependent reduction in 4E-BP1 levels to

drive mitochondrial biogenesis and increase bioenergetic capacity of cancer cells ultimately

leading to more aggressive tumor growth.

Supplementary Figure 1: *ETFDH* expression is reduced across a broad array of cancer subtypes,

whereby *ETFDH* is a non-essential gene in cancer cells.

A) Schematic of electron transfer from fatty and amino acids towards the electron transport chain

(ETC) via electron transfer flavoprotein (ETF) and electron transport flavoprotein dehydrogenase

(ETFDH).

B) Gene essentiality in NALM6 cells. 19084 genes are presented and ranked based on essentiality

(1 being most essential and 19084 being the least essential). Orange bar depicts essential genes

and grey bar depicts non-essential genes. The rank of *ETFDH* is compared to those of *MYC*, *NRAS*,

RB1, and *TP53*.

C) *ETFDH* mRNA abundance profiles across tumor samples (red) compared to normal tissues

(blue). Data are presented as log2CPM (counts per million). Data were derived from The Cancer

Genome Atlas (TCGA) repository and accessed on the GEPIA2 server (http://gepia2.cancer-

pku.cn) (Colon Adenocarcinoma: Normal n=349, Tumor n=275; Liver Hepatocellular Carcinoma:

Normal n=160, Tumor n=369; Rectal Adenocarcinoma: Normal n=318, Tumor n=92; Ovarian

Serous Cystadenocarcinoma: Normal n=88, Tumor n=426; Skin Cutaneous Melanoma: Normal

n=558, Tumor n=461; Testicular Germ Cell Tumors: Normal n=165, Tumor n=137; Uterine

Carcinoma: Normal n=78, Tumor n=57), $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$.

D) *ETFDH* mRNA levels across healthy (labelled as normal) and breast tumor (labelled as tumor)

samples. RNAseq data from both TCGA and GTex databases were processed and normalized as

described. TPM values were downloaded from GEO [GSE86354 (healthy) and [GSM1536837

(tumour)]. Expression is presented as $\log_2$ standardised mRNA levels. Data were acquired from

the 'Breast cancer gene-expression miner' (bc-GenExMiner) server

(http://bcgenex.ico.unicancer.fr) using *ETFDH* expression according to nature of the tissue.

(Normal n=92, Tumor n=743). $p < 0.0001$, Dunnett-Tukey-Kramer's test.

E-F) Proliferation of WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 (E) and NT2197 (F)

cells. ETFDH rescue measurements are the same as in Fig.6I. Data are presented as cell count

means +/- SD over multiple time-points. Representative western blot of indicated proteins is

provided in the inlets (n=3), $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test.

G-H) Proliferation of WT and ETFDH KO 4T1 (G) and NALM6 (H) cells. Data are presented as

cell count means +/- SD over indicated time-points. Representative western blot of indicated

proteins is provided in the inlets (n=3), $*p < 0.05$, paired Student's *t* test.

I) Proliferation of WT and ETFDH KO NMuMG cells. Representative western blot of indicated

proteins is provided in the inlets (n=3), one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post hoc test.

J) Soft agar/colony formation assays in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells.

Data are presented as fold change relative to WT EV cells (n=3), $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, one-way

ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

<u>Supplementary Figure 2: ETFDH loss reprograms mitochondrial bioenergetics</u>

A) Schematic depicting fatty acid and leucine catabolism linked to ETFDH electron transfer.

B) Palmitate oxidation at basal level in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-116 cells.

Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=6), ****$p<0.0001$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc

test.

C) Fractional enrichment (%) of citrate m+2 in WT EV, ETFDH KO, and ETFDH Rescue HCT-

116 cells. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=6), ****$p<0.0001$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's

post-hoc test.

D-E) Oxygen consumption (D) and extracellular acidification (E) for WT and ETFDH KO

NT2197 cells was determined using a Seahorse bioanalyzer. Data are normalized to cell count and

presented as means +/- SD (n=5), *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, paired Student's t test

F) Basal J ATP calculations from WT and ETFDH KO NT2197 cells. J ATP ox represents ATP

production from oxidative phosphorylation, while J ATP glyc is ATP production from glycolysis.

Comparison between J ATP ox (grey bars; top) and J ATP glyc (white bars; bottom) is shown.

Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=5), ***$p<0.001$, paired Student's t test.

G-H) Bioenergetic Plot for Basal, FCCP, and Monensin J ATP fluxes (G) and Bioenergetic

Capacity (H) for WT and ETFDH KO NT2197 cells. Data are presented as means +/- SD (n=5),

*$p<0.05$, paired Student's t test.

I) Glutamine uptake and glutamate production in WT and ETFDH KO NT2197 cells. Data are

presented as mean fold changes of ETFDH KO cells relative to WT cells +/- SD (n=3), *$p<0.05$,

paired Student's t test.

J) Fractional abundance of ^{13}C-labelled metabolites over indicated timepoints from WT (blue) and

ETFDH KO (red) NT2197 cells. Isotopomers labelled in green depict ^{13}C-glutamine tracing in the

forward direction of the CAC, while those in purple represent reverse tracing. Data are presented

as means +/- SD (n=3), *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA,

Tukey's post hoc test.

K) Nucleotide metabolite profile in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells monitored by LC-

MS/MS. Data are presented as fold change in ETFDH KO compared to WT cells (n=3).

Supplementary Figure 3: ETFDH loss increases mTORC1 signaling and dependency

A-B) Levels and phosphorylation status of indicated proteins in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 (A) and NALM6 (B) cells were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

C) Proliferation of HCT116 ETFDH KO and ETFDH Rescue cells treated with indicated concentrations of Torin1 for 72h. Data are presented as fold changes relative to vehicle (DMSO) treatment (n=3), *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.01, two-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test.

D) Indicated protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells transfected with shRNA targeting *RAPTOR* (shRAPTOR), *RICTOR* (shRICTOR), or scrambled control (SCR) were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

E-F) Proliferation of HCT-116 WT and ETFDH KO cells expressing SCR and shRAPTOR (E) or SCR and shRICTOR (F). Data are presented as cell count means +/- SD (n=4), **p<0.01, ***p<0.01 two-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test.

G) Proliferation of HCT116 ETFDH KO and ETFDH Rescue cells treated with indicated concentrations of BiS-35x for 72 hours. Data are presented as fold changes relative to vehicle (DMSO) treatment (n=3), *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.01, two-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test.

H) Total and phosphoprotein levels in WT or ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were determined by western blotting using indicated proteins. Cells were serum starved overnight, then depleted of amino acids for indicated timepoints (0, 10, 30, 60 minutes), or stimulated with FBS for 4 hours (Stim). β-Actin was used as loading control (representative blots of n=3).

Supplementary Figure 4: *ETFDH* loss induces *EIF4EBP1* transcription

A) Protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO NALM6 cells were monitored by western blotting using

indicated antibodies. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

B) Indicated protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO 4T1 cells were determined by western blotting

using indicated antibodies. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

C) Protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO NMuMG cells were monitored by western blotting using

indicated antibodies. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

D) Proliferation of ETFDH KO and ETFDH KO overexpressing 4E-BP1 (ETFDH KO 4E-BP1)

HCT-116 cells. Data are presented as cell count means +/- SD over indicated time-points (n=3),

**p<0.01, paired Student's *t* test.

E) Soft agar/colony formation assay in ETFDH KO and ETFDH KO 4E-BP1 HCT-116 cells. Data

are presented as fold change relative to ETFDH KO cells (n=3), *p<0.05, paired Student's *t* test.

F) Mitochondrial mass in WT and ETFDH KO NT2197 cells was monitored by flow cytometry.

Data are presented as fold change relative to WT cells (n=3), **p<0.01, paired Student's *t* test.

G) The levels of indicated proteins in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells treated with

cycloheximide (CHX) (50μg/ml), MG-132 (10μM), or combination thereoff for 4 hours total were

monitored by western blotting. β-Actin was used as loading control, whereas p21 was used as a

short-lived protein to control for the effects of the CHX and MG-132 treatments (representative

blots of n=2).

H) Polysome profiling of WT and ETFDH HCT-116 KO cells. Absorbance at 254nm (AU 254nm)

was used to monitor the distribution of 40S-, 60S- ribosomal subunits, monosomes (80S) and

polysomes across the gradient. Indicated mRNA abundances from polysome gradient fractions

was obtained using RT-qPCR. Data are shown as a mean percentage of mRNA in each fraction

relative to cumulative corresponding mRNA amount across the whole gradient +/-SD (n=3).

I) Correlation between *ETFDH* and *EIF4EBP1* mRNA expression in colon adenocarcinoma

samples. Data were derived from TCGA repository.

J) WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were treated with Actinomycin D (10μg/ml) for indicated

timepoints upon which *EIF4EBP1* and *GAPDH* mRNA levels were determined by RT-qPCR. Data

are presented as a mean percentage of mRNA relative to DMSO-treated cells +/-SD (n=3).

Supplementary Figure 5: The effects of ETFDH loss on *EIF4EBP1* transcription are mediated by

BCL-6 but not STAT1, Snail or Slug

A) Protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were determined by western blotting

using indicated antibodies. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=2).

B) MT4788 WT and STAT1 KO cells were treated with IFNγ (1ng/ml) to induce STAT1 or vehicle

(water) for 24 hours. Levels and phosphorylation status of indicated proteins were determined by

western blotting. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=2).

C) Protein levels in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were assessed by western blotting using

annotated antibodies. β-Actin served as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

D-E) Binding of STAT1 to the promoters of *EIF4EBP1* (D) and *EIF4EBP2* (E) was determined

by ChIP-qPCR. IgG was used a negative control. Data are presented as a percentage of the input

+/- SD (n=3), one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

F) Fluorescence intensity of WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells stained with DCFDA (2μM) and

measured by flow cytometry. Median values are depicted in the inlets.

G) Levels of 4E-BP1 in WT and ETFDH KO HCT-116 cells were determined by western blotting

using the indicated antibody. β-Actin was used as a loading control (representative blots of n=3).

<u>Supplementary Figure 6: Poly(A) Track design (A-B); ETFDH catalytic activity is required for its</u>

<u>tumor suppressive function (C-F)</u>

A) Insertion of poly(A) tracks within the coding sequence of murine ETFDH. DNA sequences for

constructs $(AAG)_6$, $(AAA)_4$, $(AAA)_6$, and WT Etfdh are shown.

B) Protein structure of $(AAG)_6$ / $(AAA)_6$ constructs generated using AlphaFold.

C) Levels of indicated proteins in ETFDH KO EV, WT ETFDH rescue (ETFDH WT), and ETFDH

mutant Y304A, G306E HCT-116 cells were determined by western blotting. β-Actin was used as

a loading control (representative blots of n=2).

D) Proliferation of ETFDH KO EV, ETFDH WT, and ETFDH mutant Y304A, G306E HCT-116

cells. Data are presented as cell count means +/- SD over indicated time-points (n=3), $*p<0.05$,

one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

E-F) Oxygen consumption (E) and extracellular acidification (F) for ETFDH KO EV, ETFDH

WT, and ETFDH mutant Y304A, G306E HCT-116 cells was determined using a Seahorse

bioanalyzer. Data are normalized to cell count and presented as means +/- SD (n=4), $*p<0.05$, one-

way ANOVA, Tukey's post-hoc test.

Methods

Cell lines and cell culture

HCT-116, NALM6, and HEK293T cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and verified using ATCC Cell line authentication service. NMuMG, NT2197, and MT4788 Parental and STAT1 KO cells were obtained by Dr. J. Ursini-Siegel's lab, while 4T1 (4T1-526) cells were obtained from Dr. P.M. Siegel's group. HEK293T and HCT-116 cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1% penicillin/streptomycin and supplemented with 2mM L-Glutamine to obtain a final concentration of 6mM L-Glutamine. NALM6 and 4T1 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin and 2mM L-Glutamine. NMuMG and NT2197 cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 2mM L-Glutamine, 10 mg/mL insulin, 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5. NT2197 culture media was supplemented with puromycin (2 μg/mL) as previously described [11]. MT4788 were grown in DMEM, 2.5% FBS, mammary epithelial growth supplement (MEGS), 1% penicillin/streptomycin and gentamycin as previously described [25]. All cell lines were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO2 in a humidified environment and tested periodically for mycoplasma according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Animals

6–8-week-old SCID-BEIGE mice were purchased from Charles River. Male SCID-BEIGE mice were used for intracaecal experiments, while female mice were used for mammary fat pad injections. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the guidelines of the McGill University Animal Ethics Committee and the Canadian Council on Animal Care as approved by the facility animal care committee.

Xenograft Experiments

Luciferase-expressing HCT-116 cells (250,000 cells) were injected intracaecally in male (8-10 weeks old) SCID-BEIGE mice as previously described [61]. Tumor growth was monitored and assessed by luminescence (IVIS spectrum, PerkinElmer). Animals were sacrificed after 50 days. Quantification of signal intensity was performed with Living Image software (PerkinElmer). NT2197 mammary tumor cells (50,000 cells) were injected in mammary fat pads of 6-8-week female SCID-BEIGE mice. Tumor growth was monitored using calipers. Measurements were shown as once tumor volume reached $100{\sim}200$ mm^3 and animals were sacrificed before tumors reached 1cm^3. Tumors were excised, placed in 10% formalin, and embedded for immunohistochemistry.

Cell Proliferation Assay

Cells were counted using a Countess automated cell counter (Invitrogen) and trypan blue exclusion was used for determining cell viability. Cells (HCT-116, NT2197, NMuMG, 4T1, NALM-6) were seeded in 6-well dishes and counted to 3-5 days. HCT-116 cells were seeded on day 0 at a density of 100,000 cells for Supplementary Figs.1E, 3C, 3E-G, 4D and 50,000 cells for Supplementary Fig.6D. NT2197 cells were seeded on day 0 at a density of 60,000 cells in Fig.6I and Supplementary Fig.1F. NMuMG cells were seeded on day 0 at a density of 60,000 cells in Supplementary Fig.1I. 4T1 cells were seeded on day 0 at a density of 60,000 cells in Fig.5I and Supplementary Fig.1G. NALM-6 cells were seeded on day 0 at a density of 20,000 cells in Supplementary Fig.1H. For glutamine deprivation experiments, HCT-116 cells were seeded in full culture for 24 hours. The next day, cells were grown in media in the presence or absence of glutamine for 48 hours and then counted. For Torin1/BiS-35x treatment experiments, HCT-116

cells were seeded overnight. The next day, media was replaced with treatment media containing

Torin1 (50nM, 100nM, 250nM, 500nM) or BiS-35X (1nM, 10nM, 100nM, 1000nM) or DMSO

for 72 hours and then counted.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemical staining of colon human parafilm-embedded tissue array

(TissueArray.com, CO992b) was performed as previously described [62]. Briefly, the tissue slide

was baked for 55°C for 30 min followed by incubation in xylene (2× 5 min), 100% ethanol (2×

5 min), 95% ethanol (2× 5 min), 75% ethanol (1× 5min), and ddH$_2$O (2x 5min). The slide was

submerged in 10mM sodium citrate buffer (pH 6.0), 0.05% Tween-20 and heat-induced epitope

retrieval was carried out in a pressure cooker for 30 min. The slide was cooled for 20 min at room

temperature, rinsed in ddH$_2$O for 5 min, and washed with 1xTBS + 0.3% Triton X-100 for 10 min,

then 1xTBS for 5 min at room temperature. The slide was incubated in 3% H$_2$O$_2$ for 10 min at

room temperature and washed with TBST (1xTBS + 0.1% Tween-20) for 5 min to inactivate

peroxidases. A liquid blocker pen (PAP Pen, DAKO) was used to circle tissues on the slide. The

TMA was blocked for 1 hour in room temperature in the presence of DAKO Protein Block-Serum

Free (DAKO, Cat#X0909). The slide was incubated overnight at 4°C with the ETFDH antibody

(1:500, ProteinTech 11109-1-AP). The next day, the slide was washed in TBST (3x 5min), and

secondary incubation was performed for 30 min at room temperature with secondary antibody

(Antibody background reducing diluent and HRP rabbit substrate (Cell Signaling, Cat#7074)). The

slide was washed in TBST (3x 5min) and DAB (Di-amine-benzidine) peroxidase substrate

(Vector, Cat# SK-4100) was applied to the slide for 5 min. Reaction was stopped by washing in

ddH$_2$O for 5 min. The slide was counterstained with filtered hematoxylin for 20 sec and rinsed

with ddH$_2$O for 5 min. The slide was placed in 75% ethanol (1 min), 95% ethanol (1 min), 100%

ethanol (1 min) and xylene (2x 5min). The slide was mounted with a cytoseal at 60°C and dried in

a fumehood overnight. Quantitation of sections was performed using Imagescope software

(Aperio).

Western Blotting

Western blotting was performed as previously described [44]. Briefly, cells were washed twice with

PBS and lysed with RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% sodium

deoxycholate, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT, 1% NP40, 0.1% SDS), supplemented with 1X protease

inhibitor (Roche) and 1x PhoSTOP (Roche). Lysates were cleared at 4°C (10min, 13,000rpm).

Protein concentrations were determined using BCA kit (ThermoFisher). Lysates were mixed with

5x Laemmli buffer (60mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 10% glycerol, 2% SDS, 5% 2-mercaptoethanol,

0.05% bromophenol blue) and boiled (95°C for 5min). Proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE

(Bio-Rad) and transferred via wet transfer apparatus (Bio-Rad) to nitrocellulose membranes

(Amersham). Membranes were blocked in 5% BSA (dissolved in TBST (0.1% Tween 20 in 1×

TBS)) and incubated in primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. The next day, membranes were

washed in TBST and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 hour. Membranes

were washed and applied with ECL (Bio-Rad) for 1min. Exposure was carried out on an Azure

c300 (Azure Biosystems). Images were quantified by ImageJ and analysed using GraphPad

Prism10. The list of primary antibodies is described in Supplementary Table 1.

For λ-phosphatase experiments, cells were lysed with RIPA and supplemented with 1X

protease inhibitor, without 1x PhoSTOP. Protein samples were combined with NEBuffer for

protein metallophosphatases (PMP), MnCl$_2$, and λ-protein phosphatase for 30min at 30°C

according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs).

Cap-Binding Pull-Down Assay

Assay was carried out as previously described [18]. Briefly, NT2197 cells were seeded overnight in

150mm plates. The next day, media was changed, and cells were washed with PBS and dissolved

in lysis buffer containing 50mM MOPS/KOH (7.4), 100mM NaCl, 50 mM NaF, 2mM EDTA,

2mM EGTA, 1% NP40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, supplemented with

1X protease inhibitor (Roche) and 1x PhoSTOP (Roche). Lysates were cleared at 4°C (10min,

16,000g). Protein concentrations in samples were elucidated by BCA (ThermoFisher). Samples

were equilibrated for 20 min rotating at 4°C with m^7-GDP-agarose beads (Jena Bioscience), then

washed in buffer containing 50mM MOPS/KOH (7.4), 100mM NaCl, 50 mM NaF, 0.5mM EDTA,

0.5 mM EGTA, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.5 mM PMSF, 1mM Na$_3$VO$_4$ and 0.1mM GTP, by

centrifugation (500g for 1min). Bound proteins were eluted from beads via boiling in loading

buffer. Western blotting was performed on eluted proteins and input samples to assess for eIF4F

complex formation using 4E-BP1, eIF4G1, eIF4E, and β-actin antibodies.

Flow Cytometry

NT2197 cells were seeded in 6-well dishes for 24 hours. The next day, cells were stained with

50nM MitoTracker Deep Red (ThermoFisher) for 15 minutes at 37°C in the dark. Cells were

washed, counted, and 100,000 cells were dissolved in 500μl HBSS (Gibco). Samples were

analyzed with the LSR Fortessa cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, CA). Fluorescence

intensity was detected by excitation at 644nm and acquisition on the 665/-A channel for

MitoTracker Deep Red. ROS measurements were performed as previously described [62]. Briefly,

cells were incubated with H_2DCFDA (Molecular Probes) for 30 minutes at 37°C. Cells were

trypsinized, washed, and resuspended in 500μl HBSS. Samples were sorted on a BD FACS Canto

II system. Fluorescence intensities were calculated by FlowJo (Tree Star, Inc.).

Mitochondrial DNA Quantitation

Quantitation of mitochondrial DNA was carried out as previously described [21]. HCT-116 or

NT2197 cells were seeded in 6-well dishes for 24 hours. Genomic and mitochondrial DNA were

extracted using PureLink Genomic DNA Mini Kit (ThermoFisher) and quantified by qPCR using

SensiFAST™ SYBR® Lo-ROX kit (Bioline).

Polysome-Profiling Assay

Experiments were carried out as previously described [63]. Briefly, HCT-116 cells were seeded

overnight in 150mm plates. The next day, cells were washed in PBS containing 100 μg/ml

cycloheximide and lysed in hypotonic buffer (5 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1.5 mM

KCl, 100 μg/ml cycloheximide, 2 mM DTT, 0.5% Triton X-100, and 0.5% sodium deoxycholate).

Samples were loaded onto 10%-50% wt/vol sucrose density gradients (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH

7.6, 100 mM KCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$) and spun on a SW40Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter) at 4°C (36,000

rpm for 2 hours). Samples were fractionated and recorded at OD 254nm using an ISCO fractionator

(Teledyne ISCO). RNA from fractions and input was extracted using TRIzol (ThermoFisher)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA from each fraction and input was isolated using

TRIzol (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RT-qPCR was performed on

fractions and input RNA (refer to section "RNA extraction and RT-qPCR" for more information).

Primers are listed in Supplementary Table 2.

Puromycilation Assay

HCT-116 cells were grown in 10cm dishes for 24 hours. The next day, cells were treated with

puromycin (10ug/ml) for 20 minutes. Cells treated with DMSO were used as negative controls.

Cells were lysed and protein samples were quantified. Western blotting was performed (refer to

"Western Blotting" section for more information) and membranes were incubated in anti-

puromycin antibody (Millipore, Cat#MABE343). Quantification of bands was performed by

ImageJ.

Stable Isotope Tracing

Metabolite detection by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and stable isotope

tracing analysis (SITA) was performed as previously described [64]. Briefly, NT2197 cells were

seeded in 6-well dishes. Prior to ^{13}C-glutamine SITA experiments, culture media was replaced

with one whose composition contains 6mM unlabelled glutamine for 2 hours. Afterwards, media

was replaced with media containing 6mM labelled ([U-13C])-glutamine media (Cambridge

Isotope Laboratories, MA, USA; CLM-1822; L-glutamine ([U-13C5]), 99%) for 5, 15, 30, and 60

minutes. For ^{13}C-leucine SITA experiments, culture media was replaced with one containing

unlabelled leucine (0.105g/L) for 2 hours, then incubated in media containing labelled (0.105g/L)

([U-13C])-leucine media (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, MA, USA; CLM-2262-H-0.1; L-

leucine ([U-13C6]), 99%) for 24 hours. Both steady state and tracing samples were washed in cold

saline solution (9g/L NaCl) and scraped off with 80% methanol. Samples were sonicated at 4°C

for 10 minutes (high setting, 30 seconds on/30 seconds off cycles) to rupture cells. Lysates were

centrifuged at 4°C (14000g,10 minutes), and supernatants were collected with addition of an

internal standard (750ng myristic acid-D27). Samples were dried overnight at 4°C by speed-vac

(Labconco). Dried pellets are resuspended in methoxyamine hydrochloride (10mg/ml), sonicated,

and cleared for 10 minutes. Samples are heated 70°C for 30 minutes then applied with N-tert-

butyldimethylsilyl-N- methyltrifluoroacetamide (MTBSTFA) at 70°C for 1 hour. Derivatized

samples are injected into an Agilent 5975C GC/MS (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) using

methods described previously [64]. ^{13}C-tracer samples were run in parallel with unlabelled samples.

MassHunter software (Agilent) was used to carry out mass isotopomer distribution analyses, with

metabolites normalized to myristic acid-D27 and cell number. Isotopic distributions were

corrected for naturally occurring isotopes using an in-house algorithm [65].

Steady-State Analysis of Nucleotides

Steady-state nucleotide abundances were determined using liquid chromatography-mass

spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Cells were washed with 150 mM ammonium formate solution (4°C,

pH 7.4), scraped, and extracted with 600µl of methanol/acetonitrile solution (31.6% MeOH/36.3%

ACN). Cell lysis and homogenization was conducted by bead-beating with 4 ceramic beads (2

mm) for 30 seconds at 50 Hz using a TissueLyser II (Qiagen). Dichloromethane was added to

samples, which were subsequently centrifuged to separate extracts into aqueous and organic layers.

Supernatants from aqueous layers were dried by vacuum centrifugation at -4°C overnight

(Labconco). Dried samples were re-suspended in 50µl of water and centrifuged at 1°C. 5µl of

sample was injected onto an Agilent 6470 Triple Quadrupole (QQQ)–LC–MS/MS (Agilent

Technologies). Separation of metabolites was conducted using a 1290 Infinity ultra-performance

quaternary pump liquid chromatography system, with a mass spectrometer equipped with a Jet

Stream™ electrospray ionization source operating in negative mode (Agilent Technologies), with

the following settings: source-gas temperature (150 °C), flow (13 L min^{-1}), nebulizer pressure

(45 psi), and capillary voltage (2,000 V). Chromatographic resolution of metabolites was

conducted using a Zorbax Extend C18 column 1.8 μm, 2.1 × 150mm^2 with guard column 1.8 μm,

2.1 × 5mm^2 (Agilent Technologies). The gradient commenced at 100% mobile phase A (97%

water, 3% methanol, 10 mM tributylamine, 15 mM acetic acid, 5 μM medronic acid) for 2.5 min,

followed with a 5-min gradient to 20% mobile phase C (methanol, 10 mM tributylamine, 15 mM

acetic acid, 5 μM medronic acid), a 5.5-min gradient to 45% C and a 7-min gradient to 99% C at

a flow rate of 0.25 mL min^{-1}. This was followed by a 4-min hold time at 100% mobile phase C.

The column was restored by washing with 99% mobile phase D (90% ACN) for 3 min at 0.25

mL min^{-1}, followed by increase of the flow rate to 0.8 mL min^{-1} over 0.5 min and a 3.85-min hold,

after which the flow rate was decreased to 0.6 mL min^{-1} over 0.15 min. The column was

subsequently re-equilibrated at 100% A over 0.75 min, during which the flow rate was decreased

to 0.4 mL min^{-1}, and held for 7.65 min. The flow was brought back to forward flow at 0.25

mL min^{-1} one minute before the next injection. The column temperature was maintained at 35°C.

Data were analyzed by using MassHunter Quantitative Data Analysis B.10.00 (Agilent

Technologies). Data presented are peak area normalized by cell number. Authentic metabolite

standards (Sigma Aldrich) were used to obtain reaction monitoring parameters (qualifier/quantifier

ions and retention times). All LC/MS grade solvents and salts are purchased from Fisher.

RNA Extraction and RT-qPCR

HCT-116 and NT2197 cells were plated in 6-well dishes and extracted using TRIzol (Ambion) or Aurum Total RNA Mini Kit (Bio-Rad) following the manufacturers' instructions. cDNA was synthesized from purified RNA using SensiFAST cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bioline), as per manufacturer's protocol. RT-qPCR was performed using SensiFAST SYBR Lo-ROX kit (Bioline). Primer sequences are found in Supplementary Table 2.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP)

Experiments were performed as previously described [44]. Briefly, HCT-116 cells were grown in 150mm dishes and fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 10 min, followed by centrifugation. Pellets were resuspended in ChIP-buffer (50 nM Tris (pH 8), 100 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 1X PMSF, 2 mM NaF, 0.25% NP-40, 0.25% Triton X-100, 0.25% Sodium Deoxycholate, 0.005% SDS) supplemented with 1x cOmplete protease inhibitor (Roche). Samples are sonicated using Sonic Dismembrator Model 500 (ThermoFisher) at 5 cycles at 20% power, 5 cycles at 25% power, 5 cycles at 30% power; each cycle is 10 sec. Lysates are spun at 4°C (14,000rpm, 10min) and protein concentration was measured from supernatants using the BCA kit (ThermoFisher). Samples were loaded onto Protein G Plus-Agarose Suspension Beads (Millipore) and pre-cleared at 4°C for 3 hours. Input samples were collected, and immunoprecipitation was performed with anti-BCL6 (Cell Signaling, #5650) or anti-IgG (Cell Signaling, #2729) on the remainder of the sample overnight at 4°C. The following day, samples were washed in three wash buffers (20 mM Tris (pH 8), 2 mM EDTA, 0.10% SDS, 1% Triton X-100 with 150/200/599mM for Wash1/2/3 buffers respectively), then a wash with LiCl buffer (10 mM Tris (pH 8), 1 mM EDTA, 0.25 M LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1% Sodium Deoxycholate), and two washes with TE buffer (10 mM Tris (pH 8), 1 mM

EDTA). Samples were eluted in elution buffer (0.1 M NaHCO3, 1% SDS), and de-crossliked at

65°C overnight. The following day, proteinase K was applied to samples and heated at 42°C for 1

hour. DNA was purified and collected using DNA collection column (BioBasic). ChIP-qPCR was

performed for *EIF4EBP1* and *EIF4EBP2* using sequences found in Supplementary Table 3.

Respirometry Assay

Oxygen consumption (OCR) and extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) were measured using

Seahorse XFe24 and XFe96 analyzers (Agilent) with the Mito Stress Test (Agilent) and Palmitate

Oxidation Assay (Agilent), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, HCT-116 and

NT2197 cells were seeded in Seahorse culture plates (XFe24: 50,000 cells or XFe96: 20,000 cells)

and incubated at 37°C. Cells were washed twice and incubated in assay media. For mito stress test

experiments, assay media is composed of 10mM glucose, 2mM glutamine, and 1mM sodium

pyruvate. Injections include oligomycin (1µM), FCCP (1µM), rotenone/antimycin A (1µM), and

monensin (20µM). ATP production from OXPHOS (ATPox) or glycolysis (ATPglyc) were

quantified using algorithms presented previously [66]. For palmitate oxidation assay, cells were

seeded in substrate-limited media (DMEM, 1% FBS, 0.5mM glucose, 1mM glutamine, 0.5mM

carnitine). The next day, cells are washed with FAO Buffer (includes 0.5mM glucose, 0.5mM

carnitine, and 5mM HEPES). Immediately prior to run, palmitate-BSA or BSA control is added to

the cell media. Basal respiration was recorded and values were normalized to cell counts.

Soft Agar/Colony Formation Assay

Experiments were conducted as previously shown [12]. Briefly, 6-well dishes are filled with a bottom

layer solution (1:1; 1% noble agar and 2X culture media (2X DMEM, 20% FBS, 2%

Pen/Strep/Glutamine)) per well. Dishes are incubated at room temperature for 30 min to allow

solution to solidify. 5,000-10,000 HCT-116 and NT2197 cells are mixed 1:1 with 0.6% noble agar

and 2X culture media. 1.5ml of this mixture is transferred on top of the solidified agar wells. Dishes

are incubated at room temperature to allow the top layer to solidify. Cells are grown at 37°C until

colony formation is present. Dishes were stained with nitroblue tetrazolium (Sigma), and colonies

were counted.

1000

Protein Stability Assay

HCT-116 cells were seeded in 10cm dishes. The next day, cells were treated with cycloheximide

(CHX) (50µg/ml) or DMSO for 2 hours. Furthermore, cells were treated with the proteasomal

inhibitor, MG-132 (10µM) or DMSO for 2 hours. Final time point for all conditions was 4 hours.

Protein was extracted, quantified, and western blotting was performed for ETFDH, p21, 4E-BP1,

or β-actin (refer to "Western Blotting" section for more information).

1007

1008 **RNA Stability Assay**

1009 Assay was performed as previously described [67]. Briefly, HCT-116 cells were seeded in 6-well

1010 dishes. The next day, cells were treated with actinomycinD (ActD) for 2,4,8 and 24 hours. RNA

1011 was extracted, cDNA was synthesized, and RT-qPCR was performed (refer to "RNA extraction

1012 and RT-qPCR" for more information).

1013

Generation of ETFDH Knockout Cell Lines

To deplete endogenous ETFDH expression in HCT-116 and NALM6 cells, two guides RNA

(gRNAs) targeting exon 6 and exon 9 of human ETFDH (against ETFDH sequences

AGGTTGGCCGAATGCTAGGATGG and GATGTAGGGATACAAAAGGATGG) (refer to

Supplementary Table 4 for gRNA sequences) were designed using CHOPCHOP

(https://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/)[68] and purchased with the appropriate overhangs to be cloned into

LentiCRISPRv2(GFP) (Addgene #82416). Cloning was carried out as previously described [69,70],

with the following modifications: BsmBI-v2 (New England Biolabs) was used to digest the

lentiCRISPRv2 plasmid; plasmid DNA was recovered using Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit

(Zymo Research), and ligation was performed overnight at 4°C. Transformation of the ligated

plasmid was carried out at 42°C in chemically competent Stbl3 cells (Fisher Scientific). Bacteria

were plated on Lysogeny Broth (LB)-agar plates containing ampicillin (1 µg/mL) (BioBasic).

Extraction of plasmid DNA was conducted using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) and

samples were sequenced using primer for human U6 promoter (refer to Supplementary Table 5 for

sequence). Nucleofection was used to deliver the validated lentiCRISPRv2 plasmids into HCT-

116 and NALM6 cells. Transfections of the plasmids were carried out in Nucleofector cuvettes,

according to the optimized protocols for NALM6 and HCT-116 cells (Lonza Bioscience), with

1×10^6 cells used and 1X PBS was used instead of the commercial 4-D Nucleofector solution. Post-

nucleofection, cells were allowed to grow for 72 hours at 37°C, 5% CO_2, prior to cell sorting (BD

FACSAria™ Fusion Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences)). Cells expressing GFP were selected and

grown in 96-well plates containing conditioned media (45% filtered culture media, 45% fresh

media, & 10% FBS). After two weeks, sorted clones were transferred into 24-well plates and later

into 6-well plates to be collected and validated. Depletion of endogenous ETFDH protein levels in

both HCT-116 and NALM-6 cells was initially confirmed by immunoblotting. Candidate clones

with loss of ETFDH expression were kept for further validation. Moreover, the genomic DNA loci

of candidate clones were sequenced and analyzed for insertion–deletion mutations (INDELs). Two

sets of PCR primers were designed in regions flanking the CRISPR target sites (refer to

Supplementary Table 5 for validation PCR sequences). Extraction of genomic DNA for each clone

was carried out using the PureLink Genomic DNA Mini Kit (Fisher Scientific). Two rounds of

polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on the extracted genomic DNA (35 PCR cycles with Set 1

followed by 45 PCR cycles with Set 2) were carried out and gel electrophoresis was utilized to

separate the PCR products. The smaller PCR product for each clone was excised and purified using

the Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research). The products were sequenced, and

chromatograms were analyzed for the presence of mutations causing a premature stop-codon or a

frameshift. Insertion–deletion mutations (INDELs) in *ETFDH* were verified by PCR followed by

sequencing, while the absence of ETFDH protein was confirmed by western blotting for HCT-116

cells and NALM6 cells.

To deplete ETFDH expression in NMuMG, NT2197 and 4T1 cells, two guides (gRNAs)

targeting exon 2 of mouse Etfdh (against mEtfdh sequences 5'-

ATTTTTATGCAGCGTATCACTGG-3' and 5'-GAACATCTTGGAGCACACAGAGG-3')

were designed using CHOPCHOP and cloned in LentiCRISPRv2(GFP) (Addgene #82416) and

sequenced as shown above. For lentiviral production, 2.5×10^5 HEK293T cells were seeded

overnight in a 6-cm dish (Sarstedt). The next day, cells were co-transfected with 4µg of respective

lentiCRISPRV2 GFP plasmid containing either one of the gRNA inserts or empty-lentiCRISPRV2

GFP plasmid, 2.66µg of psPAX2 packaging plasmid (Addgene 35002), and 1.66 µg of pMD2.G

plasmid (Addgene #12259) using the jetPRIME transfection reagent as described by the

manufacturer's protocol (Polyplus transfection). Growth media was changed after 24 hours. After

48 hours, viral supernatant was filtered (0.45 µm filter; (Frogga Bio)), mixed 1:1 with fresh culture

media, and applied to target cells grown in 6-well plates along with 8 µg/mL polybrene (Sigma-

Aldrich). Cells were re-transduced the following two days with viral supernatant. Cells were

allowed to recover for 48 hours post-transduction. Cells were sorted into 96-well plates (Sarstedt)

and grown to generate stable cell lines, as shown above. Depletion of mouse Etfdh protein levels

was initially confirmed via immunoblotting for NT2197, 4T1, and NMuMG. The presence of

INDELs leading to a premature stop codon or frameshift was determined by sequencing as shown

above. Two sets of PCR primers were designed in the regions flanking the CRISPR target sites

(refer to Supplementary Table 5).

1070

Generation of ETFDH Rescue Cell Lines

To rescue human ETFDH expression in HCT-116 cells, ETFDH(NM_004453) Human Tagged

ORF was cloned into pLenti-ETFDH-C-Myc-DDK-P2A-Puro plasmid according to the

manufacturer's instructions (Origene) to generate the resulting plasmid, pLenti-ETFDH-C-Myc-

DDK-P2A-Puro. To re-express mutant ETFDH (Y304A, G306E), WT ETFDH, or ORF-Stuffer

lentiviral plasmids conferring hygromycin B resistance were designed using VectorBuilder

(VB250613-1532mdm, VB250613-1530fzr, and VB900172-2887sfj respectively). Plasmids were

transfected with psPAX2, pMD2.G into HEK293T cells with JetPrime reagent (Polyplus)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Viral supernatants were filtered (0.45μM) and

applied to HCT-116 ETFDH KO cells with polybrene (6μg/mL). After 6 hours, cells were re-

infected overnight. After 2 days, selection with puromycin (4μg/ml) was performed for 72 hours.

Uninfected cells were selected with puromycin to serve as negative controls. The re-introduction

of ETFDH expression or control plasmid in the knockout cells was confirmed via western blotting.

To rescue ETFDH expression in NT2197 ETFDH KO cells, a lentiviral plasmid conferring

hygromycin B resistance and expressing mEtfdh with PAM site mutations or expressing an ORF-

Stuffer was created using VectorBuilder (VB221206-1257xet and VB900123-2599cba

respectively). Lentivirus production and transduction were carried out as previously mentioned for

three consecutive days. After 48h of recovery, cells were selected with 1 mg/mL hygromycin B

for 3 days. Cells were confirmed by western blotting.

1090

Generation of Poly(A) Track ETFDH Variants

Mutants were designed by inserting poly(A) tracks of multiple adenosines: control track (CTRL)

[6 consecutive lysine AAG codons $(AAG)_6$], 12 adenosines [12A, equivalent to 4 consecutive

AAA (Lys) codons $(AAA)_4$; 18 adenosines [18A, equivalent to 6 consecutive AAA (Lys) codons

$(AAA)_6$] within the rescue plasmid pLV[Exp]-Hygro-EF1A>mEtfdh. The polyA track insertion

site was determined using AlphaFold (version 2) [37,38] to minimize unintended effects caused by

the poly-lysine stretches on the possible mitochondrial import sequence. The polyA tracks were

inserted following residue 38, in an unstructured loop of the Etfdh protein. Site-directed

mutagenesis was performed using QuikChange II site-directed mutagenesis kit, according to the

manufacturer's instructions (Agilent). Briefly, cycling parameters are followed as: Cycle 1: 95°C

for 1min; Cycle 2: 95°C for 30 sec, 60°C for 30 sec, 68°C for 10min; Cycle 3: 68°C for 7min.

The resulting plasmids were generated: pLV[Exp]-Hygro-EF1A>mEtfdh-AAG_6, pLV[Exp]-

Hygro-EF1A>mEtfdh-AAA_4, pLV[Exp]-Hygro-EF1A>mEtfdh-AAA_6. To generate the poly(A)

track Etfdh mutant lines in NT2197 cells (termed AAG_6, AAA_4, AAA_6), lentivirus production and

transduction into NT2197 ETFDH KO cells was carried out as previously mentioned for three

consecutive days. After 48h of recovery, cells were selected with 1 mg/mL hygromycin B for 3-4

days. ETFDH expression was confirmed by western blotting.

1108

Generation of Cells Expressing *EIF4EBP1*

pBABE-puro-EV and pBABE-puro-4E-BP1 plasmids were used to overexpress 4E-BP1 in HCT-116 ETFDH KO cells. Retrovirus production and transduction was carried out similarly to lentivirus production, except 2.66 μg of pUMVC packaging plasmid (Addgene #8449) was utilized instead of psPAX2. Following three consecutive days of viral transduction, cells were allowed to recover for 48h prior to selection with 2 μg/mL puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 3 days. To overexpress 4e-bp1 in NT2197 ETFDH KO cells, plasmids containing m4e-bp1 or ORF-Stuffer were generated by VectorBuilder (VB221206-1246sbx & VB900123-2599cba). Lentivirus production and transduction was carried out as previously mentioned for three consecutive days prior to a 48h recovery period. After this period, selection with hygromycin B (1 mg/mL) was conducted for 5-7 days. Validation was observed by western blotting.

Generation of Knockdown Models by shRNA/siRNA

Knockdown using shRNA was performed as previously described [20]. For BCL6 knockdown experiments, the following shRNA vectors were used: pLKO.1 Non-Target shRNA Control (Sigma, SHC002), BCL6 shRNA #1 (Sigma, TRCN0000084654), or BCL6 shRNA #2 (TRCN0000084655). For RAPTOR/RICTOR knockdown experiments, the following shRNA vectors were used: scramble shRNA (Addgene, Plasmid #1864), RAPTOR_1 shRNA (Addgene, Plasmid #1857), and RICTOR_1 shRNA (Addgene, Plasmid #1853). Briefly, HEK293T cells were transfected with psPAX2, pMD2.G or target pLKO.1 lentiviral shRNA vectors with JetPrime reagent (Polyplus) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Viral supernatants were filtered (0.45μM) and transferred to target cells with polybrene (6μg/mL). After 6 hours, cells were re-infected overnight. After 2 days, selection with puromycin (4μg/ml) was performed for 72 hours.

Uninfected cells were selected with puromycin to serve as negative controls. Cells were seeded

and processed for protein extraction or cell proliferation. Validation was confirmed by western

blotting for *BCL6* knockdown and *RAPTOR* or *RICTOR* knockdown.

Knockdown using siRNA was performed as previously described [64]. Briefly, target cells

were transfected for 24 hours with 50nM Silencer Negative Control No.1 (Thermofisher,

AM4611) or BCL6 siRNA (Thermofisher, Cat#4390771) using JetPrime reagent (Polyplus)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were re-transfected the next day for 24 hours,

then processed for protein extraction. Validation was confirmed by western blotting.

1140

Expression Profiles from TCGA/GTEx Databases

Expression of *ETFDH* and *EIF4EBP1* mRNA across both normal and tumor samples were

obtained from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and GTEx repositories. The expression data

were normalized using the TMM (trimmed mean of M values) method and presented as log2

counts per million. Correlations between the genes were assessed using Pearson's correlation

coefficient.

1147

1148   **Quantification and Statistical Analysis**

1149   Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 10. Data are presented as mean +/- SD

1150   of independent experiments, unless stated otherwise. Technical replicates were averaged from 2-

1151   3 independent experiments. Details on data quantification, presentation, and statistical analysis are

1152   included in figure legends.

1153

1154

Data Availability

Plasmids generated in this study is deposited on Addgene. The original data is available at Mendeley Data (doi: 10.17632/p4wxkr3vdm.1). Metabolomics data is available at MetaboLights (MTBLS11048).

Acknowledgments

We are thankful to the members of all involved laboratories and Stephane Richard for helpful discussions. We thank Luc Choinière and Mariana Russo for assistance with metabolomic experiments, Christian Young for assistance with flow cytometry, and Christopher Rudd for assistance with respirometry. This research was funded by the Terry Fox Foundation (TFF) Oncometabolism Team Grant (TFF-242122) to I.T., P.S, and M.P, and Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) (PJT-183843, PJT-479494) to I.T. Research in OL's lab is supported by grants from the Swedish Research Council (2020-01665), Swedish Cancer Society (22 2186), the Cancer Research Funds of Radiumhemmet (231263) and the Wallenberg Academy Fellow Program. L-M.P. acknowledges the funds from Queen's University. D.P. is supported by CIHR Postdoctoral Fellowship (MFE-171312), Cancer Research Society (CRS) The Next Generation of Scientists Award (NGS), and LDI Desjardins Fellowship Program. P.J. and H.K. are supported by Fonds de Recherche du Québec – Santé (FRQS) Fellowships. I.T. is supported by Canada Research Chair in Regulation of mRNA Translation and Metabolism. Metabolic analysis was performed at the Rosalind and Morris Goodman Cancer Research Centre's Metabolomics Core Facility, which is supported by the Canada Foundation for Innovation, the Dr. John R. and Clara M. Fraser Memorial Trust, the Terry Fox Foundation (TFF Oncometabolism Team Grant; TFF-242122), and McGill University.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, D.P., M.P. and I.T.; Methodology, D.P., R.P., P.J., S.I., H.K., T.B., and S.D.; Formal Analysis, D.P., P.J., S.T., E.C., S.I., K.J.S. and T.B.; Investigation, D.P., R.P., P.J., S.T., E.C., V.S., S.I., S.M., L.Z., H.K., N.C., K.J.S., J.Z., J.V., F.A., and S.M.; Resources, E.G., M.T, D.A., O.L., L.-M.P., S.D., J.U.-S., P.M.S., M.P., and I.T.; Writing – Original Draft, D.P., M.P., and I.T.; Writing – Review & Editing, all authors; Supervision, M.P., and I.T.; Project Administration, M.P., and I.T.; Funding Acquisition, D.P., M.P., and I.T.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests

Supplementary Tables

The online version contains supplementary tables.

Supplementary Table 1: List of Antibodies

Supplementary Table 2: Primer sequences used for RT-qPCR

Supplementary Table 3: Primer sequences used for ChIP-qPCR

Supplementary Table 4: gRNA sequences used for generation of ETFDH KO cell lines

Supplementary Table 5: Primer sequences used for sequencing

Material & Correspondence

Further information and requests for reagents may be directed upon reasonable request by the lead contact, Ivan Topisirovic (ivan.topisirovic@mcgill.ca).

References

1201

1   Banerjee, R., Purhonen, J. & Kallijarvi, J. The mitochondrial coenzyme Q junction and

complex III: biochemistry and pathophysiology. *FEBS J* **289**, 6936-6958 (2022).

https://doi.org:10.1111/febs.16164

2   Mereis, M. *et al.* Disorders of flavin adenine dinucleotide metabolism: MADD and related

deficiencies. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* **132**, 105899 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.biocel.2020.105899

3   Ghisla, S. & Thorpe, C. Acyl-CoA dehydrogenases. A mechanistic overview. *Eur J*

Biochem **271**, 494-508 (2004). https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1432-1033.2003.03946.x

4   Zhang, Y. *et al.* An acyl-CoA dehydrogenase microplate activity assay using recombinant

porcine electron transfer flavoprotein. *Anal Biochem* **581**, 113332 (2019).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.ab.2019.06.003

5   El-Gharbawy, A. & Vockley, J. Inborn Errors of Metabolism with Myopathy: Defects of

Fatty Acid Oxidation and the Carnitine Shuttle System. *Pediatr Clin North Am* **65**, 317-

335 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.pcl.2017.11.006

6   Olsen, R. K. *et al.* ETFDH mutations as a major cause of riboflavin-responsive multiple

acyl-CoA dehydrogenation deficiency. *Brain* **130**, 2045-2054 (2007).

https://doi.org:10.1093/brain/awm135

7   Missaglia, S., Tavian, D. & Angelini, C. ETF dehydrogenase advances in molecular

genetics and impact on treatment. *Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol* **56**, 360-372 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1080/10409238.2021.1908952

8   Herrero Martin, J. C. *et al.* An ETFDH-driven metabolon supports OXPHOS efficiency in

skeletal muscle by regulating coenzyme Q homeostasis. *Nat Metab* **6**, 209-225 (2024).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s42255-023-00956-y

9   Bertomeu, T. *et al.* A High-Resolution Genome-Wide CRISPR/Cas9 Viability Screen

Reveals Structural Features and Contextual Diversity of the Human Cell-Essential

Proteome. *Mol Cell Biol* **38** (2018). https://doi.org:10.1128/MCB.00302-17

10   Tsherniak, A. *et al.* Defining a Cancer Dependency Map. *Cell* **170**, 564-576 e516 (2017).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cell.2017.06.010

11   Ursini-Siegel, J. *et al.* ShcA signalling is essential for tumour progression in mouse models

of   human   breast   cancer.   *EMBO   J*   **27**,   910-920   (2008).

https://doi.org:10.1038/emboj.2008.22

12   Borowicz, S. *et al.* The soft agar colony formation assay. *J Vis Exp*, e51998 (2014).

https://doi.org:10.3791/51998

13   DeBerardinis, R. J. & Cheng, T. Q's next: the diverse functions of glutamine in metabolism,

cell   biology   and   cancer.   *Oncogene*   **29**,   313-324   (2010).

https://doi.org:10.1038/onc.2009.358

14   Saxton, R. A. & Sabatini, D. M. mTOR Signaling in Growth, Metabolism, and Disease.

Cell **168**, 960-976 (2017). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cell.2017.02.004

15   Thoreen, C. C. *et al.* An ATP-competitive mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitor reveals

rapamycin-resistant   functions   of   mTORC1.   *J   Biol   Chem*   **284**,   8023-8032   (2009).

https://doi.org:10.1074/jbc.M900301200

16   Lee, B. J. *et al.* Selective inhibitors of mTORC1 activate 4EBP1 and suppress tumor

growth. *Nat Chem Biol* **17**, 1065-1074 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41589-021-00813-

7

17   Harding, H. P. *et al.* Regulated translation initiation controls stress-induced gene

expression in mammalian cells. *Mol Cell* **6**, 1099-1108 (2000).

https://doi.org:10.1016/s1097-2765(00)00108-8

18   Dowling, R. J. *et al.* mTORC1-mediated cell proliferation, but not cell growth, controlled

by the 4E-BPs. *Science* **328**, 1172-1176 (2010). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.1187532

19   Gingras, A. C. *et al.* Regulation of 4E-BP1 phosphorylation: a novel two-step mechanism.

Genes Dev **13**, 1422-1437 (1999). https://doi.org:10.1101/gad.13.11.1422

20   Hulea, L. *et al.* Translational and HIF-1alpha-Dependent Metabolic Reprogramming

Underpin Metabolic Plasticity and Responses to Kinase Inhibitors and Biguanides. *Cell*

Metab **28**, 817-832 e818 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cmet.2018.09.001

21   Morita, M. *et al.* mTORC1 controls mitochondrial activity and biogenesis through 4E-BP-

dependent translational regulation. *Cell Metab* **18**, 698-711 (2013).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cmet.2013.10.001

22   Morita, M. *et al.* mTOR coordinates protein synthesis, mitochondrial activity and

proliferation. *Cell Cycle* **14**, 473-480 (2015).

https://doi.org:10.4161/15384101.2014.991572

23   Yamaguchi, S. *et al.* ATF4-mediated induction of 4E-BP1 contributes to pancreatic beta

cell survival under endoplasmic reticulum stress. *Cell Metab* **7**, 269-276 (2008).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cmet.2008.01.008

24   Wang, J. *et al.* Snail determines the therapeutic response to mTOR kinase inhibitors by

transcriptional repression of 4E-BP1. *Nat Commun* **8**, 2207 (2017).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-017-02243-3

25   Totten, S. P. *et al.* STAT1 potentiates oxidative stress revealing a targetable vulnerability

that increases phenformin efficacy in breast cancer. *Nat Commun* **12**, 3299 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-021-23396-2

26   Hayes, J. D., Dinkova-Kostova, A. T. & Tew, K. D. Oxidative Stress in Cancer. *Cancer*

Cell **38**, 167-197 (2020). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.ccell.2020.06.001

27   Nakayamada, S. *et al.* Type I IFN induces binding of STAT1 to Bcl6: divergent roles of

STAT family transcription factors in the T follicular helper cell genetic program. *J*

Immunol **192**, 2156-2166 (2014). https://doi.org:10.4049/jimmunol.1300675

28   Liu, Y. *et al.* The oncoprotein BCL6 enables solid tumor cells to evade genotoxic stress.

Elife **11** (2022). https://doi.org:10.7554/eLife.69255

29   Madapura, H. S. *et al.* Interferon gamma is a STAT1-dependent direct inducer of BCL6

expression in imatinib-treated chronic myeloid leukemia cells. *Oncogene* **36**, 4619-4628

(2017). https://doi.org:10.1038/onc.2017.85

30   Ramachandran, K. *et al.* Transcriptional programming of translation by BCL6 controls

skeletal muscle proteostasis. *Nat Metab* **6**, 304-322 (2024).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s42255-024-00983-3

31   Yi, W. *et al.* The mTORC1-4E-BP-eIF4E axis controls de novo Bcl6 protein synthesis in

T cells and systemic autoimmunity. *Nat Commun* **8**, 254 (2017).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-017-00348-3

32   Xu, L. *et al.* The Kinase mTORC1 Promotes the Generation and Suppressive Function of

Follicular   Regulatory   T   Cells.   *Immunity*   **47**,   538-551   e535   (2017).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.immuni.2017.08.011

33   Raybuck, A. L. *et al.* B Cell-Intrinsic mTORC1 Promotes Germinal Center-Defining

Transcription Factor Gene Expression, Somatic Hypermutation, and Memory B Cell

Generation   in   Humoral   Immunity.   *J Immunol* **200**,   2627-2639   (2018).

https://doi.org:10.4049/jimmunol.1701321

34   Consortium, I. T. P.-C. A. o. W. G. Pan-cancer analysis of whole genomes. *Nature* **578**,

82-93 (2020). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-020-1969-6

35   Powell, G., Pavlovic Djuranovic, S. & Djuranovic, S. Gene dosage effects of poly(A) track-

engineered   hypomorphs.   *Mol   Ther   Nucleic   Acids*   **26**,   865-878   (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.omtn.2021.10.005

36   Arthur, L. *et al.* Translational control by lysine-encoding A-rich sequences. *Sci Adv* **1**

(2015). https://doi.org:10.1126/sciadv.1500154

37   Jumper, J. *et al.* Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature* **596**,

583-589 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-021-03819-2

38   Varadi, M. *et al.* AlphaFold Protein Structure Database: massively expanding the structural

coverage of protein-sequence space with high-accuracy models. *Nucleic Acids Res* **50**,

D439-D444 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1093/nar/gkab1061

39   Jones, P. A. & Baylin, S. B. The fundamental role of epigenetic events in cancer. *Nat Rev*

Genet **3**, 415-428 (2002). https://doi.org:10.1038/nrg816

40 Nilsson, R. *et al.* Metabolic enzyme expression highlights a key role for MTHFD2 and the

mitochondrial folate pathway in cancer. *Nat Commun* **5**, 3128 (2014).

https://doi.org:10.1038/ncomms4128

41 Smith, H. W. *et al.* An ErbB2/c-Src axis links bioenergetics with PRC2 translation to drive

epigenetic reprogramming and mammary tumorigenesis. *Nat Commun* **10**, 2901 (2019).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-019-10681-4

42 Harachi, M. *et al.* Dual Regulation of Histone Methylation by mTOR Complexes Controls

Glioblastoma Tumor Cell Growth via EZH2 and SAM. *Mol Cancer Res* **18**, 1142-1152

(2020). https://doi.org:10.1158/1541-7786.MCR-20-0024

43 Chen, M. *et al.* The activation of mTOR signalling modulates DNA methylation by

enhancing DNMT1 translation in hepatocellular carcinoma. *J Transl Med* **21**, 276 (2023).

https://doi.org:10.1186/s12967-023-04103-9

44 Kim, H. *et al.* MTOR modulation induces selective perturbations in histone methylation

which influence the anti-proliferative effects of mTOR inhibitors. *iScience* **27**, 109188

(2024). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.isci.2024.109188

45 Petroulakis, E. *et al.* p53-dependent translational control of senescence and transformation

via 4E-BPs. *Cancer Cell* **16**, 439-446 (2009). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.ccr.2009.09.025

46 Hsieh, A. C. *et al.* Genetic dissection of the oncogenic mTOR pathway reveals druggable

addiction to translational control via 4EBP-eIF4E. *Cancer Cell* **17**, 249-261 (2010).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.ccr.2010.01.021

47 Polunovsky, V. A. *et al.* Translational control of the antiapoptotic function of Ras. *J Biol*

Chem **275**, 24776-24780 (2000). https://doi.org:10.1074/jbc.M001938200

48 Lynch, M., Fitzgerald, C., Johnston, K. A., Wang, S. & Schmidt, E. V. Activated eIF4E-
binding protein slows G1 progression and blocks transformation by c-myc without
inhibiting cell growth. *J Biol Chem* **279**, 3327-3339 (2004).
https://doi.org:10.1074/jbc.M310872200

49 Avdulov, S. *et al.* Activation of translation complex eIF4F is essential for the genesis and
maintenance of the malignant phenotype in human mammary epithelial cells. *Cancer Cell*
5, 553-563 (2004). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.ccr.2004.05.024

50 Rousseau, D., Gingras, A. C., Pause, A. & Sonenberg, N. The eIF4E-binding proteins 1
and 2 are negative regulators of cell growth. *Oncogene* **13**, 2415-2420 (1996).

51 Musa, J. *et al.* Eukaryotic initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1): a master
regulator of mRNA translation involved in tumorigenesis. *Oncogene* **35**, 4675-4688
(2016). https://doi.org:10.1038/onc.2015.515

52 Jewer, M. *et al.* Translational control of breast cancer plasticity. *Nat Commun* **11**, 2498
(2020). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-020-16352-z

53 Teleman, A. A., Chen, Y. W. & Cohen, S. M. 4E-BP functions as a metabolic brake used
under stress conditions but not during normal growth. *Genes Dev* **19**, 1844-1848 (2005).
https://doi.org:10.1101/gad.341505

54 Levy, T. *et al.* mTORC1 regulates cell survival under glucose starvation through 4EBP1/2-
mediated translational reprogramming of fatty acid metabolism. *Nat Commun* **15**, 4083
(2024). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-024-48386-y

55 Valenstein, M. L. *et al.* Structural basis for the dynamic regulation of mTORC1 by amino
acids. *Nature* **646**, 493-500 (2025). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-025-09428-7

56   Appuhamy, J. A., Knoebel, N. A., Nayananjalie, W. A., Escobar, J. & Hanigan, M. D.

Isoleucine and leucine independently regulate mTOR signaling and protein synthesis in

MAC-T cells and bovine mammary tissue slices. *J Nutr* **142**, 484-491 (2012).

https://doi.org:10.3945/jn.111.152595

57   Herningtyas, E. H. *et al.* Branched-chain amino acids and arginine suppress

MaFbx/atrogin-1 mRNA expression via mTOR pathway in C2C12 cell line. *Biochim*

Biophys Acta **1780**, 1115-1120 (2008). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.bbagen.2008.06.004

58   Jewell, J. L. *et al.* Metabolism. Differential regulation of mTORC1 by leucine and

glutamine. *Science* **347**, 194-198 (2015). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.1259472

59   Tan, H. W. S., Sim, A. Y. L. & Long, Y. C. Glutamine metabolism regulates autophagy-

dependent mTORC1 reactivation during amino acid starvation. *Nat Commun* **8**, 338

(2017). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-017-00369-y

60   Chen, R. *et al.* The general amino acid control pathway regulates mTOR and autophagy

during serum/glutamine starvation. *J Cell Biol* **206**, 173-182 (2014).

https://doi.org:10.1083/jcb.201403009

61   Tabaries, S. *et al.* Claudin-2 promotes colorectal cancer liver metastasis and is a biomarker

of the replacement type growth pattern. *Commun Biol* **4**, 657 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s42003-021-02189-9

62   Igelmann, S. *et al.* A hydride transfer complex reprograms NAD metabolism and bypasses

senescence. *Mol Cell* **81**, 3848-3865 e3819 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.molcel.2021.08.028

63   Gandin, V. *et al.* Polysome fractionation and analysis of mammalian translatomes on a

genome-wide scale. *J Vis Exp* (2014). https://doi.org:10.3791/51455

64   Papadopoli, D. *et al.* Perturbations of cancer cell metabolism by the antidiabetic drug

canagliflozin. *Neoplasia* **23**, 391-399 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neo.2021.02.003

65   McGuirk, S. *et al.* PGC-1alpha supports glutamine metabolism in breast cancer. *Cancer*

Metab **1**, 22 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1186/2049-3002-1-22

66   Mookerjee, S. A., Gerencser, A. A., Nicholls, D. G. & Brand, M. D. Quantifying

intracellular rates of glycolytic and oxidative ATP production and consumption using

extracellular flux measurements. *J Biol Chem* **292**, 7189-7207 (2017).

https://doi.org:10.1074/jbc.M116.774471

67   Topisirovic, I. *et al.* Stability of eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E mRNA is

regulated by HuR, and this activity is dysregulated in cancer. *Mol Cell Biol* **29**, 1152-1162

(2009). https://doi.org:10.1128/MCB.01532-08

68   Labun, K. *et al.* CHOPCHOP v3: expanding the CRISPR web toolbox beyond genome

editing. *Nucleic Acids Res* **47**, W171-W174 (2019). https://doi.org:10.1093/nar/gkz365

69   Sanjana, N. E., Shalem, O. & Zhang, F. Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for

CRISPR screening. *Nat Methods* **11**, 783-784 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1038/nmeth.3047

70   Shalem, O. *et al.* Genome-scale CRISPR-Cas9 knockout screening in human cells. *Science*

343, 84-87 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.1247005

1392

Fig.1

Fig.2

Fig.3

Fig.4

Fig.5

Fig.6

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5

A HCT-116

WT / ETFDH KO

ETFDH
Snail
Slug
4E-BP1
4E-BP2
β-Actin

B MT4788

Parental / STAT1 KO
- + / - + IFNγ (1ng/ml)

p-STAT1(Y701)
STAT1
4E-BP1
β-Actin

C HCT-116

WT / ETFDH KO

ETFDH
STAT1
4E-BP1
4E-BP2
β-Actin

D HCT-116 ChIP

EIF4EBP1

% of input

STAT1   IgG

E HCT-116 ChIP

EIF4EBP2

% of input

STAT1   IgG

■ WT EV
■ ETFDH KO
■ ETFDH Rescue

F HCT-116

DCFDA

WT: 92400
ETFDH KO: 144146

Normalized To Mode

(488nm-530_30)-A

G

HCT-116

Vehicle   NAC

WT / ETFDH KO   WT / ETFDH KO

4E-BP1
β-Actin

Supplementary Figure 6

A

WT Etfdh	ATGTTGGTGCGACTAACCAAGCTGTCCTGCCCTGCGTATCACTGGTTTCATGCCTTAAAAATTAAGAAGTGCCTACCTCTGTGTGCTCCAAGATGTTCTTCAACCTCTGCTGTA————————CCTCAGATTACCACTCACTACACTGTTCATCCCCGGGAGA....
(AAG)₆	ATGTTGGTGCGACTAACCAAGCTGTCCTGCCCTGCGTATCACTGGTTTCATGCCTTAAAAATTAAGAAGTGCCTACCTCTGTGTGCTCCAAGATGTTCTTCAACCTCTGCTGTAAAGAAGAAGAAGAAGAAGCCTCAGATTACCACTCACTACACTGTTCATCCCCGGGAGA....
(AAA)₄	ATGTTGGTGCGACTAACCAAGCTGTCCTGCCCTGCGTATCACTGGTTTCATGCCTTAAAAATTAAGAAGTGCCTACCTCTGTGTGCTCCAAGATGTTCTTCAACCTCTGCTGTAAAAAAAAAAAAAAACCTCAGATTACCACTCACTACACTGTTCATCCCCGGGAGA....
(AAA)₆	ATGTTGGTGCGACTAACCAAGCTGTCCTGCCCTGCGTATCACTGGTTTCATGCCTTAAAAATTAAGAAGTGCCTACCTCTGTGTGCTCCAAGATGTTCTTCAACCTCTGCTGTAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAACCTCAGATTACCACTCACTACACTGTTCATCCCCGGGAGA....

B

(AAG)₆ / (AAA)₆ Protein Structure

C

D

E

F

Supplementary Table 1 List of Antibodies

Antibody	Source	Identifier
Mouse monoclonal β-actin antibody, 1:5000 dilution	MilliporeSigma	Cat#A5441; RRID: AB_476744
Normal Rabbit IgG	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#2729; RRID: AB_1031062
Rabbit monoclonal 4E-BP1 (53H11) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#9644; RRID: AB_2097841
Rabbit monoclonal Akt (pan) (C67E7) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#4691; RRID: AB_915783
Rabbit monoclonal phospho-4E-BP1 (S65) (174A9) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#9456; RRID: AB_823413
Rabbit monoclonal Phospho-Akt (Ser473) (D9E) XP® antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#4060; RRID: AB_2315049
Rabbit monoclonal Rictor (53A2) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#2114; RRID: AB_2179963
Rabbit polyclonal phospho-S6 Ribosomal Protein (Ser240/244) antibody, 1:2000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technologies	Cat#2215; RRID: AB_2630325
Rabbit polyclonal Raptor antibody, 1:1000 dilution	MilliporeSigma	Cat#09–217; RRID: AB_612103
Rabbit polyclonal 4E-BP2 antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2845; RRID: AB_10699019
Rabbit monoclonal phospho-S6K (T389) antibody, 1:500 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	9234; RRID: AB_2269803
Rabbit monoclonal S6K antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2708; RRID: AB_390722
Mouse monoclonal S6 ribosomal protein antibody, 1:5000 dilution	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	sc-74459; RRID: AB_1129205
Rabbit polyclonal ACC antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	3662; RRID: AB_2219400
Rabbit polyclonal phospho-ACC (Ser79) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	3661; RRID: AB_330337
Mouse monoclonal eIF2α (L57A5) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2103; RRID: AB_836874
Rabbit polyclonal eIF2α (Ser51) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	9721; RRID: AB_330951
Rabbit polyclonal eIF4G1 antibody, 1:500 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2858; RRID: AB_2095745
Rabbit polyclonal TFAM antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	7495; RRID: AB_10841294
Rabbit monoclonal GAPDH (14C10) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2118; RRID: AB_561053
Mouse monoclonal eIF4E antibody, 1:1000 dilution	BD Biosciences	610269; RRID: AB_397664
Mouse monoclonal puromycin (12D10) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Millipore	MABE343; RRID: AB_2566826
Rabbit polyclonal AMPKα antibody, 1:500 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2532; RRID AB_330331
Rabbit monoclonal Anti-AMPK-alpha, phospho (Thr172) antibody, 1:500 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	2535; RRID: AB_331250
Rabbit polyclonal ETFDH antibody, 1:2000 dilution	ProteinTech	11109-1-AP; RRID: AB_2231382
Rabbit monoclonal BCL-6 antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	14895; RRID: AB_2798638
Rabbit monoclonal BCL-6 antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	5650; RRID: AB_10949970
Rabbit monoclonal Snail antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	3879; RRID: AB_2255011
Rabbit monoclonal Slug antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	9585; RRID: AB_2239535
Rabbit polyclonal CREB-2 (ATF4) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Santa Cruz	sc-200; RRID: AB_2058752
Rabbit monoclonal STAT1 antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	14994; RRID: AB_2737027
Rabbit monoclonal p-STAT1 (Tyr701) antibody, 1:1000 dilution	Cell Signaling Technology	9167; RRID: AB_561284

Supplementary Table 2: Primer sequences used for RT-qPCR

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
Human	
EIF4EBP1 forward	GGAACTCACCTGTGACCAAAA
EIF4EBP1 reverse	CCGCTTATCTTCTGGGCTATT
EIF4EBP2 forward	AGTCACTAGCCCTGGCACCTTA
EIF4EBP2 reverse	CTTGCAGGAGAGTCAGATGTCC
BCL6 forward	TGAGAAGCCCTATCCCTGTG
BCL6 reverse	TGTGACGGAAATGCAGGTTA
PP1A forward	GTCAACCCCACCGTGTTCTT
PP1A reverse	CTGCTGTCTTTGGGACCTTGT
GAPDH forward	TGTTGCCATCAATGACCCCTT
GAPDH reverse	CTCCACGACGTACTCAGCG
Mouse	
Eif4ebp1 forward	GGTCACTAGCCCTACCAGCG
Eif4ebp1 reverse	TTGTGACTCTTCACCGCCTG
Eif4ebp2 forward	TACCTCAGGACTACTGCACCAC
Eif4ebp2 reverse	GGAGAATTGCGACGGTCCAACA
Bcl6 forward	GCGAACCTTGATCTCCAGTC
Bcl6 reverse	TGACTCTCACTGCTGCTTCG
Actb forward	TTCCTTCTTGGGTATGGAA
Actb reverse	CCACGATCCACACAGAGTA

Supplementary Table 3: Primer sequences used for ChIP-qPCR

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
EIF4EBP1_ChIP forward	TGACTGAGGTTCGGATCTGG
EIF4EBP1_ChIP reverse	CACTCGCGTAAATGGGGAAC
EIF4EBP2_ChIP forward	TTCAACAACTTCAGCCACGC
EIF4EBP2_ChIP reverse	GGAGTTGGGGAAGCTGGTC

Supplementary Table 4: gRNA sequences used for generation of ETFDH KO cell lines

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
Human	
ETFDH gRNA Target 1 Forward	CACCGAGGTTGGCCGAATGCTAGGA
ETFDH gRNA Target 1 Reverse	AAACTCCTAGCATTCGGCCAACCTC
ETFDH gRNA Target 2 Forward	CACCGATGTAGGGATACAAAAGGA
ETFDH gRNA Target 2 Reverse	AAACTCCTTTTGTATCCCTACATC
Mouse	
ETFDH gRNA Target 1 Forward	CACCGGTGATACGCTGCATAAAAAT
ETFDH gRNA Target 1 Reverse	AAACATTTTTATGCAGCGTATCACC
ETFDH gRNA Target 2 Forward	CACCGGAACATCTTGGAGCACACAG
ETFDH gRNA Target 2 Reverse	AAACCTGTGTGCTCCAAGATGTTCC

Supplementary Table 5: Primer sequences used for sequencing

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
Human	
ETFDH validation Set 1 Forward	AGCGAGCATTTTCCTCCACA
ETFDH validation Set 1 Reverse	ACCATTGTTAGCTCAAAGTTGCT
ETFDH validation Set 2 Forward	TCATTTCCCATTGTGCGAGC
ETFDH validation Set 2 Reverse	ATGTACAGTTTGTAGCAAGACCT
Mouse	
ETFDH validation Set 1 Forward	GTGTCTGAAGGCAGCAACAG
ETFDH validation Set 1 Reverse	GGATCAAGACAAGCCCCTGA
ETFDH validation Set 2 Forward	CCAGGTTCAATTCCCAGCAC
ETFDH validation Set 2 Reverse	CCGGGGATGAACAGTGTAGT