Mitochondrial cristae biogenesis coordinates with ETC complex IV assembly
during *Drosophila* maturation

Yi-fan Jiang[1], Hsiang-ling Lin[2], Li-jie Wang[2], Tian-Hsu[2], and Chi-yu Fu[2]*
[1]Graduate Institute of Molecular and Comparative Pathobiology, School of
Veterinary Medicine, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan
[2]Institute of Cellular and Organismic Biology, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan

Abstract

Mitochondrial cristae contain electron transport chain (ETC) complexes and are
distinct from the inner boundary membrane (IBM) in both protein composition and
function. While many details of mitochondrial membrane structure are known, the
processes governing cristae biogenesis, including the organization of lipid membranes
and assembly of proteins encoded by both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA, remain
obscure. We followed cristae biogenesis *in situ* upon *Drosophila* eclosion using
serial-section electron tomography and revealed that the morphogenesis of lamellar
cristae coordinates with ETC complex IV assembly. The membrane morphogenesis
and gain-of-function were intricately co-evolved during cristae biogenesis.
Marf-knockdown flies formed lamellar cristae containing ATP synthase and
functional COX. However, OPA1-knockdown flies showed impaired cristae
biogenesis. Overall, this study revealed the multilevel coordination of protein-coupled
membrane morphogenesis in building functional cristae.

22
23 Key words: mitochondria/ cristae biogenesis/ COX assembly/ membrane
24 morphogenesis/ electron tomography

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Running title: Mitochondrial cristae biogenesis

Introduction
Mitochondria originate from an endosymbiosis event. The organelles exhibit
unique double membrane architecture, consisting of outer and inner membranes that
are separated by an intermembrane space. The inner membrane can be further
subdivided into the inner boundary membrane (IBM) and the cristae invaginations,
based on the ultrastructure, protein composition and function (Cogliati, Enriquez et al.,
2016, Mannella, 2006). In the cristae, electron transport chain (ETC) complexes
generate ATP by creating and maintaining a proton gradient between the matrix and
intermembrane space (Gilkerson, Selker et al., 2003). Importantly, the morphology
and remodeling of cristae are indicative of mitochondrial function, and cristae
ultrastructure is known to be heavily influenced by several critical proteins (Cogliati,
Frezza et al., 2013, Frezza, Cipolat et al., 2006, Scorrano, Ashiya et al., 2002). For
example, ATP synthase has been shown to play a structural role in inducing positive
membrane curvature at the cristae ridges in addition to its enzymatic function (Davies,

Strauss et al., 2011, Strauss, Hofhaus et al., 2008). Secondly, the mitochondrial
contact site and cristae organizing system (MICOS) complex is known to stabilize the
cristae junction, the region where cristae connect to the IBM (Huynen, Muhlmeister et
al., 2016, Rampelt, Zerbes et al., 2017, Schorr & van der Laan, 2017). Optic atrophy
protein 1 (OPA1), a protein involved in inner membrane fusion, also plays a pivotal
role in stabilizing cristae junctions and mediating cristae remodeling during apoptosis
(MacVicar & Langer, 2016, Varanita, Soriano et al., 2015). Even though key proteins
have been identified as being essential for the maintenance and the remodeling of
cristae architecture, the question of how functional cristae form *de nov*o, including the
organization of lipid membranes and assembly of proteins encoded by both nuclear
and mitochondrial DNA, remains to be elucidated.

In this study, we investigated the mechanisms of cristae biogenesis by
characterizing the mitochondrial development of *Drosophila* upon eclosion, the
emergence of adult flies from pupa. At larval and pupal stages, *Drosophila* uses
aerobic glycolysis to support the rapid growth of body mass and subsequent
metamorphosis (Agrell, 1953, Tennessen, Baker et al., 2011). Upon eclosion,
mitochondrial cristae undergo development to support increased energy demand.
During this time, mature mitochondria in the indirect flight muscle (IFM) establish
densely arranged lamellar cristae that form connective membrane networks (Jiang,
Lin et al., 2017b), providing a well-characterized physiological time reference for the
de novo formation of functional cristae. Using this model system, we were able to
uncover novel mechanisms of cristae biogenesis that involve intricate coordination of
membrane morphogenesis and ETC complex IV assembly.

Results

Mitochondria exhibit cristae biogenesis upon *Drosophila* eclosion

To characterize mitochondrial structure in *Drosophila* during eclosion from the
pupa, the IFM of adult flies was sampled at various time points. Thin-section TEM
analysis showed that the mitochondria at day 1 after eclosion contained only a few
organized cristae that were loosely scattered throughout the matrix (Fig 1a). The
mitochondria developed densely packed lamellar cristae, usually within a couple days,
as what was observed in the matured flies (Fig 1b) (Jiang et al., 2017b). The
mitochondrial protein abundance during maturation was analyzed. The mitochondria
of day 1 flies contained a low level of ATP5A (complex V of the ETC complex)
compared to those of the week 4 flies according to the immuno-EM (Fig 2a-b). The
western blots analysis of the whole fly extracts showed that at day 1, some other
nuclear DNA-encoded mitochondrial proteins, such as pyruvate dehydrogenase
(PDHA1), superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2), and Cytochrome c (Cyt c), were
approximately 30-50% of the levels in the week 4 flies (Fig 2c). On the other hand,
the ribosomal protein, RPS6, was expressed roughly 18-fold more in the day 1 flies
than week 4 flies (Fig 2c). Consistent with this observation, thin-section TEM

micrographs revealed highly abundant ribosome or polyribosome-like structures in
the cytoplasm of day 1 flies, but these structures were much less abundant in the week
4 flies (Fig 1a-b). With this reliably orchestrated transition in mitochondrial
morphology, the eclosion of *Drosophila* provides an excellent model system with
which to elucidate the development of cristae ultrastructure and function *in situ*.

To track cristae organization during mitochondrial maturation in 3D, we applied
serial section electron tomography to reconstruct entire mitochondrial volumes. The
global organization of IFM tissue was established upon eclosion with mitochondria
distributed between parallel muscle fibers. In some cases, close inter-mitochondrial
contacts were already observed, which may facilitate communication between
mitochondria (Fig 1c-d, Movie 1) (Picard, McManus et al., 2015). Mitochondria in
the day 1 flies appeared more polymorphic and contained lamellipodia-like or
filopodia-like extensions, which became ovoid-shaped and filled the cytoplasmic
space between the muscle fibers as they matured (Movie 1). Concentrated
cytoplasmic ribosome or polyribosome-like densities surrounded the immature
mitochondria, which would be expected to support rapid protein synthesis for
mitochondria maturation (Fig 1c-d). A cryo-tomography study reported that
cytoplasmic ribosomes associate with the mitochondrial surface through the
interaction with TOM complex (Gold, Chroscicki et al., 2017).

Joined serial tomograms of the day 1 flies showed that the mitochondrial matrix
also contained numerous darkly stained ribosome-like molecules along with the
segments of lamellar cristae (Fig 1c-d, Movie 1). In the mature mitochondria,
mitochondrial ribosomes cannot be not readily observed in the densely confined
matrix compartment. Due to the lack of available antibodies against *Drosophila*
mitochondrial ribosome, the change of mitochondrial ribosome level during
maturation cannot be quantified.

110 Cristae biogenesis coordinates with COX complex assembly

Functional cristae require the proper organization of membrane and protein
assembly. To investigate whether membrane morphogenesis of the cristae correlates
with the assembly of ETC complexes, we applied Cytochrome c oxidase (COX)
staining to visualize COX activity in the context of the ultrastructure. COX oxidizes
3,3′-diaminobenzidine (DAB) and forms osmiophilic precipitants in the presence of
osmium tetraoxide that appear darkly stained under TEM. The osmium tetraoxide
substrate also binds to the head group of phospholipids that creates weak contrast for
lipid membranes.

Mitochondria of the day 1 flies exhibited some lamellae of cristae with
prominent COX activity, while vesicular membranous structures that filled the
mitochondrial matrix had weak staining (Fig 3a-b). To characterize their 3D
arrangement, serial section electron tomography was applied. In the
whole-mitochondria reconstructions, mostly isolated segments of lamellar cristae

were observed scattered throughout the matrix (Fig 3c-e, Movie 2). Tomographic
reconstructions also revealed that the vesicular membranous structures in the matrix
actually formed a reticulum-like organization in 3D (Fig 3c-e). We defined them as
the reticular membrane and did not use the word "cristae," as they contained very
limited COX activity. The reticular membranes appeared to merge with the ends of
lamellar cristae and gained COX activity as the membrane became organized as a part
of the lamellae with a more defined width (Fig 3c-d, Movie 2).

We also generated a knockin fly that expresses Apex2 conjugated to the
c-terminus of COX4, which is a subunit of COX that is synthesized in the cytoplasm
and subsequently transported into the mitochondria (Fig S1a-b). Apex2, an ascorbate
peroxidase, catalyzes the polymerization of DAB in the presence of hydrogen
peroxide (H_2O_2), which enhances EM contrast after osmium tetraoxide staining, thus
allowing us to track COX4 protein localization at the ultrastructural level (Martell,
Deerinck et al., 2012). Using this method, COX4 was shown to localize mainly to the
organized lamellar cristae in the day 1 flies, which correlated with the COX activity
staining data (Fig 4a). The wild type flies were performed as the negative control of
the Apex2 staining (Fig 4b). According to the structural studies, the c-terminus of
COX4 is apposed to the intermembrane space, where the Apex2 staining appeared
(Fig 4a) (Wu, Gu et al., 2016).

The COX complex comprises multiple subunits encoded by both nuclear and
mitochondrial DNA. The insertion and assembly of the COX complex subunits
require OXA1, which mediates the insertion of both nuclear and mitochondrial
DNA-encoded polypeptides from the matrix into the inner membrane (Keil, Bareth et
al., 2012, Soto, Fontanesi et al., 2012). OXA1 was shown to present in IBM and
cristae in yeast by immuno-gold EM study (Stoldt, Wenzel et al., 2012). We set out to
visualize if OXA1 also locates in the cristae to facilitate COX assembly during
mitochondrial maturation in *Drosophila*. We tracked OXA1 localization in
OXA1-Apex2 knockin flies at higher spatial resolution using the Apex2 method.
Indeed Apex2 staining was present in the cristae and the IBM (Fig 4c, S1a). The
negative control of the Apex2 staining using the wild type flies was shown in Fig 3d.
Judging by the staining location, the c-terminal Apex2 tag faced the matrix side of the
inner membrane, and the staining pattern appeared as granular densities (Fig 4c). The
result was also confirmed in S2 cells that over-expressed OXA1-Apex2 (Fig 4e). The
cells with mock-transfection were used as the negative control of Apex2 staining (Fig
4f). The western-blot of OXA1-Apex2 expression in S2 cells was shown in Fig S1c.

The data showed lamellar cristae are organized in coordination with the
assembly of COX during cristae biogenesis upon *Drosophila* eclosion. The study
revealed the intricate coordination of membrane morphogenesis and gain-of-function.
162
Marf-knockdown flies formed lamellar cristae containing ATP synthase and
functional COX

Marf, a homolog of human mitofusin 1 and 2, mediates outer membrane fusion
and influences ER-mitochondria tethering (de Brito & Scorrano, 2008, Detmer &
Chan, 2007, Filadi, Greotti et al., 2015, Filadi, Pendin et al., 2018, Schrepfer &
Scorrano, 2016). To investigate how Marf affects cristae biogenesis and
mitochondrial maturation, we investigated the mitochondrial structure and function of
Marf-knockdown flies. Marf-knockdown flies had compromised climbing ability but
had similar expression levels of ATP5A, PDHA1, SOD2 and Cyt c in the whole fly
extracts, compared to the wild type flies (Fig S2a, b). Thin-section TEM and
serial-section tomography revealed that lamellar cristae were formed in
Marf-knockdown mitochondria (Fig 5a-d, Fig S2c-d, Movie 3). In addition, they had
normal COX activity (Fig 5e), as well as ATP5A and Cyt c shown by the
immuno-EM (Fig 5f, Fig S2f). The Apex2 staining of the ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2
knockin flies in the Marf-knockdown background also confirmed the presence of ATP
synthase OSCP in the cristae (Fig 5g, Fig S2h). The dark staining of OSCP-Apex2
was restricted to the matrix side of the cristae. It correlated with the structural studies
of properly assembled ATP synthase and suggested correct folding and targeting of
OSCP-Apex2 in the knockin flies (Fig 5g) (Wu et al., 2016, Zhou, Rohou et al., 2015).
The data showed the formation of functional cristae was not impaired in
Marf-knockdown flies.

However, Marf-knockdown mitochondria were approximately 49% smaller than
the wild type, which was expected given that mitochondrial outer membrane fusion
was impaired. In addition, the cristae content per mitochondrial volume was reduced
to approximately 53% in the Marf-knockdown flies, comparing to approximately 99%
in the wild type at week 4. This observation probably reflects the alteration of
ER-mitochondria tethering in the Marf-knockdown, which is essential for lipid
transport to the mitochondria from the ER (Area-Gomez, Del Carmen Lara Castillo et
al., 2012, Filadi et al., 2018, Tatsuta & Langer, 2017, Vance, 2014).
192

OPA1-knockdown flies showed impaired cristae biogenesis
We investigated how OPA1 affects mitochondrial maturation and cristae
biogenesis. OPA1-knockdown flies showed reduced climbing ability, even though
several nuclear DNA-encoded mitochondrial proteins were expressed at a similar
level as in the wild type flies in the whole fly extracts (Fig S3a-b). OPA1-knockdown
mitochondria were approximately 42% smaller than the wild type mitochondria, as a
result of defective mitochondrial fusion. Many mitochondria contained very few
organized membranes but vacuoles, some likely resulting from the incomplete inner
membrane fusion post the outer membrane fusion (Fig 6a, Fig S3c). Most
OPA1-knockdown mitochondria had disordered and aberrant membranes.

OPA1-knockdown mitochondria also had very low levels of functional COX
assemblies in both day 1 and week 4 flies (Fig 6b, f, Fig S3d, Movie 4). Only about
5% of the mitochondria exhibited positive COX staining. Even though western-blot of

the whole fly extracts showed some mitochondrial proteins were at a similar level in
the OPA1-knockdown as in the wild type, immuno-EM showed a reduced level of
ATP5A (F_1 subunit α) and cytochrome c proteins in OPA1-knockdown mitochondria
(Fig 6c, Fig S3e-h). In correlation, ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2 knockin conjugates
under OPA1-knockdown background only appeared in a few regional lamellar
membranes (Fig 6d). Dysmorphic cristae ultrastructure and decreased ETC assemblies
likely led to a vicious circle of low membrane potential and impaired protein transport
(Harbauer, Zahedi et al., 2014, Song, Chen et al., 2007). OPA1 was also shown to
affect mitochondrial DNA maintenance that likely contributed to the ill mitochondrial
function and morphogenesis (Elachouri, Vidoni et al., 2011).
We tracked OPA1 localization by Apex2 conjugation in 293T cells
overexpressing human OPA1-Apex2 (Fig 6e, S4a-b), as well as in S2 cells
overexpressing *Drosophila* OPA1-Apex2 (Fig S4c-d). OPA1 protein was observed in
both cristae and the IBM. Opa1-Apex2 knockin flies had very low expression of
OPA1-Apex2, approximately 7% of the expression of COX4-Apex2 knockin by
western blot against Flag tag (Fig S1a, S4e-f). The physical localization of OPA1
correlates with its role in mediating inner membrane fusion or cristae remodeling.
223
Discussion
In this study, we took the advantage of *Drosophila* model that displayed
dramatic cristae biogenesis upon eclosion in building compact lamellar cristae. We
showed that the development of cristae morphology and function is intricately
coordinated. Most mitochondrial lipids or the precursors are imported from ER
through the proteins mediating membrane contacts and lipid translocation (Flis &
Daum, 2013, Tatsuta & Langer, 2017). One mechanism of cristae formation was
proposed as through the invagination of IBM (Harner, Unger et al., 2016). The COX
complex is composed of subunits encoded by both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA.
The assembly pathway has been described in great detail and involves the
coordination of multiple steps, including protein synthesis, membrane insertion,
assembly, and metal incorporation, all of which are mediated by various chaperones
and accessory proteins (Soto et al., 2012). In our study, we showed at a high spatial
resolution that OXA1 insertase localizes in the cristae as well as the IBM, where it
may assist in COX assembly. Mitochondrial cristae morphology was shown to
determine the ETC supercomplex assembly and respiratory efficiency (Cogliati et al.,
2013). Our study uncovered an extra layer of coordination between the assembly of
COX and the establishment of initial cristae ultrastructure.
Marf is a homolog of human mitofusin 1 and mitofusin 2. It plays important role
in mitochondrial outer membrane fusion, ER-mitochondria interaction, and
neuromuscular function (de Brito & Scorrano, 2008, Detmer & Chan, 2007, Filadi et
al., 2015, Filadi et al., 2018, Khalil, Cabirol-Pol et al., 2017, Sandoval, Yao et al.,
2014, Schrepfer & Scorrano, 2016). We showed that Marf-knockdown flies formed

lamellar cristae containing ATP synthase and functional COX but with reduced size.
In previous studies, Marf-knockdown was also shown to have normal cristae
morphology, ETC supercomplex assembly, but decrease mtDNA copy number
(Cogliati et al., 2013).
OPA1-knockdown flies had impaired cristae morphogenesis, likely reflects its
essential role in various aspects of mitochondrial processes. OPA1, a dynamin-related
GTPase, is anchored in the inner membrane in its long isoform. Upon proteolytic
cleavage, the short isoform becomes localized to the intermembrane space. This
proteolysis-mediated redistribution is an important regulatory mechanism in
OPA1-mediated membrane fusion and fission (Ban, Ishihara et al., 2017, Del Dotto,
Mishra et al., 2017, MacVicar & Langer, 2016). OPA1 has also been shown to control
cristae remodeling and junction widening during apoptosis (Frezza et al., 2006). It
was shown to protect mitochondria from complex III inhibition by stabilizing cristae
morphology and ATP synthase oligomers (Quintana-Cabrera, Quirin et al., 2018). In
this study, we showed the physical localization of OPA1 in the ultrastructure that
allows its dual role in cristae remodeling and inner membrane fusion.
Through evolution, mitochondria have been delicately integrated as organelles,
which contain highly functionalized compartments and membranes. Thus, it is no
surprise that a sophisticated biomolecular interaction network is being uncovered in
the regulation of cristae architecture (Jayashankar, Mueller et al., 2016). As part of
this network, OPA1 was previously shown to interact with MIC60 of the MICOS
complex in the cristae and cristae junction (Hoppins, Collins et al., 2011, Sastri,
Darshi et al., 2017). Furthermore, the lipid, cardiolipin, was shown to stabilize ETC
components and shape cristae architecture (Desmurs, Foti et al., 2015, Paradies,
Paradies et al., 2014). Here we demonstrated the intricate multilevel coordination of
building functional cristae. In the study, the generalized mechanism of
protein-coupled membrane morphogenesis was clearly demonstrated for cristae
biogenesis, which is in line with various other membrane remodeling processes, such
as vesicle budding and fusion (Bonifacino & Glick, 2004).
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Materials and Methods
Fly strains
Drosophila strains on the Oregon-R-P2 background were used in these studies.
Marf-knockdown flies were obtained by crossing UAS (Bloomington 31157) and
GAL4 (Bloomington 26882) lines. OPA1-knockdown flies were obtained by crossing
UAS (Bloomington 32358) and GAL4 (Bloomington 38459) lines.
Apex2-Flag knockin flies of COX4, OXA1, ATP synthase OSCP, and OPA1
were generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing and homology-dependent
repair using a guide RNA(s) and a dsDNA plasmid donor. PBac system was used to
facilitate genetic screening (Well Genetics). To generate ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2

under Marf-knockdown background, a stable line was selected by crossing ATP
synthase OSCP-Apex2 line with GAL4 (Bloomington 26882) line, which was
subsequently crossed with UAS (Bloomington 31157) line. To generate ATP synthase
OSCP-Apex2 under OPA1-knockdown background, a stable line was selected by
crossing ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2 line with GAL4 (Bloomington 38459) line,
which was subsequently crossed with UAS (Bloomington 32358) line.
294
HPF/FS specimen preparation for morphological observation
Flies were anesthetized on ice and embedded in 4% low melting agarose in 0.1
M phosphate buffer. Embedded flies were then sectioned to 100 μm-thick slices by a
vibrating blade microtome (Leica VT1200S) and fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in
phosphate buffer.
HPF/FS was also performed as previously described (Jiang, Lin et al., 2017a,
Jiang et al., 2017b). The tissue sections were washed in 3 drops (~150 μl) of
phosphate buffer, followed by 2 drops (~100 μl) of phosphate buffer with 20 % BSA.
The specimens were subsequently placed in the gold carrier filled with 20 % BSA in
PBS. The carriers were loaded into a high-pressure freezer (Leica EM HPM100)
according to manufacturer's instructions. The carriers were subsequently released
from the holder under liquid nitrogen and transferred to the chamber of a
freeze-substitution device (Leica EM AFS2) pre-cooled to -140 °C and incubated for
96 hr before FS.
During FS, the temperature of the chamber was raised to 0 °C at a slope of 5
°C/hr. During the process, the specimens were substituted with 0.1 % uranyl acetate
and 2 % glutaraldehyde in acetone at -60 °C for 12 hr, followed by 2 % osmium
tetroxide at -25 °C for 12 hr, and washed with acetone at 0 °C three times for 1 hr
each. The specimens were subsequently removed from the carriers using a needle,
infiltrated and embedded in EMBed-812 resin at room temperature, which was
polymerized at 65 °C for 16 hr. The specimen blocks were trimmed and sectioned
using an ultramicrotome. The sections were stained with Reynold's lead citrate for 10
min and subjected to TEM inspection.
318
Serial-section electron tomography
The procedure was also performed as previously described (Jiang et al., 2017a,
Jiang et al., 2017b). Serial sections with a thickness of 200 nm were prepared and
collected on copper slot grids (2 x 0.5mm oval slots) with carbon supports, on which
overlaid with 10 nm fiducial gold pretreated with BSA. The grids were stained with
Reynold's lead citrate before the second layer of fiducial gold was applied. The
specimens were imaged with FEI Tecnai TEM operating at 200 kV and the
micrographs were recorded with a Gatan UltraScan 1000 CCD at 0.87 nm/pixel
(9,600x). Tilt series from -60˚ to +60˚ with 2˚ increments were acquired at 10 μm
defocus using Leginon automatic data collection software (Suloway, Shi et al., 2009).

Double tilt series were collected using a double tilt holder (Model 2040 Dual-Axis
Tomography Holder, Fischione). Serial tomograms were reconstructed, joined using
IMOD, and segmented using Avizo 3D software (FEI).
332

EM staining for COX activity

The procedure was modified as previously described (Seligman, Karnovsky et al.,
1968). Vibrating blade microtome sections of the fly tissues were washed with PBS
and stained for 3 hr at 37 °C in a staining solution that contained 5 mg
3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (DAB), 9 ml sodium phosphate buffer
(0.05M, pH7.4), 750 mg sucrose, 20 μg catalase (dissolved in 0.05M potassium
phosphate buffer, pH 7.0), and 10 mg cytochrome c (dissolved in distilled water) at a
volume of 10 ml. Subsequently, the specimens were washed with PBS for 1 hr and
subjected to standard osmium fixation, dehydration, infiltration and embedded using
Embed-812 resin. The blocks were cut to thin-sections of 70 nm thicknesses and
observed under TEM without further staining.
344

HPF/FS specimen preparation for immuno-EM labeling
Flies were sectioned in fixatives containing 4 % paraformaldehyde, 0.25 %
glutaraldehyde in phosphate buffer and subjected to HPF/FS as described above with
some modifications. Immuno-EM specimens were freeze-substituted with 0.1 %
uranyl acetate in acetone at -90 °C for 58 hr (agitated every 8 hr), and warmed up to
-45 °C at a slope of 5 °C /hr, washed with acetone three times for 1 hr each. The
specimens were subsequently infiltrated through an ascending gradient of Lowicryl
HM20 resin (10%, 20%, 40%, 60%, 80% and 90%, 8hr for each concentration, and
agitated every 2 hr). The chamber was further warmed up to -25 °C at 5 °C /hr. The
solutions were replaced with 100 % HM20 three times for 24 hr each (agitated every
2 hr). After adjusting the orientation within the carriers, ultraviolet polymerization
was performed at -25 °C for 48 hr. The chamber was later warmed up to 20 °C (5°C
/hr) and exposed to ultraviolet radiation for another 48 hr.
After polymerization, the specimen blocks were detached from HPF carriers. 100
nm thick sections were prepared and placed on 200-mesh nickel grids for
immuno-EM labeling.
361

Immuno-EM labeling
Thin sections placed on nickel grids were blocked with 10 % BSA in PBS for 20
min and incubated with primary antibodies in incubation buffer (1% BSA in PBS) for
2 hr. Grids were subsequently washed with incubation buffer three times (10 min
each). Secondary antibodies, goat anti-mouse IgG (EM.GMHL15, BB International)
and protein A (EM.PAG15, BB International) conjugated to 15 nm gold particles,
were used against the primary antibodies from mouse and rabbit respectively.

Secondary antibodies at 20-fold dilution were applied and samples were incubated for
1 hr. After washing with PBS, the immune-complexes were fixed with 1%
glutaraldehyde in PBS and washed three times with distilled water. The specimens
were inspected by TEM operating at 120 kV (FEI Tecnai G2 TF20 Super TWIN).

The primary antibodies and applied dilution factors are listed as follows: mouse
anti-dsDNA (500x, abcam ab27156), mouse anti-ATP5A (500x, abcam ab14748),
mouse anti-Cytochrome C (8000x, abcam ab13575), mouse anti-PDHA1 (500x,
abcam ab110334), mouse anti-Ubiquitin (1000x, abcam ab7254), mouse
anti-DNA-RNA hybrid (500x, kerafast ENH001), and rabbit anti-SOD2 (500x, abcam
ab13534).

Apex2 staining EM
The protocol was modified as previously described (Hung, Udeshi et al., 2016).
Vibratome sections of the fly tissues were fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M
sodium cacodylate with 2 mM $CaCl_2$, pH 7. Residual glutaraldehyde was quenched
with 20 mM glycine followed by the washing steps. The specimens were
subsequently stained with 0.5 mg/ml DAB-4HCL (3,3′-diaminobenzidine) and 0.3%
H_2O_2 in the buffer for 30 min, washed, and stained with 1% osmium tetroxide for 30
min. After washes, the specimens were stained with 1% uranyl acetate overnight. The
specimens were further dehydrated and embedded in resin for thin-section and TEM
observation.

Cell culture for Apex2 staining
293T cells were seeded on plastic membranes in a 6-well culture plate. The cells
reached >80% confluence after overnight culture and were transfected with
pECFP-OPA1 (human isoform1)-Apex2-Flag using *Trans*IT-X2 (Thermo-Fisher).
After incubation overnight, the monolayer cells were fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde
and followed the Apex2 staining procedure as described above (Hung et al., 2016).

S2 cells were seeded in a 6-well culture plate at $1*10^6$ cells/ml and grew for
another day to $2-4*10^6$ cells/ml. The cells were transfected with
pMT-V5-HisB-OXA1 (*D. melanogaster*)-Apex2-Flag or pMT-V5-HisB-OPA1 (*D.*
melanogaster)-Apex2-Flag using calcium phosphate transfection kit (Invitrogen) and
induced protein expression by $CuSO_4$. The cells were harvested 2-3 days
post-induction, fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde and followed the Apex2 staining
procedure as described above (Hung et al., 2016).

Western blot analysis
Flies were dissected and homogenized by Dounce tissue grinder in RIPA
buffer containing protease inhibitor (cOmplete™, Roche). Cellular debris was
removed by centrifugation at 4℃, 14000 x g for 20 min. The supernatants were
collected and the protein concentrations were determined by Pierce protein

assay (Pierce 660 nm Protein Assay Reagent, ThermoScientific). 0.6 μg/well of
proteins were loaded for SDS-PAGE and western-blot analysis.
The antibodies used in the studies were as follows: mouse anti-ATP5A (50000x,
abcam ab14748), mouse anti-Cytochrome C (10000x, abcam ab13575), mouse
anti-PDHA1 (1000x, abcam ab110334) or rabbit anti-SOD2 (10000x, abcam
ab13534), and rabbit anti-alpha tubulin (10000x, abcam ab18251), anti-mouse
IgG-HRP (2000x, Invitrogen 62-6520) or anti-rabbit IgG-HRP (5000x, abcam
ab97051). For quantification, ratios of the densitometry signal of individual proteins
to that of alpha-tubulin were calculated. The ratios were then normalized to the wild
type at week 4.
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Mitochondria analysis
The changes in the mitochondrial size of Marf and OPA1-knockdown vs. the
wild type were calculated using thin-section EM micrographs. For each type, over a
hundred mitochondria were analyzed. The cristae to mitochondrial membrane content
of Marf-knockdown vs. the wild type were analyzed using semi-automatic
segmentation function of Avizo 3D.
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428 *Climbing assay*
429   Flies were knocked down to the bottom of the culture tubes. Numbers of flies
430 climbing over the target line (about 18cm) over 3 min were recorded. About 15 flies
431 were used for each triplicate.
432

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438

439 **Author contributions**
440   Yi-fan Jiang and Chi-yu Fu designed the experiments; Yi-fan Jiang, Hsiang-ling
441 Lin, Li-jie Wang, and Tian Hsu performed the experiments; Chi-yu Fu wrote the
442 paper.

444 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing financial interests.
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446

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Figure legends

Fig 1. 3D visualization of mitochondrial development upon *Drosophila* eclosion.

A thin-section TEM micrograph of *Drosophila* IFM at day 1 (a) and week 4 (b). A

slice of a serial-section tomography reconstruction (c) and the segmentation (d) of

Drosophila IFM at day 1. (a) red arrows: cytoplasmic ribosomal-like densities; (d)

blue: cristae; red: mitochondrial ribosomal-like densities; green: cytoplasmic

ribosomal-like densities.

Fig 2. Analysis of protein contents during mitochondrial development.
Immuno-EM labeling of ATP5A of *Drosophila* IFM at day 1 (a) and week 4 (b).
Western-blot analysis of mitochondrial proteins ATP5A, PDHA1, SOD2, CytC and
ribosomal protein RPS6 of *Drosophila* at day 1, week 1, and week 4 (c). The relative
protein abundance was quantified by densitometry and normalized to the signal of
α-tubulin. The ratios were subsequently normalized to those of weak4.
619
Fig 3. Cristae morphogenesis coordinates with COX assembly
A thin-section TEM micrograph of *Drosophila* IFM at day 1 (a) and week 4 (b)
stained for COX activity. Tomographic slices across the z-axis and the corresponding
segmentation of *Drosophila* IFM at day 1 stained for COX activity were shown (c).
3D representations of the tomographic segmentation were shown in (d) and (e). (c-e),
red: COX-positive cristae; yellow: COX-negative reticular membranes. Positive COX
activity appeared darkly stained in the micrographs.
627
Fig 4. Ultrastructural tracking of COX4 and OXA1 during cristae biogenesis
Apex2 staining of the IFM of COX4-Apex2 knockin flies (a) and OXA1-Apex2
knockin flies (c) at day 1 were shown. Apex2 staining of the wild type at day 1 as
negative controls were shown in (b) and (d), respectively. Apex2 staining of S2 cells
transfected with and without plasmids expressing *D. melanogaster* OXA1-Apex2 was
shown in (e) and (f), respectively. Positive Apex2 signals appeared darkly stained in
the micrographs.
635
Fig 5. Marf-knockdown flies formed lamellar cristae containing COX and ATP
synthase
Thin-section TEM micrograph (a), the tomographic segmentation (b-d), COX activity
staining (e), immuno-EM against ATP5A (f), and ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2
staining (g) of Marf-knockdown flies at week 4 were shown. Positive Apex2 signal or
COX activity appeared darkly stained in the micrographs.
642
643 **Fig 6. OPA1-knockdown flies showed impaired cristae biogenesis**
644 OPA1-knockdown flies at day 1 were analyzed by thin-section TEM (a), COX
645 activity staining (b), immuno-EM against ATP5A (c), ATP synthase OSCP-Apex2
646 staining (d), and the tomographic segmentation (f). Sub-mitochondrial localization of
647 OPA1 was tracked in 293T cells overexpressing human OPA1-Apex2 (e).

Fig 1

Fig 2

Fig 3

a

b

c

200 nm

0.5 µm

d

100 nm

e

500 nm

Fig 4

Fig 5

Fig 5

Fig 6

Fig S1

a

WT COX4-Apex2-Flag OPA1-Apex2-Flag OXA1-Apex2-Flag

b

Matrix

Cristae

Inter-
membrane
space

C-term of COX4

c

Neg control OXA1-Apex2-Flag

Fig S2

(a)

(b)

Fig S2

c

d

e

f

g

h

C-term of
ATPsyn OSCP

Matrix

Cristae

Inter-membrane space

Fig S3

(a)

(b)

Fig S3

Fig S4

a

b

Neg control

OPA1-Apex2-
Flag

c

d

e

f