

Mitochondrial physiology

3. Mitochondrial markers

MitoEAGLE Task Group*

Living Communication: extended resource of **Mitochondrial respiratory states and rates**. **Nat Metab** (Gnaiger *et al*, in review); from Gnaiger *et al* (2020) *Bioenerg Commun* 2020.1.

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Abstract

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When discussing concepts of normalization, it is essential to consider the question posed by the study. If the study aims at comparing tissue performance—such as the effects of a treatment on a specific tissue, then normalization for tissue mass or protein content is appropriate. However, if the aim is to find differences in mitochondrial function independent of mitochondrial density (**Table 4**), then normalization to a mitochondrial marker is imperative (**Figure 5**). One cannot assume that quantitative changes in various markers—such as mitochondrial proteins—necessarily occur in parallel with one another. It should be established that the marker chosen is not selectively altered by the performed treatment. In conclusion, the normalization must reflect the question under investigation to reach a satisfying answer. On the other hand, the goal of comparing results across projects and institutions requires standardization on normalization for entry into a databank.

Isolated mitochondria

Tissues can contain multiple cell populations that may have distinct mitochondrial subtypes. Mitochondria undergo dynamic fission and fusion cycles, and can exist in multiple stages and sizes that may be altered by a range of factors. The isolation of mitochondria (often achieved through differential centrifugation) can therefore yield a subsample of the mitochondrial types present in a tissue, depending on the isolation protocols utilized. This possible bias should be taken into account when planning experiments using isolated mitochondria. Different sizes of mitochondria are enriched at specific centrifugation speeds, which can be used strategically for isolation of mitochondrial subpopulations.

Part of the mitochondrial content of a tissue is lost during preparation of isolated mitochondria. The fraction of isolated mitochondria obtained from a tissue sample is expressed as mitochondrial recovery. At a high mitochondrial recovery, the fraction of isolated mitochondria is more representative of the total mitochondrial population than in preparations characterized by low recovery. Determination of the mitochondrial recovery and yield is based on measurement of the concentration of a mitochondrial marker in the stock suspension of isolated mitochondria, $C_{mtE,stock}$, and crude tissue homogenate, $C_{mtE,thom}$, which together provide information on the specific mitochondrial density in the sample, D_{mtE} (**Table 4**).

55 Mitochondrial concentration, C_{mtE} , and mitochondrial markers

56
57 Mitochondrial organelles compose a dynamic cellular reticulum in various states of fusion and
58 fission. Hence, the definition of an ‘amount’ of mitochondria is often misconceived: mitochondria
59 cannot be counted reliably as a number of occurring elementary components. Therefore,
60 quantification of the amount of mitochondria depends on the measurement of chosen
61 mitochondrial markers. ‘*Mitochondria are the structural and functional elementary units of cell*
62 *respiration*’ (Gnaiger 2020). The quantity of a mitochondrial marker can reflect the amount of
63 mitochondrial elementary components, mtE , expressed in various mitochondrial elementary
64 units [mtEU] specific for each measured mt-marker (Table 4). However, since mitochondrial
65 quality may change in response to stimuli—particularly in mitochondrial dysfunction (Campos *et al*
66 *2017*) and after exercise training (Pesta *et al* 2011) and during aging (Daum *et al* 2013)—some
67 markers can vary while others are unchanged: (1) Mitochondrial volume and membrane area are
68 structural markers, whereas mitochondrial protein mass is commonly used as a marker for
69 isolated mitochondria. (2) Molecular and enzymatic mitochondrial markers (amounts or
70 activities) can be selected as matrix markers, *e.g.*, citrate synthase activity, mtDNA; mtIM-markers,
71 *e.g.*, cytochrome *c* oxidase activity, aa_3 content, cardiolipin, or mtOM-markers, *e.g.*, the voltage-
72 dependent anion channel (VDAC), TOM20. (3) Extending the measurement of mitochondrial
73 marker enzyme activity to mitochondrial pathway capacity, ET- or OXPHOS-capacity can be
74 considered as an integrative functional mitochondrial marker.

75 Depending on the type of mitochondrial marker, the mitochondrial elementary entity, mtE , is
76 expressed in marker-specific units. Mitochondrial concentration in the instrumental chamber and
77 mitochondrial density in the tissue of origin are quantified as (1) a quantity for normalization in
78 functional analyses, C_{mtE} , and (2) a physiological output that is the result of mitochondrial
79 biogenesis and degradation, D_{mtE} , respectively (Table 4). It is recommended, therefore, to
80 distinguish *experimental mitochondrial concentration*, $C_{mtE} = mtE \cdot V^{-1}$ and *physiological*
81 *mitochondrial density*, $D_{mtE} = mtE \cdot m_X^{-1}$. Then mitochondrial density is the amount of mitochondrial
82 elementary components per mass of tissue, which is a biological variable (Figure 5). The
83 experimental variable is mitochondrial density multiplied by sample mass concentration in the
84 measuring chamber, $C_{mtE} = D_{mtE} \cdot C_{mX}$, or mitochondrial content multiplied by sample number
85 concentration, $C_{mtE} = mtE_X \cdot C_{NX}$ (Table 4).
86

87 mt-Marker-specific flux, $J_{O_2/mtE}$

88
89 Volume-specific metabolic O_2 flux depends on: (1) the sample concentration in the volume of the
90 instrumental chamber, C_{mX} , or C_{NX} ; (2) the mitochondrial density in the sample, $D_{mtE} = mtE \cdot m_X^{-1}$ or
91 $mtE_X = mtE \cdot N_X^{-1}$; and (3) the specific mitochondrial activity or performance per mitochondrial
92 elementary marker, $J_{O_2/mtE} = J_{V,O_2} \cdot C_{mtE}^{-1}$ [mol·s⁻¹·mtEU⁻¹] (Table 4). Obviously, the numerical results
93 for $J_{O_2/mtE}$ vary with the type of mitochondrial marker chosen for measurement of mtE and $C_{mtE} =$
94 $mtE \cdot V^{-1}$ [mtEU·m⁻³].

95 Different methods for the quantification of mitochondrial markers have different strengths and
96 weaknesses. Some problems are common for all mitochondrial markers, mtE : (1) Accuracy of
97 measurement is crucial, since even a highly accurate and reproducible measurement of chamber
98 volume-specific O_2 flux results in an inaccurate and noisy expression if normalized by a biased
99 and noisy measurement of a mitochondrial marker. This problem is acute in mitochondrial
100 respiration because the denominators used (the mitochondrial markers) are often small moieties
101 of which accurate and precise determination is difficult. In contrast, an *internal* marker is used
102 when O_2 fluxes measured in substrate-uncoupler-inhibitor titration protocols are normalized for
103 flux in a defined respiratory reference state within the assay, which yields flux control ratios, $FCRs$.
104 $FCRs$ are independent of externally measured markers and, therefore, are statistically robust,
105 considering the limitations of ratios in general (Jasienski and Bazzaz 1999). $FCRs$ indicate
106 qualitative changes of mitochondrial respiratory control, with highest quantitative resolution,
107 separating the effect of mitochondrial density on $J_{O_2/mX}$ and $I_{O_2/NX}$ from that of function per

108 mitochondrial elementary marker, $J_{O_2/mtE}$ (Pesta *et al* 2011; Gnaiger 2020). (2) If mitochondrial
109 quality does not change and only the amount of mitochondria varies as a determinant of mass-
110 specific flux, any marker is equally qualified in principle; then in practice selection of the optimum
111 marker depends only on the accuracy and precision of measurement of the mitochondrial marker.
112 (3) If mitochondrial flux control ratios change, then there may not be any best mitochondrial
113 marker. In general, measurement of multiple mitochondrial markers enables a comparison and
114 evaluation of normalization for these mitochondrial markers. Particularly during postnatal
115 development, the activity of marker enzymes—such as cytochrome *c* oxidase and citrate
116 synthase—follows different time courses (Drahota *et al* 2004). Evaluation of mitochondrial
117 markers in healthy controls is insufficient for providing guidelines for application in the diagnosis
118 of pathological states and specific treatments.
119

120 Flux control ratios and flux control factors

121
122 In line with the concept of the respiratory acceptor control ratio (Chance and Williams 1955a),
123 the most readily applied normalization is that of flux control ratios and flux control factors
124 (Gnaiger 2009; 2020). Then, instead of a specific mt-enzyme activity, the respiratory activity in a
125 reference state serves as the *mtE*, yielding a dimensionless ratio of two fluxes measured
126 consecutively in the same respirometric titration protocol. Selection of the state of maximum flux
127 in a protocol as the reference state — *e.g.*, ET-state in *L/E* and *P/E* flux control ratios (Gnaiger
128 2009) — has the advantages of: (1) elimination of experimental variability in additional
129 measurements, such as determination of enzyme activity or tissue mass; (2) statistically validated
130 linearization of the response in the range of 0 to 1; and (3) consideration of maximum flux for
131 integrating a large number of metabolic steps in the OXPHOS- or ET-pathways. This reduces the
132 risk of selecting a functional marker that is specifically altered by the treatment or pathology, yet
133 increases the chance that the highly integrative pathway is disproportionately affected, *e.g.*, the
134 OXPHOS- rather than ET-pathway in case of an enzymatic defect in the phosphorylation-pathway.
135 In this case, additional information can be obtained by reporting flux control ratios based on a
136 reference state that indicates stable tissue-mass specific flux.
137

138 Is there a best mitochondrial marker?

139
140 Stereological measurement of mitochondrial content via two-dimensional transmission electron
141 microscopy is considered as the gold standard in determination of mitochondrial volume fractions
142 in cells and tissues (Weibel, Hoppeler, 2005). Accurate determination of three-dimensional
143 volume by two-dimensional microscopy, however, is both time consuming and statistically
144 challenging (Larsen *et al* 2012). The validity of using mitochondrial marker enzymes (citrate
145 synthase activity, CI to CIV amount or activity) for normalization of flux is limited in part by the
146 same factors that apply to flux control ratios. Strong correlations between various mitochondrial
147 markers and citrate synthase activity (Reichmann *et al* 1985; Boushel *et al* 2007; Mogensen *et al*
148 2007) are expected in a specific tissue of healthy persons and in disease states not specifically
149 targeting citrate synthase. Citrate synthase activity is acutely modifiable by exercise (Tonkonogi
150 *et al* 1997; Leek *et al* 2001). Evaluation of mitochondrial markers related to a selected age and sex
151 cohort cannot be extrapolated to provide recommendations for normalization in respirometric
152 diagnosis of disease, in different states of development and aging, different cell types, tissues, and
153 species. mtDNA normalized to nDNA via qPCR is correlated to functional mitochondrial markers
154 including OXPHOS- and ET-capacity in some cases (Puntschart *et al* 1995; Wang *et al* 1999;
155 Menshikova *et al* 2006; Boushel *et al* 2007; Ehinger *et al* 2015), but lack of such correlations have
156 been reported (Menshikova *et al* 2005; Schultz and Wiesner 2000; Pesta *et al* 2011). Several
157 studies indicate a strong correlation between cardiolipin content and increase in mitochondrial
158 function with exercise (Menshikova *et al* 2005; Menshikova *et al* 2007; Larsen *et al* 2012; Faber
159 *et al* 2014), but it has not been evaluated as a general mitochondrial biomarker in disease. With
160 no single best mitochondrial marker, a good strategy is to quantify several different biomarkers
161 to minimize the decorrelating effects caused by diseases, treatments, or other factors.

162 Determination of multiple markers, particularly a matrix marker and a marker from the mtIM,
163 allows tracking changes in mitochondrial quality defined by their ratio.

164

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239 ***Authors (MitoEAGLE Task Group): for list of authors and affiliations, see:**

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241
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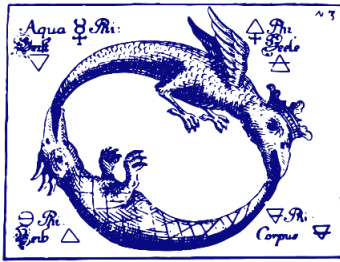
259 **Corresponding author:** Erich Gnaiger

260 Chair COST Action CA15203 MitoEAGLE – <http://www.mitoeagle.org>

261 Department of Visceral, Transplant and Thoracic Surgery, D. Swarovski Research Laboratory, Medical
 262 University of Innsbruck, Innrain 66/4, A-6020 Innsbruck, Austria

263 Email: mitoeagle@i-med.ac.at; Tel: +43 512 566796, Fax: +43 512 566796 20

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