Intrinsic bioenergetic adaptations compensate for reduced mitochondrial content in HER2-driven mammary tumors

Sara M Frangos[1], Henver S Brunetta[1], Dongdong Wang[2,3], Maria Joy Therese Jabile[2,3], David W L Ma[1], William J Muller[4], Cezar M Khursigara[5], Kelsey H Fisher-Wellman[6], Gregory R Steinberg[2,3,7], Graham P Holloway[1]

[1]Department of Human Health and Nutritional Sciences, University of Guelph, ON, Canada
[2]Centre for Metabolism, Obesity and Diabetes Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada
[3]Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Department of Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada
[4]Department of Biochemistry, McGill University, Rosalind and Morris Goodman Cancer Research, Montreal, QC, Canada
[5]Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, University of Guelph, ON, Canada
[6]Department of Cancer Biology, Medical Center Boulevard, Wake Forest University School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC, USA
[7]Department of Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada
Corresponding authors: Sara M Frangos (sfrangos@uoguelph.ca) and Graham P Holloway (ghollowa@uoguelph.ca)

ABSTRACT

It is now recognized that mitochondria play a crucial role in tumorigenesis, however, it has become clear that tumor metabolism varies significantly between cancer types. The failure of recent clinical trials attempting to directly target tumor respiration with inhibitors of oxidative phosphorylation has highlighted the critical need for additional studies comprehensively assessing mitochondrial bioenergetics. Therefore, we systematically assessed the bulk tumor and mitochondrial metabolic phenotype between murine HER2-driven mammary cancer tumors and paired benign mammary tissue. Transcriptomic and proteomic profiling revealed that HER2-driven mammary tumors are characterized by a downregulation of mitochondrial genes/proteins compared to benign mammary tissue, including a general downregulation of OXPHOS subunits comprising Complexes I-IV. Despite this observation, mitochondrial respiration supported by both carbohydrate-derived substrates (pyruvate) and lipids (palmitoyl-carnitine) was several-fold higher in HER2-driven tumors which persisted regardless of normalization method (i.e. wet weight, total protein content and when corrected for mitochondrial content). This upregulated respiratory capacity could not be explained by OXPHOS uncoupling; however, several subunits/regulators of Complex V function were not downregulated in the tumors, suggesting possible compensatory effects may contribute to high respiratory rates. Furthermore, tumor mitochondria displayed a smaller and more punctate morphology, aligning with a general reduction in mitochondrial fusion and increase in mitochondrial fission markers, which could contribute to improved OXPHOS efficiency. Together, this data highlights that the typical correlation of mitochondrial content and respiratory capacity may not apply to all tumor types and implicates the activation of mitochondrial respiration supporting tumorigenesis in this model.

INTRODUCTION

The field of cancer metabolism has rapidly evolved in the last decade. A specific focus of many researchers has been on understanding the role of mitochondria in tumorigenesis with the goal to potentially target aspects of mitochondrial metabolism to reduce proliferation[1,2]. It was initially hypothesized that a universal characteristic of cancer cells was dysfunctional oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), as proposed by Otto Warburg in the 1920s[3,4]. This theory spurred interest in studying mitochondria in various cancers, highlighting the diverse mitochondrial phenotypes in this context. While instrumental for OXPHOS, mitochondria are now recognized for their multifaceted roles in regulating cellular homeostasis, including supporting macromolecule biosynthesis[5], maintaining redox balance[6] and generating metabolites that regulate gene transcription[7]. Given their pleiotropic effects within the cell, there is a growing recognition that mitochondria play an essential role in cancer initiation, progression, and metastasis[1], and an appreciation that interrogating mitochondrial bioenergetics in diverse cancers may identify novel therapeutic strategies.

Reductions in the content/activity of mitochondrial enzymes within the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and electron transport chain (ETC) impairs mitochondrial respiratory capacity and coincides with activating transcriptional programs driving tumorigenesis[8–10]. Indeed, inhibition of succinate dehydrogenase (Complex II) in osteosarcoma cells[8], and renal cell carcinoma[9] enhances cancer growth despite OXPHOS inhibition. Furthermore, in colorectal cancer, age-related Complex I deficiency coincides with reduced respiratory capacity but enhanced serine synthesis and subsequent growth rates[10]. Despite this evidence suggesting that disruptions in mitochondrial bioenergetics contribute to tumor progression, several elegant studies using genetic and pharmacological approaches have solidified that a functional ETC is required for cancer cell growth[6,11,12]. Furthermore, the use of whole-genome sequencing specifically interrogating mtDNA phenotypes across several human cancers has revealed that loss of function mutations in mtDNA genes are often under negative selection[13], suggesting the maintenance of mitochondrial function may support tumorigenesis in some cancers and impairments in mitochondrial metabolism are not a ubiquitous finding. However, mitochondrial content represents one dimension of bioenergetic regulation, and may not fully reflect mitochondrial function *in vivo* where substrate delivery/sensitivity and mitochondrial coupling can be altered independently of mitochondrial content[14]. Therefore, a comprehensive assessment of mitochondrial function, particularly in the context of the mitochondrial proteome, is essential to provide deeper insights into the bioenergetic phenotypes observed in different cancers.

Within this framework, there has been considerable interest in investigating mitochondrial bioenergetics and dynamics in breast cancer subtypes due to the limited therapeutic options for triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) and therapeutic resistance in breast cancers driven by estrogen (ER), progesterone (PR) and human epidermal growth factor (HER2) receptor amplification[15–17]. Indeed, increases in mitochondrial respiration or "OXPHOS reliance" is associated with poor outcomes in treatment naïve TNBC[18], metastatic ER+ tumors[19], and HER2-driven breast cancers[20]. While inhibiting OXPHOS in this context[18,19] (i.e. with Complex I inhibitor IACS-010759) has shown some pre-clinical success, systemic toxicity has prevented the translation of this strategy to the clinic[21]. Furthermore, it is unclear whether increases in mitochondrial respiration arise from increases in mitochondrial content or intrinsic enhancements in mitochondrial function (i.e. coupling efficiency, substrate delivery/sensitivity) - information that is critical to develop successful mitochondrial-targeted therapies with a wider therapeutic window. Thus, in the current study, we comprehensively assessed the bulk tumor and mitochondrial phenotype between murine HER2-driven mammary cancer tumors and benign mammary tissue in the context of the underlying transcriptome and proteome. Respiratory capacity supported by both pyruvate and lipids was enhanced in HER2-driven tumors even when corrected for mitochondrial content, suggesting intrinsic bioenergetic adaptations may exist to maintain OXPHOS during tumorigenesis in this model.

RESULTS

Mammary tumors from MMTV/neu[ndl]-YD5 mice display canonical HER2 pathway activation

Cell lines are commonly used to study isolated mechanisms driving tumorigenesis, however, they
neglect the variety of cell types in the tissue of origin and the influence of the tumor
microenvironment, which is a key regulator of cancer growth[23,24]. To this end, we have utilized tumor
and benign mammary tissues from MMTV/neu[ndl]-YD5 transgenic mice[25] to investigate HER2-driven
tumor biology **(Fig.1A).** Signaling events linked to HER2 activation rely on the autophosphorylation of
the tyrosine kinase domain[25–27] and MMTV/neu[ndl]-YD5 mice possess an add-back mutation at the
Y1226/7 (YD) site, activating downstream signaling events linked to SHC/GRB2 with similar
transforming potential as the wild-type protein[27,28] **(Fig.1B)**. While the proximal signaling events
linked to HER2 activation in this model have been described[27], to validate our bulk tissue-based
model, we assessed the mRNA (transcriptomics) and protein (quantitative label-free proteomics and
western blotting) expression of canonical HER2 pathway members (RAS/MAPK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR
pathways) that are well-characterized in various HER2-overexpressing mammary cancer cell lines
(Fig. 1B)[29–31]. *Her2* transcript levels were increased ~175-fold (**Fig.1C**) and transcripts belonging to
the Ras/MAPK (*Hras, Mapk1, Mapk3*) and PI3K/AKT/mTOR (*Pik3cg, Pik3c2a, Pik3c2b, Pikrcg, Pik3c3,*
Akt3) pathways were also upregulated in the tumors compared to the benign mammary tissue
(Fig.1D). At the protein level, HER2 was readily detectable in mammary tumors by quantitative label-
free proteomics but undetectable in paired benign tissues **(Fig.1E)** suggesting enhanced HER2
transcription also manifests as an increase in receptor content in the tumors. Downstream of HER2
activation, the total protein content of p38 MAPK, ERK1/2 and eEF2 were significantly increased in
tumors compared to benign tissue detected by western blot **(Fig.1F,G)**. When normalized to total
protein, p38 MAPK and eEF2 phosphorylation were not higher in tumors due to proportional
increases in total protein abundance, while in contrast, phosphorylated ERK1/2 and mTOR were
significantly upregulated suggesting both Ras/MAPK and the PI3k/AKT/mTOR pathways were
activated in tumors **(Fig.1H, S-Fig.1)**. Overall, these data demonstrate that mammary tumors display
classical hallmarks of HER2-driven cancer cell signaling, allowing for the subsequent investigation
of HER2-driven tumor biology and metabolism in this model.

Assessment of the HER2-driven mammary tumor transcriptome

To understand the biology and metabolism of HER2-driven mammary tumors, we assessed their
transcriptomes using RNA sequencing. Principal component analysis (PCA) using the entire gene
expression profile showed distinct separation between groups **(Fig.2A)**. Visualizing all differentially
expressed genes (DEGs) using a volcano plot **(Fig.2B)** and the top 3000 DEGs using a heatmap
(Fig.2C) revealed several differentially upregulated and downregulated genes between groups where
genes involved in MAPK- and AKT-linked signaling, ECM remodelling and cellular stress responses
(Etv1, Dusp6, Papln, Ier3) were among the most upregulated genes in the tumors and genes involved
in lipid metabolism *(Dgat2, Lipe, Cd36)* were among the most downregulated. Enrichment analysis
of the top 3000 upregulated DEGs **(Fig.2D)** identified pathways characteristic of HER2-driven
signaling (e.g. tyrosine kinase signaling, GTPase signaling) and gene ontology (GO) analysis identified
processes indicative of active transcription, translation, and protein turnover characteristic of a
rapidly proliferating tissue **(Fig.2E)**. Interestingly, enrichment analysis of the top 3000 downregulated
genes in the tumors consistently identified that mitochondrial metabolism, and in particular
components of the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) system were downregulated in tumors
compared to benign mammary tissue **(Fig.2F,G)**. Altogether, these data further support that this
whole tissue model aligns with canonical HER2-driven cell signaling events and highlights that HER2-
driven tumors are characterized by reductions in mitochondrial gene expression.

Assessment of HER2-driven mammary tumor proteome

We further validated our transcriptomic findings at the protein level using label-free quantitative
proteomics and detected 2589 proteins in the benign mammary tissue and 2448 proteins in the

HER2-driven tumors; 1848 of which were found in both groups **(Fig.3A)**. This initial analysis revealed
741 and 600 uniquely expressed (i.e. only detected in one tissue) proteins in benign mammary tissue
and tumors respectively **(S-Fig.2A)**. Interestingly, OXPHOS and aerobic respiration proteins were
identified among the top pathways in benign tissue, but not in tumors **(S-Fig.2B-G)**, further
supporting the notion of downregulated mitochondrial content within tumors. Reflecting the PCA for
the transcriptomic data, analysis of all overlapping proteins between benign and tumor samples
revealed distinct separation **(Fig.3B)**. Of the 1848 proteins found in both the tumors and benign
tissue, 420 were significantly different (p-adj. <0.1, **Fig 3A,C,D**). However, the majority of the
differentially expressed proteins were downregulated (n=411) in tumors compared to benign
mammary tissue. Upregulated proteins (n=9) included those involved in canonical HER2 signaling,
protein synthesis and processing, and glycolytic metabolism **(S-Table 1)**. Supporting transcriptomic
data, which indicated a reduction in mitochondrial content and OXPHOS, enrichment analysis
revealed that 8 of the top 10 downregulated pathways **(Fig. 3E)** and all top 10 downregulated GO **(Fig.
3F)** were related to mitochondrial biogenesis and/or metabolism, and OXPHOS was identified in the
top 10 downregulated KEGG pathways **(Fig.3G)**. Together, these proteomic data support our
transcriptomic analysis suggesting HER2-driven tumors are characterized by lower mitochondrial
content than benign mammary tissue.

Integrated assessment of the HER2-driven tumor transcriptome and proteome

Considering both transcriptomic and proteomic data suggest that mitochondrial
metabolism/OXPHOS are downregulated in mammary tumors, we also analyzed the 144 overlapping
downregulated targets between these analyses **(Fig.4A)**. KEGG enrichment analysis of the
downregulated targets identified OXPHOS among the top 10 pathways, as well as carbon
metabolism, BCAA degradation and fatty acid metabolism which encompass numerous
mitochondrial targets **(Fig.4B)**. The top 10 common downregulated pathways **(Fig.4C)** and GO
(Fig.4D) all pertained to mitochondrial substrate metabolism/catabolism and OXPHOS. Together,
transcriptomic and proteomic analyses strongly support that HER2-driven tumors are characterized
by downregulated mitochondrial content.

Assessment of the mitochondrial transcriptome and proteome

Our initial transcriptomic and proteomic analyses encompassed all differentially expressed
genes/proteins between tissues (including mitochondrial targets) and clearly identified reductions in
mitochondrial content in the tumors. This emphasized the robust nature of mitochondrial
adaptations in this model, considering mitochondrial proteins (identified using the MitoCarta 3.0
database) represented a small fraction of total cellular protein in both tumors and benign mammary
tissue **(S-Fig.3)**. By filtering our proteomic dataset using MitoCarta, we identified 125 mitochondrial
proteins that were commonly expressed between the tumors and benign mammary tissue **(Fig.5A)**.
When visualizing the 125 proteins with a heatmap, the majority of the mitochondrial proteome was
downregulated in the tumors compared to the benign mammary tissue **(Fig.5B)**. The summed
absolute abundance of all detected mitochondrial proteins in each group was also lower in tumors
(Fig.5C), again supporting our transcriptomic and proteomic analyses suggesting a reduction in
mitochondrial content exists in the tumors.

While mitochondrial biogenesis is a coordinated process simultaneously upregulating
several mitochondrial proteins, the total mitochondrial transcriptome/proteome does not
necessarily change proportionally with OXPHOS complex and/or TCA cycle/dehydrogenase content,
especially in cancerous tissues. Indeed, reductions in the content of specific respiratory complexes
seem to be cancer specific, which can have functional repercussions on mitochondrial respiration
rates and/or efficiency[10,32]. Within this context, we assessed the gene expression profile of all
OXPHOS complex subunits between groups, which revealed relatively ubiquitous reductions in
transcript count (transcripts per million) across subunits of Complexes I-IV **(Fig. 5D-H)**. Interestingly,
while the majority of Complex V subunits were also downregulated, this complex had the highest

proportion of subunits, displaying no differences between groups **(Fig.5D,I)**. The TCA cycle transcriptome also reflected a general downregulation of transcript abundance, apart from alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase (*Ogdhl*) and succinyl-CoA synthetase GDP forming subunit-β (*Suclg2*), which had a higher transcript abundance in some tumor samples **(Fig.5J)**. While we focused on transcriptomic data for this analysis due to lower detection of certain OXPHOS subunits using label-free quantitative proteomics **(S-Fig.4A-E)**, the summed abundance of all OXPHOS subunits detected per complex expressed relative to the underlying mitochondrial proteome **(S-Fig.4F),** and relative to the total proteome **(S-Fig.4G)** displayed a similar pattern. Overall, these data further suggest that the mitochondrial proteome and OXPHOS complexes I-IV are downregulated in HER2-driven tumors compared to benign mammary tissue.

Mitochondrial respiratory capacity is increased in HER2-driven mammary tumors

Considering our transcriptomic and proteomic data strongly suggest HER2-driven mammary tumors display reductions in mitochondrial content, we next assessed whether this would manifest as a reduction in respiratory capacity by measuring mitochondrial respiratory flux rates. In permeabilized tumors and benign mammary tissue, we assessed basal/endogenous respiration and respiration with saturating carbohydrate (pyruvate/malate) and lipid (palmitoyl-carnitine) substrates. For each protocol, several biological replicates (individual tumors) were utilized, spanning a continuum of whole tumor wet weights/volumes **(S-Fig.5A,B)**. Since no strong correlations were found between tumor wet weight or volume and basal or maximal respiration supported by carbohydrate- or lipid-linked substrates **(S-Fig.5C-J)**, all data points were pooled. When normalizing respiration to tissue wet weight **(Fig. 6A)**, tumors displayed significantly higher basal/endogenous respiration and higher respiration with subsequent additions of pyruvate, malate (CI-linked respiration), ADP (State III respiration), glutamate (CI-linked respiration also supported by alpha-ketoglutarate anaplerosis), and succinate (to maximize CII-linked respiration) **(Fig.6B)**. Equally, tumors displayed significantly higher respiration rates supported by lipids (palmitoyl-carnitine, **Fig.6C**), suggesting that HER2-driven tumors are capable of relying on both substrate sources, perhaps to maximize aerobic metabolism. This initial analysis of respiratory rates was normalized to tissue wet weight, which can be influenced by differences in total and mitochondrial protein content in a given tissue volume. To address this, we first normalized respiratory flux rates to total cellular protein **(Fig.6D,E),** which minimizes differences in factors such as tissue density and hydration that are not directly contributing to mitochondrial oxygen consumption. The third normalization method employed was normalizing respiratory flux to a mitochondrial enrichment factor (MEF) **(Fig.6F,G)** which is the ratio of mitochondrial proteins to the underlying total proteome **(S-Fig.3A,B)**. This approach controls for differences in mitochondrial content between tissues to determine whether increases in respiration are due to increases in mitochondrial content or intrinsic changes in mitochondrial function. Interestingly, the fundamental observation of increased respiratory flux rates in tumors compared to benign tissues was conserved independent of the normalization method, suggesting that HER2-driven mammary tumors are characterized by high respiratory flux rates independent of total cellular protein or reduced mitochondrial protein content. While greater intrinsic OXPHOS was observed with all substrates, lipid supported respiration was stimulated to a greater extent in the tumors, resulting in comparable carbohydrate (pyruvate, malate, ADP) and lipid (palmitoyl-carnitine, malate, ADP) supported respiration **(Fig.7A)**. This effect occurred despite many of the genes and proteins involved in lipid metabolism at the plasma membrane and in the cytosol (e.g. *Acsl1, Adipoq, Dgat1/2, Lipe, Fabp4, Cd36, Pparg*) and mitochondria (*e.g. Etfa, Etfb, Etfdh, Hadh, Hadhb, Cpt1b, Cpt2*) being downregulated in tumors compared to benign mammary tissue **(Fig.7B-E)**. The intrinsic activation of respiration was not a ubiquitous finding for all processes linked to OXPHOS, as reactive oxygen species (**S-Fig.6A**) emission rates were higher in tumors compared to benign tissue when normalized to wet weight **(S-Fig.6B)**, lower when normalized to total protein **(S-Fig.6C)** and not different when normalized to mitochondrial content **(S-Fig.6D)**.

High respiratory flux rates cannot be explained by OXPHOS uncoupling

Typically, respiratory capacity correlates with mitochondrial content in fully differentiated tissues[32]. However, given the apparent discrepancy between mitochondrial/OXPHOS protein content and respiratory flux rates in HER2-driven tumors, we investigated alternative explanations for this observation. One possible explanation for the observed enhanced respiratory rates could be due to the uncoupling of OXPHOS from ATP synthesis, especially when ROS emission is not proportional to respiratory flux. To address this possibility, we utilized oligomycin (OMY) to inhibit the F_0 subunit of ATP synthase (Complex V) and examine its inhibitory potency between groups **(Fig.7F)**. While OMY inhibited respiration in benign mammary tissue by ~55%, respiration in tumors was inhibited by ~80% **(Fig.7G)**. Subsequent additions of antimycin A (AMA) to inhibit Complex III and rotenone (ROT) to inhibit Complex I, fully inhibited respiration in both tissues **(Fig.7G)**. Since respiration was inhibited to a greater extent in the tumors in response to OMY, this protocol strongly suggests that HER2-driven tumor mitochondria are highly coupled.

Tumor mitochondria display altered morphology

When assessing the subcellular ultrastructure of HER2-driven mammary tumors using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), we observed smaller, more punctate mitochondria in tumors compared to benign tissue **(Fig.8A)**. To determine whether ultrastructural observations aligned with the expression of genes and proteins involved in mitochondrial turnover, we filtered our transcriptomic and proteomic dataset using MitoCarta, specifically investigating mitochondrial proteins involved in mitochondrial dynamics and mitophagy. This approach revealed the upregulation of several genes and proteins involved in mitochondrial fission and generally a downregulation of genes and proteins involved in mitochondrial fusion (**Fig.8B-F**). Together, these data show clear morphological differences in tumor versus benign tissue mitochondria, which could potentially influence OXPHOS efficiency.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to investigate the metabolic characteristics of a mouse model of HER2-driven mammary cancer compared to benign mammary tissue. Specifically, we focused on the bioenergetic adaptations that have occurred with HER2-driven tumorigenesis both with respect to mitochondrial function (respiration and ROS) and mitochondrial content (total mitochondrial proteome and OXPHOS complexes). This investigation revealed several findings: 1) HER2-driven mammary tumors display high respiratory rates compared to benign mammary tissue, 2) tumors are capable of oxidizing lipids and pyruvate to a similar extent despite the downregulation of several genes involved in lipid catabolism, and 3) high tumor respiratory rates cannot be explained by higher mitochondrial content. These data highlight that HER2-driven mammary tumors have the capacity to maintain high OXPHOS rates despite lower mitochondrial content, challenging the typical bioenergetic relationship in fully differentiated tissues.

Relationship between mitochondrial content and function in breast cancer

Studies simultaneously assessing mitochondrial content and mitochondrial respiration and the contribution of these factors to breast cancer malignant transformation are scarce. While reductions in ETC subunit content/activity have been described in mitochondria isolated from human mammary carcinoma cultures compared to mammary epithelial cells[33], it has been assumed that a reduction in ETC subunit content would manifest as a reduction in respiratory capacity. However, this is at odds with several reports that classify breast cancer cells as OXPHOS reliant due to increases in mitochondrial respiration correlating with advanced disease[20,34,35]. Indeed, across many cancers it is generally assumed that mitochondrial content and respiratory function increase or decrease concomitantly, however, recent work has challenged this dogma, demonstrating that high rates of respiration normalized to tissue weight can be negated when corrected for mitochondrial mass,[14,36] revealing intrinsic alterations in cancer cell bioenergetics. In the current study, utilizing this same

approach to control for differences in mitochondrial content, we found that respiratory capacity
supported by pyruvate and lipids in HER2-driven mammary tumors was significantly higher (~2-4
fold) compared to benign mammary tissue despite lower mitochondrial enrichment (total
mitochondrial proteome) and lower abundance of several respiratory complex subunits, suggesting
intrinsic changes in mitochondrial function/efficiency may explain the acquisition of increased
mitochondrial respiratory capacity during HER2-driven tumorigenesis. Several mechanisms could
enhance respiration in a mitochondrial-content independent manner, including increased coupling
of electron transfer to ATP synthesis (coupling efficiency), changes in the delivery of substrates
across the mitochondrial membranes, intrinsic changes in the activity of ETC complexes and/or ATP
synthase, and alterations in mitochondrial morphology/dynamics.

OXPHOS efficiency: mitochondrial content-independent mechanisms supporting enhanced
respiration rates

Coupling Efficiency: Several studies have suggested that a key function of mitochondrial respiration
in cancer cells is the regeneration of NAD^+, FAD and ubiquinone to provide the necessary metabolites
for biomass production, rather than ATP synthesis[5,6,37]. From a bioenergetic perspective, this could
be achieved by inducing uncoupled respiration, which could manifest in an apparent increase in
intrinsic mitochondrial respiration, given that measures of respiratory flux quantify oxygen
consumption rather than ATP synthesis. However, in the present study the Complex V inhibitor
oligomycin inhibited respiration to a greater extent in HER2-driven tumors, suggesting that
uncoupling cannot explain the enhanced respiration rates observed, and if anything, tumors are
more coupled than benign mammary tissue. This interpretation aligns with work in MCF7 cells where
mitochondrial ATP represents the majority of cellular ATP production[38] suggesting the ATP synthetic
function of OXPHOS in breast cancer is likely intact. Indeed, enhanced mitochondrial ATP provision
and OXPHOS-dependent biomass expansion are not mutually exclusive processes and increased
coupled respiration would satisfy both the bioenergetic and biosynthetic requirements of rapid cell
proliferation during tumorigenesis.

Substrate Delivery and Preference: Recent work has highlighted the dependency of HER2+ tumor
cells on both lipid (long chain fatty acids) and carbohydrate-derived (pyruvate) substrate for optimal
proliferative capacity[40]. In addition to pyruvate, HER2-driven tumors may be particularly poised to
utilize lipids, given the proximity of cancer cells to adipocytes in the mammary tumor
microenvironment[41], which has spurred interest in inhibiting lipid use/fat oxidation as an adjunct
therapy in HER2-driven cancer[40]. Indeed, the use of endogenous substrate may be preferred as solid
tumors expand and factors such as increased interstitial fluid pressure and extracellular matrix
remodelling impact tumor vessel quality[42], possibly limiting exogenous substrate delivery. However,
at the transcript and protein level, enzymes involved in mitochondrial lipid uptake (CPT1, CPT2) and
pyruvate uptake (MPC) were largely downregulated compared to benign tissue which would limit
rather than enhance mitochondrial substrate delivery. Despite this lower abundance of enzymes
supporting mitochondrial substrate delivery, mitochondrial respiration supported by pyruvate and
lipids were significantly higher in tumors. Considering lipid and carbohydrate oxidation converge
within the mitochondrial matrix, both providing acetyl-CoA to the TCA cycle, it is possible that
enhanced OXPHOS efficiency lies at a distal site, implicating intrinsic OXPHOS adaptations as a
possible explanation for enhanced respiration in HER2-driven tumors.

Intrinsic OXPHOS Adaptations: Several cancers are characterized by the altered expression of
individual ETC subunits and/or ATP synthase which can have functional repercussions on respiratory
function[10,14]. In the current study, despite a consistent downregulation of subunits comprising
Complexes I-IV in HER2-driven tumors, a subset of Complex V genes were not downregulated
(specifically two subunits of the c-ring of F_0 domain (*Atp5g1, Atp5g2*), two subunits of the F6 domain
stalk connecting the F_0 and F_1 domains (*Atp5j1, Atp5j2*), and regulatory proteins ATPase inhibitory
factor 1 (*Atpif1*) and distal membrane assembly component 2 (*Dmac2l*)). This shift essentially
increases the ratio of ATP synthase/ETC and raises the possibility that a maintenance of these

subunits may enhance OXPHOS rates in the face of downregulated CI-IV subunit content since
maximal coupled respiration is usually limited by proton flux through ATP synthase. Indeed, despite
mtDNA lesions in proton pumping complexes (I, III and IV) being common in many cancers,
presumably reducing the content/function of these complexes, ATP synthase mutations are less
common, suggesting positive selection may exist to maintain coupled respiration and ATP
production[10,43,44]. Thus, while speculative, it is possible that higher respiration rates in HER2-driven
tumors may partially reflect maintained ATP synthase content/function. Alternatively, while
bioenergetic efficiency is typically related to intrinsic changes in OXPHOS stoichiometry,
mitochondrial morphology can indirectly affect efficiency. We observed smaller, punctate
mitochondria in HER2-driven mammary tumors when visualized by TEM, generally aligning with
reductions in mitochondrial fusion and increases in mitochondrial fission-related targets. While the
direct relationship between mitochondrial morphology and bioenergetics remains contentious,
evidence suggests smaller mitochondria (due to enhanced fission or reduced fusion) may be
associated with enhanced bioenergetics. Smaller mitochondria tend to have a higher surface-area-
to-volume ratio which has been correlated with upregulated OXPHOS in the liver[45], and low rates of
respiration is associated with the inhibition of mitochondrial fission[46]. Furthermore, rare genetic
mitochondrial diseases are often characterized by hyper-fused mitochondria which is associated
with OXPHOS limitations[47]. Indeed, morphological differences in breast cancer mitochondria are
well described[17,48–50] and targeting mitochondrial dynamics for therapy is an active area of study[51–53],
however, there is a clear need to ascertain the relationship between mitochondrial dynamics and
bioenergetics in tumorigenesis.

CONCLUSION

We provide evidence that HER2-driven mammary tumors display enhanced respiratory capacity
despite lower mitochondrial content. This increased respiratory capacity could not be explained by
changes in OXPHOS coupling, however, differences in mitochondrial morphology and the
maintained expression of several subunits of ATP synthase suggest HER2-driven mammary tumors
may undergo intrinsic adaptations in mitochondrial function during tumorigenesis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and Breeding

All rodent experiments were conducted in accordance with institutional guidelines approved by the
Animal Care Committee at the University of Guelph (AUP#5071). MMTV/neu^{ndl}-YD5 mice on an FVB
background were obtained from Dr. William Muller (McGill University) and Dr. David Ma (University of
Guelph). Female MMTV/neu^{ndl}-YD5 mice were obtained by breeding male heterozygous MMTV/neu^{ndl}-
YD5 mice with female FVB mice to yield WT or heterozygous transgenics. Mice were group housed in
ventilated cages at room temperature (22⁰C) and kept on a 12:12 light-dark cycle with *ad libitum*
access to a chow diet and water. Starting at 10 weeks, mice were monitored for tumor development
on a biweekly basis for ~10 additional weeks. Mice with tumors exceeding 17 mm in length/width or
a volume over 5000 m^3 were euthanized before the 20-week time point.

Tumor and Benign Mammary Tissue Collection

Mice were anesthetized using sodium pentobarbital (60 mg/kg body weight) and checked for depth
of anaesthesia by leg retraction after tail pinch. Once under the surgical plane, a ventral incision was
made up the midline and the skin separated bilaterally from the underlying fascia to allow for the
excision of the intact mammary tumors. Depending on the number of tumors present (typically 1-5),
tumors were allocated for mitochondrial function (placed fresh in BIOPS preservation buffer),
transmission electron microscopy (fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde/1% paraformaldehyde) or snap
frozen in liquid nitrogen for further analysis (western blotting, transcriptomics, quantitative label-free
proteomics) immediately after whole tumor wet weight was recorded. Paired mammary tissue with
no visible tumors, furthest from the site of tumor excision (i.e. if tumors localized in cervical region

benign tissue was harvested from inguinal region) were used as an internal comparison, denoted as
benign mammary tissue.

RNA Sequencing and Transcriptomic Analyses

Frozen tissues were homogenized and lysed in TRIzol reagent. After centrifuging, the supernatant
(aqueous phase) was applied to the RNeasy kit (Qiagen, 74106) for subsequent total RNA extraction
and purification in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. RNA samples were sent to the
McMaster Genomics Facility where an RNA quality check, poly A enrichment, library prep and quality
check were performed as previously described[54]. These samples were then run in an Illumina
Nextseq P2, 2x50bp sequencing run. FastQC and MultiQC were used for quality control of raw data.
Salmon's transcript-level quantification[55] and DESeq2[56] was used to detect DEGs with the threshold
of adjusted p-value<0.1. PCA analysis was performed by using variance stabilizing transformation
(VST) data through DESeq2 using the pcaExplorer package[57] in R (version 4.2.1). Functional
enrichment analysis was performed by GO enrichment analysis[58] and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes
and Genomes (KEGG) mapping using the GOstats, KEGG.db, and Bioconductor packages. Heatmaps
and volcano plots were generated with ggplot2 package using all detected genes or genes sorted by
an adjusted p-value<0.1 by false discovery rate method. Detailed descriptions for each analysis are
included in the figure descriptions.

Western Blotting

Tumor and benign mammary tissues were homogenized in lysis buffer, diluted to equal protein
concentration (1 μg/uL), separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred onto PVDF membranes and detected
using enhanced chemiluminescence (ChemiGenius2 Bioimaging System, SynGene, Cambridge, UK)
as previously described[59,60]. Commercially available primary antibodies were used to detect total
and phosphorylated targets (p38 MAPK (CS9212S, 1:1000), ERK1/2 (CS9102S, 1:1000), Akt
(CS4691S, 1:1000), mTOR (CS2972S, 1:1000), p70s6k1 (CS9202S, 1:1000), eEf2 (CS2332S, 1:1000),
p-p38 MAPK (CS9211S, 1:1000), p-ERK1/2 (CS9101S, 1:1000), p-AKT (CS9271S, 1:1000), p-mTOR
(CS2971S, 1:1000), p-p70s6k1 (CS9234S, 1:1000), p-eEF2 (CS2331S, 1:1000). Due to rapid
tissue/protein turnover in tumor tissues, Ponceau staining was an inappropriate loading control,
however, trends in total protein targets between groups aligned with quantitative label-free
proteomic analyses as a secondary method measuring protein content, validating targets detected
by western blotting.

Protein Extraction and Purification for LC-MS

A Bradford assay was used to determine the protein concentration in the samples. Twenty-five μg of
protein per lysate was resolubilized with denaturation buffer (6M urea/2M thiourea) and concurrently
reduced with 10 mM DTT and alkylated with 20 mM iodoacetamide at RT for 60 min. Samples were
precipitated by adding 6:1 v/v cold acetone and kept at -80°C for 60 minutes and the pellet was
collected after centrifugation at 10,000g for 10 min at 4°C. Samples were resuspended with 50 mM
ammonium bicarbonate and MD-grade trypsin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat#90057) was added at
a ratio of 1:50 protease to protein. Digestion occurred overnight at 37°C. After digestion, samples
were dried by vacuum centrifugation and purified using Pierce C18 Spin columns (Thermo Fisher
Scientific, cat#89873).

LC-MS

The Vanquish Neo UHPLC system was coupled with Orbitrap Exploris 240 mass-spectrometer using
the Easy-Spray source for nanoLC-MS protein identification. The Vanquish Neo UHPLC system was
configured for trap and elute analysis. Peptides were first trapped and washed on a Pepmap Neo
C18 trap column (5 micron, 300 micron x5 mm) then separated on EASY-Spray columns 75 μm I.D.
× 50 cm with the maximum pressure of 1200 bar. The nanoLC-MS system was controlled with

Standard Instrument Integration (SII) for Xcalibur software. All hardware and data acquisition
software were from Thermo Fisher Scientific. The mobile phase A and weak wash liquid was water
with 0.1% FA, and the mobile phase B and strong wash liquid was 80% acetonitrile with 0.1% FA. The
gradient was as follows 4-19% B over 72 minutes, 19-29% B over 28 minutes, 29-45% B over 20
minutes and a 14.5 min wash at 100% B with a flow rate of 300 nL/min. The autosampler temperature
was 7 °C, and the column temperature was 45 °C. The sample was injected with Fast Loading set to
'Enabled' with Pressure Control at 500 bar. The column Fast Equilibration function was set to
'Enabled' with Pressure control at 800 bar, and the equilibration factor was set to 3. Vial bottom
detection was set to 'Enabled'.

DDA MS Method

The Orbitrap Exploris 240 MS was operated in DDA mode using a full scan with m/z range 375–1500,
Orbitrap resolution of 60 000, normalized AGC target value 300%, and maximum injection time set
to Auto. The intensity threshold for precursor was set to 1×10^4. MS/MS spectra starting from 120
m/z were acquired in data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode with a cycle time of 2 s, where the
precursors were isolated in a window of 1.6 Da and subsequently fragmented with HCD using a
normalized collision energy of 30%. Orbitrap resolution was set to 15 000 for MS2. The normalized
AGC target was standard, and the maximum injection time was set to Auto.

Proteomics data analysis

Analysis of the tissue proteome was performed in R (version 4.2.1) and R Studio (version
2024.04.2+764). Principal component analysis was performed using the Vegan package. Volcano
plots were created using log2 transformed fold change comparing cancer/benign tissue and -log10
adjusted p-value. P-values of differentially regulated proteins between each group were corrected
with p.adjust (method = "fdr") within each comparison. Depending on the analysis, heatmaps and
volcano plots were generated using all detected proteins or proteins sorted by p.adjust <0.1, detailed
descriptions for each analysis are included in the figure descriptions. Gene set enrichment was
performed with the Kyoto Encyclopedia of genes and genomes (KEGG)[61] and EnrichR[62].

Mitochondrial Respiration

Mitochondrial respiration experiments were performed using the Oroboros Oxygraph-2k systems at
37ºC in MiR05 respiration buffer (0.5 mM EGTA, 3 mM $MgCl_2 \cdot H_2O$, 60 mM potassium lactobionate, 10
mM KH_2PO_4, 20 mM HEPES, 110 mM sucrose, 20 mM taurine, and 1 g/L fatty acid free BSA; pH 7.1)
with constant stirring at room air saturation (starting at 180 µM O_2). Two-5 mg of permeabilized tumor
tissue or 15-20 mg of permeabilized (both permeabilized with 20 µg/µL saponin) mammary tissue
were used per 2 mL chamber and each protocol was conducted as at least two technical replicates
(duplicate) per tumor or benign sample. Prior to the addition of substrates for any protocol,
endogenous (basal) respiration was assessed with no substrates added. Complex I and Complex II
supported respiration was assessed with the addition of 5 mM pyruvate and 2 mM malate, 5 mM ADP,
10 mM glutamate and 10 mM succinate. In a subset of these experiments, subsequent additions of
oligomycin (OMY, 1 µM), antimycin A (AMA, 2.5 µM) and rotenone (ROT, 1 µM) were added to assess
OXPHOS coupling. Lipid-supported respiration was assessed with 20 µM palmitoyl-carnitine in the
presence of 2 mM malate and 5 mM ADP.

Reactive Oxygen Species Emission

Mitochondrial hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) emission was determined fluorometrically (Lumina, Thermo
Scientific, Waltham, MA) in permeabilized mammary tissue and mammary tumors as previously
described[59] with minor modifications. In brief, 2-5 mg of minced tissue was loaded into a cuvette
containing Amplex Red (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA), horseradish peroxidase (5U/mL), saponin

(20 µg/µL), superoxide dismutase (40 U/mL) in Buffer Z (105 mM K-MES, 30 mM KCl, 1 mM EGTA, 10
mM K_2HPO_4, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 µM glutamate, 5 µM malate, 0.5% BSA, pH 7.4). Emission rates were
assessed at 37°C in the presence of 10 mM succinate and calculated using a standard curve
generated with known concentrations of H_2O_2.

Data Normalization

Mitochondrial respiration rates and H_2O_2 emission were normalized to individual sample wet weight,
group total protein content and group mitochondrial content (mitochondrial enrichment factor,
MEF). Total protein content was calculated as a group average (n=6/group) based on a Bradford assay
and back-calculated total protein in a given wet weight of starting tissue. Data was normalized to
mitochondrial protein by calculating the MEF for each group (n=g/group) based on all detected
mitochondrial proteins by quantitative label-free proteomics (Mouse MitoCarta 3.0 database)
normalized to total protein abundance per sample as previously described by others[32,36].

Transmission Electron Microscopy

Immediately following tissue dissection, tumor and benign mammary tissues were fixed in 2.5%
glutaraldehyde/1% paraformaldehyde overnight at 4°C. The following day, tissues were washed 3x in
100 mM HEPES buffer in preparation for embedding. Tissue was stained with 1% osmium tetroxide
for 3h, washed 3x in HEPES buffer and further stained with 1% uranyl acetate for 3h before washing
2x in HEPES buffer and once in ddH2O. Stained tissue was dehydrated with a graded ethanol series
followed by infiltration with LR White resin. Blocks were polymerized at 60°C for 18 hours before
ultramicrotomy. Sections were post-stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Sections were
allowed to fully dry before imaging on the FEI Tecnai G2 F20 transmission electron microscope
operated under normal conditions at 120 kVe.

Statistical Analysis

502 Statistical analysis and data visualization was performed using Microsoft Excel, GraphPad Prism
503 (version 10.2.3), R (version 4.2.1) and R Studio (version 2024.04.2+764). All data are presented as
504 mean ± SD and data was considered statistically significant if $p < 0.05$. For transcriptomic and
505 proteomic analyses, an adjusted p-value of <0.1 was utilized. Details regarding specific statistical
506 analyses are included in the Results section and within each figure legend.

DATA AVAILABILITY

508 Data is available from corresponding offers upon request.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

510 This work is funded by a National Sciences and Engineering Research Council (NSERC) grant by GPH
511 (400362). SMF is funded by an NSERC-CGS doctoral scholarship.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Experimental design and canonical HER2 signaling. A) Schematic of mammary tumors from the mammary fat
pad of female MMTV-neu[ndl]-YD5 mice and adjacent normal (benign) mammary tissue, representative images of tumor
morphology (tumor capsule, peripheral tumor tissue and necrotic core), tissue processing workflow for transcriptomics,
proteomics, western blotting, mitochondrial respiration, ROS emission, and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). **B)**
Schematic of classical signaling pathways (Ras/MAPK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR) downstream of HER2 receptor stimulation in
the YD5 model. **C)** *Her2* gene expression (transcripts per million, TPM), **D)** Gene expression for canonical HER2 signaling.
E) Absolute abundance of HER2 protein detected by quantitative label-free proteomics (n.d. = HER2 not detected in
benign). **F)** Representative western blots of proteins involved in canonical HER2 signaling. **G,H)** Quantified western blots
(% of benign) for **G)** total protein content and **H)** phosphorylated targets normalized to the total protein content of each
target. P-values in panels **D** and **E** listed as adjusted p values from transcriptomic (DEG) data (p-adj. <0.1 considered
statistically significant). In panels **G,H** data is presented as means ± SD and statistical significance was determined using
an unpaired, two tailed Student's t-test (*=p<0.05, n=5-6 per group/protein target). ***Abbrev.*** *AKT - protein kinase B; eEf2 -*
eukaryotic elongation factor 2; eIF4E – eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E; ERK – extracellular signal-regulated kinase;

GRB2 – growth factor receptor-bound protein-2, MEK – mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; mTORC1/2 – mechanistic
target of rapamycin complex 1 and 2; PDK – 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase-1; PI3K – phosphoinositide 3-
kinase; PIP2/3 – phosphatidylinositol 4,5 bisphosphate, PIP3 – phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-triphosphate; p70S6k1 –
ribosomal protein S6 kinase beta-1; RAF – rapidly accelerated fibrosarcoma; RAS – rate sarcoma virus; SHC – Src homolog
and collagen homolog; 4EBP1 – eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1.

Figure 2. Assessment of HER2-driven mammary tumor and benign mammary tissue transcriptomes. A) PCA of benign
mammary tissue and mammary tumors, **B)** Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes (DEGs) identified between
mammary tissue and mammary tumors. **C)** Heatmap of top 3000 DEGs, **D)** Top 10 upregulated pathways (Reactome 2022)
and **E)** gene ontologies (GO Biological Process 2023) in tumors compared to benign mammary tissue, **F)** Top 10
downregulated pathways (Reactome 2022) and **G)** gene ontologies (GO Biological Process 2023) in tumors compared to
benign mammary tissue. Panels **D,E** assess the top 3000 upregulated DEGs (log2fc>1), panels **F,G** assess the top 3000
downregulated DEGs (log2fc<1). An adjusted p-value of <0.1 was considered statistically significant across all analyses.
The Enrichr open access analysis web tool was used to generate panels **D-G** which were sorted by p-value.

Figure 3. Assessment of HER2-driven mammary tumor and benign mammary tissue proteomes. A) Venn diagram
showing all detected proteins. Of the 1848 overlapping targets, 420 were significantly different based on a p-adj. <0.1. **B)**
PCA of benign mammary samples and mammary tumors, **C)** Volcano plot showing proteins identified between mammary
tumors and benign mammary tissue, those in blue (downregulated) or red (upregulated) were significantly different (n=420
proteins, p-adj. <0.1). **D)** Heatmap of 420 differentially expressed proteins in benign and tumor samples. **E)** Top 10
downregulated pathways (Reactome 2022) and **F)** gene ontologies (GO Biological Process, 2023), **G)** KEGG analysis of
downregulated proteins. The Enrichr open access analysis web tool was used to generate panels **E,F** which were sorted by
p-value.

Figure 4. Overlapping downregulated genes and proteins between HER2-driven mammary tumor transcriptome and
proteome. A) Venn diagram showing 144 overlapping downregulated targets between the assessed HER2-driven tumor and
benign mammary tissue transcriptomes and proteomes. **B)** KEGG analysis for common downregulated targets. Top 10
downregulated **C)** pathways (Reactome 2022) and **D)** gene ontologies (GO Biological Process 2023). An adjusted p value of
<0.1 was utilized for all analyses. The Enrichr open access analysis web tool was used to generate panels **C,D** which were
sorted by p-value.

Figure 5. Assessment of the mitochondrial transcriptome and proteome. A) Venn diagram showing mitochondrial
proteins detected in the current dataset when cross-referenced with the Mouse MitoCarta 3.0 database. **B)** Heatmap of
125 mitochondrial proteins identified in benign mammary tissue and HER2-driven tumors (n=5/group). **C)** Absolute
abundance of all mitochondrial proteins detected in benign and tumor tissues. **D)** Gene expression (detected by
transcriptomics; transcripts per million) of all detected OXPHOS subunits separated per respiratory complex, black and
white bars represent subunits with no significant differences between groups. **E-J)** Heatmaps of **E)** Complex I, **F)** Complex
II, **G)** Complex III, **H)** Complex IV, **I)** Complex V (ATP synthase) and **J)** TCA cycle transcriptomes. All proteomic analyses
(panels A-C) were conducted on n=5/group. All transcriptomic analyses **(panels D-J)** were conducted on n=6/group.
Panels B,C were analyzed using an unpaired two tailed Student's t-test (*p<0.05). In **Panel D**, * and coloured (blue and
green bars) represent significant differences between benign and tumor samples based on an adjusted p value of <0.1.
OXPHOS complex schematics in panel **D** were obtained from the open access RCSB Protein Data Bank *(Complex I = TW1V,*
Complex II=2A06, Complex III= 3SFD Complex IV=6NMP Complex V = 5FIL). Bars in panel **D** are listed in the following order:
Complex I: Ndufa1, Ndufa10, Ndufa11, Ndufa12, Ndufa13, Ndufa2, Ndufa3, Ndufa5, Ndufa6, Ndufa7, Ndufa8, Ndufa9,
Ndufab1, Ndufb10, Ndufb11, Ndufb2, Ndufb3, Ndufb4, Ndufb5, Ndufb6, Ndufb7, Ndufb8, Ndufb9, Ndufc1, Ndufc2, Ndufs1,
Ndufs2, Ndufs3, Ndufs4, Ndufs5, Ndufs6, Ndufs7, Ndufs8, Ndufv1, Ndufv2, Ndufv3; Complex II: Sdha, Sdhb, Sdhc, Sdhd;
Complex III: Cyc1, Uqcr10, Uqcr11, Uqcrb, Uqcrc1, Uqcrc2, Uqcrfs1, Uqcrh, Uqcrq; Complex IV: Cox4i1, Cox4i2, Cox5a,
Cox5b, Cox6a1, Cox6b1, Cox6b2, Cox6c, Cox7a1, Cox7a2, Cox7a2l, Cox7b, Cox7c, Cox8a, Cox8b, Ndufa4; Complex V:
Atp5a1, Atp5b, Atp5c1, Atp5d, Atp5e, Atp5g1, Atp5g2, Atp5g3, Atp5h, Atp5j, Atp5j2, Atp5k, Atp5l, Atp5md, Atp5mpl, Atp5o,
Atp5pb, Atpif1, Dmac2l.

Figure 6. Assessment of lipid and carbohydrate linked mitochondrial respiration and OXPHOS coupling in benign
mammary tissue and HER2-driven mammary tumors. A) Schematic depicting methods of normalization for respiration
rates *(per wet weight, total protein, mitochondrial protein/enrichment)*. **B)** Complex I and complex II- supported respiration
normalized to tissue wet weight, **C)** lipid-supported respiration normalized to tissue wet weight, **D)** Complex I and complex
II-supported respiration normalized to total protein content, **E)** lipid-supported respiration normalized to total protein
content, **F)** Complex I and complex II-supported respiration normalized to mitochondrial protein (mitochondrial
enrichment factor, MEF). **G)** Lipid supported respiration normalized to mitochondrial protein. All individual values represent
biological replicates (n=9-22/group depending on the protocol). Data are presented as means ± SD, statistical analyses
were conducted using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test (*p<0.05). ***Abbrev:*** *E = Endogenous, PM = pyruvate (5 mM),*
malate (2 mM), D = ADP (5 mM), G = glutamate (10 mM), S = succinate (10 mM), PC = palmitoyl-carnitine (20 µM), CI+CII =
maximal CI+CII-supported respiration (PMDGS).

Figure 7. Lipid and carbohydrate linked respiration and lipid metabolism transcriptome and proteome. A) Maximal
rates of carbohydrate (pyruvate, malate, ADP) and lipid (palmitoyl-carnitine, malate, ADP) supported respiration in tumors

and benign mammary tissue. **B)** Gene expression (transcripts per million) of mitochondrial pyruvate carrier and carnitine
palmitoyltransferase isoforms mediating mitochondrial pyruvate and long chain fatty acid transport respectively. **C)**
Network interaction showing downregulated (unsupervised analysis) gene clustering in the HER2-driven tumor
transcriptome, **D)** Heatmap of differentially expressed genes involved in lipid oxidation. **E)** Heatmap of differentially
expressed proteins involved in lipid metabolism. **F)** Representative trace of protocol used to assess mitochondrial coupling.
Following maximal rates of complex I and II- supported respiration, 1 μM oligomycin (OMY) was added to inhibit Complex V
(ATP synthase), followed by 2.5 μM antimycin-A (AMA) and 1 μM rotenone (ROT) to inhibit complexes III and I respectively.
G) Group data for experiment depicted in **(F)** depicted as relative inhibition from maximal complex I and II supported
respiration (PMDGS) in each group. In panels **A, B, F** and **G** data are presented as means ± SD and statistical analyses were
conducted using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test (*$p < 0.05$).

Figure 8. Mitochondrial morphology and assessment of mitochondrial fusion, mitochondrial fission and mitophagy
transcriptomes and proteomes in benign mammary tissue and HER2-driven tumors. A) Transmission electron
microscopy (TEM) images of tumor and benign samples showing punctate (tumor) versus elongated (benign) mitochondria.
B) Gene expression (detected by transcriptomics; transcripts per million) of fusion, fission and mitophagy related genes
separated per process filtered by MitoCarta, coloured bars and * represent genes with an adjusted p value of <0.1. Black
and white bars represent genes with no significant differences between groups. **C)** Heatmap of fusion transcriptome, **D)**
Heatmap of fusion proteome, **E)** Heatmap of fission transcriptome, **F)** Heatmap of fission proteome, **G)** Heatmap of
mitophagy transcriptome, **H)** Heatmap of mitophagy proteome. TEM images are from independent tumor and benign tissue
samples. Heatmaps depict all detected proteins (n=5/group) and transcripts (n=6/group).

Supplementary Figure 1. Absolute phosphorylated protein targets downstream of HER2 activation. A) Quantified
western blots for phosphorylated canonical HER2 signaling proteins (n=5-6/group). Phosphorylation sites are indicated
for each target. **B)** Representative blot for each phosphorylated target. Data are presented as mean ± SD and analyzed
with an unpaired, two tailed Student's t-test (*$p < 0.05$).

Supplementary Figure 2. Unique HER2-driven tumor and benign mammary tissue proteins. A) Venn diagram depicting
741 and 600 unique proteins identified in benign mammary tissue and HER2-driven tumors respectively, **B)** KEGG analysis
of all detected unique benign mammary tissue proteins, **C)** Top 10 pathways (Reactome 2022), **D)** Top 10 gene ontologies
(GO Biological Process) in benign mammary tissue, **E)** KEGG analysis of unique HER2-driven tumor proteins, **F)** Top 10
pathways (Reactome 2022), **G)** Top 10 gene ontologies (GO Biological Process) in HER2-driven tumors. KEGG, pathway and
GO analyses were conducted on all mammary and tumor proteins detected by quantitative label-free proteomics. The
Enrichr open access analysis web tool was used to generate panels **C,D,F and G** which were sorted by p-value.

Supplementary Figure 3. Mitochondrial enrichment in benign mammary tissue and HER2-driven mammary tumors.
A) Total and mitochondrial (Mouse MitoCarta 3.0) absolute protein abundance assessed by quantitative label-free
proteomics. **B)** Mitochondrial enrichment factor (MEF) calculated as the ratio of all detected MitoCarta proteins relative to
the underlying total proteome per sample (n=5/group). Statistical analysis was conducted using an unpaired two tailed
Student's t-test (*$p < 0.05$). In panel **A**, *# denotes significant differences between both total and MitoCarta proteomes
between groups.

Supplementary Figure 4. Proteomic analysis of detected OXPHOS subunits. Heatmaps showing subunits detected for
A) Complex I, **B)** Complex II, **C)** Complex III, **D)** Complex IV, **E)** Complex V (ATP synthase) using quantified label-free
proteomics. **F)** OXPHOS complex I-V absolute abundance as a percentage of the mitochondrial proteome (n=5/group). **G)**
OXPHOS complex I-V absolute abundance as a percentage of the total detected proteome (n=5/group). Data in panels **F,G**
are presented as means ± SD and analyzed with an unpaired, two tailed Student's t-test (*$p < 0.05$).

Supplementary Figure 5. Correlation of tumor size and volume with maximal carbohydrate and lipid-supported
respiration rates. A) Tumor wet weight (whole tumor post excision), **B)** Tumor volume calculated as a modified ellipse (V
=1/2(length*$width^2$)). **C-F)** Endogenous (no substrate, CI+CII protocol), Endogenous (no substrate, lipid protocol), State 3
(5 mM pyruvate, 2 mM malate, 5 mM ADP) and maximal lipid-supported (2 mM malate, 5 mM ADP, 20 μM palmitoyl-
carnitine) respiration rates correlated with tissue wet weight. **G-J)** Same respiration data as **(C-F)** but correlated with tumor
volume. The Pearson correlation coefficient (R) values are listed for each correlation.

Supplementary Figure 6. Reactive oxygen species emission in benign mammary tissue and HER2-driven mammary
tumors. A) Schematic depicting major sites of superoxide emission from respiratory complexes I and III. Superoxide
dismutase 2 (SOD2) subsequently catalyzes the dismutation of superoxide into hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) which can be
measured fluorometrically. **B)** H_2O_2 emission per wet tissue weight, **C)** H_2O_2 emission per total protein, **D)** H_2O_2 emission
per mitochondrial protein (MEF, mitochondrial enrichment factor). Statistical analyses were conducted using an unpaired,
two-tailed Student's t-test (*$p < 0.05$).

Supplementary Table 1. List of 9 significantly upregulated proteins between tumor and benign samples, sorted in order of
fold change from benign (smallest to largest fold change). General pathways or functions are listed per protein based on ID
mapping from the Uniprot protein sequence database. Adjusted p-values are listed per target.

REFERENCES

1. Vasan, K., Werner, M., and Chandel, N.S. (2020). Mitochondrial Metabolism as a Target for Cancer Therapy. Cell Metab. *32*, 341–352. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2020.06.019.

2. DeBerardinis, R.J., and Chandel, N.S. (2020). We need to talk about the Warburg effect. Nat. Metab. *2*, 127–129. https://doi.org/10.1038/s42255-020-0172-2.

3. Warburg, O. (1924). Über den Stoffwechsel der Carcinomzelle. Naturwissenschaften *12*, 1131–1137. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01504608.

4. Warburg, O. (1956). On respiratory impairment in cancer cells. Science *124*, 269–270.

5. Sullivan, L.B., Gui, D.Y., Hosios, A.M., Bush, L.N., Freinkman, E., and Vander Heiden, M.G. (2015). Supporting Aspartate Biosynthesis Is an Essential Function of Respiration in Proliferating Cells. Cell *162*, 552–563. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2015.07.017.

6. Martínez-Reyes, I., Cardona, L.R., Kong, H., Vasan, K., McElroy, G.S., Werner, M., Kihshen, H., Reczek, C.R., Weinberg, S.E., Gao, P., et al. (2020). Mitochondrial ubiquinol oxidation is necessary for tumour growth. Nature *585*, 288–292. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2475-6.

7. Morris, J.P., Yashinskie, J.J., Koche, R., Chandwani, R., Tian, S., Chen, C.-C., Baslan, T., Marinkovic, Z.S., Sánchez-Rivera, F.J., Leach, S.D., et al. (2019). α-Ketoglutarate links p53 to cell fate during tumour suppression. Nature *573*, 595–599. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1577-5.

8. Sciacovelli, M., Guzzo, G., Morello, V., Frezza, C., Zheng, L., Nannini, N., Calabrese, F., Laudiero, G., Esposito, F., Landriscina, M., et al. (2013). The mitochondrial chaperone TRAP1 promotes neoplastic growth by inhibiting succinate dehydrogenase. Cell Metab. *17*, 988–999. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2013.04.019.

9. Cardaci, S., Zheng, L., MacKay, G., van den Broek, N.J.F., MacKenzie, E.D., Nixon, C., Stevenson, D., Tumanov, S., Bulusu, V., Kamphorst, J.J., et al. (2015). Pyruvate carboxylation enables growth of SDH-deficient cells by supporting aspartate biosynthesis. Nat. Cell Biol. *17*, 1317–1326. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3233.

10. Smith, A.L., Whitehall, J.C., Bradshaw, C., Gay, D., Robertson, F., Blain, A.P., Hudson, G., Pyle, A., Houghton, D., Hunt, M., et al. (2020). Age-associated mitochondrial DNA mutations cause metabolic remodelling that contributes to accelerated intestinal tumorigenesis. Nat. Cancer *1*, 976–989. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43018-020-00112-5.

11. Tan, A.S., Baty, J.W., Dong, L.-F., Bezawork-Geleta, A., Endaya, B., Goodwin, J., Bajzikova, M., Kovarova, J., Peterka, M., Yan, B., et al. (2015). Mitochondrial genome acquisition restores respiratory function and tumorigenic potential of cancer cells without mitochondrial DNA. Cell Metab. *21*, 81–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2014.12.003.

12. Weinberg, F., Hamanaka, R., Wheaton, W.W., Weinberg, S., Joseph, J., Lopez, M., Kalyanaraman, B., Mutlu, G.M., Budinger, G.R.S., and Chandel, N.S. (2010). Mitochondrial metabolism and ROS generation are essential for Kras-mediated tumorigenicity. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *107*, 8788–8793. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1003428107.

13. Yuan, Y., Ju, Y.S., Kim, Y., Li, J., Wang, Y., Yoon, C.J., Yang, Y., Martincorena, I., Creighton, C.J., Weinstein, J.N., et al. (2020). Comprehensive molecular characterization of mitochondrial

genomes in human cancers. Nat. Genet. *52*, 342–352. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-019-
0557-x.

14. Nelson, M.A., McLaughlin, K.L., Hagen, J.T., Coalson, H.S., Schmidt, C., Kassai, M., Kew, K.A.,
McClung, J.M., Neufer, P.D., Brophy, P., et al. (2021). Intrinsic OXPHOS limitations underlie
cellular bioenergetics in leukemia. eLife *10*, e63104. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.63104.

15. Wang, Z., Zheng, Z., Jia, S., Liu, S., Xiao, X., Chen, G., Liang, W., and Lu, X. (2022). Trastuzumab
resistance in HER2-positive breast cancer: Mechanisms, emerging biomarkers and targeting
agents. Front. Oncol. *12*.

16. Avagliano, A., Ruocco, M.R., Aliotta, F., Belviso, I., Accurso, A., Masone, S., Montagnani, S., and
Arcucci, A. (2019). Mitochondrial Flexibility of Breast Cancers: A Growth Advantage and a
Therapeutic Opportunity. Cells *8*, 401. https://doi.org/10.3390/cells8050401.

17. Baek, M.L., Lee, J., Pendleton, K.E., Berner, M.J., Goff, E.B., Tan, L., Martinez, S.A., Mahmud, I.,
Wang, T., Meyer, M.D., et al. (2023). Mitochondrial structure and function adaptation in residual
triple negative breast cancer cells surviving chemotherapy treatment. Oncogene *42*, 1117–
1131. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41388-023-02596-8.

18. Evans, K.W., Yuca, E., Scott, S.S., Zhao, M., Paez Arango, N., Cruz Pico, C.X., Saridogan, T.,
Shariati, M., Class, C.A., Bristow, C.A., et al. (2021). Oxidative Phosphorylation Is a Metabolic
Vulnerability in Chemotherapy-Resistant Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. Cancer Res. *81*, 5572–
5581. https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-20-3242.

19. El-Botty, R., Morriset, L., Montaudon, E., Tariq, Z., Schnitzler, A., Bacci, M., Lorito, N., Sourd, L.,
Huguet, L., Dahmani, A., et al. (2023). Oxidative phosphorylation is a metabolic vulnerability of
endocrine therapy and palbociclib resistant metastatic breast cancers. Nat. Commun. *14*,
4221. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-40022-5.

20. Rohlenova, K., Sachaphibulkij, K., Stursa, J., Bezawork-Geleta, A., Blecha, J., Endaya, B.,
Werner, L., Cerny, J., Zobalova, R., Goodwin, J., et al. (2017). Selective Disruption of Respiratory
Supercomplexes as a New Strategy to Suppress Her2high Breast Cancer. Antioxid. Redox
Signal. *26*, 84–103. https://doi.org/10.1089/ars.2016.6677.

21. Yap, T.A., Daver, N., Mahendra, M., Zhang, J., Kamiya-Matsuoka, C., Meric-Bernstam, F.,
Kantarjian, H.M., Ravandi, F., Collins, M.E., Francesco, M.E.D., et al. (2023). Complex I inhibitor
of oxidative phosphorylation in advanced solid tumors and acute myeloid leukemia: phase I
trials. Nat. Med. *29*, 115–126. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-022-02103-8.

22. Asgari-Karchekani, S., Aryannejad, A., Mousavi, S.A., Shahsavarhaghighi, S., and Tavangar, S.M.
(2022). The role of HER2 alterations in clinicopathological and molecular characteristics of
breast cancer and HER2-targeted therapies: a comprehensive review. Med. Oncol. *39*, 210.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s12032-022-01817-6.

23. Mun, S., Lee, H.J., and Kim, P. (2024). Rebuilding the microenvironment of primary tumors in
humans: a focus on stroma. Exp. Mol. Med. *56*, 527–548. https://doi.org/10.1038/s12276-024-
01191-5.

24. de Visser, K.E., and Joyce, J.A. (2023). The evolving tumor microenvironment: From cancer
initiation to metastatic outgrowth. Cancer Cell *41*, 374–403.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccell.2023.02.016.

25. Ursini-Siegel, J., Schade, B., Cardiff, R.D., and Muller, W.J. (2007). Insights from transgenic
mouse models of ERBB2-induced breast cancer. Nat. Rev. Cancer *7*, 389–397.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nrc2127.

26. Iqbal, N., and Iqbal, N. (2014). Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor 2 (HER2) in Cancers:
Overexpression and Therapeutic Implications. Mol. Biol. Int. *2014*, 1–9.
https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/852748.

27. Dankort, D.L., Wang, Z., Blackmore, V., Moran, M.F., and Muller, W.J. (1997). Distinct Tyrosine
Autophosphorylation Sites Negatively and Positively Modulate Neu-Mediated Transformation.
Mol. Cell. Biol. *17*, 5410–5425. https://doi.org/10.1128/MCB.17.9.5410.

28. Dankort, D., Jeyabalan, N., Jones, N., Dumont, D.J., and Muller, W.J. (2001). Multiple ErbB-
2/Neu Phosphorylation Sites Mediate Transformation through Distinct Effector Proteins. J. Biol.
Chem. *276*, 38921–38928. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M106239200.

29. Ruiz-Saenz, A., Dreyer, C., Campbell, M.R., Steri, V., Gulizia, N., and Moasser, M.M. (2018).
HER2 amplification in tumors activates PI3K/Akt signaling independent of HER3. Cancer Res.
78, 3645–3658. https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-18-0430.

30. Kirouac, D.C., Du, J., Lahdenranta, J., Onsum, M.D., Nielsen, U.B., Schoeberl, B., and
McDonagh, C.F. (2016). HER2+ Cancer Cell Dependence on PI3K vs. MAPK Signaling Axes Is
Determined by Expression of EGFR, ERBB3 and CDKN1B. PLoS Comput. Biol. *12*, e1004827.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004827.

31. Serra, V., Scaltriti, M., Prudkin, L., Eichhorn, P.J.A., Ibrahim, Y.H., Chandarlapaty, S., Markman,
B., Rodriguez, O., Guzman, M., Rodriguez, S., et al. (2011). PI3K inhibition results in enhanced
HER signaling and acquired ERK dependency in HER2-overexpressing breast cancer. Oncogene
30, 2547–2557. https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2010.626.

32. Boykov, I.N., Montgomery, M.M., Hagen, J.T., Aruleba, R.T., McLaughlin, K.L., Coalson, H.S.,
Nelson, M.A., Pereyra, A.S., Ellis, J.M., Zeczycki, T.N., et al. (2023). Pan-tissue mitochondrial
phenotyping reveals lower OXPHOS expression and function across cancer types. Sci. Rep. *13*,
16742. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-43963-5.

33. Putignani, L., Raffa, S., Pescosolido, R., Aimati, L., Signore, F., Torrisi, M.R., and Grammatico, P.
(2008). Alteration of expression levels of the oxidative phosphorylation system (OXPHOS) in
breast cancer cell mitochondria. Breast Cancer Res. Treat. *110*, 439–452.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-007-9738-x.

34. Hu, Y., Xu, W., Zeng, H., He, Z., Lu, X., Zuo, D., Qin, G., and Chen, W. (2020). OXPHOS-
dependent metabolic reprogramming prompts metastatic potential of breast cancer cells
under osteogenic differentiation. Br. J. Cancer *123*, 1644–1655. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41416-
020-01040-y.

35. Pacheco-Velázquez, S.C., Robledo-Cadena, D.X., Hernández-Reséndiz, I., Gallardo-Pérez, J.C.,
Moreno-Sánchez, R., and Rodríguez-Enríquez, S. (2018). Energy Metabolism Drugs Block Triple
Negative Breast Metastatic Cancer Cell Phenotype. Mol. Pharm. *15*, 2151–2164.
https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.molpharmaceut.8b00015.

36. McLaughlin, K.L., Hagen, J.T., Coalson, H.S., Nelson, M.A.M., Kew, K.A., Wooten, A.R., and
Fisher-Wellman, K.H. (2020). Novel approach to quantify mitochondrial content and intrinsic

bioenergetic efficiency across organs. Sci. Rep. *10*, 17599. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-
74718-1.

37. Luengo, A., Li, Z., Gui, D.Y., Sullivan, L.B., Zagorulya, M., Do, B.T., Ferreira, R., Naamati, A., Ali,
A., Lewis, C.A., et al. (2021). Increased demand for NAD+ relative to ATP drives aerobic
glycolysis. Mol. Cell *81*, 691-707.e6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2020.12.012.

38. Giddings, E.L., Champagne, D.P., Wu, M.-H., Laffin, J.M., Thornton, T.M., Valenca-Pereira, F.,
Culp-Hill, R., Fortner, K.A., Romero, N., East, J., et al. (2021). Mitochondrial ATP fuels ABC
transporter-mediated drug efflux in cancer chemoresistance. Nat. Commun. *12*, 2804.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23071-6.

39. Farge, T., Saland, E., de Toni, F., Aroua, N., Hosseini, M., Perry, R., Bosc, C., Sugita, M., Stuani,
L., Fraisse, M., et al. (2017). Chemotherapy-Resistant Human Acute Myeloid Leukemia Cells
Are Not Enriched for Leukemic Stem Cells but Require Oxidative Metabolism. Cancer Discov. *7*,
716–735. https://doi.org/10.1158/2159-8290.CD-16-0441.

40. Nandi, I., Ji, L., Smith, H.W., Avizonis, D., Papavasiliou, V., Lavoie, C., Pacis, A., Attalla, S.,
Sanguin-Gendreau, V., and Muller, W.J. (2024). Targeting fatty acid oxidation enhances response
to HER2-targeted therapy. Nat. Commun. *15*, 6587. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-50998-
3.

41. Wang, Y.Y., Attané, C., Milhas, D., Dirat, B., Dauvillier, S., Guerard, A., Gilhodes, J., Lazar, I., Alet,
N., Laurent, V., et al. Mammary adipocytes stimulate breast cancer invasion through metabolic
remodeling of tumor cells. JCI Insight *2*, e87489. https://doi.org/10.1172/jci.insight.87489.

42. Matuszewska, K., Pereira, M., Petrik, D., Lawler, J., and Petrik, J. (2021). Normalizing Tumor
Vasculature to Reduce Hypoxia, Enhance Perfusion, and Optimize Therapy Uptake. Cancers *13*,
4444. https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers13174444.

43. Wu, S., Akhtari, M., and Alachkar, H. (2018). Characterization of Mutations in the Mitochondrial
Encoded Electron Transport Chain Complexes in Acute Myeloid Leukemia. Sci. Rep. *8*, 13301.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-31489-0.

44. Schöpf, B., Weissensteiner, H., Schäfer, G., Fazzini, F., Charoentong, P., Naschberger, A., Rupp,
B., Fendt, L., Bukur, V., Giese, I., et al. (2020). OXPHOS remodeling in high-grade prostate
cancer involves mtDNA mutations and increased succinate oxidation. Nat. Commun. 2020 111
11, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-15237-5.

45. Zhou, Y., Long, D., Zhao, Y., Li, S., Liang, Y., Wan, L., Zhang, J., Xue, F., and Feng, L. (2022).
Oxidative stress-mediated mitochondrial fission promotes hepatic stellate cell activation via
stimulating oxidative phosphorylation. Cell Death Dis. *13*, 1–15.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41419-022-05088-x.

46. Lhuissier, C., Desquiret-Dumas, V., Girona, A., Alban, J., Faure, J., Cassereau, J., Codron, P.,
Lenaers, G., Baris, O.R., Gueguen, N., et al. (2024). Mitochondrial F0F1-ATP synthase governs
the induction of mitochondrial fission. iScience *27*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2024.109808.

47. Zou, W., Chen, Q., Slone, J., Yang, L., Lou, X., Diao, J., and Huang, T. (2021). Nanoscopic
quantification of sub-mitochondrial morphology, mitophagy and mitochondrial dynamics in
living cells derived from patients with mitochondrial diseases. J. Nanobiotechnology *19*, 136.
https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-021-00882-9.

48. Ren, K., Zhou, D., Wang, M., Li, E., Hou, C., Su, Y., Zou, Q., Zhou, P., and Liu, X. (2021). RACGAP1
modulates ECT2-Dependent mitochondrial quality control to drive breast cancer metastasis.
Exp. Cell Res. *400*, 112493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexcr.2021.112493.

49. Zhao, J., Zhang, J., Yu, M., Xie, Y., Huang, Y., Wolff, D.W., Abel, P.W., and Tu, Y. (2013).
Mitochondrial dynamics regulates migration and invasion of breast cancer cells. Oncogene *32*,
4814–4824. https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2012.494.

50. Han, X.-J., Yang, Z.-J., Jiang, L.-P., Wei, Y.-F., Liao, M.-F., Qian, Y., Li, Y., Huang, X., Wang, J.-B.,
Xin, H.-B., et al. (2015). Mitochondrial dynamics regulates hypoxia-induced migration and
antineoplastic activity of cisplatin in breast cancer cells. Int. J. Oncol. *46*, 691–700.
https://doi.org/10.3892/ijo.2014.2781.

51. Zamberlan, M., Boeckx, A., Muller, F., Vinelli, F., Ek, O., Vianello, C., Coart, E., Shibata, K.,
Christian, A., Grespi, F., et al. (2022). Inhibition of the mitochondrial protein Opa1 curtails
breast cancer growth. J. Exp. Clin. Cancer Res. CR *41*, 95. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13046-022-
02304-6.

52. Yin, M., Lu, Q., Liu, X., Wang, T., Liu, Y., and Chen, L. (2016). Silencing Drp1 inhibits glioma cells
proliferation and invasion by RHOA/ ROCK1 pathway. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. *478*,
663–668. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2016.08.003.

53. Tang, Q., Liu, W., Zhang, Q., Huang, J., Hu, C., Liu, Y., Wang, Q., Zhou, M., Lai, W., Sheng, F., et
al. (2018). Dynamin-related protein 1-mediated mitochondrial fission contributes to IR-783-
induced apoptosis in human breast cancer cells. J. Cell. Mol. Med. *22*, 4474–4485.
https://doi.org/10.1111/jcmm.13749.

54. Wang, D., Townsend, L.K., DesOrmeaux, G.J., Frangos, S.M., Batchuluun, B., Dumont, L., Kuhre,
R.E., Ahmadi, E., Hu, S., Rebalka, I.A., et al. (2023). GDF15 promotes weight loss by enhancing
energy expenditure in muscle. Nature *619*, 143–150. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-023-
06249-4.

55. Patro, R., Duggal, G., Love, M.I., Irizarry, R.A., and Kingsford, C. (2017). Salmon provides fast
and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. Nat. Methods *14*, 417–419.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4197.

56. Love, M.I., Huber, W., and Anders, S. (2014). Moderated estimation of fold change and
dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. *15*, 550.
https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8.

57. Marini, F., and Binder, H. (2019). pcaExplorer: an R/Bioconductor package for interacting with
RNA-seq principal components. BMC Bioinformatics *20*, 331. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12859-
019-2879-1.

58. Mi, H., Muruganujan, A., Huang, X., Ebert, D., Mills, C., Guo, X., and Thomas, P.D. (2019).
Protocol Update for large-scale genome and gene function analysis with the PANTHER
classification system (v.14.0). Nat. Protoc. *14*, 703–721. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-019-
0128-8.

59. Paglialunga, S., Ludzki, A., Root-McCaig, J., and Holloway, G.P. (2015). In adipose tissue,
increased mitochondrial emission of reactive oxygen species is important for short-term high-
fat diet-induced insulin resistance in mice. Diabetologia *58*, 1071–1080.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-015-3531-x.

60. Miotto, P.M., and Holloway, G.P. (2019). Exercise-induced reductions in mitochondrial ADP
849   sensitivity contribute to the induction of gene expression and mitochondrial biogenesis through
850   enhanced mitochondrial H2O2 emission. Mitochondrion *46*, 116–122.
851   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mito.2018.03.003.

852   61. Kanehisa, M., Sato, Y., Kawashima, M., Furumichi, M., and Tanabe, M. (2016). KEGG as a
853   reference resource for gene and protein annotation. Nucleic Acids Res. *44*, D457–D462.
854   https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkv1070.

855   62. Xie, Z., Bailey, A., Kuleshov, M.V., Clarke, D.J.B., Evangelista, J.E., Jenkins, S.L., Lachmann, A.,
856   Wojciechowicz, M.L., Kropiwnicki, E., Jagodnik, K.M., et al. (2021). Gene Set Knowledge
857   Discovery with Enrichr. Curr. Protoc. *1*, e90. https://doi.org/10.1002/cpz1.90.

N=411 DOWNREGULATED TUMOR PROTEINS

A

2422   144   267

Downregulated in
Transcriptome

Downregulated in
Proteome

count

2000
1500
1000
500

B

KEGG ENRICHMENT ANALYSIS – 144 COMMON (Transcriptomics x Proteomics)

Diabetic cardiomyopathy

Chemical carcinogenesis –
reactive oxygen species

Thermogenesis

Prion disease

Oxidative phosphorylation

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

Carbon metabolism

Valine, leucine and
isoleucine degradation

Fatty acid metabolism

Propanoate metabolism

0.15   0.20   0.25
GeneRatio

p.adjust

3.652238e-20
5.742396e-16
1.148443e-15
1.722646e-15
2.296849e-15

Count
16
20
24

C

REACTOME 2022

Metabolism R–HSA–1430728

Citric Acid (TCA) Cycle And Respiratory Electron Transport R–HSA–1428517

Respiratory Electron Transport R–HSA–611105

Respiratory Electron Transport, ATP Synthesis By Chemiosmotic Coupling, Heat Production By Uncoupling Proteins R–HSA

Fatty Acid Metabolism R–HSA–8978868

Complex I Biogenesis R–HSA–6799198

Mitochondrial Fatty Acid Beta–Oxidation R–HSA–77289

Metabolism Of Lipids R–HSA–556833

Mitochondrial Fatty Acid Beta–Oxidation Of Saturated Fatty Acids R–HSA–77286

Branched–chain Amino Acid Catabolism R–HSA–70895

D

GO BIOLOGICAL PROCESS 2023

Cellular Respiration (GO:0045333)

Aerobic Electron Transport Chain (GO:0019646)

Mitochondrial ATP Synthesis Coupled Electron Transport (GO:0042775)

Fatty Acid Beta–Oxidation (GO:0006635)

Oxidative Phosphorylation (GO:0006119)

Mitochondrial Electron Transport, NADH To Ubiquinone (GO:0006120)

Aerobic Respiration (GO:0009060)

Proton Motive Force–Driven Mitochondrial ATP Synthesis (GO:0042776)

Proton Motive Force–Driven ATP Synthesis (GO:0015986)

Fatty Acid Catabolic Process (GO:0009062)

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

NORMALIZATION: WET WEIGHT

Benign

Tumor

NORMALIZATION: TOTAL PROTEIN

Benign

Tumor

Protein

NORMALIZATION: MITOCHONDRIAL PROTEIN

Benign

Tumor

B

CI+CII SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per wet weight

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg ww⁻¹)

E +PM +D +G +S

C

LIPID-SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per wet weight

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg ww⁻¹)

E +MD +PC

D

CI+CII SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per total protein

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg pro⁻¹)

E +PM +D +G +S

E

LIPID-SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per total protein

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg pro⁻¹)

E +MD +PC

F

CI+CII SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per mitochondrial protein

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg pro⁻¹)

E +PM +D +G +S

G

LIPID-SUPPORTED RESPIRATION
per mitochondrial protein

JO_2 (pmol•s⁻¹•mg pro⁻¹)

E +MD +PC

CANONICAL HER2 SIGNALING - PROTEIN

$$MEF = \frac{MitoCarta\ Protein\ Abundance}{Total\ Protein\ Abundance}$$

Abbrev.	Protein	Pathway/Function	Fc (vs BEN)	p.adj
PGK1	Phosphoglycerate kinase	Glycolysis	2.48	0.068
KPYM	Pyruvate kinase	Glycolysis	3.17	0.048
MP2K4	Mitogen activated protein kinase kinase 4	MAPK Pathway	3.65	0.012
RL38	Large ribosomal subunit protein eL38	Protein synthesis/translation	4.11	0.078
PGTA	Geranylgeranyl transferase type-2 subunit alpha	Cysteine prenylation of Rab proteins	4.28	0.067
Rl23	Large ribosomal subunit protein uL14	Protein synthesis/translation	4.41	0.042
CADH1	Cadherin-1	Cell adhesion and motility, epithelial cell marker	12.75	0.084
LMCD1	LIM and cysteine rich domains protein 1	Transcriptional cofactor for GATA6 involved in cell proliferation and metastasis (MMP, EGFR)	15.26	0.077
MPRI	Cation independent mannose 6 phosphate receptor	Lysosomal/Golgi trafficking, associates with IGFR2	22.3	0.093