Mitochondrial membrane tension governs fission

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1 Abstract

During mitochondrial fission, key molecular and cellular factors assemble on the outer

mitochondrial membrane, where they coordinate to generate constriction. Constriction sites

can eventually divide, or reverse upon disassembly of the machinery. However, a role for

membrane tension in mitochondrial fission, although speculated, has remained undefined. We

captured the dynamics of constricting mitochondria in mammalian cells using live-cell

structured illumination microscopy (SIM). By analyzing the diameters of tubules that emerge

from mitochondria and implementing a fluorescence lifetime-based mitochondrial membrane

tension sensor, we discovered that mitochondria are indeed under tension. Under

perturbations that reduce mitochondrial tension, constrictions initiate at the same rate, but are

less likely to divide. We propose a model based on our estimates of mitochondrial membrane

tension and bending energy in living cells which accounts for the observed probability

distribution for mitochondrial constrictions to divide.

Keywords: mitochondrial dynamics, mitochondrial division, membrane tension

16 Introduction

Mitochondria are highly dynamic organelles, transported through the cytoplasm along

cytoskeletal networks while they change in size and shape (Nunnari et al., 1997; Youle and

van der Bliek, 2012). Mitochondrial dynamics and network connectivity have been linked to

bioenergetic function, allowing adaptation of cellular energy production in response to stress

(Gomes et al., 2011; Rambold et al., 2011; Tondera et al., 2009) and regulation of the cell

cycle (Mitra et al., 2009). Unique among organelles, mitochondria cannot be generated de

novo, but instead must proliferate by fission, also referred to as division (Youle and van der

Bliek, 2012). Thus, fission plays an important role in ensuring cellular inheritance of

mitochondria, as well as being implicated in quality control by acting as a step in the

mitophagic pathway (Burman et al., 2017; Twig et al., 2008).

In mammalian cells, the known mitochondrial fission machinery assembles on the

outer surface of the organelle. Initially, the fission site is marked by a pre-constriction defined

by contact with ER tubules (Friedman et al., 2011) and deformed by targeted actin

polymerization (Ji et al., 2015; Korobova et al., 2013; Manor et al., 2015). Subsequently,

surface receptors including MiD49/51 (Palmer et al., 2011), Mff (Gandre-Babbe and van der

Bliek, 2008; Otera et al., 2010) or Fis1 (Mozdy et al., 2000) accumulate at the pre-

constriction and recruit dynamin related protein (Drp1) (Labrousse et al., 1999; Smirnova et

al., 2001). Drp1 oligomerizes into helices that wrap around the division site, and hydrolyzes

GTP to provide a mechano-chemical force for constriction (Fröhlich et al., 2013; Ingerman et

al., 2005; Mears et al., 2011; Kalia et al, 2018). In addition, the dynamin 2 protein (Dyn2) can

play a role in fission downstream of Drp1 (Lee et al., 2016), albeit a non-essential one

(Fonseca et al., 2019; Kamerkar et al., 2018). Interestingly, deformations induced by

exogenous mechanical forces can also trigger recruitment of the downstream machinery for

mitochondrial fission (Helle et al., 2017). This underlines that membrane fission processes

are fundamentally mechanical in nature, triggered by forces that generate membrane

deformation.

An additional factor, membrane tension, is known to play a crucial role in other

processes involving membrane deformations such as exocytosis (Gauthier et al., 2011),

endocytosis (Morlot et al., 2012; Riggi et al., 2019; Roux et al., 2006), cytokinesis (Lafaurie-

Janvore et al., 2013), and cell protrusion (Raucher and Sheetz, 2000). Tension in the plasma

membrane is a consequence of built-in bilayer tension and stresses from the cytoskeleton and

its motors (Keren et al., 2008; Kozlov and Mogilner, 2007), which can together impact the

ability of an applied force to drive membrane fission. Indeed, in budding yeast, membrane

tethers anchoring mitochondria to the cell cortex were shown to play a role in mitochondrial

fission, which was hypothesized to be linked to tension (Klecker et al., 2013). However, the

role and origins of membrane tension remain little explored in the context of mitochondrial

fission in mammalian cells. This is in part because it is challenging to quantify the tension,

even in relative terms, of mitochondria in living cells.

Here, we report a key role for membrane tension in governing mitochondrial division

in mammalian cells. Using time-lapse super-resolution imaging, we measured dynamic

changes in membrane shape to identify highly constricted sites with diameters below 200 nm.

We observed that the presence of the fission machinery, while necessary, is not sufficient to

ensure division. We found that constrictions were more likely to result in division when

mitochondria were under higher membrane tension. A novel Fluorescence Lifetime Imaging

(FLIM) mitochondrial membrane tension sensor (Goujon et al., 2019) revealed that

mitochondrial membrane tension was reduced following depolymerization of the microtubule

network, a condition that resulted in the same frequency of constriction initiation, but a lower

frequency of fissions. Finally, based on our measurements in living cells, we propose a

physical model for mitochondrial division in which membrane tension combines with elastic

energy during constriction to govern the kinetics and probability of fission.

Results

Constriction by the division machinery does not ensure fission

We performed live-cell SIM imaging of COS-7 cells transiently transfected with

Drp1-mCherry and GFP targeted to the matrix by the mitochondrial targeting sequence from

subunit VIII of human cytochrome c oxidase (mito-GFP). We observed that some

constrictions marked by Drp1-mCherry proceeded to fission (Figure 1A, S1, Movie S1), but

others lost enrichment of Drp1 without dividing and relaxed to an unconstricted state (termed

'reversal') (Figure. 1B, S1, Movie S2). Similar "reversible" or "non-productive" Drp1

constrictions were previously reported in yeast (Legesse-Miller et al., 2003) and mammalian

cells (Ji et al., 2015), although their physical properties remained unquantified and their cause

was unclear. For quantification purposes, we defined 'reversals' as Drp1-enriched

constriction sites that reached a diameter below 200 nm before relaxing, well below the mean

mitochondrial diameter of ~500 nm (Figure 1C,D, S1).

Figure 1: Key molecular components are present at constriction sites that undergo

reversals. (A, B) Time-lapse SIM imaging of COS-7 cells transiently transfected with mito-

GFP (greyscale) and mCherry-Drp1 (magenta) showing an example (A) fission and (B)

reversal (see Movies S1,2, SFig 1). (C) Time evolution of diameter at the mitochondrial

constriction site measured for fission (blue) and reversal (red) events shown in A, B. (D)

Integrated intensity of Drp1 at the constriction site over time measured for fission (blue) and

reversal (red) events shown in A, B, normalized to the maximum value. (E, G) Time-lapse

live-cell confocal imaging of Mito-BFP, Drp1-GFP and KDEL-RFP showing examples of

fission and reversal. (F, H) Intensity profiles of ER, Mito and Drp1 intensities adjacent to the

yellow dashed lines in E,G. (I, K) Time-lapse SIM imaging of mitochondria and Dyn2

showing a reversal at a Dyn2-enriched constriction site. (J, L) Intensity profiles of ER, Mito

and Drp1 intensities adjacent to the yellow dashed lines in I, K. Scale bar represents 500 nm

in A and B. Scale bar represents 1 μm in E, G, I, K, and yellow arrows mark the constriction

site.

To examine whether reversals result from differences in fission machinery, we

imaged several fission factors – the ER, Drp1 and Dyn2, restricting our analysis to Drp1-

mediated constrictions. Since our SIM imaging was limited to two colors, we performed fast

(1 Hz), three-color live-cell confocal imaging of mitochondria and Drp1, with either Dyn2 or

the ER (Figure 1E-L). We found that Dyn2 could be present or absent at Drp1-mediated

constrictions (Figure 1I-L), with 30% of fissions and 36% of reversals enriched in Dyn2

(N=30 and 33 respectively) (Figure 1I-L). These observations are consistent with recent

reports that Drp1, but not Dyn2 is essential for mitochondrial division (Kamerkar et al.,

2018). We further measured colocalization between Drp1 mediated mitochondrial

constrictions and ER tubules, as such contacts were shown to mark sites prior to division

(Friedman et al., 2011). We found that both fissions and reversals could occur at constrictions

overlapping with ER tubules (90% for fissions (N=10) and 89% for reversals (N=18), Figure

1E,G), which appear as peaks in intensity profiles along the constriction site (Figure 1F,H).

An accumulation of Drp1 at these sites typically coincided with an increased rate of

constriction, measured at ~17 nm/s for fissions and 18 nm/s for reversals during the 5 seconds

leading up to maximal constriction, suggesting active constriction by Drp1 (Figure S2, N=61

for fissions and N=38 for reversals). Some sites underwent several cycles of constriction and

relaxation, coupled with Drp1 accumulation and disassembly (Figure 1D). Cyclic dynamics

could lead to either fission or reversal, 3±2 constriction cycles/min (N=61) and 2±1

cycles/min respectively (N=38), implying that neither abundance of Drp1, nor constriction

rate, nor cyclic activity distinguishes fissions from reversals. Overall, 66% of constriction

sites underwent fission (N=112, Figure S1), while the remaining 34% ended as reversals

(N=57, Figure S1). Thus, differences in observed constriction dynamics or machinery do not

account for differences in success to divide.

Fission events are characterized by increased membrane tension

The division machinery wraps around mitochondria, providing a force that locally

constricts the organelle. However, in other examples of membrane fission, an interplay

between force and membrane tension determines whether fission is driven to completion

(Gauthier et al., 2011; Lafaurie-Janvore et al., 2013; Morlot et al., 2012; Raucher and Sheetz,

2000; Riggi et al., 2019; Sinha et al., 2011). We noticed that after division, daughter

mitochondria would recoil away from the division site (Figure 2A), reminiscent of an elastic

body being cut under tension (Movie S4, S5). Therefore, we decided to examine the

relationship between membrane tension and the probability of fission versus reversal.

In vitro experiments can estimate membrane tension by pulling on a membrane and

measuring the size of the resulting membrane tubule (Derényi et al., 2002; Evans and Yeung,

1994). Analogously, microtubule motors in living cells can spontaneously extrude

mitochondrial membrane nanotubes (Huang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2015) (Figure 2B). We

observed nanotubes just before fissions or reversals, at similar frequencies (19% and 24% for

N=101 and 59 respectively). We inferred the membrane tension by classical energy

minimization, which gives a relationship between the nanotube diameter d, membrane

tension τ, and membrane bending rigidity κ_B (Derényi et al., 2002; Evans and Yeung, 1994)

(Figure 2C, SI):

$$\tau = \frac{2\kappa_B}{d^2}$$ (1)

The average diameters of tubules pulled from mitochondria that subsequently either

divided or reversed were 176 ± 4 nm and 229 ± 7 nm respectively (Figure 2D). Thus, the

population of mitochondria undergoing fission was on average under significantly higher

membrane tension at $5.81 \pm 0.54 \times 10^{-6}$ N/m, compared to the population undergoing

reversals at $3.85 \pm 0.75 \times 10^{-6}$ N/m (Figure 4e, $N = 19$ and $N = 14$ respectively, mean $\pm$

SEM). We found consistent values when analyzing the recoil motion of mitochondria post-

fission to independently estimate membrane tension (SI, Figure S3). Together, these data

show that mitochondrial constrictions which are under higher tension are more likely to

undergo fission.

Additionally, membrane tubes under tension can spontaneously develop undulations

through a "pearling instability". We observed undulations on 11% of dividing mitochondria

(N=88) (Figure S3), also previously reported during mitochondrial fragmentation (Gonzalez-

Rodriguez et al., 2015) and in neuronal mitochondria (Cho et al., 2017). We found that

constricted mitochondria exhibiting pearling modes eventually underwent fission of at least

one of the constriction sites (100%, N=10). Conversely, reversals of pearling modes were

rarely observed (4%, N=57) and occurred exclusively following fission at a neighboring

constriction site, suggesting that the loss of tension released during fission could be

responsible (Figure S3, Movie S4, S5).

Figure 2: Estimated membrane tension for fissions and reversals. (A) Time-lapse SIM

images of a mitochondrion (mito-GFP) 1 sec before (left) and after (right) fission showing the

recoil of daughter mitochondria post fission. Measured retraction velocities v (red arrows)

were projected perpendicular to the constriction site (white dashed line). (B) Fluorescence

image showing a constricted mitochondrion with a pulled membrane tube (boxed region).

Scale bar: 1 μm. (C) Mitochondrial contour from the outlined region in (A) showing the

diameter of the tube d, used as a readout for tension τ. (D) Distribution of tubule radii

measured between fission and reversal events. (E) Distribution of calculated membrane

tension values between fission and reversal events. Statistical significance calculated by 1-

and 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U test where appropriate: **P<0.01.

Reduced membrane tension results in increased probability of reversals

We set out to understand the origin of membrane tension in dividing mitochondria.

Post-division recoil suggests the presence of external forces pulling or anchoring

mitochondria. Mitochondrial transport is mainly mediated through microtubule motors

(Boldogh and Pon, 2007), and we hypothesized that they could generate membrane tension.

To test this hypothesis, we depolymerized microtubules using nocodazole (De Brabander et

al., 1976; Hoebeke et al., 1976). Indeed, during a timeframe of 1-hour post-treatment while

cell and organelle morphologies were maintained (Figure S3), we observed a decrease in

recoil velocities (Figure 3A) consistent with a reduction of estimated membrane tensions by

40% (SI, N=33 control and N=26 nocodazole).

Figure 3: Membrane tension under nocodazole perturbation. (A) Distribution of recoil

speeds of mitochondria post-division, between control and nocodazole treated cells. (B,C)

Confocal (top) and FLIM (bottom) images of mitochondria in cells stained with the

mitochondria-targeted FliptR fluorescent tension probe under (B) control conditions and (C)

nocodazole treatment. (D) Distributions of bulk fluorescence lifetimes of the FliptR

fluorescent tension probe between control and nocodazole-treated cells. (E) Box chart

showing rates of fission and reversal in Nocodazole treated (N=16) and control (N=16) cells.

Scale bars: 1μm. Statistical significance calculated by 1- and 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U test

where appropriate: *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ****P<0.0001.

To more directly test whether depolymerizing microtubules decreases membrane

tension, we used a mitochondrial-targeted variant of the mechanosensitive FliptR probe

(Figure 3B,C, Figure S3) (Colom et al., 2018; Goujon et al., 2019; Soleimanpour et al.,

2016). The fluorescence lifetime of FliptR depends on the orientation between its

chromophoric groups, which is sensitive to membrane tension. Comparing control versus

nocodazole-treated cells, FliptR showed significantly shorter average fluorescence lifetimes,

indicative of an overall reduction in mitochondrial membrane tension (Figure 3D).

Having established that nocodazole treatment reduces mitochondrial membrane

tension, we examined its consequences on mitochondrial division by quantifying the

probability for constriction sites to divide or reverse. Importantly, the rate of Drp1-induced

constrictions initiated per mitochondrial area was unperturbed by nocodazole treatment (~

0.014 min^{-1} μm^{-2}). Furthermore, the degree of overlap between mitochondria and ER

remained unchanged (Figure S3), as did mitochondrial diameter and membrane potential

(Figure S3), suggesting that the mitochondrial physiology and the ability of the division

machinery to constrict were unaffected by nocodazole treatment. However, we found a 2.4-

fold increase in the rate of reversal events, and a concomitant decrease in the rate of fission

(Figure 3E). Thus, a reduced membrane tension did not change the initiation of Drp1-

mediation constrictions, but reduced the efficiency of their fission significantly.

Tension modifies the energy landscape of mitochondrial fission

The fission process can be represented as an energy landscape where during fission,

the elastic energy stored in the mitochondrial membrane overcomes an energy barrier E_f.

During constriction, the local elastic energy increases through tension and bending of the

membrane. To account for membrane bending and its contribution to the elastic energy of the

membrane, we estimated the membrane bending energy of mitochondrial constrictions from

their shape (Figure S4, SI) and by numerically evaluating the Helfrich equation (Helfrich,

1973). Both fissions and reversals accumulated bending energy at the constriction, reaching

188 ± 14 k_BT versus 127 ± 10 k_BT respectively at maximal constriction (mean$\pm$SEM, N=70 and

43 respectively, Figure S4, Appendix A). Note that our ability to estimate the bending energy

is limited by the resolution of the contour. We find that there is significant overlap between

the distributions (Figure S4), and a range of values of constricted state bending energies can

result in either outcome (Figure S4), underlining the probabilistic nature of this model.

To estimate the energy barrier to fission, we calculated the probability of fission $p(E)$,

defined experimentally as the ratio of the number of fissions to all constrictions with a given

energy. $p(E)$ increases with local bending energy, and by determining the bending energy at

which all constrictions result in fission ($p(E)$=1), we could estimate the energy barrier to

fission as ~300 k_BT. Considering that mitochondria are double-membraned organelles, this

estimate is consistent with simulations of dynamin-mediated scission (Morlot et al., 2012), as

well as theoretical estimates for a hemifission state, which spontaneously leads to fission

(Kozlovsky and Kozlov, 2003).

Figure 4: Fission timing and probability related to bending energy and tension. (A) Left:

Histogram showing numbers of fissions and reversals at different local bending energy

intervals. Right: Experimental probability of fission calculated as ratio of fissions to total

constrictions at different local bending energy intervals. (B) Experimental probability of

fission of control and nocodazole treated cells. (C) Distribution of final bending energies

between control and nocodazole treated fission events. (D) Distribution of fission times

between control and nocodazole treated fission events. (E) Cartoon of the probabilistic model

of mitochondrial fission showing the contribution of bending energy (green line) and

membrane tension (orange shaded area) in reaching the energy barrier for fission (grey

dashed line). Both bending energy and tension set the probability p of fission (blue line).

Reversals occur either due to a lack of bending energy or low probability of necessary

fluctuation energies. (F) Schematic representation of the different contributions to fission

probability: bending energy (magenta) and tension (blue). Statistical significance calculated

by 1- and 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U test where appropriate: *P<0.05.

To test the effect of membrane tension on the energy landscape for fission, we

compared the experimental probability of fission between control and nocodazole treated

cells. We found it was shifted towards higher bending energies when membrane tension is

reduced (Figure 4B). Therefore, achieving a similar probability of fission would now require

more deformation to increase the energy of the constricted state (Figure 4C, N=33 control

and 22 nocodazole). We also noticed that Drp1 appeared to reside for longer time periods at

mitochondrial constriction sites in nocodazole-treated cells. Fission events in nocodazole-

treated cells required on average ~12±7 s longer (Figure 4D, N=33 control and N=22

nocodazole), reflecting decreased fission probability and consistent with a major role for

membrane tension in driving the final step of fission.

Discussion

We report that membrane tension plays a key role in governing mitochondrial fission.

How might tension promote mitochondrial division? In a model proposed for dynamin-

mediated endocytosis, thermal fluctuations of the membrane bring it over the energy barrier

to fission (Morlot et al., 2012). One possibility is that tension fluctuations play an analogous

role to thermal fluctuations to overcome the fission barrier. Microtubule-dependent motor

proteins, which anchor and transport mitochondria along microtubules, were shown to

generate piconewtons of force on millisecond timescales (Carter and Cross, 2005). This

suggests that tension can be modulated several orders of magnitude faster than it takes a

mitochondrion to divide.

In such a tension-driven model, when the division machinery induces constriction, it

brings membranes closer to the energy barrier to fission (Figure 4E,F). Fluctuations in

tension could then stochastically deform mitochondrial membranes, storing additional elastic

energy at the constriction site to overcome the energy barrier to fission. According to such a

model, since constrictions cannot be maintained indefinitely, mitochondrial constriction sites

that do not experience a large enough fluctuation during their lifetime will become reversals.

This model is supported by our independent estimates of the energy contribution from tension

and the magnitude of the mean fluctuation energy extracted from the experimental probability

of fission, both of which are ~100 k_BT (SI). We note that this estimate indicates that thermal

fluctuations are insufficient for mitochondrial fission. Furthermore, considering our

observations in nocodazole treated cells, our model suggests that lower membrane tension

results in lower fluctuation energy (SI), and thus increases the probability of reversal.

Overall, the proposed probabilistic nature of mitochondrial fission may play a role in

regulating mitochondrial network morphologies. For instance, mitochondrial division has

been observed to take place near replicating nucleoids (Lewis et al., 2016) – the presence of

which might create 'rigid islands' that alter the mechanical properties at adjacent constriction

sites (Feng and Kornmann, 2018), making them more likely to divide according to our model.

Such internal mechanisms could simultaneously control the positioning and fate of

mitochondrial constrictions. Furthermore, our work suggests how remodeling of the

microtubule cytoskeleton could impact global mitochondrial morphology and proliferation

through changes in mitochondrial membrane tension. Additional work is needed to examine

the role of microtubules in establishing mitochondrial membrane tension and their regulation

during mitochondrial fission.

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Declaration of interests

The original FliptR probe (not targeted to mitochondria), is sold by Spirochrome through the

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Materials and Methods

Cell culture, transfections and dye labelling.

Cos-7 cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cells were plated on 25 mm, #1.5 glass coverslips (Menzel)

16-24 h prior to transfection at a confluency of ~10^5 cells per well. Dual transfections

containing mCh-Drp1 (Addgene, plasmid #49152) and Mito-GFP (gift from Hari Shroff,

Cox8a presequence) were performed with either Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies) or

using electroporation (BioRad Xcell). Lipofectamine transfections were carried out in Opti-

MEM using 150 ng of mCh-Drp1, 150 ng of Mito-GFP and 1.5 µL of Lipofectamine 2000

per 100 µL Opti-MEM. Electroporation was performed using salmon sperm as a delivery

agent. Briefly, cells were pelleted by centrifugation and resuspended in OPTI-MEM.

Plasmids and sheared salmon sperm DNA were added to 200 µL of the cell suspension prior

to electroporation using a Bio-Rad Gene Pulser (190 Ω and 950 µFD).

Triple transfections containing mCh-Drp1, Mito-BFP (Addgene, plasmid #49151) and Dyn2-

GFP (gift from Gia Voeltz) were performed with Lipofectamine 2000. Such transfections

were carried out in using 80 ng of mCh-Drp1, 100 ng of Dyn2-GFP and 80 ng of Mito-BFP

and 1.5 µL of Lipofectamine 2000. Dual color imaging of dynamin was performed using

double transfections of either 100 ng Dyn2-GFP and 150 ng Mito-Scarlet, or 100 ng Dyn2-

mCherry and 150 ng Mito-GFP. Triple transfection containing Mito-BFP, Drp1-GFP and

KDEL-RFP were performed with Lipofectamine 2000. Such transfections were performed

using 100 ng Mito-BFP, 100 ng Drp1-GFP and 100 ng KDEL-RFP. All quantities listed are

per well of cells containing 2 mL of culture medium and carried out with Opti-MEM. The

Lipofectamine mixture sat for 20 min before its addition to cells.

Drug treatment.

Nocodazole was diluted to a stock solution of 10 mM in DMSO. To depolymerize

microtubules, cells were incubated with 10μM Nocodazole (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1h before

imaging (1 μL Nocodazole per 1000 μL medium). Control cells were incubated with the

equivalent volume of DMSO for 1h before imaging (1 μL DMSO per 1000 μL medium).

SIM imaging and reconstruction.

Fast dual-color SIM imaging was performed at Janelia Farm with an inverted fluorescence

microscope (AxioObserver; Zeiss) using an SLM (SXGA-3DM; Fourth Dimension Displays)

to create the illumination pattern and liquid crystal cell (SWIFT; Meadowlark) to control the

polarization. Fluorescence was collected through a 100X 1.49 NA oil immersion objective

and imaged onto a digital CMOS camera (ORCA-Flash4.0 v2 C11440; Hamamatsu). Time-

lapse images were acquired every 1 s for 3-5 min, with 50 ms exposure time. Fast dual color

imaging of mitochondria and Drp1 was performed at 37˚C with 5% CO_2, in pre-warmed

DMEM medium. Dual-color SIM imaging for Nocodazole and Dyn2 experiments was

performed on an inverted fluorescence microscope (Eclipse Ti; Nikon) equipped with an

electron charge coupled device camera (iXon3 897; Andor Technologies). Fluorescence was

collected with through a 100x 1.49 NA oil immersion objective (CFI Apochromat TIRF

100XC Oil; Nikon). Images were captured using NIS elements with SIM (Nikon) resulting in

temporal resolution of 1 s for single-color and 6-8s for dual-color imaging, with 50 ms

exposure time. Imaging was performed at 37˚C in pre-warmed Leibovitz medium. See SI for

details on iSIM imaging, image reconstruction and analysis.

SIM images were reconstructed using a custom 2D linear SIM reconstruction software

obtained at Janelia farm, as previously described (Gustafsson, 2000; Gustafsson et al., 2008).

Images were reconstructed using a generalized Weiner filter parameter value of 0.02-0.05

with background levels of ~100.

iSIM imaging and reconstruction.

For iSIM experiments, imaging was performed on a custom-built microscope setup as

previously described (York et al., 2013). The microscope was equipped with a 1.49 NA oil

immersion objective (APONXOTIRF; Olympus), with 488 nm and 561 nm excitation lasers

and an sCMOS camera (Zyla 4.2; Andor). Images were captured at 0.1-0.3 s temporal

resolution for both channels. All imaging was performed at 37°C in pre-warmed Leibovitz

medium. Raw iSIM images were deconvolved using the Lucy-Richardson deconvolution

algorithm (Lucy, 1974; Richardson, 1972) implemented in MATLAB, run for 40 iterations.

Confocal imaging.

Confocal imaging was performed on an inverted microscope (DMI 6000; Leica) equipped

with hybrid photon counting detectors (HyD; Leica). Fluorescence was collected through a

63x 1.40 NA oil immersion objective (HC PL APO 63x/1.40 Oil CS2; Leica). Images were

captured using the LAS X software (Leica). All imaging was performed at 37°C in pre-

warmed Leibovitz medium.

STORM imaging and reconstruction.

For STORM imaging, prior to staining, cells were washed with PBS (Sigma). Cells were

incubated with MitoTracker Red CMXRos (LifeTechnologies) at a concentration of 500 nM

for 5 minutes, before washing again with PBS.

For measuring mitochondrial membrane potential, cells were incubated with 100 nM TMRE

(Abcam, ab113852) for 10 minutes before time-lapse measurements.

STORM imaging was performed at room temperature in a glucose-oxidase/catalase (Glox)

oxygen removal buffer described in (Shim et al., 2012). Briefly, a 2% glucose solution is

prepared in DMEM (Gibco). Glucose oxidase (0.5 mg/mL) and catalase (40 µg/mL) were

added to the glucose solution and the pH was left to drop for 30-60 min. After this time, the

pH was adjusted to 7 yielding a final solution with 6.7% HEPES. Imaging was performed on

an inverted microscope (IX71; Olympus) equipped with a 100x NA 1.4 oil immersion

objective (UPlanSAPO100X; Olympus) using an electron multiplying CCD camera (iXon+;

Andor Technologies), with a resulting pixel size of 100nm. Laser intensities were between 1-

5 kWcm-2.

For STORM datasets, single molecules were localized using the RapidSTORM v3.3 software

(Wolter et al., 2012). Local signal-to-noise detection with a threshold value of 50 was used.

Peaks with a width between 70-300 nm and at least 200 photons were rendered for the final

STORM image.

FliptR synthesis.

The FliptR probe was synthesized following previously reported procedures (Colom et al.,

2018). For mitochondrial targeting, compounds 2,3 and 5 were synthesized and purified

according to procedures that will be reported elsewhere in another manuscript (Goujon et al.,

2019) in due time (SFigure 7).

Compound 5 was synthesized and purified according to procedures described in (Goujon et

al., 2019) (SFigure 7).

The probe can report on membrane tension as reported in reference (Colom et al., 2018).

Spectroscopic characterizations, mechanosensitive behavior in LUVs and GUVs of various

lipid composition, colocalization studies in mitochondria and response of fluorescence

lifetime to osmotic shocks (i.e. membrane tension changes) is reported in (Goujon et al.,

2019).

FLIM imaging and analysis.

For FLIM imaging with the mitochondria-targeted FliptR probe, cells were incubated with

500 nM of the probe solution for 15 min, and washed before imaging. Imaging was

performed using a Nikon Eclipse TI A1R microscope equipped with a time-correlated single-

photon counting module from PicoQuant. A pulsed 485 nm laser (PicoQuant LDH-D-C-485)

was used for excitation, operated at 20 MHz. The emission was collected through ha 600/50

nm bandpass filter, on a gated PMA hybrid 40 detector and a PicoHarp 300 board

(PicoQuant).

FLIM data was analyzed using the SymPhoTime 64 software (PicoQuant). The fluorescence

decay data was fit to a double exponential model after deconvolution for the calculated

impulse response function. The values reported in the main text are the average lifetime

intensity.

Statistics.

Statistics were performed using Matlab and OriginPro software. All datasets were tested for

normal distribution using the D'Agostino-Pearson normality test (significance value of 0.05)

(Antonio Trujillo-Ortiz, 2015). If the datasets passed the test, then statistical significance was

determined using a two-tailed t-tests. If datasets failed the normality test, a nonparametric test

was chosen to compare the significance of means between groups Mann-Whitney test for two

samples (with one or two tailed distributions where appropriate) and Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA

for multiple samples (Giuseppe Cardillo, 2015). $P<0.05$ were considered as significant and

were marked by '*'; $P<0.01$ with '**', $P<0.001$ by '***' and $P<0.0001$ by '****'.

Curve fitting was performed using the curve fitting toolbox in Matlab.