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**Analysis of mtDNA sequence in patients with
mitochondriopathies**

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**Analiza sekvence mitohondrijske DNK kod
pacijenata sa mitohondriopatijama**

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Analysis of mtDNA sequence in patients with mitochondriopathies

SUMMARY

Background:

Mitochondriopathies (MCPs) are considered as diverse group of genetically caused diseases due to deficiencies of the energy production in mitochondria. MCPs can be expressed in many tissues, especially those with higher metabolic demands so they affect most commonly nervous system and muscles. MCPs are characterized by clinical heterogeneity presented by various clinical phenotypes, occur at any age and could be mild or severe. Besides nervous system and muscles, eye, heart, liver, kidney, bone marrow and other organs could be involved.

The main cause of MCPs are genetic changes but interaction with environmental factors plays a role also. Mitochondrial function is controlled by genes located in both nuclear and mitochondrial genome. Mitochondrial genome is represented by maternally inherited mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), which is considered as a genetic hotspot for MCPs. Molecules of mtDNA show 10–20 times higher mutational rate compared to nuclear genetic material, and could be affected by point mutations, larger deletions or even depletion, all leading to MCPs. Estimated prevalence of MCPs is 1 in 8.000 to 20.000. Some examples of the disorders caused by pathogenic mtDNA mutations are: Leber hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON), mitochondrial encephalomyopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes (MELAS), maternally inherited Leigh syndrome (LS), neuropathy, ataxia and retinitis pigmentosa (NARP), myoclonic epilepsy with ragged-red fibers (MERRF), etc. Genetic background of the pathogenic mtDNA mutations, represented by secondary mutations and mitochondrial haplogroups, affects penetrance and expressivity of MCPs. Geographic and/or ethnic specificity of this background emphasizes its role.

Aim:

The main aim of this study was determination and characterisation of primary and secondary mutations of mtDNA in patients clinically diagnosed with MCPs. The majority of cases had LHON, but MELAS and other mitochondriopathies were included also. It was planned to detect the well-known LHON mutations m.3460G>A, m.11778G>A, and m.14484T>C, major MELAS mutation m.3243A>G and other mutations specific for MCPs in Serbian patients. Another objective was establishment of the specific genetic background with determination of mtDNA haplogroups of the respondents and construction of the corresponding phylogenetic tree. Finally, the aim was correlation between genotype and phenotype in MCPs patients.

Material and methods:

This study included total number of eleven unrelated Serbian subjects – probands diagnosed with MCPs and four their asymptomatic relatives. Probands were diagnosed in the Clinic for Neurology and Psychiatry for Children and Youth and Clinic of Neurology, Clinical Centre of Serbia, Belgrade. In all respondents full clinical examination was performed. Demographic data, habits and risk factors, past personal and familial history were evaluated. Family history for maternal relatives was clarified in detail. All molecular genetic analyses of mtDNA were performed in the Laboratory for genetic and molecular diagnostics of neurological diseases at the Clinic for Neurology, Clinical Centre of Serbia. The detection of mtDNA mutations was performed by direct Sanger sequencing of whole mitochondrial genome. Revised Cambridge Reference Sequence of human mtDNA was used for comparison. Prediction of mtDNA mutations' pathogenicity was done by *in silico* analysis using available softwares. MITOMASTER analysis was used for the determination of haplogroups and characterization of pathogenic variants. The phylogenetic tree was constructed according to mtDNA tree Build 17 nomenclature.

Results and discussion:

In this study we detected pathogenic mtDNA mutations in 11 unrelated probands diagnosed with MCPs. The largest group was LHON group consisted of eight probands and four asymptomatic relatives. In this group two well known primary LHON mutations, m.3460G>A and m.11778G>A (in *MT-ND1* and *MT-ND4* gene, respectively) and a less frequent mutation m.8836A>G in *MT-ATP6* gene were detected. All of them exhibited homoplasmic pattern except m.11778G>A with heteroplasmy in two unaffected carriers. The gender ratio was remarkably for male predominance as affected males to females ratio was 7:1. The only female proband showed 3460G>A primary change. Alcohol consumption and tobacco smoking were noticed as risk factors in two probands. Various LHON secondary mutations were detected in our analysis. Substitutions m.4216T>C in *MT-ND1*, m.13708G>A in *MT-ND5*, m.15257G>A and m.15812G>A in *MT-CYB* were linked with the both common primary LHON mutations, whereas m.3394T>C in *MT-ND1* was connected with 11778G>A only. Secondary mutations were associated with earlier onset of LHON. In MELAS group, transition of A to G in mitochondrially encoded tRNA^{Leu(UUR)}/*MT-TL1* gene at position 3243 causing MELAS was detected. This major MELAS mutation has been shown as heteroplasmic in two affected boys. Homoplasmic 8993T>G mutation in *MT-ATP6* gene, which is characteristic for Leigh disease, was detected in one affected girl. Typically, this mutation correlated to the severe form of the disease. Other scattered mtDNA variants were detected in our analysis with unknown clinical and phenotypic relevance.

In silico predictive softwares were used for determination of the pathogenic characteristics of all detected mtDNA mutations. Four coding mutations PolyPhen2 classified as definitely pathogenic (3460G>A, 8993T>G and 11778G>A) and possibly damaging (8836A>G) with a scores of 1.000, 1.000, 0.996 and 0.770, respectively. PANTHER and PROVEAN showed similar results. For mitochondrial tRNA mutation m.3243A>G mitoTIP and Mamit-tRNA were used, and both of them confirmed pathogenicity.

MITOMASTER analysis revealed European-specific mtDNA backgrounds in the currently investigated subjects in our study as well as in the group of six previously diagnosed LHON probands. LHON, MELAS and Leigh syndrome primary mutations were associated with mtDNA haplogroup R subtypes (U, H, and J). On the contrary, the less frequent LHON mutation at position m.8836 was linked to haplogroup N1b. From the evolutionary standpoint, both R and N1b are branches of macro-haplogroup N which is descendant of the haplogroup L3.

Conclusion:

After whole mtDNA sequencing in MCPs probands and their relatives we obtained results related to mutation spectrum and characterisation, to distribution of haplogroups and to genotype – phenotype correlation. The results of this study, which included respondents from territory of Serbia, are in line with data published in the literature and in available databases. Based on these information recommendations for diagnostic genetic testing as well as for investigation of genetic factors contributing to penetrance and phenotypic expression of primary mutations in mitochondrial diseases have been proposed.

Key words:

Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy; MELAS; Leigh syndrome; mtDNA; mutations; haplogroups

Academic Expertise: Medicine

Field of Academic Expertise: Molecular Medicine

Analiza sekvence mitohondrijske DNK kod pacijenata sa mitohondriopatijama

REZIME

Uvod:

Mitohondriopatije (MHP) su heterogena grupa genetički uslovljenih oboljenja koja nastaju zbog poremećaja u proizvodnji energije u mitohondrijama. Ovi poremećaji se mogu izraziti u brojnim tkivima, posebno u onim sa većim metaboličkim zahtevima, pa je stoga u sklopu MHP česta zahvaćenost nervnog i mišićnog sistema. Pomenuta heterogenost MHP ispoljava se različitim kliničkim fenotipovima, bolesti se javljaju u bilo kojoj dobi života, mogu biti blage ili teške i mogu da uključuju jedan ili više organa. Pored skeletnih mišića i nervnog sistema mogu biti zahvaćeni oko, srce, jetra, bubreg, koštana srž i drugo.

U nastanku MHP glavnu ulogu imaju genetički faktori, koji deluju u sadejstvu sa faktorima okoline. Funkcija mitohondrija je kontrolisana genima smeštenim u jedarnom genomu, ali i genima koji se nalaze u sastavu mitohondrijske DNK (mtDNK). MtDNK se nasleđuje matroklino tj. od majke, i ima 10–20 puta veću stopu mutacija u odnosu na DNK u jedru. U mtDNK se mogu detektovati različite promene, kao što su tačkaste mutacije, veće delecije ili čak delecije molekula, što ima za posledicu MHP čija je procenjena ukupna prevalenca 1 na 8.000 do 20.000. Primeri MHP koja nastaju usled patogenih mutacija u mtDNK su: Leberova hereditarna optička neuropatija (LHON), mitohondrijska encefalomiopatija sa laktičkom acidozom i epizodama sličnim moždanom udaru (MELAS), Leigh-ov sindrom (LS) nasledan po majci, sindrom neuropatije, ataksije i pigmentne retinopatije (NARP), mioklonična epilepsija sa iskrzanim crvenim vlaknima (MERRF) i druge mitohondrijske bolesti. Prilikom proučavanja penetrantnosti i ekspresivnosti patogenih mutacija kod MHP, treba imati na umu ulogu sekundarnih mutacija kao i različitih haplotipova mtDNK čoveka, koji mogu biti karakteristični za određeni geografski region ili za etničku grupu.

Cilj:

Studija je sprovedena sa ciljem analize primarnih i sekundarnih mutacija mtDNK kod pacijenata iz Srbije sa kliničkom dijagnozom MHP. Većina slučajeva obuhvatala je Leberovu hereditarnu optičku neuropatiju (LHON), a bili su uključeni i pacijenti sa sumnjom na MELAS i druge mitohondriopatije. Kod LHON planirana je detekcija dobro poznatih primarnih mutacija: m.3460G> A, m.11778G> A i m.14484T> C, kao i sekundarnih i intermedijarnih promena u mtDNK, zatim kod MELAS detekcija glavne mutacije m.3243A> G, kao i analiza drugih patogenih mutacija specifičnih za MHP. Takođe, cilj je bilo utvrđivanje mtDNK haplotipa kod nosilaca mutacije, sa konstrukcijom filogenetskog stabla. Poslednji cilj istraživanja je bila korelacija genotipa sa fenotipskim karakteristikama ispitanika.

Materijal i metode:

Ovom studijom obuhvaćeno je ukupno jedanaest nesrodnih ispitanika - probanada sa sumnjom na MHP, kao i četvero asimptomatskih srodnika obolelih. Dijagnoze su postavljene na Klinici za neurologiju i psihijatriju za decu i omladinu i Klinici za neurologiju Kliničkog centra Srbije, u Beogradu. Kod svih ispitanika obavljen je detaljan neurološki i neuro-oftalmološki pregled. Prikupljeni su demografski podaci, podaci o životnim navikama i faktorima rizika, uzeta je detaljna lična i porodična anamneza. Posebno podrobno su uzeti podaci o porodičnoj istoriji što se tiče srodnika sa majčine strane. Sve molekularno genetičke analize mtDNK izvršene su u Laboratoriji za genetsku i molekularnu dijagnostiku neuroloških bolesti na Klinici za neurologiju Kliničkog centra Srbije, Beograd. Prisustvo mutacija u mtDNK je analizirano direktnim sekvenciranjem po Sangeru čitavog mitohondrijskog genoma, a za poređenje je korišćena revidirana Cambridge referentna sekvenca humane mtDNK. Potencijalna patogenost mutacija mtDNK proverena je in silico pomoću dostupnih softvera za predikciju. Za određivanje haplogrupa mtDNK i karakterizaciju patogenih

varijanti korišćen je MITOMASTER. Filogenetsko stablo ispitanika je konstruisano prema mtDNK stablu Build 17 nomenklature.

Rezultati i diskusija:

U ovoj studiji su kod jedanaest nesrodnih probanada iz Srbije sa kliničkom dijagnozom MHP utvrđene patogene mutacije u mtDNK. U grupi LHON, koja je imala 8 nesrodnih probanada i ukupno četvoro njihovih asimptomatskih srodnika, utvrđene su dobro poznate LHON primarne mutacije m.3460G>A (u genu MT-ND1) i m.11778G>A (u genu MT-ND4), kao i retka mutacija m.8836A>G (u genu MT-ATP6). U svim slučajevima je pokazan homoplazmijski obrazac mutacija, osim za m.11778G>A, gde je nađena heteroplazmija kod dva zdrava srodnika. U ovoj grupi odnos polova kod probanada je potvrdio predominaciju muškaraca, jer je odnos obolelih muškaraca i žena bio 7 : 1. Kod obolele žene je nađena primarna mutacija m.3460G>A. Od negenetičkih faktora rizika, konzumacija alkohola i pušenje registrovani su kod dva probanda. U istraživanju su otkrivene i sekundarne mutacije u grupi sa LHON, a njihovo prisustvo je povećalo penetrantnost primarnih mutacija, s obzirom na to da su bile povezane sa ranim početkom LHON. Supstitucije m.4216T>C u genu MT-ND1, m.13708G>A u genu MT-ND5, m.15257G>A i m.15812G>A u genu MT-CIB su asociirane sa dve napred pomenute poznate primarne LHON mutacije, dok je m.3394T>C u genu MT-ND1 asociirana samo sa 11778G>A. U grupi sa dijagnozom MELAS nađena je supstitucija m.3243A>G u genu MT-TL1, koja je tipična za ovaj poremećaj. Navedena mutacija je nađena kao heteroplazmijska kod dva obolela dečaka. Kod jedne devojčice - probanda je nađena homoplazmijska mutacija m.8993T>G u genu MT-ATP6, koja je patognomonična za tešku formu Leigh-ove bolesti. U istraživanju su otkrivene i druge varijante mtDNK čiji su klinički značaj i uticaj na fenotip nejasni.

Patogene karakteristike svih otkrivenih mutacija mtDNK analizirane su in silico, pomoću odgovarajućih softvera. Program PolyPhen2 je klasifikovao kao definitivno patogene tri promene: m.3460G>A, m.8993T>G i m.11778G>A, i kao verovatno štetnu jednu promenu, m.8836A>G, sa skorom 1.000, 1.000, 0.996 i 0.770, redom. Softveri PANTHER i PROVEAN su dali slične rezultate. Za mutaciju mitohondrijske tRNK, m.3243A>G, korišćeni su mitoTIP i Mamit-tRNA, i oba softvera su potvrdila njenu patogenost.

Analiza programom MITOMASTER je pokazala evropski tip haplogrupa mtDNK kod 15 ispitanika u celini analiziranih u ovoj studiji, kao i u grupi šest ranije obrađenih LHON probanada. Poznate primarne mutacije kod LHON, MELAS i Leigh sindroma povezane su sa podtipovima mtDNK haplogrupe R (U, H i J). Za razliku od toga, retka LHON mutacija m.8836A>G bila je vezana za haplogrupu N1b. Sa evolucionog stanovišta, i R i N1b haplogrupa su grane grupe N, koja je ogranak makrohaplogrupe L3.

Zaključak:

Nakon sekvenciranja čitave mtDNK kod probanada sa MHP i njihovih srodnika, dobijeni su rezultati vezani za spektar mutacija, haplogrupske karakteristike i korelaciju genotipa i fenotipa. Rezultati ove studije, koja je obuhvatila ispitanike sa teritorije Srbije, su u skladu sa podacima iz literature i sa dostupnim bazama podataka. Na osnovu dobijenih informacija predložene su preporuke za dijagnostičko genetičko testiranje kao i za istraživanje genetičkih faktora koji doprinose penetrantnosti i fenotipskoj ekspresiji primarnih mutacija kod mitohondrijskih bolesti.

Ključne reči:

Leberova hereditarna optička neuropatija; MELAS; Leighov sindrom; mtDNK; mutacije; haplogrupe

Naučna oblast: Medicina

Uža naučna oblast: molekularna medicina

Contents

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1. Mitochondrial structure and evolution.....	1
1.2. Mitochondrial dynamics (fusion and fission).....	2
1.3. The Mitochondrial Energy-Generating System (MEGS).....	3
1.4. Mitochondrial Genetics.....	5
1.4.1. Structure of human mtDNA.....	5
1.4.2. Replication-Transcription switch in human mtDNA.....	6
1.4.3. Mitochondrial Inheritance.....	8
1.4.3.1. <i>Non-Mendelian Maternal Inheritance</i>	9
1.4.3.2. <i>Mammalian mtDNA genetic bottleneck</i>	9
1.4.3.3. <i>Inheritance of the pathogenic mutated mtDNA</i>	10
1.5. Mitochondrial DNA haplogroups.....	11
1.5.1. Significance of natural selection.....	11
1.5.2. MtDNA haplogroups implicated in health and diseases.....	11
1.6. Mitochondriopathies (MCPs).....	12
1.6.1. Pathogenesis of MCPs.....	12
1.6.1.1. <i>Primary MCPs</i>	13
1.6.1.2. <i>Secondary MCPs</i>	15
1.6.2. Diagnosis of MCPs.....	15
1.6.2.1. <i>Clinical evaluation</i>	15
1.6.2.2. <i>Genetic Evaluation</i>	16
1.6.2.3. <i>Biochemical and Metabolic Evaluation</i>	17
1.6.2.4. <i>Neuroimaging</i>	18
1.6.3. Mitochondrial Medicine and Intervention.....	18
1.7. Specific MCP phenotypes and syndromes.....	20
1.7.1. Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy.....	20
1.7.1.1. <i>Overview</i>	21
1.7.1.2. <i>Genetic basis</i>	21
1.7.1.3. <i>Biochemistry</i>	25
1.7.1.4. <i>Therapy and experimental treatments</i>	26
1.7.2. Mitochondrial encephalomyopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes.....	26
1.7.2.1. <i>Overview</i>	26
1.7.2.2. <i>Genetic basis</i>	27
1.7.2.3. <i>Biochemistry</i>	29
1.7.2.4. <i>Neuroimaging</i>	30
1.7.2.5. <i>Therapy and experimental treatments</i>	30
1.7.3. Other mitochondrial diseases.....	30
2. Objectives.....	32

3. Patients and Methods	33
3.1. Respondents	33
3.2. Methods	33
3.2.1. Extraction of DNA.....	33
3.2.1.1. <i>Protocol for the isolation of DNA by commercial Kit ("spin-column" method)</i>	33
3.2.1.2. <i>Protocol for the isolation of DNA by salting out method</i>	34
3.2.2. Determination of quantity and quality of DNA.....	34
3.2.3. MtDNA Sanger Sequencing	35
3.2.3.1. <i>MtDNA Amplification by Polymerase Chain Reaction</i>	35
3.2.3.2. <i>PCR amplification check</i>	38
3.2.3.3. <i>Purification of the amplified mtDNA fragments</i>	39
3.2.3.4. <i>Fluorescence-based Cycle Sequencing</i>	39
3.2.3.5. <i>Purification of the sequencing reactions products</i>	40
3.2.3.6. <i>Capillary Electrophoresis</i>	41
3.2.4. Analysis of data obtained by automatic sequencing.....	42
3.2.5. Bioinformatics tools for detection of pathogenicity of mutations	43
3.2.5.1. <i>Detection of pathogenicity of mutations in coding regions of mtDNA</i>	43
3.2.5.2. <i>Detection of pathogenicity of mutations in tRNA genes of mtDNA</i>	43
3.2.6. Haplogroup analysis.....	43
4. Results	44
4.1 Construction a database for analysis of whole mtDNA sequencing	44
4.2 Genetic evaluation for LHON subjects	44
4.2.1 Molecular characterization of primary/less frequent LHON mutations.....	44
4.2.2 Molecular characterization of secondary LHON mutations.....	46
4.2.3 Bioinformatics analysis for LHON pathogenic mutations.....	46
4.2.4 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in LHON.....	47
4.2.5 MITOMASTER analysis	52
4.2.5.1 Haplogroup prediction in Serbian subjects.....	52
4.2.5.2 Pathogenic variants characteristics in Serbian subjects	55
4.2.6 Construction of the phylogenetic tree.....	56
4.3 Genotype-Phenotype characterization for LHON	57
4.4 Genetic evaluation for MELAS	58
4.4.1 Bioinformatics analysis for MELAS pathogenic mutation	58
4.4.2 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in MELAS probands	58
4.4.3 MITOMASTER analysis	59
4.5 Genotype-Phenotype Relationship in MELAS	59
4.6 Genetic evaluation for Leigh disease.....	59
4.6.1 Bioinformatics analysis for Leigh pathogenic mutation.....	59
4.6.2 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in Leigh proband.....	60

4.6.3 MITOMASTER analysis	60
4.7 Genotype-Phenotype Relationship in Leigh disease.....	60
4.8 Genetic evaluation for other patients	60
5. Discussion.....	61
6. Conclusion	68
7. References.....	69
8. Appendices.....	117
Appendix A– Abbreviations (In alphabetical order).....	117
Appendix B–Primers sequences for whole mtDNA (16,569).....	120
Appendix C– Collection of mtDNA mutations detected in MCPS.....	124
Appendix C-1 LHON	124
Appendix C-2 MELAS.....	127
Appendix C-3 Other Mitochondriopathies	129
Appendix D– mtDNA genes and OMIM entries	131
Author's biography	133
Изјаве о ауторству	135
Изјаве о истоветности штампане и електронске верзије докторског рада.....	136
Изјаве о коришћењу	137

Tables

Table 1: Recognizable mitochondriopathies.....	16
Table 2: Biochemical features of mtDNA-related disorders.....	18
Table 3: M13-tagged oligonucleotide primer pairs used for PCR amplification of mtDNA templates.....	36
Table 4: Composition of reaction PCR mixture and final concentration of ingredients for all 28 mitochondrial fragments except fragment 23.....	37
Table 5: Composition of reaction PCR mixture and final concentration of ingredients for fragment 23.....	37
Table 6: Mitochondrial Touchdown PCR Amplification Protocol.....	37
Table 7: PCR Amplification Protocol for mitochondrial fragment 23.....	38
Table 8: Protocol of Fluorescence-based PCR Cycle Sequencing	40
Table 9: PCR Program of Cycle Sequencing.....	40
Table 10: Applicability of in silico predictive software in our detected LHON mutations.....	47
Table 11 Associated mutations detected in Serbian LHON probands	47
Table 12: Non-synonymous polymorphisms found in Serbian LHON probands.....	48
Table 13: Synonymous polymorphisms found in Serbian LHON probands	48
Table 14: MT-RNR variants found in Serbian LHON probands	50
Table 15: MT-tRNAs variants found in Serbian LHON probands.....	50
Table 16: MtDNA control region variants found in Serbian LHON probands	51
Table 17: Haplogroup characteristics in analyzed probands by MITOMASTER.....	52
Table 18: Haplotypes detected in Serbian probands.....	54
Table 19: Estimated frequencies of variants in haplogroups branches.....	55
Table 20: Informatics predictors for m.3243A>G mutation	58
Table 21: Informatics predictors for m.8993T>G mutation.....	60

Figures

Figure 1	2
Figure 2	3
Figure 3	4
Figure 4	7
Figure 5	13
Figure 6	15
Figure 7	20
Figure 8	29
Figure 9	41
Figure 10.....	44
Figure 11.....	45
Figure 12.....	45
Figure 13.....	45
Figure 14.....	46
Figure 15.....	57
Figure 16.....	58
Figure 17.....	59

1. Introduction

Mitochondria are specialized double-membrane bound organelles found in most eukaryotic organisms. Mitochondria were discovered by a German scientist Richard Altmann in 1890. These organelles were named by Carl Benda, another German scientist, in 1898, in his study of cell internal structure. The name is based on observation that under a light microscope mitochondria looked like screw-thread shaped grains (after Greek words: Mito=thread, chondrion=granular body) (**Ernster & Schatz, 1981**). Mitochondria are crucial for eukaryotic cell physiology and are targeted to cellular regions requiring a higher energy demand. They serve as generators of energy-rich ATP molecules so they consider as life-sustaining power houses of living eukaryotic cells; they take glucose and combine it with oxygen for ATP production (chemical energy, usable by the cell), CO₂ and H₂O. Additionally, mitochondria have important roles for other cellular functions. Malfunctioning mitochondria have been implicated in the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative diseases, cardiac and endocrine diseases, cancer and rare inborn metabolic diseases that all stem from genetic changes causing alteration of the function of mitochondrial proteins.

1.1. Mitochondrial structure and evolution

Billions of years ago, mitochondria are formed in monophyletic cell when ancient bacteria first invaded pre-eukaryotic cell. They were processed with eukaryotic nuclear DNA-based proteins to be useful for the survival and function of eukaryotic cells (**Gray et al., 1999; Gray, 2015**). Endosymbiotic theory postulated descends of mitochondria from multiple endosymbiotic events including proteobacteria and nonproteobacteria (**Husnik & McCutcheon, 2016; Poole & Gribaldo, 2014**). Bacteria-derived component of the mitochondria have arisen from a specialized bacteria (probably purple nonsulfur bacteria), that somehow survived endocytosis and became incorporated into the eukaryotic cytoplasm (**Cavalier-Smith, 1987; Margulis, 1975**). Mitochondria exhibit several structural features indicating their bacterial origin. This involves a double membrane organization: mitochondria are enclosed in two membranes, the outer and the inner. The outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM), which is completely permeable to nutrients, ions, ATP and ADP molecules, is composed of a relatively simple phospholipid bilayer and contains protein structures called porins, which permits molecules weighing 10 kilodaltons to pass through it. The inner mitochondrial membrane (IMM) has a more complex structure, contains inner folds organized in layers called cristae in order to increase the inner membrane surface area. Moreover, cristae contain carriers of the electronic transport chain ETC, ATP synthetase and transport proteins. IMM is freely permeable to oxygen, carbon dioxide and water only.

The outer and inner membranes, OMM and IMM, create two divisions: the intermembrane space, and the cytoplasmic matrix. The intermembrane space is located between the inner and the outer membranes and plays an important role in oxidative phosphorylation. The cytoplasmic matrix contains enzymes which facilitate reactions of the Krebs's cycle (also known as the tricarboxylic acid cycle) and the beta oxidation of fatty acids pathway that metabolize the food energy substrates, including sugars and fats. Matrix also contains dissolved oxygen, water, and carbon dioxide (Fig. 1) (**Lejay et al., 2012; Picard & McEwen, 2018**).

Another vestige of bacterial heritage is that mitochondria are unique cytoplasmic organelles having a circular mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA). MtDNA or mitochondrial genome is separated from the nuclear genome, it is present in several copies per organelle, and encodes oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) proteins as well as mitochondrial tRNA and rRNA (**Anderson et al., 1981**). Just to mention, in plant cells chloroplasts have their own DNA too.

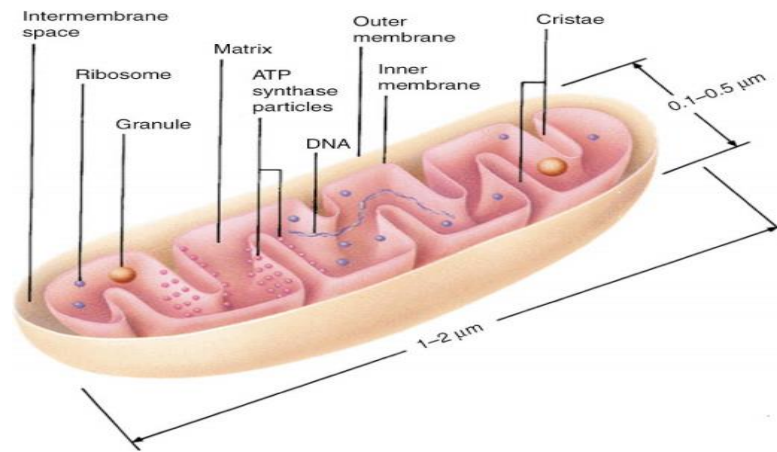


Figure 1

Mitochondrial structure, the baffle model. The model is showing the outer and inner membranes; intermembrane space in between both; the matrix is space inside the mitochondria. Cristae of the inner membrane are arranged in order to increase the available surface area for energy production. The outer membrane contains porins which allow movement of ions into and out of the mitochondrion. Free DNA and free ribosomes in the matrix important for synthesise certain lipids and proteins (Frey & Mannella, 2000).

1.2. Mitochondrial dynamics (fusion and fission)

Mitochondria have multifunctional states which enable a variety of cellular functions. Constant remodelling of the mitochondrial cellular network and the systemic structure, called mitochondrial membrane dynamics, includes organelle fusion and fission, biogenesis, mitophagy. Each process requires specific molecular machinery connected to mitosis, cellular growth and reaction for physiological and harmful conditions (Giacomello et al., 2020; Tanaka et al., 2020; Malka et al., 2005). Mitochondrial dynamics dysregulation is implicated in different pathologies including neuropathies, neurodegenerative diseases, atherosclerosis, metabolic diseases, sarcopenia and aging (Archer, 2013; Sebastián & Zorzano, 2018).

Mitochondrial morphology is regulated by continuous repeated cycles of fusion and fission mediated by dynamin I family GTPases. These organelles are constantly fuse together to form chains, and then break apart to relate mitochondrial shape, changing from a small globular form to a complex filamentous network (Kolossov et al., 2018). Each fusion and fission has a special role for keeping a healthy mitochondria, normally both occur simultaneously and almost in the same rate (Fig. 2) (Dorn, 2019; Pernas & Scorrano, 2016). Continuous equilibrium usually exists between the fission–fusion dynamics, their rates are influenced by organelle and cellular metabolic and pathogenic conditions (Das & Chakrabarti, 2020).

Mitochondrial fusion promotes normal mitochondrial function and it enables the cell to build extended and elongated mitochondria for more ATP production especially in stressful and starvation status. Interconnected mitochondrial network facilitates transfer of mitochondrial proteins and mtDNA to newly fused mitochondria (Ramos et al., 2016; Skulachev, 2001). Loss of fusion has been linked to reduced respiratory activity, embryonic lethality, apoptosis and neurodegeneration (Detmer & Chan, 2007; Okamoto & Shaw, 2005; Suen et al., 2008). Special steps needed for successful fusion between two mitochondria:

- OMM fusion by transmembrane GTPases Mitofusin-1 (Mfn1) and Mitofusin-2 (Mfn2), that comprise of different conserved domains (Chen et al., 2003; Giacomello & Scorrano, 2018). MFN1 mutations didn't reported in any human disorders, but Mfn2 mutations are more serious leading to neurodegenerative diseases such as Charcot-Marie-Tooth Neuropathy type 2A (Rusecka et al., 2018).

- IMM fusion by Optic Atrophy protein 1 (OPA1). OPA1 is crucial for overall mitochondrial function (Ni et al., 2015) and it is mutated in multiple diseases such as dominant optic atrophy (DOA), ataxia, sensorineural deafness, and mitochondrial myopathy (Ham et al., 2018).

Fission events are essential for mitochondrial remodelling and rearrangement within the cell, allowing generation of new, smaller mitochondria, which are more mobile and easier to distribute between dividing cells during mitosis.

Mitochondrial fission by GTPase dynamin-related protein 1 (Drp1), is the process essential for mitochondrial remodelling and rearrangement during mitotic cell division. This process occurs by the “pinching” of a mitochondrion into two new, smaller mitochondria for easier mobility, distribution, and more liability for mitophagy which has fundamental role in mitochondrial turnover (Horbay & Bilyy, 2016; Twig et al., 2008). Mitochondrial fission factor (Mff) and Fission-1 (Fis1) are Drp1 receptors anchored to the outer mitochondrial membrane. They recruit cytosolic Drp1, a dynamin-like GTPase, which then oligomerize and forms a ring-like structure around the mitochondria to constrict and divide them into multiple smaller mitochondria (Lewis et al., 2018). Imbalanced mitochondrial fission/fusion negatively impacts neuronal function and viability. An additional GTPase protein, dynamin-2 (Dnm2), works in concert with Drp1 and directly coordinates mitochondrial fission facilitating sequential constriction events leading up to division (Lee et al., 2016).

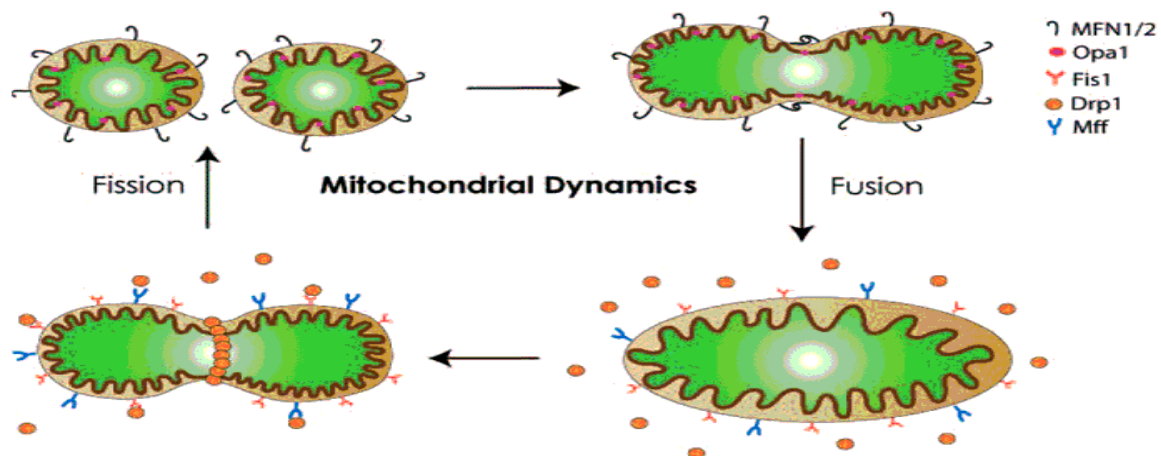


Figure 2

Mitochondrial dynamics, fusion/fission mechanisms. Mitochondrial dynamics is controlled by mitochondrial fission and fusion proteins. Mitochondrial fusion is a highly regulated process that requires the coordination of both IMM and OMM. The OMM uses proteins such as mitofusin 1 and mitofusin 2 (mfn1/2), which are GTPase proteins, whereas the IMM uses optic atrophy 1 (Opa1) to coordinate the joining of the membrane. Mitochondrial fission factor (Mff) and Fission-1 (Fis1) are anchored to the outer mitochondrial membrane where they recruit cytosolic Drp1, which then oligomerizes and forms a ring-like structure around the mitochondria to constrict and divide them into multiple smaller mitochondria. Imbalanced mitochondrial fission/fusion negatively impact neuronal function and viability (Tieu and Imm, 2014).

1.3. The Mitochondrial Energy-Generating System (MEGS)

The mitochondrial energy-generating system “MEGS” encompasses the mitochondrial enzymatic reactions for the overall mitochondrial function related to energy production (ATP), where mitochondria are considered as the primary source of cell energy. Mitochondria are the powerhouses of the cell by performing the last steps of cellular catabolism through integration of fuels metabolism into energy production in the form of ATP (the major energetic molecule in the cell) and GTP (Gustafsson et al., 2016; Janssen et al., 2008; Levtchenko et al., 2006).

The reducing equivalents derived from cytosolic catabolic pathways of oxidation of carbohydrates, proteins or lipids. These nutrients are metabolized and further oxidized in mitochondria matrix through tricarboxylic acid cycle “Krebs cycle” or β -oxidation. Subsequently, electrons are stored in the reducing equivalents to produce NADH (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, reduced form) and FADH₂ (flavine adenine dinucleotide, reduced form). By acting as electron carriers, they shuttle electrons into ETC in the IMM, where energy can trigger electrons to pump protons into the intermembrane space. The protons enter the electrochemical gradient by F1F0 - ATP synthase to produce ATP (Lemasters & Hackenbrock, 1978; Mitchell, 1961; Wescott et al., 2019).

Oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) encompasses five complexes; complexes I–IV are involved in electron transfer and proton export to the intermembrane space, whereas complex V, the only one which is found in the intermembrane space, uses the proton gradient to generate ATP. Human mtDNA encodes 13 proteins essential for several subunits of four of the five oxidative phosphorylation protein complexes of the oxidative phosphorylation system "OXPHOS". It encodes seven subunits (ND1, 2, 3, 4, 4L, 5, and 6) out of 45 subunits of complex I (Carroll et al., 2002; Swalwell et al., 2011); only one subunit cytochrome b of complex III (Berry et al., 2000); the three largest subunits (COI, COII, and COIII) of complex IV (Fearnley & Walker, 1986); and finally 2 subunits (ATPase6 and ATPase8) of the complex V (ATP synthase, F1F0-ATPase) (He et al., 2018). Complex II is the only respiratory enzyme complex completely encoded by nuclear DNA (nDNA) (4 subunits) (Rustin & Rötig, 2002). Their synthesis within the mitochondrial compartment is an absolute prerequisite for normal cellular ATP production (Barshad et al., 2018; Formosa & Ryan, 2018; Rustin et al., 1994). However, the majority of the mammalian mitochondrial proteome, consists of ~1000-1500 distinct proteins so-called “regulatory” proteins are involved in the transport of MEGS proteins into the mitochondrion (Calvo & Mootha, 2010). A deficiency in one of these “regulatory” proteins, or its misfolding and disassembly can indirectly cause a deficiency in one or more of the MEGS enzymes (Callegari & Rehling, 2019; Erlich et al., 2016) (Fig.3).

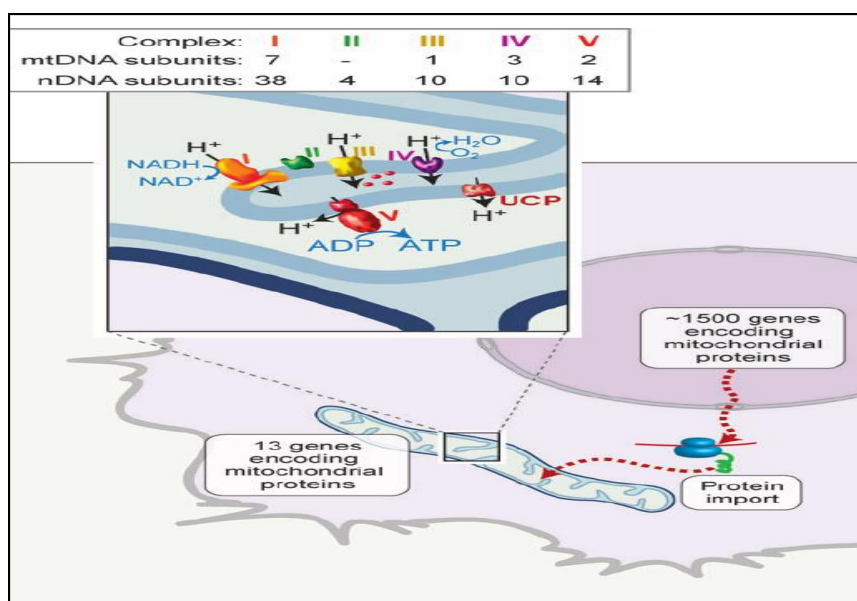


Figure 3

Mitochondrial biogenesis and the OXPHOS. OXPHOS is consisting of five multiple-subunit polypeptide enzyme complexes in the inner mitochondrial membrane encoded by mito-nuclear gene. 13 mtDNA genes encode mitochondrial proteins synthesized in the organelle and the remaining proteins encoded by nuclear genes are made in the cytosol and imported by protein import into mitochondria. Uncoupling protein (UCP) uses proton flow to generate

heat. Cytochrome *c* (red) is found in the intermembrane space. The total number of subunits encoded by nuclear and mtDNA are shown for each of the OXPHOS complexes (Ryan & Hoogenraad, 2007).

Mitochondria produce key factors during inflammation and oxidation, therefore, MEGS is also considered as the main source of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that are continually generated as by-products of aerobic metabolism in human cells. Approximately 1–2 % electrons leak from the ETC and reduce O₂ to superoxide radical herewith producing ROS (Finkel & Holbrook, 2000; Hamanaka & Chandel, 2010; Zhao et al., 2019). Therefore, mitochondrial dysfunction is related to inflammation and other energy-dependent disturbances, where the generation of ROS exceeds the physiological antioxidant protective activity, causing cellular oxidative damage (Cavaliere et al., 2019; Chan, 2006). Besides ATP, mitochondria are powerful contributors in the anabolic pathways, including nucleotide and RNA synthesis, lipids such as cholesterol, amino acids, glucose, and heme production. Also, mitochondria are involved in stress responses and aging (Spinelli & Haigis, 2018; Srivastava, 2017). In addition to all above, mitochondria has a role in apoptosis through caspase-cascade stimulated by cytochrome *c* (Vakifahmetoglu-Norberg et al., 2017; Wang & Youle, 2009).

Mitochondria play a role in other multiple biological functions within eukaryotic cells. Since mitochondrial energy demand is higher in the brain compared to other tissues, subtle changes in mitochondrial energy production have a strong impact on the brain function (Joshi & Mochly-Rosen, 2018). Mitochondria participate in neuronal synaptic vesicles mobilization, recycling and neurotransmitter release and thus regulate neuronal communication (Reddy & Beal, 2008; Vos et al., 2010). In addition, mitophagy represents an important node of mitochondrial quality control in neurons due to their limited regenerative capacity (Correia et al., 2017; Lin & Sheng, 2015; Sheng, 2014). Also, they partake in calcium (Ca⁺⁺) homeostasis, especially in excitable cells as neurons (Kwon et al., 2016; Nicholls, 2005).

1.4. Mitochondrial Genetics

As it is mentioned above, mitochondria contains their own genome, the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), which is a separate genome located in the mitochondrial matrix. MtDNA accounts for a small portion of total DNA in human cells; it contains just 37 of the 20,000 to 25,000 protein-coding genes in our body. In 1963, DNA was first detected within mitochondria when Nass and Nass published electron micrograph images of structures with the staining properties of DNA in chicken liver mitochondria. Schatz isolated DNA from yeast mitochondria (Nass & Nass, 1963; Schatz, 1963). Not even a simple free-living multicellular organism, such as the nematode worm, can survive without mtDNA (Bratic et al., 2009). The complete mtDNA sequence was determined in more than a dozen species, including humans. In mammalian cells, each mitochondrion generally contains highly conserved several identical copies of mtDNA (Taanman, 1999).

1.4.1. Structure of human mtDNA

The human mtDNA is a closed-circular and double-stranded molecule containing 16.569 bp. Molecule of human mtDNA typically forms 5-nm circle. The strands of the DNA duplex can be distinguished on the basis of the asymmetric distribution of guanine and cytosine base composition which results in separation of mtDNA into "heavy" (H-strand), rich in guanine, located outside of the circle and "light" (L-strand) strand - rich in cytosine on the inside. H and L strands have different buoyant densities in alkaline density gradient centrifugation. In humans, mtDNA has total number of 37 genes and encodes 11 mRNAs (Anderson et al., 1981; Jeandard et al., 2019).

MtDNA is free of histones and mitochondrial genes lack introns. Except for one regulatory region, intergenic sequences are absent or limited to a few bases (Kim et al., 2015; Boesch et al., 2011). MtDNA does not have loose free ends and thus does not contain telomeres (Santos et al., 2006). Both rRNA and tRNA molecules are unusually small. Some of the protein - coding genes are overlapping and cytoplasmic tRNAs are not imported into the mammalian mitochondria (Bilbille et al., 2011; Wolstenholme, 1992).

In vertebrate cells that are metabolically active, mtDNA is characterized by the presence of little more than one kilobase region, known as major non-coding region (NCR). NCR is also known as the control region as it often contains a curious structural feature of cis-elements for transcription and two putative origins of replication. Major NCR of the mitochondrial genome includes the 1.1 kb displacement loop (D-loop), and the origin of L-strand replication (OL). Both occupies much but not all of NCR, and so the terms are not interchangeable. Now known NCR is considered as the most variable region of mtDNA because the nucleotide noncoding sequence of the other D-loop region in NCR represent sequence variation among humans. It is not evenly distributed and has no effect on transcription and replication. This is concentrated in three hypervariable sections HV1, HV2 and HV3 (positions: 16024-16365; 73-340; and 438-576, respectively) in which HV1 and HV2 are including some nucleotide positions seem to be hot spots for changes, therefore they have been very useful in studying evolution of eukaryotes, and more specifically, of human population (Hwa et al., 2012; Pfeiffer et al., 2001; Rashid et al., 2010).

D-loop is a triplex structure in which a short nucleic acid 123-bp stretch of DNA, complementary to the L-strand, displaces the H-strand, and hybridizes on double-stranded DNA to form triple-stranded structure (Kasamatsu & Vinograd, 1974). The D-loop region is bounded by the genes for tRNA^{Phe} and tRNA^{Pro} and has evolved as the major control site for mtDNA expression. Specific sequences needed for transcription and replication are properly spaced within this region which contains an initiation sites for replication (Arnberg et al., 1971; Kasamatsu et al., 1971).

1.4.2. Replication-Transcription switch in human mtDNA

Mitochondria are not self-supporting entities in the cell. Remarkably, co-evolution of mitochondrial expression across human body sites suggests an active regulatory phenomenon (Iannello et al., 2019). MtDNA replication, transcription and genome maintenance depend upon the mitochondrial import of hundreds of trans-acting nuclear-encoded factors (Mishmar et al., 2019). Coordinated molecular switch between replication and expression of the mitochondrial genome is critical for metabolically active cells during various stages of development.

Independently of the nuclear genome, it has been suggested that mtDNA replication does not coincide with the cell cycle (Bogenhagen & Clayton, 1977), However, recent studies suggest a connection between mtDNA replication and the cell cycle (Hirusaki et al., 2017). Meanwhile, not all mtDNA molecules are replicate (Bogenhagen & Clayton, 2003). Two distinct mechanisms have been proposed for mitochondrial replication. Both models predict that “O_L” is a major initiation site of second-strand DNA synthesis in mammals. Their occurrence may be cell type-dependent.

Strand-displacement model

Strand-displacement model (SDM) also called strand-asynchronous /asymmetric model is method in which uncoupled (leading and lagging strand in DNA synthesis) replication occurred. Replication starts at the multiple origins of D-loop roughly at either ends. Replication initiates at the heavy strand origin (O_H), leading strand causes displacement of the L-strand from the H-strand. The former remains single-stranded whilst replication of the H-strand advances approximately for two-thirds of the DNA molecule. It reveals the origin of L-strand DNA (OL), whereby L strand “lagging” synthesis is initiated on the reverse direction (Fusté et al., 2014; Clayton, 1982; Kasamatsu & Vinograd, 1973). This model is more predominant in cells requiring rapid mtDNA synthesis (e.g., cells recovering from mitochondrial depletion) and for accelerating mtDNA replication in response to physiological demands (Fish et al., 2004). SDM showed DNA–RNA hybrids, RNA fragments participation is detected and termed „replication ribonucleotide incorporation throughout the lagging strand” (RITOLS) as it was incorporated throughout the lagging strand during the replication of mtDNA. RNA oligonucleotides are required

for multiple priming events on the lagging strand, whereas the leading strand requires only a single priming event (Yasukawa et al., 2006; Zinovkina, 2019).

Strand-coupled model

Strand-coupled model (SCM) also called Leading-lagging strand model is a second, more conventional replication method. Symmetrical replication is preceded by synchronous coupling leading-lagging strand DNA replication, in which replication initiated at (O_H) but lagging L-strand synthesis begins at (O_L) shortly after replication initiation with generation of short Okazaki ribonucleotide fragments which subsequently converted to DNA. This model is more prevalent in cells which are in a steady-state and correlates with the high levels of damage, whereas less damage replicate via the strand-asynchronous replication mode (Herbers et al., 2019; Yasukawa & Kang, 2018; Holt et al., 2000).

In mammals few enzymes are known to be essential for mtDNA replication. Mitochondrial DNA polymerase γ ($POL\gamma$), is an heterodimer RNA dependent DNA polymerase, containing a catalytic subunit, 3'-5' exonuclease, 5'-deoxyribose phosphate lyase activities, and two smaller accessory subunits (Anderson et al., 2020; Ciesielski et al., 2016); Twinkle, the rate-limiting factor for mtDNA replication with 5'-3' DNA helicase activity is required for the unwinding of the DNA helix at the replication fork. Other needed molecules are: single-stranded DNA binding protein (mt-SSB); mitochondrial RNA polymerase ($POLRMT/mt-RNAP$), RNase H1, DNA ligase III, and topoisomerase 3 α (Top3 α) (Yasukawa & Kang, 2018; Holt & Reyes, 2012). A processive replisome needed for whole mtDNA replication is formed by Twinkle, mt-SSB and $POL\gamma$ (Herbers et al., 2019; Korhonen et al., 2004).

Mitochondrial transcription is done by polycistronic molecules using three transcription origins formed by combination of one L-strand promoter at nt. 407 and two H-strands promoters (HSP1 at nt. 561 and HSP2 at nt. 646) (Fernández-Silva et al., 2003; Aloni & Attardi, 1971). The HSP1 is proceeded for the synthesis of the two rRNAs and two tRNA^(Phe, Val); while HSP2 is processed in 12 mRNAs and 14 tRNA (Asin-Cayuela & Gustafsson, 2007; Roberti et al., 2009)- Finally 8 tRNAs and the ND6 mRNA are derived from the L-strand (Cai et al., 2020; Chang & Clayton, 1985) (Fig. 4).

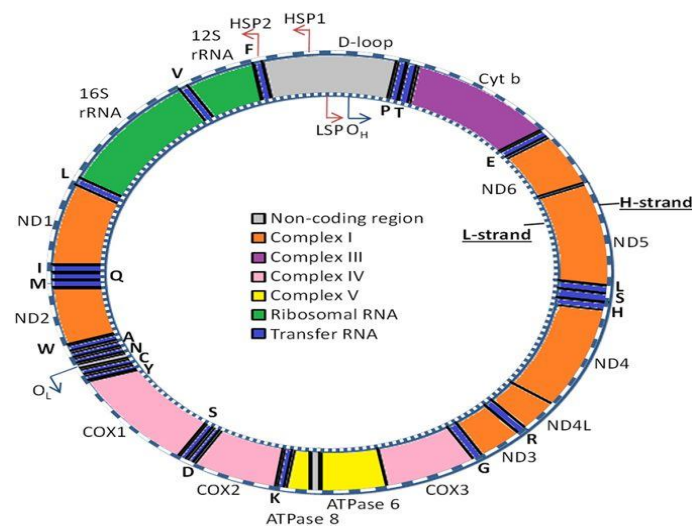


Figure 4

Organization of the human mitochondrial genome. The human mtDNA is circular, a double-stranded molecule with a length of nearly 16.5 kb genome, containing a heavy (H, outer ring) and light (L, inner ring) strands. The mtDNA genome consists of 37 genes including 22 for mitochondrial tRNA (20 standard amino acids, blue) and 2 for the rRNA (green). The rest of the 13 genes encode for the several subunits of oxidative phosphorylation complexes (Complex I: orange, complex III: purple, complex IV: pink, complex V: yellow). The displacement loop (D-loop) (grey) is the main noncoding area of the mtDNA where start of replication occurs and it contains promoters for the transcription of RNA from the 2 strands of mtDNA (van der Wijst et al., 2017).

Transcription from all promoters requires the upstream binding of the mitochondrial transcription factor A (TFAM), together with a single subunit RNA polymerase (POLRMT) which forms a heterodimer complex with the mtDNA binding transcription factor TFB. Mt-TFB belongs to the class of rRNA adenine methyltransferases and has two mammalian isoforms. TFB1M shows a weaker transcriptional activity and TFB2M which markedly enhance mtDNA transcription in the presence of TFAM and mitochondrial RNA polymerase (Gleyzer et al., 2005; McCulloch et al., 2002). TFAM unwinds the promoter region of double-stranded mtDNA and introduces a transcription bubble covering the initiation site. This loose structure is essential for the recruitment of POLRMT and enables TFB2M binding, which completes the assembly of the initiation complex (Morozov et al., 2014; Posse et al., 2014). However, once POLRMT successfully binds the promoter region, TFB2M is released from the initiation complex (Mangus et al., 1994; Sologub et al., 2009).

Recent studies have also identified and characterized human transcription elongation factor of mitochondria (TEFM) as another component of the mitochondrial transcription machinery, necessary for both gene transcription and replication primer formation (Jiang et al., 2019). Interaction of TEFM with POLRMT promotes transcription processivity to enable near genome-length transcription, as have recently been determined (Posse et al., 2015). Binding of TEFM to POLRMT allows the complex to form a “sliding clamp” around the DNA, which facilitates high processivity of transcription (Hillen et al., 2017). TEFM also enhances POLRMT transcription by reducing the duration and frequencies of long-lived transcription pauses (Yu et al., 2018). TEFM prevents the generation of replication primers and increases transcription processivity and thereby serves as a molecular switch between replication and transcription, which appear to be mutually exclusive processes in mitochondria. TEFM may allow mitochondria to increase transcription rates and as a consequence, respiration and adenosine triphosphate production without the need to replicate mitochondrial DNA (Agaronyan et al., 2015; Minczuk et al., 2011). As a final step, mtRNAP stops RNA synthesis and separates it from mtDNA; at the end, termination factor 1 protein (MTERF1) bind to termination site within the gene encoding tRNA^{Leu} (Hillen et al., 2018; Kruse et al., 1989; Montoya et al., 1983). The mature RNAs are produced by processing of primary transcripts “tRNA punctuation” (de Pouplana, 2020; Ojala et al., 1981). Two cleavages occurred, 5' then 3', by RNase P, and RNAase Z, respectively (Lopez Sanchez et al., 2011); finally, mitoribosomes translate the mitochondrially encoded mR

Vertebrates' mtDNA has a distinct genetic code than the nuclear code, in which mitochondrial genetic system uses of a simplified decoding mechanism, allowing translation of all codons with less than the 32 tRNA species required according to Crick's wobble hypothesis. This reduction in the number of tRNA species is achieved by the use of a single tRNA with U in the first anticodon (wobble) position to recognize all codons of a four-codon family (Barrell et al., 1980). Further, part of the termination codons are not encoded but are generated post-transcriptionally by the addition of adenines to the transcript during polyadenylation of mRNAs. Moreover, in vertebrate's mitochondria TGA codes for tryptophan and ATA codes for methionine, however AGR codons indicate a stop and the corresponding tRNA gene is absent (Bogenhagen & Clayton, 1974; Shmookler & Goldstein, 1983) Furthermore, a single tRNA species, with a modified C in the first anticodon position followed by AU, functions for initiation (tRNA^{Met}) as well as elongation (tRNA^{Met}) and pairs with codon AUA in addition to AUG (Franco et al., 2019; Maniataki & Mourelatos, 2005). Thus, 22 tRNAs encoded by human mtDNA, two for each serine and leucine and one for each of remaining 18 amino acids are enough for translating all 13 mitochondrial protein genes (Suzuki et al., 2011) .

1.4.3. Mitochondrial Inheritance

Mitochondrial genetics has a unique inheritance pattern that differs from Mendelian genetics wherein maternal transmission of mitochondrial DNA is the rule.

1.4.3.1. Non-Mendelian Maternal Inheritance

The hypoesthesia of “Mitochondrial Eve,” 200,000 years ago, gave rise to the idea that all living humans inherited their mitochondrial DNA from a single common matrilineal ancestor (**Oikkonen, 2018; Templeton, 1993**). This is based on dogma that in mammals mtDNA is only transmitted in the progeny through the female germ line (**Giles et al., 1980; Hutchison et al., 1974**).

The dogma of strict maternal mtDNA inheritance is supported by two models:

“Simple dilution model”: The spermatozoa are much smaller than oocytes, so dilution effects of the paternal contribution occur, and may facilitate maternal inheritance of mtDNA. In mammalian sperm cells, the copy number of mtDNA is low, containing approximately 100 copies, whereas in mammalian oocytes the copy number is extremely high with more than 100,000 copies of mtDNA (**Chan & Schon, 2012; Pikó & Matsumoto, 1976**).

“Active degradation model”: After fertilization parental mitochondria from spermatozoa enter the cytoplasm of the oocytes; despite of that, their mtDNA do not transfer to the their progeny but they are specifically eliminated after fertilization and before the 4-cell stage (**Kaneda et al., 1995; Zuidema & Sutovsky, 2019**). A variety of mechanisms, including specific nuclease-dependent systems, ubiquitin–proteasome system, and autophagy have been shown to degrade the paternal mtDNA or the paternal mitochondria themselves in order to prevent paternal mtDNA transmission (**Sato & Sato, 2013; Yan et al., 2019**).

Until nowadays no compelling evidence for paternal leakage of mtDNA in human yet (**Lutz-Bonengel & Parson, 2019**). Oner study reported three pedigrees with mtDNA mutations that could not be determined by maternal genetics, suggesting that potential paternal mtDNA inheritance is more common than previously realized (**Luo et al., 2018; McWilliams & Suomalainen, 2019**). Further, a single case of paternal transmission of a pathogenic mtDNA mutation has been described in a patient with a myopathy (**Schwartz & Vissing, 2002**). Extraordinary evidence is required in asserted mtDNA biparental inheritance (**Salas et al., 2020**).

1.4.3.2. Mammalian mtDNA genetic bottleneck

Eukaryotic cells typically contain thousands of mtDNA molecules assembled into stable protein–DNA macro-complexes, forming hundreds of nucleoprotein aggregates called nucleoids. Nucleoids employ abundant basic DNA binding proteins to package their genomes in a restricted volume. An average nucleoid may contain 5–7 mtDNA genomes packed in a space with a diameter of only 70 nm (**Iborra et al., 2004**). Nucleoids vary in their composition depending on their functional requirements and activity. Each nucleoid, which is considered as a heritable unit of mtDNA, might contain up to several thousand copies of the mitochondrial genome (polyplasmly) and several different proteins; variable mtDNA copy number in different tissues showed increase in muscles with exercise and decrease with age (**Barazzoni et al., 2000**). This is in contrast with nDNA genes, which are represented by only two copies: a paternal and a maternal allele. These nucleoids show considerable dynamic stability, raising the possibility that this higher order organization is very important to the inheritance and contribute to the rapid segregation of mtDNA (**Kucej & Butow, 2007**). Nucleoid organization during oocyte maturation called “bottleneck” since early primordial germ cells appear to have only a small number of segregation units (**Floros et al., 2018**).

MtDNA bottleneck in the germ line during the oogenesis aimed for discriminatory amplification not all mtDNA molecules but few of them. The initial mtDNA copies first decrease then amplifie and expand to over 100,000 copies. This is additional explanation how only a small fraction of the total number of mitochondrial genes transferred from mother to child cause a remarkably inconstant heteroplasmic levels within the individually same tissues/organs. In other words this explains why that a heteroplasmic mutation can be transmitted with different mutation load between generations (**Khrapko, 2008; Zhang et al., 2018a**). So the tissue will harbour two populations of

mtDNA, wild-type mtDNA (in healthy individuals) and mutant mtDNA (homoplasmy if identical mutant and heteroplasmy if unidentical mutant) (Orsucci et al., 2018).

1.4.3.3. *Inheritance of the pathogenic mutated mtDNA*

mtDNA has less effective and limited repair systems in comparison to the nuclear genome, in part because mtDNA has a modified genetic code, mitochondrial genes are without introns and the protective histones (Croteau & Bohr, 1997). Further, the proximity of mtDNA to sites of ROS generation suggests that mtDNA may be more susceptible to mutations compared to nuclear DNA (Shin et al., 2004). Intriguing enough, the occurrence of the most prevalent pathogenic mtDNA mutations was reported in at least one in 200 healthy individuals that potentially could cause disease in the offspring of female carriers (Elliott et al., 2008). The maternally inherited pathogenic mutated mtDNA that could be homoplasmic (mutant in all mtDNA molecules) or heteroplasmic (mutant in a fraction of mtDNA) (Prigione et al., 2011). Homoplasmic mutations usually result in organ-specific mitochondrial disorders and they can be followed up in pedigrees to define the risk of recurrences. The examples are: Leber hereditary optic neuropathy, mitochondrial non-syndromic sensorineural hearing loss, and a form of mitochondrial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (Cree et al., 2009; Carelli et al., 2003). Further, homoplasmic mutations are characterized by extremely variable penetrance (deI Mar O'Callaghan et al., 2012).

By contrast, the proportion of mutated heteroplasmic mtDNA mutations may vary with time due to mitotic segregation that could take place during different stages of cell division or post mitotic (van den Aemele et al., 2020). Heteroplasmic mutations within affected individuals harbouring the mosaic distribution of mutated and wild-type mtDNA of varying proportions (Gajecka, 2016; Wallace & Chalkia, 2013). The shifts in mutant load between two generations were detected as a risk for late-onset diseases (Falkenberg et al., 2007; Stewart & Chinnery, 2015). Further suggestion is that strong mtDNA bottleneck could cause a rapid bimodal shift of heteroplasmic segregation toward homoplasmy (Hamalainen et al., 2013).

The clinical expressions of heteroplasmic mutations have tremendous variability between siblings in the same family. All depends on the proportion of mutated mitochondria and mutation load "threshold level" in various body tissues. It is given that overall mutation load broadly correlates with the clinical phenotype (Chinnery et al., 1997; White et al., 1999a). By the concept of "threshold effect" for mutational pathogenicity, in a given tissue has to be reached a minimal critical number of mutant mtDNA before oxidative metabolism is impaired severely enough to become dysfunctional. The pathogenic threshold varies from tissue to tissue according to the relative dependence of each tissue on energy. So the threshold is lower in tissues that require high energy with subsequent greater susceptibility to mtDNA mutations (DiMauro et al., 2013). It is also dependent on oxidative metabolism of different tissues and their vulnerability to oxidative stress (Letellier et al., 1994; Rossignol et al., 1999).

It has been hypothesized that mitochondrial fusion and high copy number are likely to be a protective factors in human disorders associated with pathogenic mtDNA, as it increases tolerance ability of human cells to high levels of pathogenic mtDNA mutations (Chen et al., 2010; Nakada et al., 2001). Another mechanism that regulates the pathogenesis of mutated mtDNA-based disease, is the mitochondrial functional complementation. This is a very unique and effective defence system that occurs as a consequence of dynamic repeats of fusion and fission and continuous exchange of genetic products within heteroplasmic cells. So it regulate respiratory function of individual mitochondria according to "one for all, all for on" principle (Sato et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2015). The mitochondrial positive complementation occurs when the number of normal mitochondria is more abounding than that of respiration-deficient mitochondria, therefore preventing individuals from expression of disease phenotypes by pathogenic mutated mtDNA. Inversely, the mitochondrial negative complementation takes place when the number of respiration-deficient mitochondria is more abundant than that of normal mitochondria, so mitochondrial diseases can be expressed in the latter condition (Knorre, 2020; Nakada et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004).

Based on the findings of Polyak and colleagues (1998), the replicative advantage of mutant mtDNA molecules over wild-type molecules in the same cell is the main factor responsible for genotype shift toward the mutant one (Polyak et al., 1998; Yoneda et al., 1992), with preferential accumulation of deleterious mitochondrial variants, thence increasing mutation accumulation risk for diseases (Otten & Smeets, 2015)

1.5. Mitochondrial DNA haplogroups

The independent distribution of evolutionary signatures in mtDNA and the degree of their conservation in human subgroups are essential for understanding the complex evolution of mitochondria and mtDNA.

1.5.1. Significance of natural selection

In retrospect, natural selection and genetic drift produced striking regional difference and distinction between mtDNA lineages (Mishmar et al., 2003). On the basis of peculiar uniparental maternal mtDNA inheritance and lack of recombination, the highly polymorphic mtDNA represents excellent marker for ancestry and evolutionary studies in population genetics and phylogenetic analysis. Concerning the unique clusters of mitochondrial single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), they obey the definition of population according to different classes of haplogroups and subhaplogroups, in accordance to their proposed classification by van Oven and Kayser (van Oven & Kayser, 2009), they are clusters in population-and/or geographic-specific areas (AL-Eitan et al., 2020; Mishmar, 2020; Yamamoto et al., 2020).

Human beings have accumulated distinctive variations from the mtDNA of our ancestral "mitochondrial Eve", resulting in different haplogroups and subgroups. In molecular evolution, a haplogroup (from the Greek: *ἀπλούς*, haploús, "onefold, single, simple") is a group of similar haplotypes that correlate with ethnicity and share a common ancestor having the same single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) mutation in all haplotypes. In Africa, haplogroup L (L0, L1, and L2) is present in 80-100% of mtDNA. Eurasian macrohaplogroups M and N arose in north eastern Africa and individuals bearing M and N mtDNA subsequently left Africa to colonize Europe and Asia. Among Europeans, haplogroups H, I, J, N1b, T, U, V, W, and X make up 98% of the mtDNA, these haplogroups were derived primarily from macrohaplogroup N. In Asia, macrohaplogroups N and M contributed equally to mtDNA phylogenetic tree (Quintana-Murci et al., 1999; Wallace et al., 1999).

At the European geographical level, haplogroups are most widely studied. A well-established haplogroup U5, a subtype of haplogroup R, represents the dominant U sub lineage in accordance to reported maternal genetic profile of ancient European mtDNA and Serbian population (Soares et al., 2010; Šarac, Auguštin, et al., 2018). It is suggested that subclade U5a could be of eastern European origin (Malyarchuk et al., 2010; Šebest et al., 2018). Several researches were reported mtDNA genetic diversity in Serbian population (Davidovic et al., 2015; Zgonjanin et al., 2010). Furthermore, three haplogroups H, V and K, all considered being post-glacially expanded European haplogroups, whereas, haplogroup J seems to be recently introduced into Europe during the Neolithic (Pereira et al., 2000).

1.5.2. MtDNA haplogroups implicated in health and diseases

It has been suggested that different mtDNA haplotypes may modulate oxidative phosphorylation, and influence the overall physiology of individuals. So haplotypes could be susceptibility or protective factors for certain diseases. Polymorphic variants distinctly affecting the mitochondrial function, are defined as pathogenic secondary mutations, and they act as modulators of penetrance of the disease and confer a higher risk for certain mitochondrial diseases (Carreño-Gago et al., 2017). Other polymorphic variants are considered as neutral non-pathogenic variants with no effect on disease occurrence (Caporali et al., 2018; Carelli et al., 2006).

Functional characteristics reportedly influenced by mtDNA haplotypes are: intelligence quotient (IQ) (Skuder et al., 1995); sperm performance and spermatozoa swiftness (Bettinazzi et al., 2020,) Martikainen et al., 2017; Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2000); aging and longevity (De Benedictis et al., 1999); and lengthening human lifespan (Bonner et al., 2020) etc.

Many previous studies have revealed evidence that mtDNA haplogroups are contributing factors in mitochondrial disease pathogenesis. Such examples are: osteoarthritis (Rego-Pérez et al., 2008; Z. Zhao et al., 2020); cardiovascular diseases, cardiomyopathy and coronary heart disease (Hu et al., 2020; Shin et al., 2000; Umbria et al., 2019); Alzheimer disease and dementia (Chinnery et al., 2000); multiple sclerosis (Fernández et al., 2008; Otaegui et al., 2004); fragile X-associated tremor/ataxia syndrome (Alvarez-Mora et al., 2020); Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy (Brown et al., 2002; Herrstadt & Howell, 2004); and Mitochondrial encephalomyopathy, lactic acidosis, and stroke-like episodes (Pierron et al., 2008).

Multisystem mitochondrial diseases due to MEGS dysfunctions have significant unfavourable outcomes (Allen, 2020; Danhelovska et al., 2020). Otherwise, the maintenance of mtDNA integrity, threshold effect, heteroplasmic complementation, copy-number, functional mitochondrial gene expression system, mito-nuclear co-regulation and effect of different haplogroups are essential for phenotype. During the developmet these elements are important for cell viability, and finally for viability and health of the offspring. Failure to regulate these processes during oogenesis, in the embryo, and prior to gastrulation can have deleterious consequences for the foetus and the offspring (Chappel, 2013; St. John, 2014).

1.6. Mitochondriopathies (MCPs)

Mitochondriopathies (MCPs) are considered as diverse group of genetically caused diseases due to deficiencies of the energy production in mitochondria. Due to drastic effects on respiratory chain and the oxidative phosphorylation proteins, RC disorders (RCDs) is considered as another term for MCPs. MCPs can be expressed in many tissues and may lead to various types of diseases (Finsterer, 2004; Sperl, 1997). The history of mitochondrial diseases goes back to the early 1960s, when they were defined by Kearns, Ernster and Luft (Kearns-Sayre and Luft's diseases) (Kearns & Sayre, 1958; R. Luft, 1994; Rolf Luft et al., 1962). Nowadays, researches recorded more than 200 mtDNA point mutations and deletions that cause different maternally inherited and sporadic disorders, and novel mutations are still being reported (McWilliams & Suomalainen, 2019; Holt et al., 1988).

In total, MCPs are among the most prevalent inherited metabolic diseases, encompasses multisystem diseases that can affect several tissues, especially those with higher metabolic demands (Colina-Tenorio et al., 2020; Nyhan et al., 2020; Rahman & Wolf, 2017). Predominantly, there is a broad genotypic and phenotypic heterogeneity, MCPs could affect any organ at any age. Further, having in mind impaired penetrance and heteroplasmic mtDNA mutations, they exhibit difficulties for establishing and showing variable estimated prevalence (Fiuza-Luces et al., 2019; Gorman et al., 2015). MCPs incidence was rated as ~1 in 5000 live births (Zweers et al., 2020; Chinnery, 2015; Parikh et al., 2015). According to Schaefer et al 2019 epidemiological study, the estimated prevalence of MCPs in adulthood is tenth more than in childhood (Schaefer et al., 2019).

1.6.1. Pathogenesis of MCPs

Many factors contribute to the MCPs pathogenesis and their phenotypes as: heteroplasmic rate, the threshold effect and other factors as nuclear genome background, demographic and environmental factors. So according to the pathogenic cause MCPs can be divided in two classes: primary and secondary. Primary MCPs originate from the germline mtDNA mutated before conception. Wild type germline mtDNA can be mutated secondary after conception giving rise to secondary MCPs. In some cases distinguishing between primary and secondary mitochondrial disorders is needed as their treatments and prognoses can be quite different.

1.6.1.1. Primary MCPs

Primary MCPs encompass inherited diseases that can exhibit matrilineal pattern of inheritance, or Mendelian traits due to defects in mtDNA and nDNA, respectively. (DiMauro & Schon, 2008; Thompson et al., 2020). Approximately 350 genetic mutations are currently known to cause mitochondrial diseases (Divakaruni & Murphy, 2020); all ultimately cause defects in RC or OXPHOS pathways and disturbance of components of the mitochondrion.

Mutations of mitochondrial DNA:

Mitochondrial DNA mutations can be maternally inherited or sporadic. Regarding type of molecular change, point mutations or single deletions could exist and even healthy people can harbour low levels (<1%) of them. Pathogenic mtDNA point mutations have been mapped along all mitochondrial genome and may occur in structural genes as well as in rRNA or tRNA genes. Pathologies caused by these mutations are maternally transmitted. Diseases caused by mtDNA mutations involving protein-encoding genes are for example: Leber hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON), maternally inherited Leigh syndrome (MILS) and neuropathy, ataxia and retinitis pigmentosa (NARP). Mutations in mitochondrial tRNA encoding genes can result in diseases such as mitochondrial encephalomyopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes (MELAS) and myoclonic epilepsy with ragged-red fibers (MERRF). Aminoglycoside-induced nonsyndromic deafness occurs due to a mutation in the gene encoding ribosomal RNA (Niyazov et al., 2016; Stewart & Chinnery, 2015). Conversely, sporadic pathologies have been associated to mtDNA rearrangements that usually occur spontaneously/de novo. For example germline mtDNA large-scale deletions occur during repair or replication of the genome. These deletions are responsible for some common mitochondrial diseases, as Kearns-Sayre syndrome (KKS), Pearson's syndrome (PS) and some forms of Chronic Progressive External Ophthalmoplegia (CPEO). In mtDNA there are no splice site mutations as there are no introns (Salvatore DiMauro & Schon, 2008). Some mitochondrial diseases are illustrated in (Fig. 5).

The clinical expression of a pathogenic mtDNA mutation will depend not only on its site within the mtDNA molecule but also on the ratio of mutant to wild-type molecules within mitochondria. The threshold for biochemical expression may be around 60% mutant mtDNA for deletions and up to 95% for tRNA mutations (Leonard & Schapira, 2000).

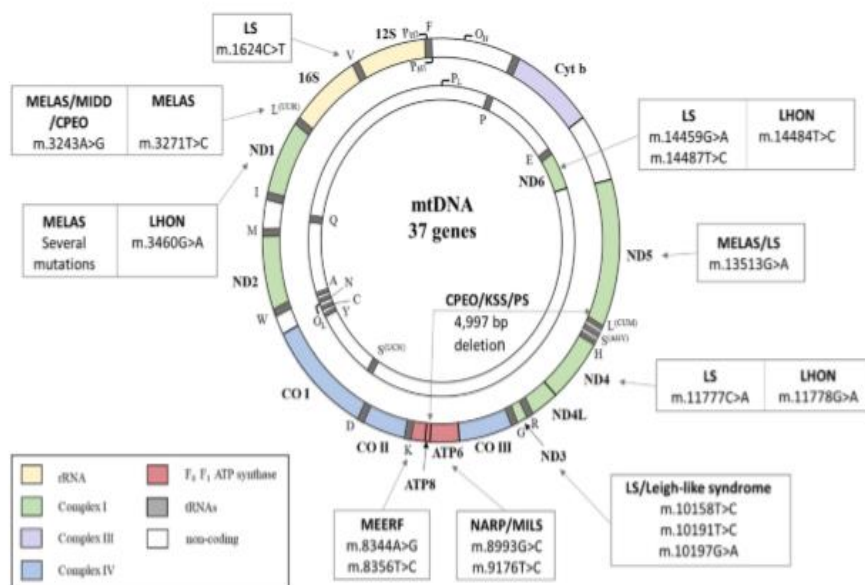


Figure 5

Morbidity map of the human mitochondrial genome. The map of the 16.569-kb mtDNA shows differently shaded areas representing the protein-coding genes for the seven subunits of complex I (ND), the three subunits of cytochrome oxidase (COX), cytochrome b (Cyt b), and the two subunits of ATP synthetase (A8/6), the 12S and 16S ribosomal RNAs

(12S, 16S), and the 22 transfer RNAs (tRNA) identified by one-letter codes for the corresponding amino acids. Diseases due to mutations that impair mitochondrial protein synthesis are shown in boxes. Abbreviations: KSS, Kearns–Sayre syndrome; LHON, Leber’s hereditary optic neuropathy; MELAS, mitochondrial encephalomyopathy, lactic acidosis, and stroke-like episodes; MERRF, myoclonic epilepsy with ragged-red fibers; MILS, maternally inherited Leigh syndrome; NARP, neuropathy, ataxia, retinitis pigmentosa; CPEO, chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia; PS, Pearson’s syndrome; MIDD, Maternally inherited diabetes and deafness (Dard et al., 2020).

The canonical pathogenic criteria for mtDNA point mutations.

A set of rules established to confirm the pathogenic nature of novel mtDNA mutations were specified by Walker et al and Di Mauro and Schon (DiMauro & Schon, 2001; Walker et al., 1996). They refer to heteroplasmy of the mutation, the amount of mutated mtDNA and its effect on protein function. Most pathogenic mutations are heteroplasmic (Ye et al., 2014). However, the discoveries of an increasing number of homoplasmic mtDNA mutations needed other methods to define pathogenicity. In addition to canonical criteria, the functional criteria were outlined by Mitchell et al and Gonzalez-Vioque et al proposing Complex I mutation pathogenicity scoring system criteria to assess the pathogenicity of complex I (*MT-ND*) gene mutations (González-Vioque et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2006).

Risk to Family Members – Mitochondrial Inheritance

MtDNA mutations are transmitted through the maternal line only to all of her offspring and could affect one generation (as in case of mtDNA deletions) or more than one generation (as in SNP and duplications) (Shanske et al., 2002; Chinnery et al., 2004; Chinnery, 1993). The phenotypic expression will be same or variable among siblings of the same family according to homoplasmic/heteroplasmic pattern and the presence of other genetic/environmental modifying factors (Poulton et al., 2017; Poulton & Turnbull, 2000).

Nuclear DNA mutations

The inherited nuclear defects in genes that maintain mtDNA accounted for more than 95% of MCPs (Gillis & Kaye, 2002). The mitochondrial genome proper assembly and function of RC complexes is maintained in large part by proteins encoded in the nucleus (Powell et al., 2015). Furthermore, the penetrance or severity of a primary mtDNA mutations are potentially modified by the nuclear genome background in which it coexists. (Angelini et al., 2009; Carrozzo et al., 1998).

Defects in mtDNA due to nuclear gene mutations could be divided into two main categories:

Qualitative defects: “multiple mtDNA deletions”

The first nDNA mutations to be associated with secondary multiple deletions of mtDNA were described by Nishino et al. in 1999. In this case thymidine phosphorylase gene (TP) defect caused mitochondrial neurogastrointestinal leukoencephalopathy (MNGIE), an autosomal recessive disease. TP does not localize in mitochondria, but it is functionally related to mtDNA replication so alteration in nuclear gene encoding for thymidine kinase 2 enzyme aborts mtDNA replication (Hirano et al., 2004; Nishino et al., 1999).

POLG gene that encodes pol- γ catalytic subunit is another example; its mutations have been identified as the cause of a numerous mtDNA deletions, with variable phenotypic presentations (Lehmann Urban et al., 2020; Stewart et al., 2009). MtDNA depletion and multiple deletions syndromes including Sensory-Ataxia Neuropathy, Dysarthria and Ophthalmoplegia (SANDO), spinocerebellar ataxia epilepsy syndrome and Alpers’ syndrome, all are associated with recessive mutations in POLG gene (Spinazzola & Zeviani, 2007). TWINKLE gene that encodes a helicase is another example. Its mutation also causes mtDNA deletions and infantile onset spino cerebellar ataxia (IOSCA), an autosomal recessive disease (Nikali et al., 2005; Pierce et al., 2016).

Quantitative defects: “mtDNA depletion syndromes”

MtDNA depletion syndromes are severe and early onset recessive disorders. Molecular basis is shift in ATP metabolic pathways with affection of mitochondrial supply and replication (Angelini et al., 2009). Various clinical expressions are reported as:

- Hepatocerebral syndrome, caused by mutations in POLG1 (Alpers' syndrome), DGUOK (deoxyguanosine kinase, involved in nucleotide metabolism) and MPV17 (an IMM protein with unknown function) genes (Freisinger et al., 2006; Spinazzola et al., 2006).
- Pure myopathic syndrome, due to mutations in TK2, SUCLA2 (encoding the β subunit of succinylCoA synthetase) and RRM2B (p53 inducible ribonucleotide reductase small subunit) genes (Bourdon et al., 2007; Elpeleg et al., 2005).

1.6.1.2. Secondary MCPs

Secondary MCPs can be inherited or acquired. Besides genetic causes they may be acquired secondary due to adverse nongenetic causes which cause oxidative stress that adversely impacting mitochondria such as aging, inflammatory response, mitotoxic drugs (Niyazov et al., 2016). Various neurotoxic compounds were recognized as external risk factors for neurodegenerative diseases. For instance, long-term alcohol abuse promotes cytochrome c and decreases mitochondria biogenesis. Drugs as acetylsalicylic acid, barbiturates tetracyclines, chloramphenicol, doxorubicin, zidovudin and corticosteroids show similar effects (Finsterer, 2004; Steiner & Lang, 2017; Walker et al., 2002; Mitsui et al., 2002).

1.6.2. Diagnosis of MCPs

The diagnosis of both primary and secondary MCPs often relies on one or several mitochondrial disease criteria (MDC) scoring systems (designed to diagnose the energy producing mitochondrial function) such as Nijmegen (Wolf & Smeitink, 2002), modified Walker (Bernier et al., 2002; Scaglia et al., 2004), Morava (Morava et al., 2006) criteria, and others. In all cases extensive multidisciplinary investigations are necessary. Still there is no gold standard of reliable screening or diagnostic biomarker that is both sensitive and specific in all cases of mitochondrial diseases. The diagnosis is based on clinical suspicion and phenotypic presentation, and requires an integral approach of incorporating clinical, genetic, electrophysiological, imaging, histological, muscle biopsy and biochemical investigations (Al-Ettribi et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2010; Gillis and Kaye, 2002; McFarland et al., 2002) (Fig. 6).

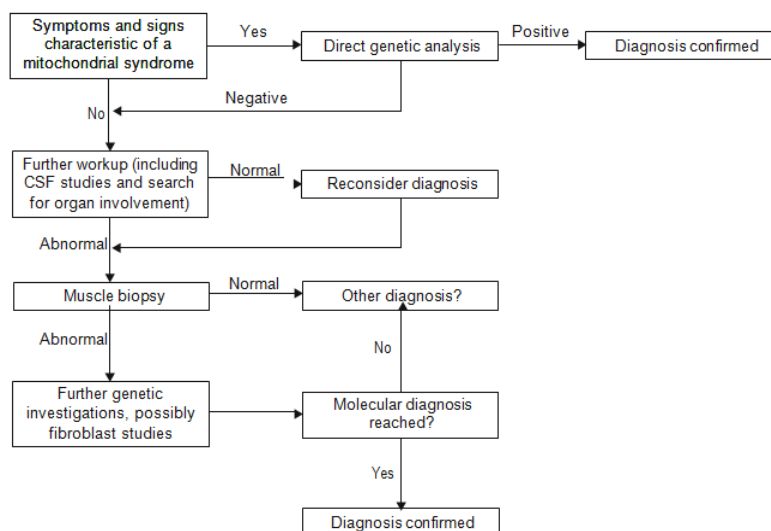


Figure 6

Schematic diagram of the diagnostic procedures of a patient with suspected mitochondrial dysfunction (Rahman & Wolf, 2017).

1.6.2.1. Clinical evaluation

Establishing diagnosis of MCPs syndromes remains a major challenge to the clinician. MCPs should be considered in patients with progressive unrelated multisystem symptoms that cannot be explained by other specific diagnosis. Because mitochondria are found in all cells except mature

erythrocytes, mitochondrial deficiencies can lead to abnormal functioning of any part or system of the body in any combination, leading to significant health manifestations.

Symptoms caused by mitochondrial dysfunction can emerge at any age, and pediatric mitochondrial diseases are typically more severe than adult-onset diseases. Clinical characteristics may range from acute life-threatening episodes, to intermittent crisis with partial recovery, to gradual progressive neurodevelopmental regression (Weissig, 2020). Prevalent clinical features of MCPs – whether associated with mitochondrial or nuclear gene – involve ptosis, external ophthalmoplegia, proximal myopathy and exercise intolerance, cardiomyopathy, sensorineural deafness, optic atrophy, pigmentary retinopathy, and diabetes mellitus. Common central nervous system findings are fluctuating encephalopathy, seizures, dementia, migraine, stroke-like episodes, ataxia, dystonia, and spasticity (Tab. 1). It is advisable that regular follow up of one patient will be done by the same doctor, with no omission the impact of physician-patient communications in mitochondrial diseases (Yeske & Zilber, 2019).

MCPs are classified as single organ diseases or multisystem disorders. They predominantly include neuromyopathic picture. Single organ MCPs are rare and liable to be multiorgan on long run. Some clinical syndromes are defined vastly with characteristic constellations of symptoms, that still there are unrecognizable in sporadic cases (Biervliet et al., 2009; Finsterer, 2004; Seo et al., 2019). They became well known after widely used acronyms.

Table 1: Recognizable mitochondriopathies

Mitochondrial	Acronym/syndrome
CPEO	Ophthalmoparesis or ophthalmoplegia, ptosis
KSS	CPEO, retinitis pigmentosa, elevated CSF protein, cardiac conduction defects, ataxia,
Pearson syndrome	Sideroblastic anaemia with variable degree of thrombopenia and neutropenia, hepatic
MELAS	Stroke-like episodes, diabetes, epilepsy, dementia, ataxia, cortical blindness, optic
MERRF	Myopathy, ataxia, dementia, CPEO, deafness, epilepsy
LHON	Impaired visual acuity, blindness
Leigh syndrome	Developmental delay, seizures, upper motor neurone signs, ataxia, optic atrophy, retinitis pigmentosa, CPEO, lactic acidosis, hypotonia
MNGIE	Myopathy, neuropathy, gastrointestinal disorder or encephalopathy NARP
NIDDM	Maternally inherited non-insulin-dependent diabetes
Alpers syndrome	Infantile poliodystrophy, developmental delay, hypotonia, vomiting, failure to thrive,
CoQ deficiency	Mental retardation, myopathy
May-White	Myoclonus, ataxia, deafness Fanconi-Debre-DeToni syndrome
Luft syndrome	Hyperhidrosis, polyphagia, polydipsia, weakness, fatigue exercise intolerance
Menkes syndrome	Epilepsy, developmental delay, hair abnormalities, fragile bones, hypopigmentation,
Ketoacidotic	Short stature, ataxia, deafness, episodic daze
Familial MSL	Symmetric multiple lipoma
PDC deficiency	Absent corpus callosum, absent pyramids, ectopic inferior olives, rarefication of
neutrophils	Sensory neuropathy, dysarthria and ophthalmoparesis

Identifiable phenotypes of mitochondriopathies (Finsterer, 2004).

1.6.2.2. Genetic Evaluation

As is discussed above, there is a complexity of genetic diagnosis and clinical presentations in mitochondrial disorders. MtDNA mutations are not the only cause but other molecular defects in different nuclear genes and proteins essential for all mtDNA vital processes could be linked to mitochondrial diseases. Moreover, phenotypic overlap and threshold effect, amount of heteroplasmy and genetic heterogeneity contribute to the diagnostic history. The same mutation

could show incomplete/variable penetrance and expression within the same and/or different families. On the other hand different mutations can be presented clinically with the same phenotype. In addition haplogroups are also significant for disease expression also (**Pello et al., 2008; Filosto & Mancuso, 2007; DiMauro, 1996; Duan et al., 2019; Rossignol et al., 2003**).

Screening analysis of mtDNA for decisively diagnose MCPs commonly started with screening for a few relatively common point mutations using mutation-specific restriction enzymes or quantitative PCR (qPCR) based methods. Nowadays, the most reliable method is whole mtDNA sequencing. Chip-based array analysis is usefull to detect “the mutation load” in low-level heteroplasmy (**Wong, 2010; Finsterer et al., 2009; Van Eijsden et al., 2006; Fan et al., 2006**). MtDNA can be isolated routinely from blood leukocytes or from bucal swab. If indicated, tissue obtained by skeletal muscle biopsy, urinary epithelial cells etc. could be used (**Koenig, 2008; Panadés-de Oliveira et al., 2020**).

Recent advanced methodology is next generation sequencing (NGS). NGS allows comprehensive whole-exome sequencing (WES) and whole-genome sequencing (WGS) as well as gene panel analysis (**Wang & Chen, 2020**). NGS-based analyses are “the new gold-standard” which provide better detection for deletions/duplication and more sensitive determination of the mutation load of heteroplasmic mutations (**Li et al., 2010; Tang & Huang, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012a**). In NGS there is no need for other molecular tests as allele refractory mutation system (ARMS) or quantitative PCR which may be needed after Sanger sequencing (**McCormick et al., 2013; Theunissen et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2011**). WGS has a simpler workflow and it is more powerful compared to WES (**Belkadi et al., 2015**).

If no pathogenic variants in the mtDNA were present, then analysis of nuclear candidate genes should be done based on clinical and biochemical features.

1.6.2.3. Biochemical and Metabolic Evaluation

Numerous biomarkers find in blood samples of MCPs patients have been proposed. Biochemical features of mtDNA-related disorders are shown in (Tab. 2).

Lactic acid typically accumulates in patients with mitochondrial disorders due to increased production of pyruvate, due to increased glycolysis in the setting of reduced ATP production (related to abnormality in the electron transport chain). So lactic acidosis (Lactic acid elevation in blood >2.1 mM or in CSF,) can be the main manifestation in many patients with mitochondrial disorders, especially combined with recurrent episodes of hypokalemia due to intracellular shift of potassium (**Miao et al., 2020**). Also the molar ratios of plasma lactate, pyruvate, ketone bodies (3-hydroxybutyrate and acetoacetic acid) are useful tests. These correlations are stronger and more obvious in the acute phase than in the chronic phase (**Feldman et al., 2017; Pitceathly & Viscomi, 2016; Shi et al., 2016**).

Elevated lactate levels are, however, neither specific nor sensitive for diagnosing mitochondrial disorders because it can be elevated in other conditions, such as tissue ischemia and other metabolic disorders. Also, it shows fluctuating levels with different cellular conditions. Because of that its recommended its measure on several occasions (**Alston et al., 2017; Haas et al., 2008; Rahman & Wolf, 2017**). High plasma level of alanine considered as indicator for persistent lactic acidosis. An absolute elevation in alanine above 450 µmol/l is a factor utilized to determine the likelihood of mitochondrial disease in the Nijmegen diagnostic protocol (**Ni & Ja, 2002**); abnormalities for other amino acids can detected in some MCPs (**Suomalainen, 2011**). Generalized aminoaciduria along with renal tubular acidosis and glycosuria can be seen in mitochondrial disease, particularly in cases with mtDNA deletion (**Campos et al., 1995; Niaudet et al., 1994**).

More recently fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21) is used as a biomarker for myopathic mitochondrial diseases as well as for follow-up of disease progression and effect of intervention. (**Gavrilova & Horvath, 2013; Lehtonen et al., 2016; Suomalainen, 2013**).

MEGS analysis by biochemical functional assay is used for detection of changes impacting structural subunits or protein assembly of respiratory chain and OXPHOS complexes (**Benard et al., 2008; Janssen et al., 2006, 2008**). Subsequently, several authors showed that it was possible to inhibit considerably the activity of a respiratory chain complex, up to a critical value, without affecting the rate of mitochondrial respiration or ATP synthesis. This phenomenon is called the “biochemical threshold effect”, and it’s used for the expression of respiratory chain deficiencies and mitochondrial energy production (**Rossignol et al., 2003**). An invasive tissue investigation as skeletal muscle biopsy, is the most widely used for biochemical testing of mitochondrial function, including functional studies of isolated mitochondria, as well as OXPHOS enzyme studies. Muscle tissue could be used for the extraction of DNA for genetic testing, also. Morphological and histopathological examination of skeletal muscle biopsy should be considered (**Ng et al., 2020; Thorburn et al., 2004**). CI deficiency study showed that >30% of mitochondrial diseases occur due to harboured mutations in MT-ND genes of that complex (**Liolitsa et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2018**), thus considered the worst prognosis (**Fassone & Rahman, 2012; Petruzzella et al., 2003**).

Table 2: Biochemical features of mtDNA-related disorders

Type	Mutation	Clinical	LA	RRF	BIOCHEMISTRY
Mutations affecting mitochondrial protein synthesis <i>in toto</i>	Single deletions	KSS	+	+(COX-)	↓ I, III, IV
		PEO	+	+(COX-)	↓ I,III,IV
		PS	-	-	
		MELAS	+	+(COX+)	↓I, III, IV
	tRNA mutations	MERRF & other multisystemic	+	+(COX-)	↓ I, III, IV
		myopathy	+	+(COX-)	↓ I, III, IV
LHON		-	-	↓ I (+/-)	
Mutations in protein-coding genes	ND genes	MELAS, LS	+	+/- (COX+)	↓ I
		myopathy	+/-	+(COX+)	↓ I
	Cyt b	multisystemic	+/-	+(COX+)	↓ III
		myopathy	+	+(COX+)	↓ III
	COX genes	multisystemic	+/-	+/- (COX-)	↓ IV
		myopathy	+	+(COX-)	↓ IV
	ATPase 6 gene	NARP/MILS	+/-	-	↓ V

Laboratory results, muscle biopsy, and muscle biochemistry for mtDNA-related disorders. They considered as better discriminators and offer useful clues for a targeted molecular analysis. LA= Lactic Acidosis, RRF= Ragged Red Fibers; COX, cytochrome c oxidase; I, III, IV, V, are OXPHOS complexes (DiMauro & Davidzon, 2005).

1.6.2.4. Neuroimaging

Non-invasive neuroimaging studies such as brain magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) can reveal some “signatures” diseases features and can be used for follow up progress of diseases (**Saneto et al., 2008; Rahman et al., 1996; Hirano & Pavlakis, 1994; Matthews et al., 1991**) also. In addition, MRS can measures brain chemistry and different ratios between different metabolites as lactate, N-acetyl aspartate, total choline and myoinositol to creatinine. For example, MELAS is accompanied by a significantly higher lactate/creatinine ratio and a lower N-acetyl aspartate/creatinine ratio (**Niu et al., 2017**).

1.6.3. Mitochondrial Medicine and Intervention

In general, there is no special mitochondrial diseases treatment. Advances in research defining genetic and pathophysiological background of MCPs are promising for further facilitation of effective therapies. Disease-modifying therapies by targeting mitochondria hence, would enhance cell respiration and improve electron transfer (**Fiuza-Luces et al., 2019**).

Mitochondrial medicine called “mitochondrial cocktail” is increasingly discussed as a promising therapeutic approach for treatment of mitochondrial dysfunctions. This cocktail contains different vitamins and cofactors. Other therapeutic approaches include enhancing cell energy, anti-apoptosis attempting by blocking mitochondrial integration within programmed cell death programs; stimulation of mitochondrial biogenesis, and increase of mtDNA copy number (Lee & Wei, 2005; Popov, 2020); reducing reactive oxygen species including oxidant scavenge and mitochondrial gene therapy. All these approaches are qualified as forms of mitochondrial medicine having promise in the treatment of neurodegenerative and other diseases (Bagheri et al., 2020; Swerdlow, 2009b). More recently, effective nanoparticulated drug delivery system is proposed for targeting biologically active compounds to brain mitochondria (Ghosh & Chatterjee, 2020).

Mitochondrial gene therapy

Specific genetic manipulation of mtDNA and its genes is promising approach to modulate mitochondrial genome defects. Approaches targeted to ameliorate mtDNA lesion have been reported and can be divided into selective inhibition of mutant mtDNA, recombinant mtDNA substitution and allotropic expression of mitochondrial proteins (Du & Yan, 2010; Sousa et al., 2020).

Antisense inhibition of mutant mtDNA by block of replication and elimination of mtDNA by restriction endonuclease are the two well investigated strategies for treatment of heteroplasmic disorders. Otherwise, substitution of defective mtDNA using gene-carrying vectors with “healthy” recombinant mtDNA genome will benefit not only heteroplasmy but also homoplasmy (Bacman et al., 2007; Chinnery et al., 1999a; Flierl et al., 2003; Wallis et al., 2020).

MtDNA genome editing by mitochondrially targeted transcription activator-like effector nucleases (mitoTALENs) and zinc finger nucleases (ZFN) could be used also. These procedures eliminate pathogenic mtDNA and mitochondria carrying pathogenic point mutations by selective splitting of specific sequences in mtDNA (Bacman et al., 2018; Gammage et al., 2014; Hashimoto et al., 2015; Minczuk et al., 2008)

Genetic Transfer to the Mitochondria

Exogenous gene transfer to mitochondria with functional protein expression could be used for compensating mitochondrial dysfunction as a result of mtDNA mutations. In this procedure peptide nucleic acid (PNAs) conjugated to mitochondrial-targeting peptides is used for guiding labelled DNA oligonucleotides into the mitochondrial matrix (Flierl et al., 2003).

Mitochondria transfer technologies

This technique is focused on introducing external healthy mitochondria to a recipient cell without manipulation of mtDNA. On the other side, the specific MtDNA substitution can generate non-native mtDNA sequences or repair the sequences that cause mitochondrial disease (Caicedo et al., 2017; Herst et al., 2018) (Fig. 7).

More recently, mitochondrial donations are proposed as one of advanced mitochondria transfer technologies. In fact, controversial in vitro fertilization (IVF) technique known as mitochondrial donation or mitochondrial replacement therapy (MRT) results in offspring containing mtDNA from a donor female, and nuclear DNA from the mother and father. In the spindle transfer procedure, the nucleus of an egg is inserted into the cytoplasm of an egg from a donor female which has had its nucleus removed, but still contains the donor's mitochondria and mtDNA. The composite egg is then fertilized with the male's sperm. This procedure has the aim to prevent the transmission of mitochondrial disease from a mother to her genetically related children and to procreate and produce offspring with healthy mitochondria (Castro, 2016). The first known child to be born as a result of mitochondrial donation was a boy born to a Jordanian couple in Mexico in 2016 (Cohen et al., 2020).

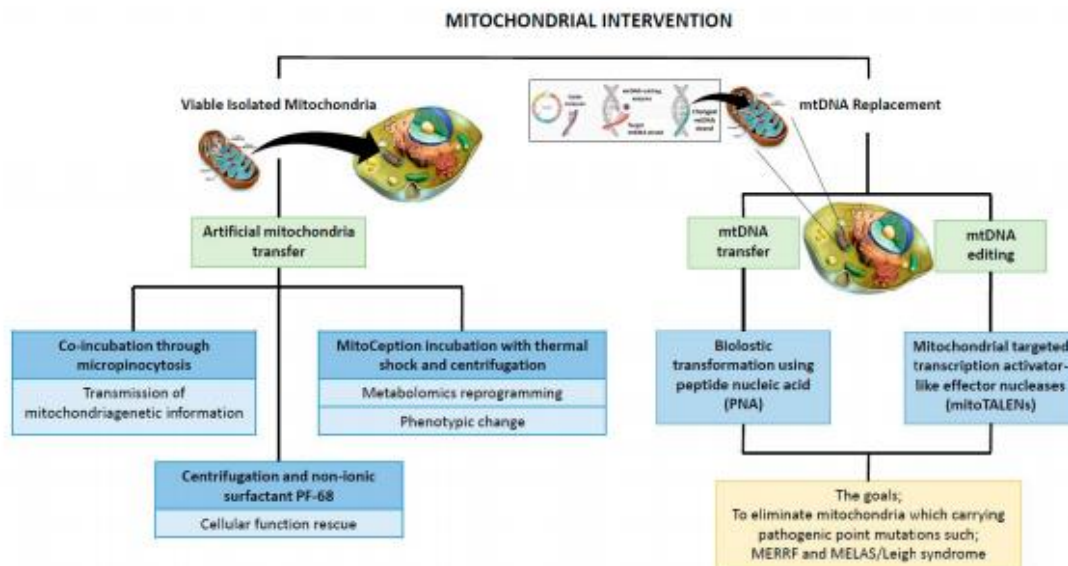


Figure 7

Progresses in mitochondrial interventions, including either the transfer of viable exogenous mitochondria or mtDNA substitution to recipient cells (Mustafa et al., 2020)

1.7. Specific MCP phenotypes and syndromes

Neurodegenerative mitochondriopathies The Dark Side of the “Energy Factory”

Mitochondrial dysfunction is main cause of several neurodegenerative diseases, collectively called “neurodegenerative mitochondriopathies” (Correia & Moreira, 2018; Swerdlow, 2007, 2009a). In these disorders mitochondrial pathology is considered as a common pathological feature and “convergence point” for neurodegeneration (Lezi & Swerdlow, 2012). Mitochondrial neurodegenerative diseases have a broad range of pathological phenotypes and different vulnerability of neuronal populations. They are all incurable and devastating neurological disorders (Dugger & Dickson, 2017). They are characterized by the progressive loss the structure and function of selective neuronal populations in the nervous system that afflict all age groups, culminating in motor, behavioural and cognitive disturbances, and eventually premature death. Neurodegeneration could be rare in childhood or more common in late life (Grimm & Eckert, 2017; Rodolfo et al., 2018).

Among the most common mitochondrial neurodegenerative diseases are Kearns-Sayre syndrome (KSS), LHON (Leber’s Hereditary Optic Neuropathy), MELAS (Mitochondrial Encephalomyopathy Lactic Acidosis and Stroke-like), Myoclonic Epilepsy with Ragged Red Fibers (MERRF), Maternally Inherited Leigh syndrome (MILS), Neuropathy, Ataxia and Retinitis Pigmentosa (NARP) syndrome. Parkinson and Alzheimer’s diseases are also MCPs, at least in some instances (Pinto & Moraes, 2014; Schapira, 2008). The genotype- phenotype correlation and molecular genetic characterization for some of these syndromes will be extensively described in the next section.

1.7.1. Leber’s hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON)

Nowadays is clarified that Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON; OMIM # 535000) is one of the most common non-Mendelian maternally inherited form of mitochondriopathies (Erickson, 1972; Man et al., 2003; Khan et al., 2018; van der Walt et al., 2012). The clinical characteristics of LHON are well documented. The painless loss of bilateral vision represents the outcome of LHON pathology (Guy et al., 2014; Majander et al., 2017).

1.7.1.1. Overview

Theodor Leber, a German ophthalmologist, was the first one who defined symptoms of LHON (**Jaeger, 1988**); that could be simultaneously or sequentially loss of vision in both eyes as a sole clinical phenotype for LHON (**Borrelli et al., 2016; Leber, 1871**). Some asymptomatic mutation LHON carriers may have subclinical ocular manifestations and may be presented by colour vision defects (**Quiros et al., 2006**). LHON is clinically accompanied with prominent diagnostic fundus abnormalities. However, a rare presentation of LHON was reported in patient with slowly progressive bilateral visual loss without diagnostic fundus abnormalities (**Handzic & Pless, 2020**).

According to broad epidemiological studies, the estimated prevalence is between 0.2 to 0.4 cases per 100,000 in Europe (**Bianco et al., 2017**); total frequency of mutation carriers is one person per 9,000 (**Lopez et al., 2016**).

LHON is late-onset pathology, symptoms usually occur in the third decade of life. However, the course in respect of full symptoms development is very short: in few months from the first signs complete blindness occurs in both eyes (**Fraser et al., 2010; Thouin et al., 2013**). Young males counting for 80-90% of LHON patients (**Theodorou-Kanakari et al., 2018**). This intriguing feature remains peculiar in LHON as male predominance was reported in all previous studies, approximately 50% of male and only 10% of female subjects with mutation experience vision loss (**Jančić et al., 2014; Man et al., 2002; M. Wang et al., 2020**). Mitochondrial inheritance of LHON couldn't postulate sex predilection (**Storoni et al., 2019; Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2018; Meyerson et al., 2015**). Some studies postulated that oestrogens upholding is a protective mechanism for LHON penetrance by supporting mitochondrial biogenesis in females comparable with affected males harbouring the same amount of mutated mtDNA (**Giordano et al., 2011; Giordano et al., 2014; Yen et al., 1996**). 2/3 of LOHN cases are running within families while 1/3 considered sporadic (**Yu-Wai-Man et al., 2011**).

Ran et al. described different characteristics of visual field defects according to the different stages of LHON. Fundoscopy showed optic disc hyperaemia in the acute stage (≤ 3 months from onset) in patients with LHON and optic atrophy in the chronic stage (> 3 months from onset). Central field defects and blind spot enlargement were common findings, in keeping with previous investigations (**Ran et al., 2016**). Retinal nerve fiber layer (RNFL) around the optic disc and surrounding the macula is not reduced in the acute stage but is reduced significantly in the chronic stage of the disease (**Moster et al., 2016; M. Wang et al., 2020**). The papillomacular bundle is affected early and severely in LHON. The preferential involvement of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) within the papillomacular bundle is likely related to the relatively small calibre of the axons and limited mitochondrial energy reserves (**Maresca et al., 2013**). Later on, optic atrophy develops that is determined by simultaneous and bilateral degeneration of RGCs with preservation of the other retinal structures. A younger age at onset and a less severe reduction of visual acuity at the nadir (minimal value of visual acuity) were associated with a higher probability of visual recovery. Presence of peripapillary telangiectasia and optic disc hyperaemia may serve as predictive factors for poor visual prognosis in patients with LHON (**Moon et al., 2020**).

1.7.1.2. Genetic basis

LHON has been the first mitochondrial pathology to be associated to a point mutation in mtDNA. The maternal pattern of LHON inheritance was confirmed on 1972 by Erickson who proposed the presence of a mutation in the mtDNA (**Erickson, 1972**) but only in 1988 Wallace and colleagues identified the first mitochondrial pathogenic point mutation in nine pedigrees with a clinical diagnosis of LHON (**Wallace et al., 1988**). LHON associated pathogenic missense mtDNA point mutations are impacting drastically on complex I, the largest complex of OXPHOS causing mitochondrial dysfunction (**Fiedorczuk & Sazanov, 2018; Shinde & Bhadra, 2015**). RGC has a profound susceptibility to electron transport impairment and marked reduction of ATP supply of retina occurred by such kind of mutations in mtDNA. Also, reactive oxygen species (ROS) are

proposed to be pivotal in LHON pathogenesis. Moreover, wave of apoptotic death synchronously hits all RGCs: several reports have demonstrated that different LHON cellular models are more prone to apoptotic death with respect to control cells (Ghelli et al., 2003; Kodroń et al., 2019; Levin, 2007; Zanna et al., 2005) indicating that programmed cell death is the final consequence of complex I alterations derived in the presence of primary mutations. And because of no replicating nature of retinal neurons (Falabella et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2019; Mansergh et al., 2014), eventually, optic nerve degeneration leads to the specific features of LHON (Carelli, 2002).

An excess of mtDNA mutations has been detected in several LHON patients exhibiting variable pathogenicity and phenotypic expression. The pathogenic mtDNA mutations could be primary or secondary/intermediate mutations. A primary mutation should occur exclusively in multiple LHON families, while a secondary mutation may be found in both normal families and at a statistically significant increased frequency in LHON families (Johns et al., 1992). Otherwise, secondary mutations are usually found in conjunction with primary mutations or other secondary mutations. For this reason, secondary mutations are considered as one of the pitfalls in the molecular genetic diagnosis of LHON, because an unusual mitochondrial genetic aetiology of the LHON may result from the cumulative effects of multiple secondary LHON mutations that have less severe phenotypic consequences individually (Caporali et al., 2018; Johns & Neufeld, 1993; Mackey & Howell, 1992).

Several mutations have been identified in different LHON families but most of the reported clinical cases are linked to one of the three most prevalent mutations as causing 90% of LHON: m.3460G>A, m.11778G>A, and m.14484T>C in *ND1*, *ND4*, and *ND6* gene, respectively. So this listed mutations are considered as primary LHON mtDNA mutations (Emperador et al., 2018; Gan et al., 2017; Huoponen et al., 1991; Johns et al., 1992; Wallace et al., 1988); mutation m.11778G>A is reported as the most frequent LHON primary pathological mutations, accounting for 70% prevalence (Maass & Matthé, 2018). Another 20% of cases have the other two mutations (Jurkute et al., 2019; Theodorou-Kanakari et al., 2018). Population deviations exist and are known in LHON, as m.14484T>C is accounted for 87% French Canadian LHON patients (Laberge et al., 2005); the remaining 10% of LHON mutations were found elsewhere in the mitochondrial genome (Dai et al., 2018), for example at positions 3635, 4171, 8836, 10663, 14502, and 14597. (Brown et al., 2002; Cui et al., 2019; Jackson et al., 2017; Koilkonda & Guy, 2011; Krylova et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2009).

The potential pathogenicity of primary LHON mutations was asserted by evolutionary conservation of particular mtDNA and protein position (Wang et al., 2008). Substitutions m.3460 G>A (p.Ala52Thr) in *ND1* subunit, m.11778G>A (p.Arg340His) in *ND4* subunit, and m.14484T>C (p.Met64Val) in *ND6*, all are in decreasing order of the seriousness on complex I function (Carelli et al., 1997; Majander et al., 1991). The same order is regarding evolutionary conservation of corresponding positions. Unlike most of the pathogenic mtDNA mutations, the three LHON primary mutations occur nearly or completely homoplasmically i.e. there is only mutant mtDNA (100%) within an individual having aggravation of the disease. Although homoplasmy is a common condition for LHON mutations not all carriers develop the pathology (López-Gallardo et al., 2018). In about 10–15% of the cases the mutations are heteroplasmic, and the individual harbours a mixture of wild type and mutant mtDNA (Yu-Wai-Man et al., 2002). Heteroplasmic state of mutations correlated inversely to the pathogenic nature of the variants and indicated their recent occurrence. The amount of mutant mtDNA transmitted by heteroplasmic females is unpredictable and may be highly variable (Huoponen et al., 2002; Vilkki et al., 1990). Furthermore, those LHON mutations predominantly display incomplete penetrance that's why they are exhibiting interpersonal variability even within matrilineal relatives regarding age at onset, severity and progression of LHON symptoms (Bianco, Valletti, et al., 2018; Kirches, 2011). Therefore, the presence of a LHON mtDNA mutation is necessary but not sufficient for LHON clinical manifestation (Wu et al., 2018). Penetrance of the disease seems dependent on the particular

mutation: only half of the 11778G>A index patients had a history of similar affected relatives while the proportion is higher for 3460G>A (71%) and 14484T>C (100%) patients (**Jaksch et al., 2001**). Blood mutation load in these heteroplasmic individuals is directly related to the risk of vision loss (**Chinnery et al., 2001**). The lower the percentage of pathological mutation, the higher the probability of spontaneous recovery, so heteroplasmy is frequent in patients who recover their vision (**Leo-Kottler et al., 2000**).

Furthermore, a possible correlation between the total mtDNA levels and LHON penetrance was reported in a population harbouring a primary LHON-causing mutation. Initial MtDNA amount largely determines the OXPHOS function and could explain why risk factors for LHON have been associated with lesser mtDNA amount (**Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2018**). As already reported in other studies, unaffected LHON mutation carriers showed the highest amount of mtDNA that protects against LHON mutations, regardless of the heteroplasmic/homoplasmic status. Furthermore, the mtDNA copy number progressively shifted towards higher values from controls to carriers, with the affected showing an intermediate value (**Bianco et al., 2016; Bianco et al., 2017; Bianco et al., 2018; Nishioka et al., 2004**). Additionally, findings of Lodi et al. demonstrated tissue-specific distribution for defect of energy metabolism in LHON mutations (**Kaplanová et al., 2004; Lodi et al., 2002**).

Even if LHON is usually a monosymptomatic disorder, it has also been linked to multisystemic conditions with variable neurological, cardiac, and skeletal abnormalities thus, the term Leber's "plus" was used to describe patients presented clinically with atypical phenotype (**Nikoskelainen et al., 1995**). In such cases double mtDNA mutations have been reported to cause LHON and LHON-plus. LHON-plus mtDNA mutations at m.14459 (LHON with dystonia) (**Shoffner et al., 1995**), and m.4160 (LHON with CNS disease) (**Berardo et al., 2020; Bursle et al., 2018; N Howell et al., 1991**) were detected in patients harbouring the classical LHON mutations.

Moreover, additional recurrent polymorphic mtDNA variants were also associated with LHON and were defined as "secondary" mutations by some authors (**Brown et al., 1992; Johns & Neufeld, 1991; Johns & Berman, 1991; Wallace, 1999**). These variants have collaborative influence with their associated primary mutations, contributing to higher penetrance and more deterioration with subsequently increased the potential for blindness (**Strobbe et al., 2018**). Besides that, intermediate LHON mutations are considered pathogenic independently on presence of primary mutations (**Fauser et al., 2002; S. Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018b**). Secondary/intermediate mutations were detected at positions 4216T>C in ND1, 13708G>A in ND5, 15257G>A and 15812G>A in CYB-MT, they were found linked collectively and play as modifiers in association with primary LHON mutations (**Ghelli et al., 2009**). They were noted to occur more frequently associated with m.117784G>A and m.14484T>C primary LHON mutations (**Karachanak et al., 2012**). A mitochondrial variant m.3394T>C in *ND1*, responsible for changing of evolutionarily conserved tyrosine to histidine (Tyr 30His) also has been found strongly associated with reduced complex I activity and contributed to higher penetrance and more deterioration of 11778G>A positive LHON disease (**Ji et al., 2016**). It was reported in European Caucasian and Chinese LHON patients (**Brown et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2010**), whereas m.3394T>C detected in French-Canadian families with LHON was in association with m.14484T>C mutation (**Macmillan et al., 2000**). The latter is rarely found to co-exist with individual m.3460 G>A LHON cases (**Du et al., 2011**). Other mitochondrial variants such as 4435A>G, 5601C>T and 15951A>G are mostly linked to 11778G>A LHON mutation (**Ding et al., 2020; Li et al., 2006; Qu et al., 2006**). Some novel secondary/intermediate mutations are described in LHON pedigrees at 4516G>A, 8779C>T, and 15986insG in *MT-ND2*, *MT-ATP6*, and *MT-TP* respectively (**Jancic et al., 2020**).

The role of these “secondary mutations” is widely debated. This was elucidated by firmly establishing these variants as mtDNA haplogroups-related polymorphic markers (A. Torroni et al., 1996). Incomplete penetrance of the primary LHON mutations strengthens competence of co-occurred secondary LHON-associated mtDNA mutations. Mitochondrial genetic background in different populations has influence on onset and phenotypic assessments of different primary mutations (Yanli Ji et al., 2008). Thus, multiple research groups have been previously examined in various populations worldwide the association of some LHON “primary” mutations with a specific mtDNA haplogroups, as penetrance enhancer. Several reports on Chinese LHON families indicated the occurrence of mtDNA backgrounds characterized by an unusually high or even complete LHON penetrance, frequently due to coexisting synergistic effect with pathogenic mutations, indicating the direct link with clinical phenotype (Dai et al., 2018; Yang, et al., 2009b; Zhang et al., 2012b). On the contrary, other studies could not display any direct link with clinical features or disease hallmark (Dogulu et al., 2001; Matsumoto et al., 1999; Rezvani et al., 2013; Shu et al., 2012).

Many studies tackled the issue of providing a functional evidence for the modifying role of the mtDNA haplotype and/or the private variants or co-existing mtDNA mutations which are population specific. At the European geographical level, mtDNA haplogroup R subtypes, haplogroups J in particular, subhaplogroup J2b and J1c in Western European families, containing polymorphic variants 4216T>C, 1370G>A, 15257G>A and 15812G>A in *MT-ND1*, *MT-ND5* and *MT-CYB* genes respectively, showed preferentially strong association with primary mutations 11778G>A, and 14484T>C. They act synergistically for over presenting the pathogenic potential with subsequently fundamental significance for expression of those primary mutations (Caporali et al., 2018). This could be an explanation for the tendency of 11778/ND4 and 14484/ND6 mutations to persist longer within a population when associated with haplogroup J (Carelli et al., 2004). By contrast, m. 3460G>A LHON mutation did not show mtDNA haplogroup specificity, and it is distributed in haplogroups J in frequencies similar to the control population (Brown et al., 2002; Herrstadt & Howell, 2004; Man et al., 2004). Recently, some studies presented probability of slight tendency toward increased penetrance of m.3460G>A on haplogroup J2 (Caporali et al., 2018; Hudson et al., 2007), and on haplogroup K (Saikia et al., 2017). Haplogroup H has been proposed to associate with low penetrance when occurring with the m.14484T>C mutation (Howell et al., 2003; Puomila et al., 2007), and decreases the risk with m.11778G>A (Hudson et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2017). It is suggested that haplogroups F, A2 and C predict a good prognosis on LHON (Qiao et al., 2015; Romero et al., 2014).

Two independent studies on Asian populations also showed that the haplogroups M7b1'2 and G increase visual failure and vary disease penetrance in the Chinese population with the m.11778G>A mutation, whereas M8a might confer a protective role with reduced disease penetrance (Ji et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2017). Furthermore, the complete sequence analysis of mtDNA carrying rare LHON mutations identified genosets that may also act as genetic modifiers on different haplogroups as M and N macro-haplogroups (Abu-Amero & Bosley, 2006; Achilli et al., 2012). Sets of two or more mtDNA variants have been postulated as modulators of penetrance, such as combinations of multiple private “weak” pathogenic mutations or combination of established LHON pathogenic mutations with variants, already known as markers of specific haplogroups, but detected outside the usual haplogroup background (La Morgia et al., 2008; La Morgia et al., 2014).

In addition to the above, the incomplete penetrance and the gender bias imply that additional genetic and/or environmental factors have been suggested and widely debated in modulation of LHON phenotypic expression (Bu & Rotter, 1991; Caporali et al., 2017). Thence, exposure to certain environmental factors could modulate LHON expression and influence LHON penetrance, triggering the pathological features in. Five pairs of monozygotic twins harbouring a primary LHON mutation have been reported in the literature and in two cases the twins have remained discordant. Although there is always the possibility that the unaffected sibling will lose vision later

on his life, the existence of discordant monozygotic twins strongly suggests that non-genetic factors also contribute to LHON penetrance (Yen et al., 2006). The contribution of environmental factors is supported by the fact that clinical manifestations of toxic and nutritional neuropathies are similar to those observed in LHON (Carelli et al., 2002). These includes tobacco smoking, alcohol consumption, head injury, some systematic diseases and drugs (Kogachi et al., 2019; Giordano et al., 2015; Kirkman et al., 2009; Carelli et al., 2007;). Interestingly, diet and food-derived compounds could be ETC inhibitors and penetrance modifiers for example, B12 deficiency (Pott & Wong, 2006), capsaicin from hot peppers and rolliniastatin-1 from the custard apple (López-Gallardo et al., 2018).

Because of male prevalence chromosome X has been analysed for putative LHON-related genes. Only recently, two different loci have been identified on chromosome X. A linkage analysis in an extended Brazilian family carrying the 11778G>A LHON mutation as well as a large study in LHON European families revealed the existence of X-linked loci (Hudson et al., 2005; Shankar et al., 2008), but the real involvement of chromosome X in LHON penetrance still need to be elucidated. Several other approaches have been tried unsuccessfully, in order to find a modifying gene, such as X-inactivation pattern analysis, or directly sequencing of candidate genes (Pegoraro et al., 1996; Pegoraro et al., 2003; Petruzzella et al., 2007). Genetic polymorphisms of nuclear genes involved in oxidative stress response and in apoptosis have been investigated as well in LHON 11778G>A patients. LHON patients carrying an oxidative-stress related polymorphism in the *EPHX1* gene - encoding a microsomal epoxide hydrolase, or an apoptosis-related polymorphism in the *TP53* gene - encoding the onco-protein p53, developed pathology earlier than did those without these genetic trait suggesting that increased vulnerability to oxidative stress or to apoptosis might contribute to exacerbate the pathology (Ishikawa et al., 2005; Yen et al., 2006). Polymorphisms in the *COX2* genes showed the potential influence on the expression of mild deleterious LHON mutations (Zhadanov et al., 2006); however, the effective role of these genetic traits in LHON pathogenesis is not yet fully clarified. Inflammation and stress like head trauma, increased intraocular pressure, and intraocular surgery, have been linked to the onset of LHON too (Sergouniotis et al., 2018; Thouin et al., 2013).

1.7.1.3. Biochemistry

Biochemical analyses of ETC deficits were previously studied on fibroblasts and transmittochondrial cytoplasmic hybrids (Jankauskaitė et al., 2017). The patient's mtDNA are co-transferred, dissected from the original nuclear genome and placed in a "neutral" nuclear background. In this widely used cellular model the main biochemical features of LHON mutations have been reproduced

Primary LHON mutations affect the overall mitochondrial respiration driven by complex I substrates, generally induce moderate changes in the catalytic function of complex I. Interestingly, in these mutations different percentages of reduction have been reported, in which m.3460G>A mutation caused for the 60–80% worse decline of complex 1 activity, than other LHON primary mutations (Catarino et al., 2017; Yu-Wai-Man et al., 2002).

Baracca and coll., 2005, showed that complex I-driven ATP synthesis is consistently reduced with all three common LHON mutations, even though cells may compensate this energy impairment by alternative pathways, such as glycolysis and complex II/glycerol 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (Baracca et al., 2005). On the other hand, a significant increase in ROS generation and glutathione depletion, have been indeed observed in NT2 neuronal differentiated LHON cybrids carrying the 11778/ND4 and 3460/ND1 mutations (Schoeler et al., 2007; A. Wong et al., 2002).

Drastic changes in the mitochondrial antioxidant enzymatic machinery were also observed culturing cells in glucose free/galactose medium, suggesting a possible burst of oxidative stress, which may be implicated in the apoptotic cell death observed in LHON cybrids under these

conditions of forced oxidative metabolism. The typical apoptotic hallmarks of cell death were reported (**Zhang et al., 2018b**), including changes in nuclear morphology, chromatin condensation and fragmentation of chromosomal DNA. With significant release of cytochrome c from mitochondria, the galactose-induced death process was caspase independent (**Carelli, et al., 2007b; Floreani et al., 2005; Ghelli et al., 2003**)

1.7.1.4. Therapy and experimental treatments

Patients with primary LHON pathogenic mtDNA mutations have variable prognosis of spontaneous recovery of visual loss (**Shemesh & Margolin, 2019**). Regarding mutations m.11778 G>A, m. 3460G>A, and m. 14484T>C are accounted to be with low, intermediate and high visual recovery prognosis, respectively (**Datta et al., 2016; Mashima et al., 2017**). Notably in some longitudinal studies for LHON mutations, the decrease in mtDNA mutation load accompanied by a decline in the RGCs mutation load, and the childhood-onset LHON, parallels the rate of spontaneous visual recovery in LHON patients (**Emperador et al., 2018; Howell et al., 2000; Jacobi et al., 2001**)

Currently, there is no healing for irreversible LHON visual loss which ends by RGC death. Liu et al, 2020 determined some predictors within the period between onset and treatment associated with significant improvement in visual acuity in patients with LHON (**Liu et al., 2020**). Idebenone (a quinone analogue of coenzyme Q10) has been approved to be effective in increasing the rate of recovery in LHON especially in patients with discordant visual acuity and if the patients are treated early in the disease course (**Finsterer, 2020; Jankauskaitė et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020**).

Gene therapy has a promising effective future particularly for those patients whose phenotypic expression is limited to the optic nerve and retinal ganglion cells, as the affected neurons are anatomically accessible to directed therapy (**Bahr et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2020**). Patients with LHON can respond to targeted gene therapy irrespective of additional multilocus mitochondrial mutations (**Yang et al., 2020**). Animal model supports the potential role of the nuclear gene (*SOD2*) transfer as a gene therapy for LHON by reducing apoptosis of retinal ganglion cells and degeneration of optic nerve fibers, the hallmarks of this disease (**Qi et al., 2004**).

Mitochondrial biogenesis is reported also as a potential therapeutic target for LHON (**Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2018; Storoni et al., 2019**). Ketogenic treatment might be effective for heteroplasmic and homoplasmic LHON patients. It has ability to decrease the LHON pathologic point mutation load so it could be a therapeutic strategy for LHON (**Emperador et al., 2019**).

1.7.2. Mitochondrial encephalomyopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes (MELAS)

MELAS was first described as a “neurodegenerative disease” caused by the decreased ability of cells to produce sufficient energy in the form of ATP (**Pavlakis et al., 1984**). Nowadays, MELAS is considered as one of the most severe maternally inherited mitochondrial diseases - related usually to mt-tRNA gene mutations (OMIM # 540000). Multisystemic organ involvement is seen in MELAS including the central nervous system (CNS), skeletal muscle, eye, cardiac muscle, and, more rarely, the gastrointestinal and renal systems (**Yamamoto et al., 2017**).

1.7.2.1. Overview

Pavlakis et al, 1984 in their study coined the acronym MELAS for mitochondrial encephalomyopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes. MELAS is clinically presented by heterogeneous phenotypes possibly due to varying percentages of heteroplasmy. In distinct, MELAS has a broad range of possible clinical manifestations and severely affects organ systems with high energy demands, including the brain and skeletal muscle. The involvement of the central

nervous system occur when the mutant is present at higher percentages (**Brambilla et al., 2019; Montagna et al., 1988; Pavlakis et al., 1984**). The earlier the central nervous system is involved, the more severe MELAS may be (**DiMauro et al., 2013**). Although it is a hereditary disease, sporadic cases are also very common (**Hirano et al., 1992; Keshavaraj, 2007**).

Clinical presentation is varying considerably in age at onset, course, and severity up to death in early childhood. Onset range is between childhood and adulthood. The stroke like episode (SLE) is considered as one of the remarkable clinical features with hemiparesis and hemianopsia due to focal brain lesions. Lesions are often localized in the parieto-occipital lobes, but a characteristic medial temporal lobe atrophy was detected (**Sasaki et al., 2020**). Although the first stroke episode usually occurs in childhood between the ages of 4 to 15 years late-onset occurrence is recognized also There are rare case reports in the literatures of patients presenting and being diagnosed at age older than 40 years (**Sinnecker et al., 2019; van Adel & Tarnopolsky, 2009**). Other signs of CNS involvement include dementia, developmental retardation, short stature, recurrent headache, focal or generalized seizures, pigmentary retinopathy, deafness and ataxia can be observed in some patients. There is higher incidence of bilateral clinical symptoms such as cortical blindness or auditory agnosia (**Mancuso et al., 2020**).

Lactic acidosis is another core manifestation of MELAS; increased acidity in the blood can lead to vomiting, abdominal pain, extreme tiredness (fatigue), muscle weakness, and difficulty breathing. Other non-nervous system symptoms including cardiomyopathy, heart failure and sudden cardiac arrest may be prominent also (**Bugiardini et al., 2019**). Available studies show that among people with MELAS syndrome, only subjects with a relevant impairment of insulin secretion develop diabetes (**El-Hattab et al., 2014**). Because MELAS has unpredictable presentations and clinical course, it can be commonly misdiagnosed as encephalitis, Cerebral autosomal dominant arteriopathy with subcortical infarcts and leukoencephalopathy, (CADASIL), myasthenia gravis, hepatolenticular degeneration or brain neoplasms- MELAS also can be misdiagnosed with other overlapping genetic syndromes That's why MELAS early diagnosis can be difficult (**Song et al., 2019**). Faster genetic testing for patients experienced unexplained stroke before age 40 should be done for MELAS exclusion, especially for those with onset before age 20 (**Mancuso et al., 2020**). Mutation detection and muscle biopsy were considered as the classical diagnostic methods of MELAS and the gold standard for diagnosing MELAS; in addition Iizuka et al proposed specific diagnostic criteria (**Alston et al., 2017**).

MELAS is a disease with a high rate of morbidity and mortality, due to recurrent stroke-like episodes, cerebral atrophy, physical and mental deterioration over time (**Goldstein & Servidei, 2019**). The estimated prevalence of MELAS varies in different populations; a prevalence of MELAS in Finland estimated as high as 16.3 in 100,000 (**Majamaa et al., 1998**), while in an Asian population is reported as 0.2 in 100,000 (**Yatsuga et al., 2012**); The observed average age of death in MELAS patients was reported to be 19–34.5 years, with 22% of death occurring in younger than 18 years (**Kaufmann et al., 2011**). Studies have reported that prognosis of MELAS is much worse in the presence of severe neurological involvement (**Chen et al., 2020**) or cardiomyopathy (**Malfatti et al., 2013**).

1.7.2.2. Genetic basis

MELAS is a genetically determined mitochondrial disease, specified by over 30 pathogenic mtDNA variants (**Parikh et al., 2015; Wiwatwongwana & Lyons, 2013**) that are generally heteroplasmic (**DiMauro & Moraes, 1993; Roberta & Falchetti, 2018**). The predominant mtDNA mutation is invariably heteroplasmic in mitochondrial tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} (**Schon et al., 1997; Yasukawa et al., 2001**). This mutation m.3243A>G mutation in MT-TL1 gene causing replacement of the nucleotide adenine by the nucleotide guanine at position 3243, being prevalent in more than 80% of all cases of MELAS. Substitution m.3271T>C in the same tRNA is considered as the second common mutation, is found in 10% of cases (**Pia & Lui, 2020; Wang &**

Le, 2015). The correlation of 3243A>G heteroplasmy percent and the clinical manifestations has more convenient value for muscle biopsy than blood sample (**Bentlage & Attardi, 1996; Chinnery et al., 1999b; Chinnery et al., 1997**).

The 3243A>G is counted as the most predominant MELAS mutation with utmost phenotypic diversity. It has also been detected in other mitochondrial diseases such as PEO, isolated myopathy alone, cardiomyopathy, maternally inherited diabetes (**Finsterer, 2007; Hirano et al., 1992**); Mutation 3243A>G has been reported a wide variety frequencies in different population (**Schaefer et al., 2019; Manwaring et al., 2007; Schaefer et al., 2008**).

Several other MELAS-associated point mutations were identified also in the same tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} (m.3244G>A, m.3258T>C, and m.3291T>C) (Fig. 8) (**Dubeau et al., 2000; Goto et al., 1990**). Further, other MELAS-associated mutations were later reported at other tRNAs as tRNA^{Val}, tRNA^{Gln}, and tRNA^{Lys} (1642G>A in *MT-TV*, 4332G>A in *MT-TQ*, and 8316T>C in *MT-TK* gene) (**Bataillard et al., 2001; Campos et al., 2000; de Coo et al., 1998**). All of this leads to instability of tRNA which results in reduction and insufficiency of OXPHOS (**Lorenzoni et al., 2015; Douglas C. Wallace, 2001**). Nuclear genes causing MELAS as POLG and BCS1L should be excluded in MELAS negative 3243A>G cases (**Deschauer et al., 2007; Hinson et al., 2007**). Mutations in mitochondrial protein coding genes *MT-ND5* and *MT-CO3* were reported also (**Corona et al., 2001; Liolitsa et al., 2003; Santorelli et al., 1997; Manfredi et al., 1995; Shanske et al., 2008; Sasaki et al., 2020**). In addition mutations in ND1, rRNA genes and small-scale mtDNA deletions were detected also.

As MELAS is a genetically heterogeneous disorder, mitochondrial dysfunctions could have multiple causes, including: disruption of the correct 3D folding structure of tRNA with decreasing its stability; and affection the anticodon wobble base pair of mt-tRNA molecules with reduction the capacity for amino-acylation and methylation (**Chomyn et al., 2000; Park et al., 2003**). The mt tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} lacking the taurine wobble base-modification showed severely reduced UUG translation. This result could explain the defective translation of UUG-rich genes that leads to the observed decrease in respiratory chain activity eventually, and reduced mitochondrial protein synthesis (**Yasukawa et al., 2005**). It was noticed that nucleotide m.3243 is located in the binding site for the mitochondrial transcription termination factor protein (mTERF) in the *MT-TL1* gene, which enhances replication pausing around nucleotide 3243 (**Hyvärinen et al., 2007**). It is crucially important that the pathological m.3243A>G mutation can confer a replicative advantage by reducing the affinity of binding of mTERF, with subsequently, reduction of replication pausing (**Hess et al., 1991**). It is also embedded in the middle of a tridecamer sequence necessary for the formation of the 3' ends of 16S ribosomal RNA. So, MELAS mutation results in severe impairment of 16S rRNA molecule transcription termination site, with subsequent accumulation of unprocessed RNA (**Goto et al., 1992; Simon, 2017; Queen, Steyn, Lord, & Elson, 2017**).

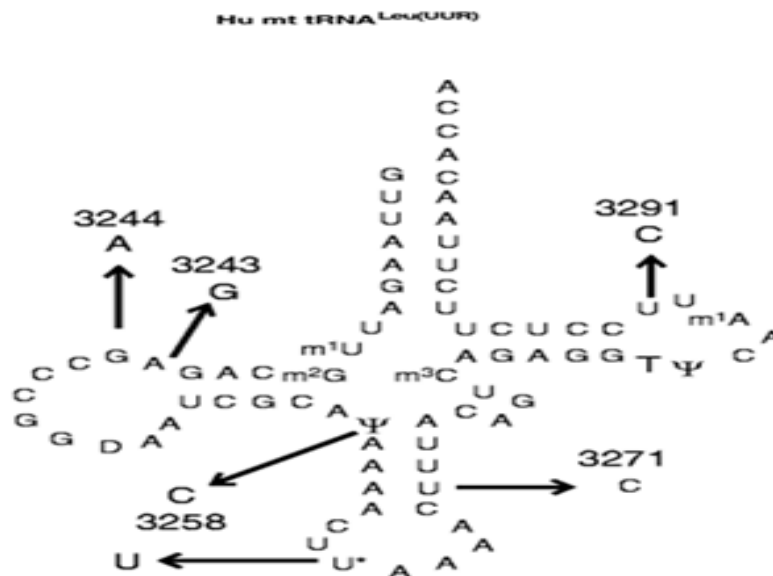


Figure 8

Secondary structure of the human mitochondrial tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} representing different MELAS mutations (Schaffer & Jong, 2011).

The association of the variable phenotypic expression of MELAS m.3243A>G and mtDNA haplotypes wasn't considered in early studies; no finding data was reported that MELAS is preferentially associated with any specific haplogroup, neither for co-founder effect (Lin et al., 2014; Torroni et al., 2003). Several recent studies have been established new evidence of association of MELAS m.3243A>G mutation with specific haplogroups, for example, with haplogroup J in French patients (Pierron et al., 2008); with haplogroups H, U and K in Caucasian population (Manwaring et al., 2007); with haplogroup B2 in native Americans (Delgado-Sánchez et al., 2007); with haplogroup M7c in Asian population (Choi et al., 2008).

Another research conflict, was regarding the presence of mtDNA polymorphic variants and increased risk of stroke in MELAS patients with the m.3243A>G mutation. It was found that haplogroup H1 corroborate a protective effect for ischemic stroke in Portuguese patients; conversely, the pre-HV/HV and U haplogroups emerge as potential genetic factors conferring risk for stroke (Rosa et al., 2008). The polymorphic variant m.12308A>G, in tRNA^{Leu(CUN)} showed increase the risk of developing stroke in patients with the m.3243A>G mutation (Pulkes et al., 2000). After that, other study was not able to confirm this positive association (Deschauer et al., 2004).

1.7.2.3. Biochemistry

The lactic acid elevation in blood and cerebrospinal fluid in MELAS patients is conducive to the diagnosis and evaluation of the efficacy of the treatment as discussed previously. Muscle biopsy detects abnormal changes specific to mitochondrial diseases as COX-stained or negative muscle fibres, RRF cells, and SDH-stained muscle fibres. Also, biochemical enzyme assay in the muscle tissue can reveals deficiency of respiratory complexes in MELAS syndrome (Chen et al., 2020; Baek et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018).

Using a cybrid cell system, it is demonstrated that the m.3243A>G mutation is the direct cause of reductions in oxygen consumption and mitochondrial protein synthesis in MELAS syndrome. It is shown that cells are apparently normal if mutant mtDNA is below 70%. A mild complex I deficit is evident if amount of mutant mtDNA is between 70% and 90%. . Finally when is above 90% mutant mtDNA there is a general impairment of respiration, with lower ATP/ADP ratios, declined energy charge and increased oxidative stress, but only at 95% or more mutant mtDNA there is a severe

drop in mitochondrial protein synthesis. Also, measurement of respiratory enzyme activities in intact mitochondria revealed that more than one half of the patients with MELAS may have complex I or complex I + IV deficiency. A close relationship appears to exist between MELAS and complex I deficiency (**Chomyn et al., 1992; Lehtinen et al., 2000**).

In HeLa cybrids cells, the taurine-containing modified uridine ($\tau\text{m}5\text{s}2\text{U}$; 5taurinomethyluridine), which normally occurs at the anticodon wobble position of mt tRNA^{Leu(UUR)}, remains unmodified in mt tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} bearing either the m.3243A>G or m.3271T>C MELAS mutations. This indicates that the lack of the modification at the wobble position which is forced by the pathogenic point mutation leads to the particular MELAS phenotype through mistranslation (**Yasukawa et al., 2000**).

1.7.2.4. Neuroimaging

On conventional MRI, cortical/subcortical alteration can be detected; reversibility and contralaterality is also defined, the affected areas not correlate to vascular territories and may cause cortical laminar necrosis, gliosis and atrophy (**Ng et al., 2019**).

1.7.2.5. Therapy and experimental treatments

Currently, there is as yet no treatment to stop the damage done by MELAS syndrome, and the outcome for individuals with the syndrome is usually poor. The management mainly includes symptomatic treatment and supportive drug therapy with “mitochondrial cocktail”. L-arginine and taurine supplementation can help to improve the endurance of individuals with MELAS. (**Felczak et al., 2017; Finsterer, 2019; Ikawa et al., 2020; Ohsawa et al., 2019**). MitoTALENs and the unique combination of Pioglitazone and Deoxyribonucleoside were recently explored in MELAS syndrome (**Burgin et al., 2020; Hashimoto et al., 2015**).

1.7.3. Other mitochondrial diseases

Heterogeneous mitochondrial syndromes were well established with variable outcomes. The mtDNA mutations that cause these disorders are generally heteroplasmic, and the age of disease onset is relatively young (**DiMauro & Moraes, 1993; Roberta & Falchetti, 2018**). Also, mitoTALENs and experimental gene replacement therapy were explored and provides benefit in some of them (**Dulaurier et al., 2020**).

Leigh syndrome (LS)

Leigh syndrome (also called Leigh disease and sub-acute necrotizing encephalomyelopathy, OMIM # 25600, LS) is a highly progressive and severe neurodegenerative disorder in children, with onset within the first months or years of life often following a viral infection (**Halperin et al., 2020**). LS is characterized by psychomotor regression with progressive loss of mental and movement abilities and may result in fatal encephalopathy (**Inak et al., 2019**). The disorder could be associated with mutations in almost 80 different genes that have been identified in both the nuclear and mitochondrial genome (**Craven et al., 2017**). Impact of nuclear genes on assembly factors of the mitochondrial genetic processes, respiratory chain suits and the involved proteins results in “classic” Leigh syndrome or Leigh-like syndrome (**Gerards et al., 2016**). On the other hand maternally-inherited mtDNA mutations are detected in about 20% of LS cases result in Maternally inherited Leigh syndrome (MILS) (**Lake et al., 2016**). Point mutations m.8993T>G or the less severe m.8993T>C in *MT-ATP6* gene (in the complex V) are the most frequent LS mitochondrial mutations. Disease occurs when mutation load is greater than 90%, with subsequent substitution of the highly evolutionary conserved leucine at position 156 to either an arginine or a proline (**de Vries et al., 1993; Schubert & Vilarinho, 2020**). This affects the protein component of the F1F0-ATPase, that directly blocks ATP generation (**Sgarbi et al., 2006**). Also, both mutations are associated with neuropathy, ataxia, and retinitis pigmentosa (NARP) when mutation load is around 50%–60% (**Ruhoy & Saneto, 2014; Uziel et al., 2011**).

Myoclonic Epilepsy with Ragged Red Fibers (MERRF)

MERRF syndrome (OMIM # 545000) is chronic neurodegenerative mitochondrial disease in children and adults, presented by broad phenotypes as myoclonus, myopathy, and spasticity (**Villanueva-Paz et al., 2020**). It has a little genotypic heterogeneity, the most common mutations reported in *MT-TK/tRNA(Lys)* gene accounting for more than 80% of all cases (**Mancuso et al., 2007**). Other mutations are detected in *MT-TL/tRNA (Leu)* (**Emmanuele et al., 2011; K. Liu et al., 2014**), *MT-TI/tRNA (Ile)* (**Hahn et al., 2011**), *MT-TF/tRNA (Phe)* (**Ling et al., 2007**), and *MT-TP/tRNA (Pro)* genes (**Blakely et al., 2009**).

Kearns–Sayre syndrome (KSS)

KSS (OMIM # 530000) is a mitochondrial myopathy with systemic and ocular manifestations due to single mtDNA deletions with a prevalence of 1–3 cases in 100,000 individuals (**Leal et al., 2016**), presented before the age of 20 years. It was defined by a characteristic triad of progressive external ophthalmoplegia; pigmentary retinopathy; atrioventricular block; and cerebellar ataxia. KSS reported as the least aggressive deletion syndromes (**Pitceathly et al., 2012**).

2. Objectives

In this research, the following goals were set:

- 1.** Verification of primary mutations in mtDNA in patients clinically diagnosed with mitochondrial pathies. The majority of cases will include Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON) OMIM#535000 or mitochondrial encephalomyopathy, lactic acidosis, and stroke-like episodes (MELAS) OMIM#540000. Other mitochondrial pathies will also be included.
- 2.** Detection of secondary/intermediate mutations in mtDNA and analysis of their roles as modifiers.
- 3.** Establishing a correlation between detected mtDNA mutations and phenotypic characterization of subjects.
- 4.** Determination of specific mitochondrial genetic background in all included Serbian subjects by haplogroup analysis.
- 5.** Construction of phylogenetic tree for associated sets of genotypes (genosets) of haplogroups subclades.

3. Patients and Methods

3.1. Respondents

This study included 11 Serbian unrelated probands (marked as P1 to P11) diagnosed with mitochondrial pathies and four asymptomatic mutation carriers which are grouped in two pedigrees (relatives of probands P1 and P2). In addition, six probands confirmed as LHON in the previous period (marked as L1 to L6) were included in haplogroup analysis only. Respondents were recruited from the Clinic for Neurology and Psychiatry for Children and Youth and Clinic of Neurology, Clinical Centre of Serbia (CCS), Belgrade, Serbia. All of them were registered in the computer database, main group in the period from 2013-2019. This research is approved by the Ethical committee of the Faculty of Medicine, University of Belgrade (decision number: 2650/VI-1).

Clinical diagnosis has been established by doctors, specialists of neurology according to valid clinical criteria of neurodegenerative mitochondrial pathies with heterogeneous phenotypes. The duration of the disease is defined as the period from the onset of the first symptoms that can be associated with mitochondrial pathies until the time of examination, while other specific clinical data, including a positive family history, are systematically collected using the appropriate questionnaire.

Molecular genetic procedures, as well as the analysis and interpretation of the results were carried out at the Laboratory for Molecular and Genetic Diagnostics of Neurological Diseases at the Clinic for Neurology, KCS. In order to carry out molecular genetic testing, from each respondent 5 ml of peripheral blood was collected. EDTA (1.8 mg / 1 ml of blood) was used as an anticoagulant; samples were stored at -20°C. Respondents gave informed consent to the use of their DNA samples for molecular-genetic analysis of genes associated with mitochondrial pathies.

3.2. Methods

In this study, the whole mitochondrial genome (np 1–16,569) was screened for the purpose of detecting primary and secondary/ intermediate mutations as well as polymorphisms associated with mitochondrial pathies. Sequencing of the full mtDNA genome was performed for all using direct Sanger sequencing method. In the following chapters, DNA extraction and sequencing of multiple segmental amplicons of mtDNA are described in details.

3.2.1. Extraction of DNA

DNA extraction was performed from 5 ml of peripheral blood, using one of the two methods: "salting out" method (Miller, Dykes, & Polesky, 1988) or "spin-column" method (PureLink® Genomic DNA Mini Kit, Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA, <https://www.thermofisher.com>). According to the manufacturer's specification, Invitrogen's kit is designed to rapid extraction of total DNA from full blood, leukocyte residue, bone marrow, other body fluids, cultured cells, tissues, and forensic samples.

3.2.1.1. Protocol for the isolation of DNA by commercial Kit ("spin-column" method)

We were used PureLink™ Genomic DNA Mini Kit, Invitrogen, USA.

Sample preparation

Sample preparation in 1.5 ml tube was done as a first step to degrade and minimize tissues/cells and RNA contaminations in the sample, by adding 20 µl of proteinase K and RNAase A, respectively, to 200 µl peripheral blood. The mixture is shortly vortexed and briefly centrifuged (Centrifuges 5804 R, rotor FA-45-30-11, Eppendorf, Germany).

Binding DNA

200 µl of PureLink™ Genomic Lysis/Binding buffer was added to the prepared lysate, briefly vortexed and incubated for 10 minutes at 56°C. Then, 200 µl of 99% ethanol was added, briefly vortexed and centrifuged. The sample was transferred to PureLink™ Genomic spin column, centrifuged for at 10,000 × g for 1 minute. The collection tube was discarded and the spin column was placed into a clean PureLink® collection tube.

Washing DNA

According to instructions, Wash Buffer 1 and 2 were prepared with ethanol. 500 µL of Wash Buffer 1 was added to the column. The column was centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 1 minute. The collection tube was then discarded and the spin column was placed into a clean PureLink® collection tube of 2 ml and 500 µl Wash Buffer 2 was added. Column was centrifuged at maximum speed for 3 minutes and then the collection tube was discarded.

Eluting DNA

The spin column was placed in a sterile 1.5-mL microcentrifuge tube. 100 µl of deionized water was added to the column and the sample was incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes, and centrifuged at maximum speed for 2 minute at room temperature. The tube then contained purified DNA while the column was removed and discarded.

Storing DNA

The purified DNA was preserved at -20°C for storage or kept at 4°C if immediately used for the downstream procedures.

According to the manufacturer's specification, if 200 µl of human blood is used as a material, a yield of 3-10 µg DNA is expected.

3.2.1.2. Protocol for the isolation of DNA by salting out method

In the first step, the same volume of blood (5-10 ml) was added to the same volume of lysis buffer (0.32M sucrose, 10 mM TRIS HCl pH 7.5, 1% TRITONx100, 5 mM MgCl₂) and incubated for 15 minutes at 4 °C. 2000 rpm, supernatant rejection and resuspension in physiological buffer (0.075 M NaCl, 0.025 M EDTA pH 8) is repeated until the precipitate becomes white. The residue is resuspended in 3 ml buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 400 mM NaCl; 3 mM Na₂EDTA). Incubation is carried out overnight at 37 ° C with 0.2 ml of 10% SDS and 0.5 ml of proteinase K.

After digestion, 1 ml of 6 M NaCl is added, vortexed for 15 seconds and centrifuged for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. The supernatant is poured into a new tube and the same amount of isopropanol is added. It is lightly shaken to extract the DNA which are transferred by pipette into 70% ethanol for 30 seconds, dried and resuspended in redistilled water.

3.2.2. Determination of quantity and quality of DNA

Spectrophotometry is a method based on the specific absorption of the light of the test substance in the UV region, that is, the measurement of the amount of light absorbed by a substance at a given wavelength. The wavelength at which the nucleic acids absorb the maximum light is 260 nm, so the amount of absorbed light at this wavelength corresponds to the concentration of DNA in the test sample.

Spectrophotometry can also determine the purity of the DNA sample itself and thus check the effectiveness of the purification during the isolation process. Substances that can be found in the sample, besides the DNA, absorb different wavelengths of the UV spectrum. Phenolic anions, thiocyanate and peptides absorb light at a wavelength of 230 nm, at 280 nm the greatest absorption is by phenol and protein, while the presence of salt in the sample indicates an absorbance at 330 nm. For DNA quantitation, the wavelength is assumed to be 260 nm. A₂₆₀ values can be converted into µg/µL using Beer's Law.

The DNA concentration and quality of isolated DNA were determined using the BioPhotometer (Eppendorf, Germany), in plastic cuvette (Eppendorf, Germany) with an optical path of 10 mm.

Protocol for spectrophotometric determination of DNA quantity

- 50 µl of diluted sample DNA in deionized water was prepared in a ratio of 1:10;
- The spectrophotometer adjusts the absorbance of the solvent, that is, the deionized water, as a blank probe;
- Then, the absorbance for the sample was measured;
- The spectrophotometer displays the sample concentration, the absorbance ratio A260/A280, A230/A260 and the value of the absorbent A340.

If DNA sample has a good quality, the A260/A280 ratio should be between 1.8 and 2.0, while the A230/A260 ratio should be less than 0.5. The absorbance measured at 340 nm (A340) should be zero.

Agarose gel electrophoresis is used for checking the quality of isolated mtDNA.

3.2.3. MtDNA Sanger Sequencing

Sanger sequencing is a direct method, which is considered to be the "gold standard" for detection of point mutations, short insertion and deletions. This method determines the exact order of nucleotides in the DNA molecule and is based on the DNA termination synthesis method introduced by Sanger in the seventies of the last century (F. Sanger et al., 1977).

3.2.3.1. MtDNA Amplification by Polymerase Chain Reaction

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is a method that represents in vitro amplification of a specific, predefined DNA sequence and is based on the DNA replication process (Mullis et al., 1986). Upstream and downstream primers define DNA sequence to be amplified. They are complementary to the ends of the DNA sequence so the ends of the multiplied fragment are defined by the 5' ends of the primer. The second component necessary for a successful PCR reaction is thermostable DNA polymerase isolated from Archaea *Thermus aquaticus* (Taq polymerase). In addition to the DNA matrix, primer and polymerase in the PCR reaction mixture, the following components are also needed: nucleotides (dATP, dCTP, dGTP, and dTTP), ions of magnesium, buffer and additives. Nucleotides represent building elements of the amplification, and ions of magnesium build complexes with nucleotides and thus form a substrate for Taq polymerase. Buffer provides optimum conditions for polymerase (pH 8.3 to 9.2), while additives help complete DNA denaturation, polymer stabilization and elimination of secondary structures of primer or matrix.

Primer Sequences for mtDNA PCR amplification

According to Taylor et al (2001), amplification of the entire mtDNA was done by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Previously designed M13-tagged 28 pairs of oligonucleotide primers were used to produce 28 overlapping fragments (Tab. 3). Each fragment ranges from 600 to 700bp and simplify the direct sequencing reaction setup of PCR-amplified products. Forward primers are tagged with 18 nt of 21 M13 forward sequence (5'-TGTAACACGACGGCCAGT-3') and reverse primers tagged with 18 nt of the reverse M13 sequence (5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGACC-3'). Each primer pair is designed to anneal optimally at 58°C, thereby permitting simultaneous amplification of the 28 PCR reactions which required amplifying a complete mitochondrial genome.

Table 3: M13-tagged oligonucleotide primer pairs used for PCR amplification of mtDNA templates

Forward	Nucleotide positions	Reverse	Nucleotide	Product size
1F	516–534	1R	1190–1172	675
2F	1138–1156	2R	1801–1782	664
3F	1756–1776	3R	2444–2426	689
4F	2395–2415	4R	3074–3054	680
5F	2995–3013	5R	3645–3627	651
6F	3536–3553	6R	4239–4219	704
7F	4184–4202	7R	4869–4852	686
8F	4832–4849	8R	5570–5551	739
9F	5526–5545	9R	6188–6171	663
10F	6115–6134	10R	6781–6761	667
11F	6730–6750	11R	7398–7379	669
12F	7349–7369	12R	8009–7990	661
13F	7960–7979	13R	8641–8621	682
14F	8563–8581	14R	9231–9212	669
15F	9181–9198	15R	9867–9848	687
16F	9821–9841	16R	10516–10497	696
17F	10394–10414	17R	11032–11013	639
18F	10985–11004	18R	11708–11689	724
19F	11633–11651	19R	12361–12341	729
20F	12284–12302	20R	13005–12987	722
21F	12951–12969	21R	13614–13595	664
22F	13568–13587	22R	14276–14258	709
23F	14227–14246	23R	14928–14911	702
24F	14732–14752	24R	15419–15400	688
25F	15372–15391	25R	16067–16048	696
D1F	15879–15897	D1R	16545–16526	667
D2F	16495–16514	D2R	389–370	446
D3F	315–332	D3R	803–786	489

PCR amplification primers for whole mitochondrial genome according to Taylor et al (2001)

Preparation of PCR reactions:

PCR reaction was performed in a reaction volume of 12.5µl containing 1.25 µl of 10X DreamTaq Buffer with 20 mM MgCl₂ (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA); 0.3 µl of mixture of 10 mM deoxyribonucleotide (dNTPs, Thermo Scientific, USA); 0.5 µl of appropriate upstream and downstream primers for the respective fragment of mtDNA; 0.08 µl of thermostable DreamTaq DNA Polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific DNA polymerases); 1 µl of patient DNA extracted sample. We also added 0.75 µl of Bovine Serum Albumin “BSA” for better optimization of PCR program to overcome amplification of non-specific products finally. All of that regimens were filled out by distilled water until 12.5µl final amount for PCR reaction (Tab. 4). Exceptional was fragment 23 that was optimized with MyTaq™ polymerase (Thermo Scientific, USA). Ten µl of PCR reaction was prepared containing 2µl of 5X MyTaq™ DNA polymerase Buffer which already contains dNTPs (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA); 0.4 µl of appropriated forward and reverse primers for fragment 23; 0.1 µl of thermostable MyTaq™ DNA polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific DNA polymerases); 1 µl of patient DNA extracted sample. All of that regimens were filled out by distilled water until 10µl final amount for PCR reaction (Tab. 5).

Table 4: Composition of PCR reaction mixture and final concentration of ingredients for all 28 mitochondrial fragments except fragment 23

Reagents	Final concentration
10xPCR Buffer	1x Dream Taq Buffer ¹
10 mM dNTPs	0,8 mM for each
Upstreamprimer	0,5 mM
Downstreamprimer	0,5 mM
Bovine SerumAlbumin “BSA”	15 µg
DreamTaq DNA Polymerase	0,5 U
DNA	30 ng
Deionized water	to 12.5 µl
Total volume	12.5 µl

¹10x Dream Taq puffer -KCl, (NH₄)₂SO₄, 20 mM MgCl₂.

Table 5: Composition of PCR reaction mixture and final concentration of ingredients for fragment 23

Reagents	Final concentration
5X PCR Buffer	1x MyTaq™ Buffer ²
Upstreamprimer	0,5 mM
Downstreamprimer	0,5 mM
MyTaq™ DNA polymerase	0,5 U
DNA	30 ng
Deionized water	to 10µl
Total volume	10 µl

²5x MyTaq™ Buffer with KCl containing dNTPs and MgCl₂.

Touchdown Protocol of PCR Amplification:

Touchdown (TD) PCR has been designed as a simple and fast way to improve PCR by increasing specificity and sensitivity of primer–template interactions. The MTD-PCR is composed of five main stages in which carefully successively lower annealing temperatures (63°C-57°C) were used, with attention that the initial annealing temperature should be above melting temperature (T_m) of the used primers (**Korbie & Mattick, 2008**).

Based on the touchdown PCR amplification protocol, each cycle included DNA denaturation, primers hybridization followed by gradual decreasing of annealing temperature (63°C-57°C) (Tab. 6) and elongation at 72 °C. A special PCR program was ran for fragment 23 (Tab. 7).

Table 6: Touchdown PCR Amplification Protocol

Stage	Temperature	Duration	Number	Delta temperature
1	95°C	5 min	1 cycle	
2	95°C 63°C 72°C	1 min 30 sec 1 min	5 cycles	0
3	95°C 63°C - 57°C 72°C	1 min 30 sec 1 min	30 cycles	-0.2
4	95°C 57°C 72°C	1 min 30 sec 1 min	5 cycles	0
5	72°C 4°C	8 min forever	1 cycle take out samples	-

Table 7: PCR Amplification Protocol for mitochondrial DNA fragment 23

Stage	Temperature	Duration	Number
1	95°C	10 min	1 cycle
2	95°C 62°C 72°C	1 min 1 min 1 min	30 cycles
3	72°C 4°C	8 min forever	1 cycle take out samples

3.2.3.2. PCR amplification check

The generic principle on which the electrophoretic separation by size is based is that the charged particles of different masses, under the influence of the electric field, cross the different paths in the agarose gel at the same time. This method separated DNA fragments based on their length, and in the range of 80 to 200 bp. The length of the DNA fragment was determined on the basis of a commercial marker consisting of a large number of DNA fragments of known lengths, which is applied to the agarose gel as one of the samples.

Control of the specificity and quality of the amplified mitochondrial DNA i. e. PCR products was performed by electrophoresis on a 2% agarose gel painted SimpliSafe™ EURX safe nucleic acid stain. Samples were visualized by gel exposure to UV light on a transilluminator (UV Vilber Lourmat transilluminator, life sciences, France). The size of the obtained fragments was computed by comparison with the DNA standard for length (GeneRuler™ 50 bp DNA Ladder, 50-1000 bp, Fermentas, Germany). The quality of PCR was judged to be good when the expected number of lanes was clearly visible and expected length was observed on the gel.

Protocol for agarose gel electrophoresis for determination of PCR products quality

- 1xTBE buffer prepared from 5xTBE buffer (45 mM Tris-borate, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0);
- 2 gm agarose added to 100 ml 1xTBE buffer then heated to boiling;
- 5 µl SimpliSafe™ EURX safe nucleic acid stain was added, the gel left cooled to about 50°C;
- While still in the liquid state, the gel is poured into the mold and a so-called comb that creates the depressions in which the samples are poured into the gel is placed, and left for polymerization.
- After cooling, the comb was removed and the gel was transferred to the 1xTBE buffer filled electrophoresis system;
- 50 bp DNA ladder is applied;
- A sample of each PCR product was mixed with a sample buffer (0.25% bromphenol blue (w / v), 30% glycerol (v / v)) in a ratio of 4: 1 and applied to the gel, which allows more successful filling of samples on the gel and monitoring of electrophoresis;
- A circuit is turned on and the electrophoresis parameters are set to 90V, 90 mA for 15 minutes, in the electrophoresis system (HE 33 Mini Submarine, GE Healthcare, Sweden);

- Visualization of the results is done by the gel exposed to UV Vilber Lourmat transilluminator (life sciences, France) and the documentation of the results by photographing the illuminated gel in the dark.

3.2.3.3. Purification of the amplified mtDNA fragments

In addition to the PCR product in the solution are present unmanaged nucleotides and primers that can adversely affect sequencing results. To avoid this, it is necessary to purify it and remove unwanted nucleotides and primers before using the PCR product for the sequencing reaction.

In this study, ExoSAP - enzymatic purification of amplified PCR product was performed as it hydrolyses excess primers and nucleotides in a single step. Two enzymes were used: Exonuclease (10 Units/ μL) (Exonuclease I, Thermo Scientific, USA) which eliminates excess primers as it degrades single chain DNA molecules, and thermosensitive Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase (1 Unit/ μL), (SAP, Thermo Scientific, USA) that releases the 5'- and 3'-phosphate groups from nucleotides leaving them in the form of nucleosides (**Werle et al., 1994**).

Protocol for the purification of PCR products

- A mixture of 50 μl exonuclease 1 and 100 μl Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase is prepared;
- Add the SAP/Exo I mixture (1.5 μl) to the entire PCR product and centrifuge the mix;
- Incubate at 37 °C for 15 minutes;
- Incubate at 80 °C for 15 minutes to inactivate the enzymes;
- Deionized water is needed to dilute the PCR product before sequencing. Determine the dilution ratio empirically (start with 1:2 and 1:10 dilutions with deionized water).

Incubation and inactivation were performed in apparatus that were used for PCR amplification, Verity termo cyclers (manufacturer Life Sciences, USA) or ProFlex™ termo cyclers (applied Biosystems, USA) Such purified samples are stored at 4°C for a week or at -20°C for a longer period of time.

3.2.3.4. Fluorescence-based Cycle Sequencing

Principle of cycle sequencing

Applied Biosystems cycle sequencing kit for fluorescence-based cycle sequencing (BigDye ® Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kits) was applied for obtaining different lengths of dideoxynucleotides extension products.

Preparation of cycle sequencing

Commercial kits include BigDye® Terminator v3.1 5x Sequencing Buffer (Applied Biosystems, USA), which has been specifically optimized for use with the v3.1 BigDye® Ready Reaction Mixes (Applied Biosystems, USA); one of the primer pairs for appropriate fragment listed in table 5 is used in cycle sequencing (Tab. 8). The sequencing took place in one reaction as a mixture of all four deoxynucleotides (each labeled with a different colored fluorescent tag), and not in the four alienated reactions as was done in the classic Sanger method.

Table 8: Protocol of Fluorescence-based PCR Cycle Sequencing

Reagents	96-Well
Ready Reaction Mix	0.8 μ l
5xSequencing Buffer	1.5 μ l
Forward or reverse primer (3.2 μ M) 3	0.4 pmol/ μ l
SAP/Exo purified PCR sample	3-10 ng/ μ L
Deionized water (RNase/DNase-free)	Up to 10 μ L
Total volume	10 μ L

Running of cycle sequencing

The reaction was carried out in a Verity® 96-Well Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems machine), cycle sequencing program was ran according to a program consisting of initial denaturation of 1 minute at 96°C and 25 amplification cycles. Each amplification cycle includes hybridization for 10 seconds at 96°C and elongation for 4 min at 60°C. After completion of the amplification, the samples were stored at 4°C or prepared for next step (Tab. 9).

Table 9: PCR Program of Cycle Sequencing

Parameter	Stage/Step			
	25 cycles			Hold
	Denature	Anneal	extend	
Ramp rate	1°C/second			
Temperature	96°C	96°C	60°C	4°C
Time (mm:ss)	01:00	00.10	04:00	Hold until

3.2.3.5. Purification of the sequencing reactions products

Prior to the analysis of the sequencing reaction products on the automatic sequencer, their purification was carried out by precipitation in ethanol in the presence of Na-acetate. Purification of the sequencing product is carried out to remove unmanaged building elements, as well as other components of the sequencing reaction mixture. First and foremost, it is necessary to remove the florescent 2', 3'-dideoxyribonucleotides in order not to disturb the reading of fluorescently labeled DNA fragments that are analyzed.

DNA precipitation is due to the formation of ionic bonds between ions of sodium and phosphate groups in the DNA molecule, which is made possible by the presence of sufficient amounts of ethanol in aqueous solution. In this way, a precipitate is formed in which the DNA fragments and the supernatant with which the unmanaged nucleotides are removed.

After precipitation, the precipitate is dissolved in a formamide (Applied Biosystems, USA) that denatures the DNA fragments and maintains them in a linear single-stranded form so that they can be analyzed by the capillary gel electrochemical method on the automatic sequencer.

Protocol of the purification of the sequencing reaction products for 96-well plate

- A mixture consisting of 5.5 ml of 99% ethanol, 1.1 ml of redistilled water and 220 μ l of 3M Na-acetate is prepared according to the sample,
- 60 μ l of the above mixture is applied in each sample in 96-well plate,
- the plate is glued with an adhesive foil and incubation is carried out at room temperature for 15 minutes, in the dark,
- The plate was centrifuged at 3700 rpm for 45 minutes, at a temperature of 30 °C, (Centrifuges 5804 R, Rotor FA-45-30-11, Eppendorf, Germany)

- After centrifugation, the adhesive film is depressed and the supernatant is removed by shaking the platter and kinking the inverted play on paper welds,
- The plate is centrifuged up to 500rpm, turned upside down on a piece of paper wadding, to remove the remaining drops of the supernatant,
- 50 μ l of 70% ethanol was added and the same adhesive foil was glued,
- The plate was centrifuged at 3700 rpm for 30 minutes,
- After centrifugation, the adhesive film is depressed and the supernatant is removed by shaking the platter and kinking the inverted play on paper welds,
- The plate is centrifuged up to 500rpm, turned upside down on a piece of paper wadding, in order to deflect the remaining drops of the supernatant,
- 12 μ l formamide was added (HiDi™ -Formamide, manufacturer Life Technologies - Applied Biosystems, USA) and stored at 4°C in the dark, overnight, then either placed on an automatic sequencer or stored at -20°C in the dark.

3.2.3.6. Capillary Electrophoresis

The electrophoresis of the purified products of the sequencing reaction was performed by capillary gel electrophoresis on ABI Prism 3500 Genetic Analyzer instrument (Applied Biosystems, USA). Capillary electrophoresis is a highly sensitive method, based on the principle of traditional gel electrophoretic methods, but in thin glass capillaries. This is a high-resolution method that allows separation of fragments whose length difference is just one base pair. Visualization is done by exciting fluorescent colors at the 3' end of the DNA fragment and detecting the emitted light with a characteristic wavelength for each color (Fig. 9). The detection is done using a CCD camera and the data is automatically processed to obtain the embedded nucleotide data.

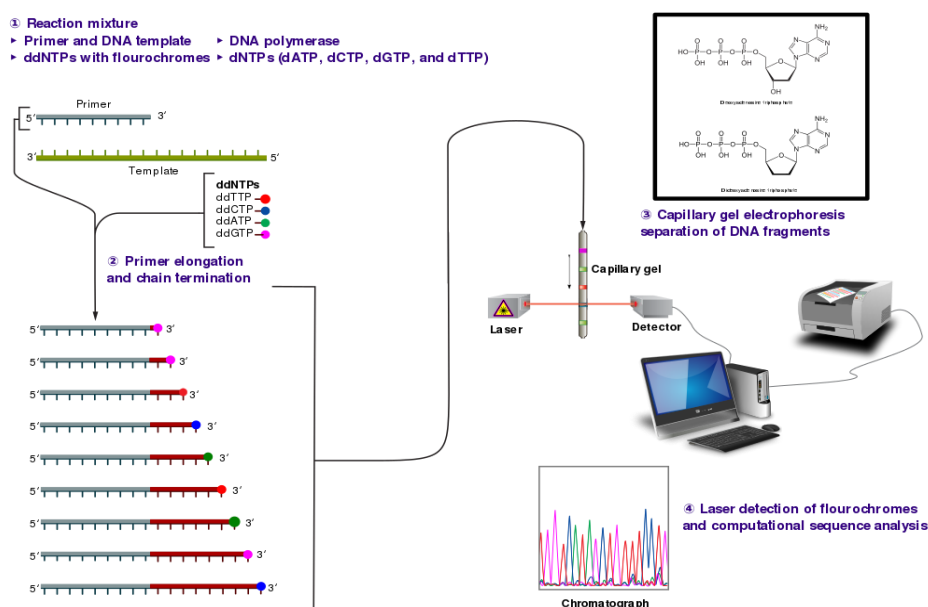


Figure 9

Schematic representation of chain termination DNA sequencing, and the basic principle of automated capillary gel electrophoresis

During the sequencing reactions, the synthesis of the new DNA chain is performed until 2', 3'-dideoxyribonucleotide is incorporated instead of the 2'-deoxyribonucleotide. After the incorporation

of 2', 3'-dideoxyribonucleotide, the synthesis is interrupted because this nucleotide does not have a 3'hydroxyl group, so that the next nucleotide cannot be bound. In this way, a DNA fragment is obtained with at its 3 'end has a fluorescently labeled 2', 3'-dideoxyribonucleotide. The installation of fluorescently labeled 2', 3'-dideoxyribonucleotide is a stochastic process, which depends on the concentration of these material units in the reaction mixture. As a product of the sequencing reaction, a mixture of these fragments of different lengths is obtained.

We have used capillary electrophoresis on Applied Biosystems instruments for automated DNA sequencing and BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit was applied. Detection and primary results of processing were performed on the automated ABI prism 3500 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, USA). This apparatus is a system for electrophoresis, which is performed completely automatically from sampling to primary analysis of the results and can be applied for sequencing analysis as well as fragmentation analysis. It is equipped with eight capillaries which allows concurrent analysis of 8 samples. The capillary used was 50 cm long filled with POP7 polymer (manufacturer Life Technologies, USA) at a temperature of 60 °C.

The software used to set and control the process of electrophoresis is called 3500 Data Collection version 1.0 (Life Technologies manufacturer - Applied Biosystems, USA). The conditions under which electrophoresis was conducted are as follows:

- Injection time - 2 seconds,
- Injection voltage - 1 kV,
- Electrophoresis voltage - 19.5 kV.

The 3500 Data collection version 1.0 was used to adjust the conditions of electrophoresis, process control, as well as the collection of raw data. We sequenced the fragments in both directions twice minimally for surely results. The obtained results after the primary data processing on the automatic sequencer are represented by an electropherogram which makes a series of colored peaks where each pixel represents the position of one nucleotide. The result obtained can be analyzed by a large number of softwares for secondary analysis of the DNA sequence.

3.2.4. Analysis of data obtained by automatic sequencing

The raw data collected by the data collection program during capillary electrophoresis were processed in sequencing analysis sequencer 4.10.1 Demo (manufacturer of Gene Codes Corporation, USA). This software is particularly useful for characterizing SNPs in aligned Sequences and describing any detected deleterious mutations and novel/rare variants as it has the ability to compare a large number of sketches and their clustering in clusters if they meet the specified levels of matching. It is also possible to load, in the form of a text file, a reference sequence with which to compare the sequences obtained with capillary electrophoresis. We compared alignment of mtDNA variants with the Revised Cambridge Reference Sequence ("rCRS", NCBI Reference Sequence Acc#: NC_012920.1, 16,569 bp in length) (**Andrews et al., 1999**), pointed to detect any existence of non-matching in the sequence of nucleotides between the reference and analyzed sequences. Subjective, visual method was applied in the analysis of each sequence.

All detected sequence changes were searched in several databases to determine whether they have already been described in the literature and their impact on the onset of the disease. It was checked whether it was reported in the MITOMAP software which compiles human mtDNA variations from both published and unpublished sources (<http://www.mitomap.org/MITOMAP>) (**Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2007**); The Human Mitochondrial Genome Database (mtDB) has extensive documentation for human mitochondrial genome (<http://www.genpat.uu.se/mtDB>) (**Ingman, 2006**); Moreover, GenBank a genetic sequence database

(<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank/index.html>) (Benson et al., 2013). PubMed (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/PubMed/>) (Lindberg, 2000) and Google were used as additional sources.

3.2.5. Bioinformatics tools for detection of pathogenicity of mutations

3.2.5.1. Detection of pathogenicity of mutations in coding regions of mtDNA

For prediction of potential pathogenicity of all non-synonymous mtDNA changes, which are reflected on human proteins both on structural and functional levels, we applied protein-based metrics - in silico predictive softwares freely available on the Internet. Human amino acid reference sequences were identified in the Universal Protein Resource (UniProt) ([http://www. UniProt.org](http://www.UniProt.org)) (UniProt Consortium, 2008).

Polymorphism PolyPhen-2 database for reported mtDNA mutations (Polymorphism Phenotyping v2, <http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2/>) was used for predicting implicated drastic effects of missense mutations on the structure and function of human proteins (HumVar). Within numerical score ranging from 0.0 (benign) to 1.0 (probably damaging), mutations were classified as benign, possibly damaging (in which the query substitution is predicted to be damaging with low confidence score that was interpreted as an indication of a mild effect or low penetrance), and probably damaging (in which the query substitution is predicted to be damaging with high confidence) (Adzhubei et al., 2010).

Also, we have explored PANTHER “Protein ANalysis THrough Evolutionary Relationships” database for evolutionary history of gene/protein families and their functionally related subfamilies that can be used to classify and identify the function of gene products (<http://pantherdb.org/panther/summaryStats.jsp>) (Mi et al., 2017).

PROVEAN (Protein Variation Effect Analyzer, <http://provean.jcvi.org>) software was used for prediction of the impact of mutations on the biological function of a protein with score threshold at -2.5 (Choi & Chan, 2015).

3.2.5.2. Detection of pathogenicity of mutations in tRNA genes of mtDNA

We evaluated the mitochondrial tRNA mutations listed on mito TIP an in silico tool for predicting pathogenicity of novel mitochondrial tRNA variants with a scoring system likely pathogenic, possibly pathogenic, possibly benign, and likely benign (<https://www.mitomap.org/MITOMAP/MitoTipInfo>) (Sonney et al., 2017). In addition, the Mamit-tRNA database contains mammalian mitochondrial tRNAs with an emphasis on the structural characteristics. It provides extensive documentation of polymorphisms and mutations in mitochondrial tRNA genes related to human mitochondrial disorders and 2D cloverleaf representations of tRNAs, mutations associated with disease phenotypes, and corresponding references (<http://mamit-tRNA.u-strasbg.fr>) (Pütz et al., 2007).

3.2.6. Haplogroup analysis

MITOMASTER was applied by submitting sequences of included respondents in fasta format for haplogroup determination (<https://www.mitomap.org/foswiki/bin/view/MITOMASTER/WebHome>) (Brandon et al., 2009). Further, PhyloTree build 17 (<https://www.phylotree.org/>) was used for construction of phylogenetic tree of studied probands (Oven, 2015).

4. Results

4.1 Construction a database for analysis of whole mtDNA sequencing

The whole mitochondrial genome (np 1–16,569) was amplified into 28 overlapping fragments by using the appreciated 28 pairs of primers, each fragment range from 600 to 700bp. An Excel sheet was prepared for each fragment separately, including all predicted mitochondriopathies mutations and polymorphic changes regarding the human mitochondrial genome databases; GenBank database; and published scientific papers. Collections of associated mutations for specific mitochondrial diseases are summarized in Appendix C 1-3. Specification of all genes of mtDNA and their OMIM entries are illustrated in Appendix D.

4.2 Genetic evaluation for LHON subjects

All primary/less frequent and secondary LHON mutations were genetically evaluated. Also, in silico predictive software and MITOMASTER analysis were applied for more genetic characterization.

4.2.1 Molecular characterization of primary/less frequent LHON mutations.

Sanger sequencing of complete mtDNA of twelve Serbian subjects was carried out in our study for detection and evaluation of primary/less frequent pathogenic mutations for LHON, collectively in two pedigrees and six sporadic cases. Our research disclosed m.3460G>A and m.11778G>A primary mutations, as well as one less frequent mutation m.8836A>G (in *ND1*, *ND4* and *ATP6* genes, respectively). Eight out of ten subjects who harbored LHON m.11778G>A mutation were homoplasmic while two exceptional asymptomatic carriers exhibited heteroplasmic pattern. Other detected mutations were present as homoplasmic, each in one proband. Total percentage of detected primary/less frequent mutations was 83.34%, for m.11778G>A, 8.33% for m.3460G>A, and 8.33% for m.8836A>G. All the studied probands were males, except one female who harboured the only detected m.3460G>A mutation.

m.3460G>A primary LHON mutation:

We detected a homoplasmic mutation in one proband (P7) at nucleotide position 466 in fragment 5, which corresponds to np. 3460 in mtDNA Cambridge reference sequence which mutates G of *MT-ND1* gene to A, causing the A52T amino acid substitution (Fig. 10).

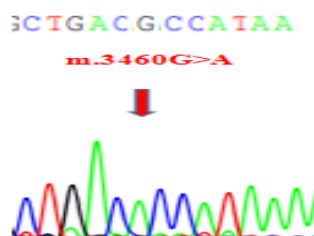


Figure 10

Electropherogram is showing LHON 3460G>A homoplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top.

m.11778G>A primary LHON mutation:

Both patterns of homoplasmy and heteroplasmy of mutational change were revealed at nucleotide position 146 in fragment 19, which corresponds to np. 11778 in mtDNA that mutates G in the Cambridge sequence of *MT-ND4* to A in LHON patient blood samples (Fig. 11 and 12). This

mutation causes the change of the highly conserved amino acid arginine at 340th amino acid to a histidine. Primary LHON mutation 11778G>A was detected in six probands (P1- P6); two of them were included in two Serbian pedigrees (families I and II; Fig. 13)

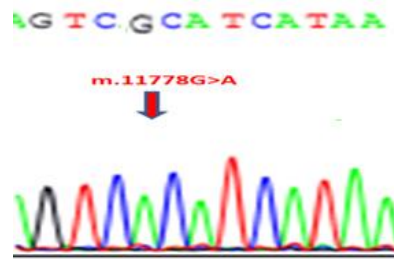


Figure 11

Electrophotography is showing LHON 11778G>A homoplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top

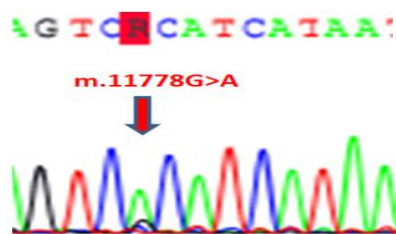


Figure 12

Electropherogram is showing LHON m.11778G>A heteroplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top.

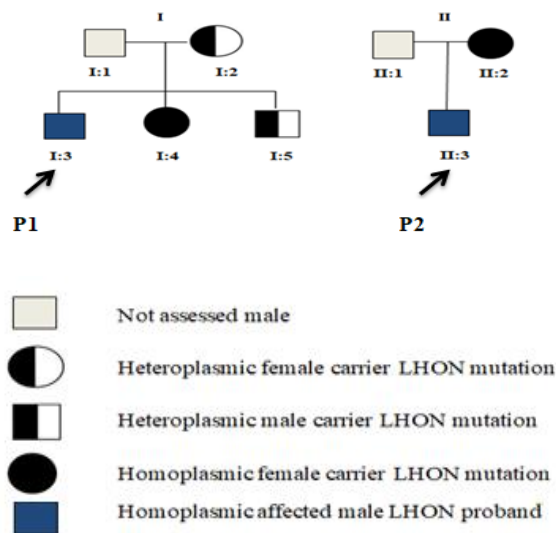


Figure 13

Occurrence of maternal 11778G>A LHON inheritance in Serbian families (I and II, including two probands and their corresponding mutational carriers).

m.8836A>G rare LHON mutation:

The less frequent LHON m.8836A>G mutation was detected at nucleotide position 274 in fragment 14, which corresponds to np. 8836 in mtDNA and it causes the change of A in the Cambridge sequence of MT-ATP6 gene to G, causing substitution of methionine to valine at codon position 104. Also, it was detected only in one sporadic proband (P8) who showed a homoplasmic pattern (Fig. 14).

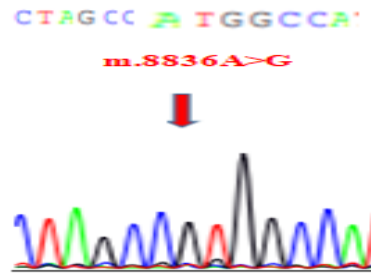


Figure 14

Electropherogram is showing LHON 8836A>G homoplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top.

4.2.2 Molecular characterization of secondary LHON mutations

Furthermore, for all positive LHON subjects, we have done full mtDNA Sanger sequencing analysis for detection of associated secondary mutations. Our analysis revealed some of them at nps: 3394T>C, 4216T>C, 13708G>A, 15257G>A and 15812G>A that are in association with the known primary LHON mutations.

m.3394T>C secondary LHON mutation:

We have detected a mutation at nucleotide position 400 of fragment 5, which corresponds to np. 3394 in mtDNA and mutates T in the Cambridge sequence of *MT-ND1* gene to C; causing protein change: Y30H; It was detected in family II who harbored 11778G>A mutation.

m.4216T>C secondary LHON mutation:

A mutational change at nucleotide position 681 in fragment 6 was also detected, which corresponds to np. 4216 in mtDNA and mutates T to C in *MT-ND1* that alters tyrosine 304 to histidine; 4216T>C was detected in association with both 3460G>A and 11778G>A mutations (P2 and P7).

m.13708G>A secondary LHON mutation:

A non-synonymous protein coding variant was detected in fragment 22 at position 141 which corresponds to np. 13708 in mtDNA and mutates G to A in *MT-ND5* gene. M.13708G>A alters alanine to threonine at codon position 458. This secondary mutation was found in concert with m.4216T>C

m.15257G>A and m.15812G>A secondary LHON mutations:

Additional variants were detected at nucleotide position 526 and 441 in fragments 24 and 25 respectively. Both are in *MT-CYB* gene. Change of G to A in mtDNA, alters aspartic acid 171 to asparagine and valine 356 to methionine, respectively. Both are detected in the same proband (P7).

4.2.3 Bioinformatics analysis for LHON pathogenic mutations

Bioinformatics analysis were carried out for all previously detected mutations for clarification of their pathogenicity. In silico predictive softwares (PolyPhen, PANTHER, and PROVEAN) were applied after identifying the UniProt for human amino acid reference sequences. Both 3460G>A and 11778G>A were determined as probably damaging by both PolyPhen and PANTHER, while neutral and deleterious, respectively by PROVEAN. On the other side, 8836A>G was detected as possibly damaging by PolyPhen and PANTHER and neutral by PROVEAN. all other mutations

were detected as benign by PolyPhen prediction. PANTHER detected some of them (3394T>C, 4216T>C, and 15257G>A) as probably damaging and (13708G>A and 15812G>A) as probably benign. PROVEAN recorded neutrality for most of them except for 3394T>C and 15257G>A who were deleterious (Tab. 10).

Table 10: Applicability of in silico predictive software in detected LHON mutations

Variant	Gene	Codon	A.A change	Status	UniProt ID	Polyphen Prediction	PANTHER	PROVEAN	Probands
3394T>C	MT-ND1	30	Y-H	Secondary	P03886	Benign	Probably damaging	Deleterious (-4.40)	P2
3460G>A	MT-ND1	52	A-T	Primary	P03886	Probably damaging (1.000)	Probably damaging	Neutral (-2.36)	P7
4216T>C	MT-ND1	304	Y-H	Secondary	P03886	Benign	Probably damaging	Neutral (3.51)	P2, P7
8836A>G	MT-ATP6	104	M-V	Rare mutation	P00846	Possibly damaging (0.770)	Possibly damaging	Neutral (-2.46)	P8
11778G>A	MT-ND4	340	R-H	Primary	P03905	Probably damaging (0.996)	Probably damaging	Deleterious (-4.74)	P1-P6
13708G>A	MT-ND5	458	A-T	Secondary	P03915	Benign	Probably benign	Neutral (-1.50)	P2, P7
15257G>A	MT-CYB	171	D-N	Secondary	P00156	Benign	Probably damaging	Deleterious (-3.56)	P7
15812G>A	MT-CYB	356	V-M	Secondary	P00156	Benign	Probably benign	Neutral (-0.73)	P7

This table is illustrating analysis for mtDNA mutations associated with Serbian LHON probands in different mtDNA fragments including the nucleotide position of the mutation in reference sequence of the specified fragment. Primary/rare mutations are in bold. Polymorphism PolyPhen-2 database was used for predicting drastic effects of missense mutations on human proteins. The score ranges from 0 to 1, and the corresponding prediction is “probably damaging” if it is larger than 0.85; “possibly damaging” if it is between 0.85 and 0.15 and “benign” if it is smaller than 0.15. PANTHER (Protein ANalysis THrough Evolutionary Relationships) was tested, while PROVEAN scores were estimated with the cut-off at -2.5. Frag.no: fragment number; N.P.: nucleotide position of the mutation in reference sequence; Codon.no: Codon number; A.A change: amino acid change.

Additional mutations were detected in positive LHON probands that are found out in other diseases. All presented in (Tab. 11). They didn’t exhibit a special pattern in association with LHON mutations within probands and mutation carriers.

Table 11: Associated mutations detected in Serbian LHON probands

Nucleotide Position	Locus	Nucleotide Change	Amino acid change	Codon Number	MITOMAP	Subjects
m.988	<i>MT-RNR1</i>	G>A	-	-	DEAF	P5
m.2755	<i>MT-RNR2</i>	A>G	-	-	LVNC	P2
m.3796	<i>MT-ND1</i>	A>G	T-A	164	Adult-Onset Dystonia	P2
m.15287	<i>MT-CYB</i>	T>C	F-L	181	DEAF	P2

4.2.4 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in LHON

Comparing entire mitochondrial genome sequence of Serbian individuals who harbor LHON mutations to referent human mtDNA genome, 137 mtDNA variants were detected. Regarding

MITOMAP database analysis, all that variants considered as neutral, non-pathogenic, and classified as following:

1) Protein coding genes

In completely sequenced mtDNA we detected both non-synonymous and synonymous single-nucleotide polymorphisms (mtSNPs) distributed over numerous protein coding genes that encode different polypeptides of OXPHOS subunits.

Non-synonymous mitochondrial single-nucleotide polymorphisms (ns-mtSNPs):

20 non-synonymous SNPs were detected in our fragments. Interestingly, 5 out of 20 non-synonymous SNPs were present in Cytochrome B (MT-CYB) (Tab. 12).

Table 12: Non-synonymous polymorphisms found in Serbian LHON probands

Locus	Nucleotide position	Variant	Amino acid change	Codon Number
MT-ND1	3349	A>G	I-V	15
	3548	T>C	I-T	81
0MT-ND2	4960	C>T	A-V	164
	5325	A>G	T-A	286
MT-CO1	6915	G>A	V-M	338
	7158	A>G	I-V	419
MT-ATP8	8472	C>T	P-L	36
MT-ATP6	8639	T>C	I-T	38
	8860	A>G	T-A	112
MT-CO3	9477	G>A	V-I	91
	9667	A>G	N-S	154
MT-ND3	10398	A>G	T-A	114
MT-ND5	12937	A>G	M-V	201
MT-ND6	14433	C>T	A-T	81
	33	T>C	M-V	14
MT-CYB	14766	C>T	T-I	7
	14793	A>G	H-R	16
	14798	T>C	F-L	18
	15218	A>G	T-A	158
	15326	A>G	T-A	194

MT-ND1, MT-ND2, MT-ND3, MT-ND5, MT-ND6: mitochondrially encoded NADH: Ubiquinone Oxidoreductase Core Subunit 1,2,3,5,6 respectively; *MT-CYB*: mitochondrially encoded Cytochrome B; *MT-CO1, MT-CO3*: mitochondrially encoded Cytochrome C Oxidase I, 3 respectively; *MT-ATP6 and MT-ATP8*: mitochondrially encoded ATP synthase membrane subunit 6 and 8.

Synonymous mitochondrial single-nucleotide polymorphisms (s-mtSNPs):

Our analysis detected 37 synonymous SNPs in the coding region that didn't affect the amino acid sequence of the protein at different nucleotides positions along whole mtDNA (Tab. 13).

Table 13: Synonymous polymorphisms found in Serbian LHON probands

Locus	Nucleotide position	Variant	Amino acid change	Codon Number
MT-ND1	3480	A>G	K-K	58

	3921	C>A	S-S	205
	4092	G>A	K-K	262
MT-ND2	4646	T>C	Y-Y	59
	4769	A>G	M-M	100
	5471	G>A	T-T	334
MT-CO1	6045	C>T	L-L	48
	6776	T>C	H-H	291
	7028	C>T	A-A	375
MT-CO2	8251	G>A	G-G	222
MT-ATP6	8818	C>T	L-L	98
MT-CO3	9335	C>T	L-L	43
	9389	A>G	V-V	61
	9698	T>C	L-L	164
	9716	T>C	G-G	170
MT-ND2	4643	G>A	K-K	58
MT-ND3	10238	T>C	I-I	60
	10172	G>A	E-E	38
MT-ND4L	10685	G>A	A-A	72
MT-ND4	10876	A>G	L-L	39
	11251	A>G	L-L	164
	11467	A>G	L-L	236
	11719	G>A	G-G	320
MT-ND5	12372	G>A	L-L	12
	12438	T>C	H-H	34
	12501	G>A	M-M	55
	12612	A>G	V-V	92
	12705	C>T	I-I	123
	12798	C>T	L-L	154
	12822	A>G	A-A	162
	13251	C>T	S-S	305
	13734	T>C	F-F	466
13899	T>C	Y-Y	521	
MT-ND6	14167	C>T	E-E	169
MT-CYB	14761	C>T	R-R	5
	15520	A>G	L-L	258
	15562	A>G	W-W	272

MT-ND1, *MT-ND2*, *MT-ND3*, *MT-ND4L*, *MT-ND4*, *MT-ND5*, *MT-ND6*: mitochondrially encoded NADH:Ubiquinone Oxidoreductase Core Subunit 1,2,3,4L,4,5,6 respectively; *MT-CYB*: mitochondrially encoded Cytochrome B; *MT-CO1*, *MT-CO2*, *MT-CO3*: mitochondrially encoded Cytochrome C Oxidase I, 2, 3 respectively; *MT-ATP6* and *MT-ATP8*: mitochondrially encoded ATP synthase membrane subunit 6 and 8.

2) Non-coding regions

80 non-coding variants also detected in our analysis were distributed in mitochondrial rRNA, tRNA, and in D-Loop.

Ribosomal RNA genes

Other variants were detected in association with *MT-RNR1* gene (Mitochondrially Encoded 12S rRNA) spanning base pairs 648 to 1,601 and *MT-RNR2* gene (Mitochondrially Encoded 16S rRNA)

spanning base pairs 1,671 to 3,229. All of these variants were detected in our mitochondrial fragments 1-5 (Tab. 14).

Table 14: Mt-RNR variants found in Serbian LHON probands

Subunit	rRNA	Genes	Nucleotide position	Variant
Small (SSU)	12S	MT-RNR1	750	A>G
			988	G>A
			1189	T>C
			1192	C>G
			1243	T>C
			1438	A>G
			1598	G>A
Large (LSU)	16S	MT-RNR2	1703	C>T
			1719	G>A
			1798	A>G
			1811	A>G
			2639	C>T
			2706	A>G
			2755	A>G
			3010	G>A
			3083	T>C
			3197	T>C

SSU: small subunit; LSU: large subunit

Transfer RNA genes

Our analysis detected different mitochondrial variants in different tRNAs along the whole mtDNA (Tab. 15).

Table 15: Mt-tRNAs variants found in Serbian LHON probands

Gene	tRNA	Nucleotide position	Variant
Mitochondrially encoded tRNA alanine (<i>MT-TA</i>)	Alanine	5633	C>T
Mitochondrially encoded tRNA serine (<i>MT-TSI</i>)	Serine	7476	C>T
Mitochondrially encoded tRNA leucine (<i>MT-TL2</i>)	Leucine	12308	A>G
Mitochondrially encoded tRNA threonine (<i>MT-TT</i>)	Threonine	15907	A>G
		15948	A>G

Mt-DNA control region

58 polymorphic changes that were detected were concentrated in hyper-variable regions (D-Loop: mitochondrial fragments 26, 27, and 28 collectively), all are presented in (Tab. 16).

Table 16: MtDNA control region variants found in Serbian LHON probands

Frag. No.	Nucleotide position	Variant	Frag. No.	Nucleotide position	Variant
Frag. 26	16086	T>C	Frag. 28	14	T>A
	16069	C>T		73	A>G
	16126	T>C		150	C>T
	16129	G>C		152	T>C
	16129	G>A		185	G>A
	16134	C>T		188	A>G
	16145	G>A		194	C>T
	16176	C>G		217	T>C
	16183	A>C		228	G>A
	16189	T>C		239	G>A
	16192	C>T		263	A>G
	16193	C>T		295	C>T
	16223	C>T		309	insC
	16224	T>C		310	T>C
	16256	C>T		310	insC
	16258	A>C		315	insC
	16270	C>T		316	G>C
	16274	G>A		340	C>T
	16291	C>T		391	T>A
	16301	C>T		391	T>G
	16304	T>C		392	T>G
	16311	T>C		393	T>G
	16356	T>C		401	T>C
	16366	C>T		403	T>G
	16384	G>A		462	C>T
	16390	G>A		489	T>C
16399	A>G	497	C>T		
Frag. 27	16519	T>C	508	A>G	
	16538	insC	574	A>C	

4.2.5 MITOMASTER analysis

FASTA files for whole mtDNA sequence for each LHON proband included in our study (P1-P8) were submitted to MITOMASTER for haplogroups predictions and characterization of pathogenic variants comparative to the rCRS. In addition, we submitted FASTA-formatted file of mtDNA sequences for previously diagnosed LHON families and probands in our laboratory database but not included in our study group (represented here in our results as L1-L6) as an additional group for more precise analysis and revelation of the spectrum of mitochondrial haplogroups in diseased Serbian LHON subjects.

4.2.5.1 Haplogroup prediction in Serbian subjects

Haplogrouping analysis for all included subjects was done. They all belonged to macro-haplogroup R with one exception 8836A>G that belonged to macro-haplogroup N (Tab. 17).

In our study most frequent LHON primary mutation m.11778 was associated with different haplogroups belonging to groups H, U and J, all branches of mitochondrial macro-haplogroup R. Single case of mutation m.3460 was associated with haplogroup J2, part of group J, subgroup JT. Mutation m.8836 was associated with haplogroup N1b, branch of macro-haplogroup N.

Table 17: Haplogroup characteristics in analyzed probands by MITOMASTER

Haplogroup	Sub haplogroup	Probands
JT	J1c	P2, L1
	J2b	P7
U	U2e	P5
	U4a	L2
	U5a	L3
	K1a	P1, P6
H	H1	P3, L4, L5
	H2	P4, L6
N	N1b	P8

Haplogrup J

The mtDNA from family II (and its corresponding P2), and from probands P7 and L1 belong to the maternal haplogroup J, subclade of haplogroup JT, all harbor a non-synonymous SNP at 4216T>C which is characteristic for haplogroup pre-JT. This analysis showed that family II and L1 were characterized as J1c subclass, while P7 was associated with haplogroup J2b which is corroborated by additional non-synonymous substitution at nps: 15257 and 15812.

In all Haplogrup J subjects Ancestral Marker Motif was detected at nps: 73A>G, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 10398A>G, 11719G>A, 14766C>T, 15326A>G. Also, haplogroup JT Markers were detected at nps: 295C>T, 489T>C, 4216T>C, 11251A>G, 12612A>G, 13708G>A, 16069C>T, 16126T>C. All of them are considered as defining variants for haplogroup J.

J1c subclass

J1c subclass was detected in P2 and L1 based on HVR variants at nps: 185G>A, 228G>A, and 462C>T. In addition to the m.11778G>A/ND4 mutation in P2, other multiple SNPs and other polymorphic changes nonspecific to haplogroup J1c were detected at nps: 188A>G, 1243T>C,

2755A>G, 3796A>G, 4233T>C, 15287T>C, and 10685G>A. In addition to the m.14484T>C/ND6 mutation in L1 188A>G, 194C>T, 309insC, 310insC, 14798T>C, and 16366C>T were detected.

J2b subclass

Proband P7, in addition to the m.3460G>A mutation harbors haplotypes defining haplogroup J, subclass J2, on the basis of our finding of characteristic variants for J2 haplogroup at nps 150C>T, 152T>C, 7476C>T, and 15257G>A, further subdivided to J2b due to presence of 5633C>T, 15812G>A, and 16193C>T. Other mtDNA variants nonspecific to haplogroup J2 were found in this proband at nps. 315insC, 1798A>G, 13899T>C, and 16519T>C.

Haplogroup U

Haplogroup U descends from the haplogroup R mtDNA branch of the phylogenetic tree by the defining mutational haplogroup U markers at nps: 11467A>G, 12308A>G and 12372G>A. Subclades (U'2'3'4'7'8 and U5) were found widely distributed across our samples. In all haplogroup U subjects, ancestral marker motif was detected at nps: 73A>G, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 11719G>A, 14766C>T and 15326A>G. All of them are considered as defining variants for haplogroup U.

U5a

The mtDNA from L3 belongs to the haplogroup U5a which is a subclade of the main haplogroup U5 defined by polymorphisms in the locations of 3197T>C, 9477G>A, 9667A>G, 14793A>G, 16192C>T 16256C>T, and 16399A>G. In addition to the 3460G>A/ND1 mutation, other mtDNA variants nonspecific to haplogroup U5a were found in this proband at nps: 310insC, 9055G>A, 12798C>T, 13251C>T, 14433C>T, 15218A>G, 16270C>T, and 16291C>T.

U2'3'4'7'8'9

It's the common ancestor of haplogroup U and defined by mutation 1811A>G. Subclades U2, U4, and K were detected in our subjects.

U2

European U2e was detected in the proband P5 on the basis of our finding of characteristic non coding variants at nps. 508A>G, 15907A>G, 16129G>C and 16189T>C; the synonymous SNPs at nps. 6045C>T, 10876A>G and 13734T>C, further, subdivided to U2e1 due to presence of 217T>C, 340C>T. Besides the m.11778G>A, other variants, nonspecific to haplogroup U2e, were detected in our analysis at nps. 574A>G, 988 G>A, 9716 T>C, 15562 A>G.

U4

The analysis detected variants in the proband L2 at 152T>C, 16134C>T in HVR and other SNPs at 8818C>T, 12937A>G, all indicative of subclade U4a1. In addition to the m.11778G>A, other mtDNA variants not belonging to U4a haplogroup were found at nps. 310T>C, 1555A>G, 3548T>C, 4092G>A, 8639G>A, 8639T>C and 9389A>G.

K1a

It's a subclade of U8 and detected in mtDNA from family I (and its corresponding P1) and proband P6. It is defined by the HVR1 mutations 16224T>C, 16311T>C, and 16519T>C, ns-mtSNPs at nps: 9055G>A, and 14798T>C and synonymous nucleotide changes detected at nps. 3480 A> G, 9698T>C and 14167C>T.. Further, sub-classification to haplogroup K1a was achieved by detecting defining SNPs at 497C>T, 1189T>C, and 10398A>G. In addition to the 11778 G>A/ND4 mutation, the analysis detected other mtDNA variants nonspecific to haplogroup K1a in P1 at nps: 150C>T, 315insC, 391T>A, 489T>C, and 16304T>C; in P6 at nps: 310T>C, 16129G>A, 16192C>T, and 16301C>T.

Haplogroup H

Haplogroup H is a subclass of HV haplogroup a descent from R. Ancestral Marker Motif was detected at nps: 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 4769A>G, 8860A>G, 15326A>G, and 16519C>T. HV and H selected Markers were detected at nps: 2706G>A, 7028 C>T, and 14766C>T.

H1

H1 subclade is defined by the transition G>A at 3010 that further classified to H1b by detection of 16356T>C variant and they were detected in probands P3, L4 and L5. In addition to the 11778G>A/ND4 mutation in all of them, other mtDNA variants were found in P3 (at nps. 14T>A, 310insC, 315insC, 14634T>C, 16189T>C, 16384G>A), in L4 (at nps. 310insC, 315insC, 14634T>C, 16183A>C, 16189T>C), and in L5 (at nps: 310insC, 316G>C, 14634T>C, 16189T>C, 16258A>C, and 16384G>A).

H2

H2 subclade is defined by the transition A>G at 1438, that further classified to H2a by detection of 4769A>G variant, then, to H2a3 by defining 16274G>A variant. H2 subclade was detected in probands P4 and L6. In addition to the m.3460G>A/ND1 mutation other variants were detected in P4 (at nps: 239T>C, 315insC, 3349A>G, 12438T>C, 14761C>T, 16304T>C) and L6 (at nps: 310insC, 315insC, 4643G>A, 7158A>G, 12777A>G, 15520A>G, 1594 A>G, 16519T>C, and 16538insC).

Haplogroup N1b

Haplogroup N1 is a branch of macro-haplogroup N mtDNA by the defining variants at nps: 1719G>A, 10238T>C, and 12501G >A. Ancestral marker motif was detected at nps: 73A>G, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 11719G>A, 12705C>T, 15326A>G, 16223C>T, 16519T>C.

Haplogroup N1b is a subclass of N1 defined by variants at nps: 152T>C, 1598A>G, 1703 G>A, 2639C>A, 3921C>A, 4960C>T, 5471A>G, 8251G>A, 8472C>T, 12822A>G, 16145 G>A, 16176C>G, 16390G>A. N1b1 variant defined with 9335C>T was detected in proband P8. In addition to the m.8836A>G/MT-ATP6 mutation P8 harbors multiple SNPs at nps: 228G>A, 315insC, 391T>G, 392T>G, 392T>G 401T>C, 1192C>G, 3083T>A, 5325A>C, 16086T>C, and 16129G>A. Summary of all haplotypes in Serbian probands is presented in (Tab. 18).

Table 18: Haplotypes detected in Serbian probands

Subjects	Haplotypes
P1	73A>G, 150C>T, 263A>G, 315insC, 391T>A, 489T>C, 497C>T, 750A>G, 1189T>C, 1811A>G , , 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 3480A>G , 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 9055G>A , 9698T>C , 10398A>G, 11719G>A, 11467A>G , 12308A>G , 12372G>A , 14167C>T, 14766C>T, 14798T>C , 15326A>G, 16224T>C , 16304T>C 16311T>C , 16519T>C .
P2	73A>G, 185G>A , 188A>G, 228G>A , 263A>G, 295C>T , 462C>T , 489T>C , 750A>G, 1243T>A, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 2755A>G, 3394T>C, 3796A>G, 4216T>C , 4769A>G, 4233T>G, 4240T>A, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 10398A>G, 10685G>A, 11251A>G , 11719G>A, 12612A>G, 13708G>A , 14766C>T, 15287T>C, 15326A>G, 16069C>T , 16126 T>C .
P3	14T>A, 263A>G 310insC, 315insC, 750A>G 1438A>G, 2706G>A , 3010G>A , 4769A>G, 7028C>T , 8860A>G, 14634T>C, 14766C>T , 15326A>G, 16189T>C, 16356 T>C , 16384G>A, 16519C>T .
P4	239T>C, 263A>G, 315insC, 750 A>G, 1438A>G , 2706G>A , 4769A>G, 7028C>T , 8860 A>G, 12438T>C, 14766C>T, 14761C>T, 15326A>G, 16274G>A, 16304T>C, and 16519 T>C.

P5	73A>G, 217T>C, 263A>G, 340C>T, 508A>G , 574A>G, 750A>G, 988 G>A, 1438A>G, 1811A>G , 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 6045C>T, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 9716 T>C, 10876A>G, 11467A>G , 11719G>A, 12308A>G , 12372G>A , 13734T>C, 14766C>T, 15326A>G, 15562A>G, 15907A>G , 16129G>C , 16189T>C .
P6	73A>G, 263A>G, 310T>C, 497C>T, 750A>G, 1189T>C, 1811A>G , 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 3480 A>G , 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 9055G>A , 9698T>C , 10398A>G, 11719G>A, 14167 C>T, 11467A>G , 12308A>G , 12372G>A , 14766C>T 14798T>C , 15326A>G, 16129G>A, 16192C>T, 16224T>C , 16301C>T 16311T>C , and 16519T>C .
P7	73A>G, 150C>T , 152T>C , 263A>G, 295C>T , 315insC, 489T>C , 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4216T>C , 4769A>G, 5633C>T, 7028C>T, 7476C>T, 8860A>G, 10172G>A, 10398A>G, 11251A>G , 11719G>A, 12612A>G, 13708G>A , 13899T>C, 14766C>T, 15257G>A , 15326A>G, 15812G>A 16069C>T , 16126T>C , 16193C>T , 16519T>C.
P8	73A>G, 152T>C , 263A>G, 228G>A, 315insC, 391T>G, 392T>G, 392T>G, 401T>C, 750A>G, 1192C>G, 1438A>G, 1598A>G , 1703G>A , 1719G>A , 2639C>A , 2706A>G, 3083T>A, 3921C>A , 4769A>G, 4960C>T , 5325A>C, 5471A>G, 7028C>T, 8251G>A, 8472C>T, 8860A>G, 9335C>T , 10238T>C , 11719G>A, 12501G>A , 12705C>T, 12822A>G, 15326A>G, 16086T>C, 16129G>A, 16145 G>A , 16176C>G , 16223C>T, 16390G>A , 16519T>C.
L1	73A>G, 185G>A , 188A>G, 194C>T, 228G>A , 263A>G, 295C>T , 309insC, 310insC, 462C>T , 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 3010G>A, 4216T>C , 4769A>G, 7028 C>T, 8860A>G, 10398A>G, 11251A>G , 12612A>G, 13138G>A, 13708G>A , 14766C>T, 14798T>C, 15326A>G, 16069C>T , 16126T>C , 16366C>T.
L2	73A>G, 152T>C , 263A>G, 310T>C, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 1811A>G , 2706A>G, 3548T>C, 4092G>A, 4769A>G, 6915G>A, , 7028C>T, 8639T>C, 8818C>T , 8860A>G, 9389A>G, 11467A>G , 11719G>A, 12308A>G , 12372G>A , 12937A>G , 14766C>T, 15326A>G, 1555A>G, 16134C>T .
L3	73A>G, 263A>G, 315insC, 403T>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 3197T>C 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 11467A>G , 11719G>A, 9055G>A, 9477G>A, 9667A>G, 12308A>G , 12372G>A , 12798C>T, 13251C>T, 14433 C>T, 14766C>T and 15326A>G 11467A>G, 14793A>G, 15218A>G, 16192C>T , 16256C>T , 16270C>T, 16291C>T 16399A>G.
L4	263A>G, 310insC, 315insC, 750A>G 1438A>G, 2706G>A 3010G>A , 4769A>G, 7028C>T 8860A>G 14634T>C, 14766C>T 15326A>G 16183A>C, 16189T>C, 16356T>C .
L5	263A>G, 310insC, 316G>C, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706G>A , 3010G>A 4769A>G, 7028 C>T 8860A>G, 14634T>C, 14766C>T 15326A>G 16189T>C, 16258A>C, 16356 T>C , 16384G>A.
L6	263A>G, 310insC, 315insC, 750A>G, 1438A>G , 2706G>A , 4643G>A, 4769A>G 7158A>G, 7028C>T , 8860A>G, 12770A>G, 14766C>T 15326A>G, 15520A>G, 15948A>G, 16274G>A , 16519T>C, 16538insC.

Haplotype motifs as diagnostic markers of different haplogroups are in bold.

4.2.5.2 Pathogenic variants characteristics in Serbian subjects

MITOMASTER analysis further characterized all pathogenic variants detected in our study group related to LHON regarding to their conservation and frequencies in the detected haplogroups. Mutations 11778G>A, 15257G>A, 3394T>C, 3460G>A and 8836A>G showed the highest conservation (100.00%, 95.56%, 93.33%, 91.11%, and 88.89%, respectively), while other mutations showed lower conservation. The frequencies for all detected variants are presented in (Tab. 19).

Table 19: Estimated frequencies of variants in haplogroups branches

Haplogroup	Variant	Frequency
J1c	3394T>C	12.6
	4216T >C	99.07
	11778G>A	0.77
	13708G>A	98.76
J2b	3460G>A	0

	4216T >C	99.14
	13708G>A	98.85
	15257G>A	99.14
	15812G>A	98.85
K1	11778G>A	0
H2a	11778G>A	0
H1b	11778G>A	0.42
U2e	11778G>A	0.6
N1b	8836A >G	97.97

4.2.6 Construction of the phylogenetic tree

All previously listed mtDNA polymorphisms that are scattered all over mtDNA fragments and haplogroup motifs detected in HVS-I and HVS-II regions (tables 16-19, and 21), have been used for construction of the phylogenetic tree regarding to mtDNA tree Build 17, rCRS haplogroup (H2a2a) that was used as a reference for establishment of the haplogroup affiliation. We included mtDNA sequences from probands P1-P8, and from additional group previously mentioned (probands L1-L6) with pathogenic LHON mutations. Multiple variants were found in more than one proband (Fig. 15).

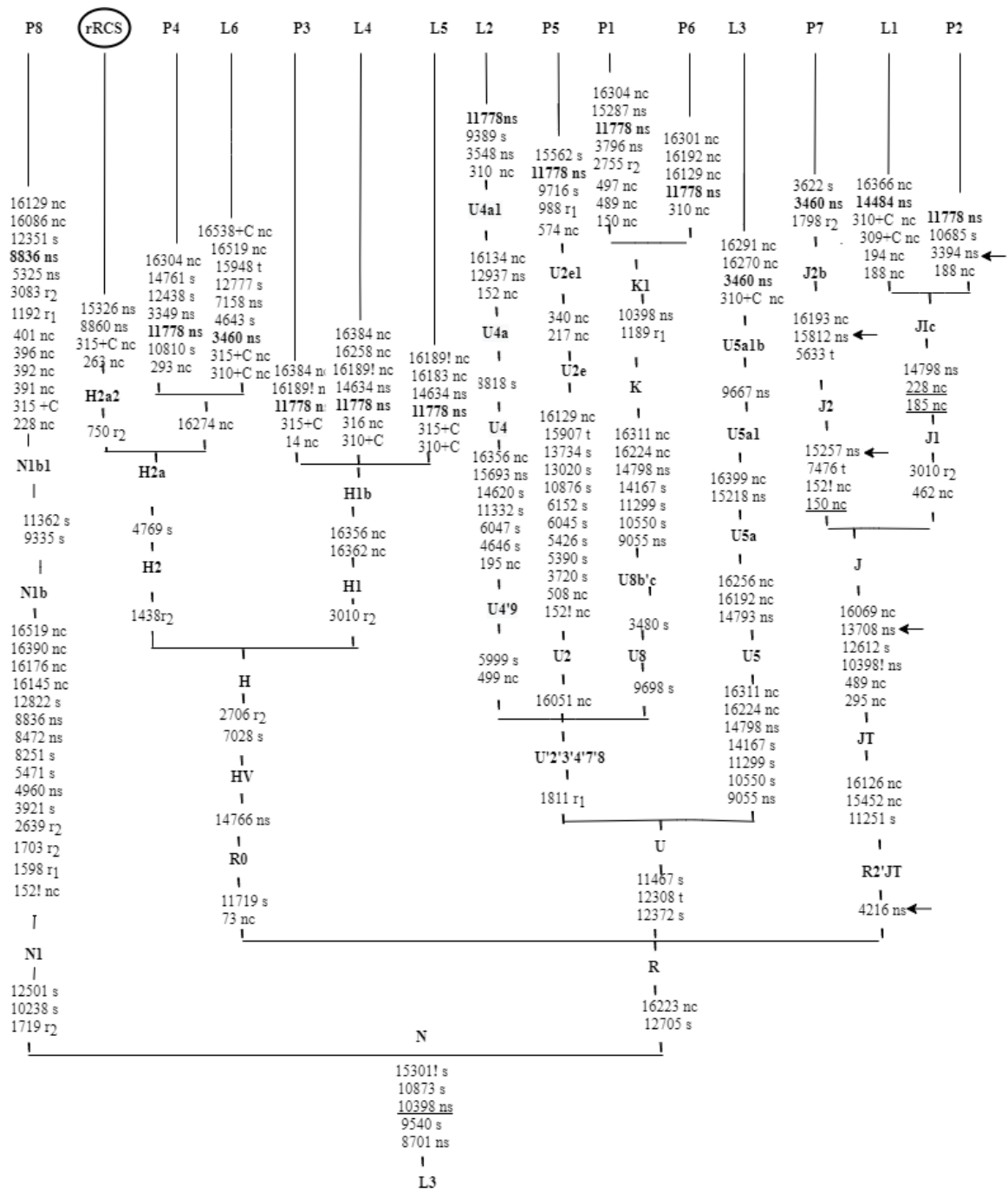


Figure 15

Phylogenetic tree is showing fourteen Serbian LHON probands. Changes in non-coding region, tRNA and rRNA are indicated by nc, t, r₁ and r₂, respectively. Synonymous and nonsynonymous nucleotide changes presented by s and ns while back mutations, recurrent and secondary by !, underlines and arrows, respectively. Primary LHON mutations are shown in bold.

4.3 Genotype-Phenotype characterization for LHON

The correlation between genotypes and phenotypes was established by detailed clinical assessment for all probands/family members' who are mutations carriers. Phenotypic evaluation was based on key characteristics: affected/unaffected subjects for symptoms and signs registered during ophthalmic examination, neurological and other systems checking as well. The association of these characteristics with particular genotypes was analysed in order to define the effect of different/combined mutations on phenotypic expression and penetrance of LHON.

The predominant symptoms were pain-free gradual loss of vision in both eyes consecutively within few weeks to months except in probands P1 and P4 who experienced bilaterality of symptoms onset. The age at onset of the disease was variable between 2nd- 4th decade of life with exception of proband P4 who was at 6th decade. Vision tests and fundoscopy showed severely affected visual fields and optic disc upto optic nerve atrophy. Other tests included MRI and transcranial Doppler were done. Alcohol consumption and smoking were recorded in probands P4 and P7.

In asymptomatic mutation carriers examination showed no pathological changes, but early age of siblings of proband P1 indicate the need of regular follow-up.

4.4 Genetic evaluation for MELAS

Two Serbian children, probands P9 and P10 were included in our study as suspect for MELAS. Their clinical evaluation revealed syndromic features for encephalomyopathy with broad neurological manifestations. Our mtDNA Sanger sequencing analysis detected a heteroplasmic pathogenic mutation m.3243A>G in *MT-TL1* (Mitochondrially encoded tRNA^{leucine (UUR)}) gene, which is one of the major mutations causing MELAS (Fig. 16).

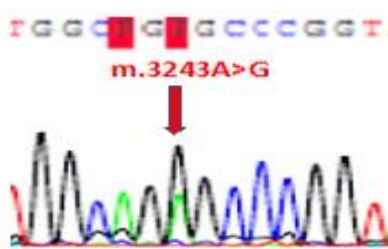


Figure 16

Electropherogram is showing MELAS 3243A>G heteroplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top.

4.4.1 Bioinformatics analysis for MELAS pathogenic mutation

Different specified informatics predictors were used for assessment of non-coding mitochondrial tRNA variant m.3243A>G in *MT-TL1* gene such as Mito TIP within MITOMAP, and Mamit-tRNA. Both of them have proved that m.3243 A>G is a pathogenic mutation in the D-loop of the Mt-tRNA^{Leu(UUR)} gene, with a probably damaging impact on its structure (Tab. 20).

Table 20: Informatics predictors for 3243A>G mutation

Mutation	Gene	Amino acid change	Mitomap	MitoTIP	Mamit-tRNA
3243A>G	MT-TL1	tRNA ^{Leu (UUR)}	Confirmed - Pathogenic	Pathogenic	Pathogenic

4.4.2 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in MELAS probands

Many scattered SNPs were detected in mtDNA in both MELAS probands:

P9

18C>G, 73A>G, 152T>C, 263A>G, 310T>C, 340C>T, 508A>G, 739C>T, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 3116C>T, 3720A>G, , 4769A>G, 5390A>G, 5426T>C, 5432A>G, 6045C>T, 6152T>C, 8860A>G, 10876A>G, 11197C>T, 11467A>G, 11719G>A, 13020T>C, 13359G>A, 14766C>T, 15326A>G, 15398A>G, 15907A>G, 16051A>G, 16129G>C, 16183A>C, 16189T>C

P10

55T>C, 56insC, 57T>C, 143G>A, 263A>G, 3847T>C, 2706G>A, 6253T>C, 7028 T>C, 8630insT, 8633A>C, 8636T>G, 8860A>G, 11050T>G, 11051A>G, 11053A>C, 11054C>A, 13662C>T, 14193A>D, 15326A>G, 15363A>D, 12301G>C.

4.4.3 MITOMASTER analysis

Our MELAS probands with collection of their associated haplotypes belong to U and H haplogroups.

Haplotype motifs for haplogroup U2e (U2e1a1) in P9 were detected at nps: 73A>G, 152T>C, 263A>G, 508A>G, 739C>T, 16051A>G, 16129G>C, 16183A>C, and 16189T>C. Proband P10 showed preference for H15 haplogroup with detected haplotype 55T>C, 57T>C, and 6253T>C. MITOMASTER analysis further characterized m.3243A>G as pathogenic variant regarding its conservation (97.78%).

4.5 Genotype-Phenotype Relationship in MELAS

Clinical evaluation and laboratory data of two boys, positive for m.3243A>G mutation, revealed phenotype features of mitochondrial encephalopathy MELAS. The onset of symptoms was at 14 years of age. Neurological impairment was the most common feature, associated with altered consciousness, seizures, dementia, psychosis and headache. Muscle impairment as hemiparesis and muscle weakness was noticed. As well, associated vomiting due to increase of lactate in blood and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) was noticed. Brain Magnetic Resonance Imaging revealed expanded right ventricle of the brain with an extensive zone of the edematous cortex and areas of abnormal high signal on fast fluid attenuated inversion recovery (Flair), with changes of T2-weighted (T2W) which corresponds to MELAS diagnosis.

4.6 Genetic evaluation for Leigh disease

Our mtDNA sequence analysis detected point mutation m.8993T>G in *MT-ATP6* (F-ATPase protein 6) gene - specific for Leigh disease. It was detected in a four years old girl presented with mitochondrial encephalopathy with psychomotor retardation and severe epileptic attacks (P11). This mutation was homoplasmic (close to 100%) which correlates with the severe form of the disease (Fig. 17).

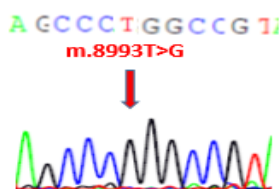


Figure 17

Electropherogram is showing Leigh 8993T>G homoplasmic point mutation. Reference sequence is on the top.

4.6.1 Bioinformatics analysis for Leigh pathogenic mutation

In silico predictive software was used for determination of the pathogenic characteristics of mtDNA mutations. Nonsynonymous change m.8993T>G in *MT-ATP6* gene causing substitution of a hydrophobic leucine residue into a charged arginine residue (L156R), in a highly conserved part of the ATP6 subunit, has probably damaging effect on protein function with a score of 0.998 on HumVar Polymorphism PolyPhen-2 database. Evolutionary history classification of protein sequences by PANTHER software revealed probably damaging effect. Further, PROVEAN reported m.8993T>G as a deleterious with score of -5.180 (Tab. 21).

Table 21: Informatic predictors for 8993T>G mutation

Mutation	Gene	Amino acid change	Mitomap	UniProt ID	Polyphen Prediction	PANTHER	PROVEAN
8993T>G	MT-ATP6	L156R	Confirmed Pathogenic	P00846	probably damaging	probably damaging	Deleterious (-5.180)

4.6.2 Polymorphic mtDNA variants in Leigh proband

Polymorphic variants are detected at nps: 152T>C, 263A>G, 315insC, 508A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 1737A>G, 2706G>A, 4769A>G, 7028 C>T, 8029C>G, 8030C>G, 8860A>G, 12937A>G, 15326A>G, 15519T>C, 15948A>G, 16093T>C, 16291C>T, 16519T>C.

4.6.3 MITOMASTER analysis

Our Leigh disease proband belongs to H haplogroup with collective SNPs at nps: 152T>C, 263A>G, 508A>G, 15519T>C, 16291C>T for H34 subclade. MITOMASTER analysis further characterized m.8993T>G as pathogenic variant regarding its conservation (97.78%).

4.7 Genotype-Phenotype Relationship in Leigh disease

Clinical evaluation of 4 years old girl presented with psychomotor retardation and speech delay was done. The age at onset of symptoms was few months after birth. She suffered from series of epileptic attacks with breaks of 10 minutes between the attacks and up to 30 epileptic attacks per day. Epileptic attacks were associated with twitches of the left-sided extremities, sometimes followed by twitches of the left half of the face with deviation of the eyes and the head to the right side. History of preceding viral infection was recorded. Neurological assessments were done to estimate frequency of epileptic attacks, sluggish movements, muscle weakness, generalized dystonia, headache, dementia, associated vomiting, marked irritability in behavior and developmental milestone delay. Laboratory assessment of lactate in blood and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) was estimated and it showed marked elevation. Moreover, the specific imaging finding for LS is reported as subcortical necrotizing encephalopathy with symmetrical lesions of basal ganglia and brainstem (mesencephalon, tectum, and substantia nigra). In addition hypoplasia of pons with atrophy of vermis and cerebellar hemispheres was detected. The necrosis was accompanied by mild lateral ventricular dilatation, moreover, cortex hyperintensity on T2- weighted MR imaging was recorded.

4.8 Genetic evaluation for other patients

Our study also included five patients who were clinically ambiguous for mitochondrialopathies. Full mtDNA analysis was done, but no specific mutations were detected, with reference to other diagnostic genetic tests. Our analysis detected multiple unrelated mtDNA polymorphisms at nps: 750A>G, 1438A>G, 1811A>G, 2706A>G, 3337A>G, 3480A>G, 4769A>G, 4919C>T, 5913G>A, 6285G>A, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 9698T>C, 9962G>A, 10289A>G, 10398A>G, 10550A>G, 11299T>C, 11467A>G, 11719G>A, 11914G>A, 12372G>A, 14167C>T, 14766C>T, 15326A>G, 15946C>T and 15928G>A.

5. Discussion

Mitochondriopathies (MCPs) are heterogeneous group of disorders caused primarily by genetic changes which interact with environmental factors. MCPs could be result of mutations in nuclear or in mitochondrial genome. Primary genetic mitochondrial disorders are caused by maternally inherited pathogenic mutations of mitochondrial DNA and their prevalence is about 1 in 8000 to 20000. MtDNA mutations cause defective cellular energy production due to abnormal oxidative phosphorylation (Gorman et al., 2015; DiMauro, & Turnbull, 2019) that can be expressed in many tissues especially those with higher metabolic demands and causing the most common inherited neuromuscular disorders (Kremer et al., 2019; Niyazov et al., 2016). MCPs are multisystem diseases that require comprehensive and multidisciplinary genetic screening for distinguishable diagnosis. MCPs are characterized by considerable diversity of clinical patterns within disorders and even within probands affected with the same disease (Parikh et al., 2017).

Until now, mutations pathogenicity has been determined by conventional standards and scoring system as suggested by DiMauro, Schon, Mitchell and coll (DiMauro & Schon, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2006). Instead, in our study we used a more sensitive approach for whole mtDNA genome based mutation analysis by sequencing of the PCR fragments (Sanger et al. 1977). Our results were compared to human mitochondrial genome databases, such as Mitomap, HmtDB and Genbank (www.mitomap.org, www.genpat.uu.se/mtDB, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank) (Benson et al. 2013; Ingman 2006; Ruiz-Pesini et al. 2007). Further, for pathogenicity prediction we used tools available online and in silico approaches based exclusively on conservation analysis.

In this study we tried to clarify MCPs pathogenicity in Serbian subjects. We aimed to find pathogenic mutations as causative of variable MCPs clinical phenotypes. Further, we searched for secondary mutations and we established the specific haplogroups as modifiers of specific penetrance. By our study both full clinical evaluation and molecular genetic screening were included for differentiation between probands and mutation carriers, within the same/different families. A total of fifteen Serbian subjects, 11 probands and four carriers are included in our study. The results showed that mitochondrial respiratory complex I is a mutational hot spot of mitochondriopathies. Our analysis detected six nucleotide variants in different complex I subunits and all are considered LHON pathogenic (primary and secondary mutations) at m.3394T>C, m.3460G>A and m.4216T>C in *MT-ND1*, m.11778G>A in *MT-ND4*, and m.13708G>A in *MT-ND5*. The other hot spot for MCPs pathogenic mutations is *MT-ATP6* gene. In our study we detected typical m.8993T>G mutation associated with Leigh disease, and rare m.8836A>G mutation associated with LHON. In *MT-CYB* gene two secondary mutations, m.15257G>A and m.15812G>A, were detected in LHON case. Finally, we detected m.3243A>G mutation in tRNA^{Leu (UUR)} for MELAS. All of them were “confirmed” on Mitomap and “pathogenic” at least by 2/3 softwares applied in our study.

Leber hereditary optic neuropathy (LHON) is one of the most common mitochondrial diseases and it is usually monosymptomatic. LHON is caused by mutations in mtDNA that lead to selective degeneration of retinal ganglion cells. Final consequence is optic nerve atrophy with painless central vision loss. Typical age of disease onset is in young adulthood (Fiedorczuk & Sazanov, 2018; Shinde & Bhadra, 2015; Guy et al., 2014; Patrick Yu-Wai-Man & Chinnery, 1993). Some patients with LHON have been reported in whom in addition to optic atrophy, other ocular manifestations were present, such as increased ocular pressure (Thouin et al., 2013) retinopathy, and cataract (Valentino et al., 2006). Large numbers of mtDNA variants and several major new pathogenic mtDNA mutations (primary mutations) have been screened (Ji et al., 2012). Expression of primary LHON mutations could be modified by other genetic and environmental factors (e. g. mtDNA haplogroup with secondary mutations, smoking, alcohol consumption) (Kumar et al., 2012). It is now well established that distinctive sets of missense mtDNA changes increase

expression of primary mutations in the phenotype of individuals carrying them. Mild complex I-dependent respiratory chain dysfunction plays important role (Angebault et al., 2011; Baracca et al., 2005; Catarino et al., 2017). Furthermore, a changeable penetrance has been detected within the same/different families harboring the same LHON mutation (Bianco et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2010). Also environmental and nDNA factors have impact on respiratory defects and optic nerve dysfunction (Ghelli et al., 2009; Carelli et al., 2003). The m.3460G>A mutation is associated with the worst visual recovery rate (Lam et al., 2014; Spruijt et al., 2006).

In this study, we did Sanger sequencing of whole mtDNA in pedigrees of two Serbian probands and their corresponding asymptomatic family members as well as in six sporadic cases with a suspected diagnosis of LHON. Our current genetic base study revealed two well-known primary LHON mutations in complex I subunit genes m.3460G>A in MT-ND1 and m.11778G>A in MT-ND4. One less frequent mtDNA variant with pathogenic potential m.8836A>G was also detected in our results. This nucleotide substitution has been previously reported as pathogenic once in a single Saudi-Arabian case of LHON in 2006 by Abu-Amero (Abu-Amero & Bosley, 2006; Dautant et al., 2018). 11778G>A was widely found in subjects, whereas 3460G>A and 8836A>G were found in single case each. A ratio of 10:2 homoplasmic to heteroplasmic mutations was revealed in which the heteroplasmy is expressed in two mutational carriers. These results emphasized that almost all mtDNA mutations associated with LHON are homoplasmic. In other words, 100% of their mtDNA molecules mutated causing more aggravation of the disease while heteroplasmic mutations correlated inversely to the pathogenic nature of the variants and present recent occurrence of that mtDNA mutation (López-Gallardo et al., 2018). It was reported that approximately 10% to 15% of LHON mutation carriers are heteroplasmic (Li et al., 2019; Yu-Wai-Man et al., 2008) and a heteroplasmic load of at least 60% is required for clinical manifestations of LHON (Chinnery et al., 2001; Finsterer & Zarrouk-Mahjoub, 2016; Smith et al., 1993). Males accounted for the major affected gender in our probands, it is estimated as 87.5%, the only female harbored m.3460G>A primary mutation. Previous epidemiological studies have also hypothesized that LHON mutations predominantly affect males in 80%–90% of cases (Jancic et al., 2020; Meyerson et al., 2015; Newman, 2005). Our analysis showed that the primary and less frequent LHON mutations m.11778G>A, m.3460G>A and m.8836A>G are highly conserved (100.00%, 91.11% and 88.89%, respectively).

Further, our study aimed to characterize and define some aspects of LHON penetrance in our probands; so we searched for further secondary mutations that co-occur with primary LHON mutations. We detected many of them at nps: 3394T>C and 4216T>C in *ND1*, 13708G>A in *ND5*, 15257G>A and 15812G>A in *CYB-MT* causing amino acid substitutions (Y30H, Y304H, A458T, D171N and V356M, respectively). They were found in two teenagers, probands P2 and P7 with increasing expectation of their possibility to influence penetrance of associated LHON primary mutations. In the mentioned probands there was an accumulation of non-synonymous variants, complex I changes 4216T>C which alters tyrosine 304 to histidine in *ND1* was found in concert with 13708G>A which changes alanine 458 to threonine in *ND5*. It has been frequently reported in literature that such a preferential combination may modulate the pathogenicity of the associated primary LHON mutations. Both are characteristic for haplogroup J (Andalib et al., 2013; Karachanak et al., 2012). In P2 this combination predicted in J1c subhaplogroup, subclade of haplogroup J, while sequence analysis in P7 further revealed another combination of nonsynonymous cytb amino acid changes 15257G>A and 15812G>A, both are characteristic for haplogroup J2b that participate in phenotype influence of LHON (Carelli et al., 2006). Our results are matching with the frequency of these variants in the predicted J1c and J2b haplogroups. The detected frequency for all of them was higher than 98. Moreover, 3394T>C (Y30H) in *ND1* was detected, causing tyrosine, smaller and polar amino acid, replacement by histidine, a positively charged basic amino acid, that may have a greater effect on *ND1* function. This change has been shown to be closely related to 11778G>A mutation, in our analysis 3394T>C showed conservation of 93.33% and its predicted haplogroup is J1c with frequency of 12.6 in that haplogroup.

Association of 3394T>C and 11778G>A was detected in European Caucasian and Chinese LHON patients. Also 3394T>C was found in association with haplogroup J in the m.11778G>A European pedigree (**Brown et al., 1995**) generally exhibiting preference to haplogroup M9a (**Brown et al., 2018; M. Zhang et al., 2010**) (GenBank accession number FJ748744 and FJ748758) (**Ji et al., 2012**). Substitution m.3394T>C is rarely present in association with m.3460G>A primary mutation (**Du et al., 2011**). It is undeniable that LHON mutations that affect complex I subunits show special effects on capacity and assembly of complex I as the first enzymes in RC (**Fiedorczuk and Sazanov 2018; Cruz-Bermúdez et al., 2016; Shinde and Bhadra 2015; Giovanni Manfredi et al., 2002**).

In silico predictive softwares were applied for all detected LHON mutations in our research. PolyPhen2 scored the two primary m.3460G>A and m.11778G>A mutations as definitely pathogenic with a score of (1.000 and 0.996, respectively), however m.8836A>G is shown as possibly damaging with score 0.770. The other amino acid changes were scored as benign variants with a score less than 0.15. While PANTHER that assert the generality of the relation between the mutations and their impact on conversed amino acids, reported probably damaging effect for 3394T>C, 3460G>A, 4216T>C, 11778G>A, and 15257G>A, while m.8836A>G showed possibly damaging impact, the other mutations displayed probably benign effect. Further analysis by PROVEAN determined 3394T>C, 11778G>A, and 15257G>A as deleterious.

Additionally, mtDNA variants associated with other disorders are revealed in Serbian LHON probands as 988G>A, 2755A>G, 3796A>G, and 15287T>C in *MT-RNR1*, *MT-RNR2*, *MT-ND1* and *MT-CYB* respectively. The implications of these findings are discussed before. LHON is not exclusively an ophthalmologic disorder but rather a multisystem disease and involvement may be subclinical (**Josef Finsterer & Zarrouk-Mahjoub, 2016; Rudenskaia et al., 2004**) involving the central nervous system (CNS) disease (**Frye, 2011**), otologic disease (**Rance et al., 2012**), endocrinologic disease (**Hofmann et al., 1997a**), cardiac disease (**Finsterer et al. 2004; Watanabe et al. 2009**), bone marrow abnormalities (**Goyal et al. 2004**), vascular disease (**Nemes et al., 2008**), kidney disease (**Souied et al., 1997**) and peripheral nervous system disease (**Gilhuis et al., 2006**).

It is well known that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) represent the most widespread source of sequence variation in genomes that survive in the population (**Cupic et al. 2014; Fabbri et al. 2012**). Collections of distinct set of mtDNA polymorphisms create haplotypes classified in specific mtDNA haplogroups according to classification that was proposed by van Oven and Kayser (2009) (**van Oven & Kayser, 2009**). These haplogroups show clusters in population- and/or geographic-specific areas (**Strobbe et al., 2018**). In addition, the haplogroups have a strong association with mitochondrial disease pathogenesis contributing in their variable expression and penetrance. All-over, many previous studies have revealed evidence that primary LHON mutations are co-occur and preferentially associated with certain haplogroups which result in variable penetrance. LHON is significantly more frequent in the haplogroups J in Europeans and M7b1'2 in Han Chinese, in contrast to the respective H and M8a haplogroups (**Chen et al., 2015; Yanli Ji et al., 2008**).

At the European geographical level, haplogroups are most widely studied. There are also recent investigations regarding genetic diversity and patterns of genetic differentiation among Serbian individuals (**Davidovic et al., 2020**). Further, post-last glacial maximum population expansions have been demonstrated recently based on the analysis of complete mitogenomes of Serbians, with the maximum population size recorded during the Neolithic agricultural transition (**Gignoux et al. 2011**). Common European haplogroups were detected in Serbian population, with frequencies similar as in other South-Eastern European populations. MtDNA (sub)haplogroups descending from the macro-haplogroup N was previously published for Serbian population (**Cvjetan et al., 2004; Šarac et al., 2014; Zgonjanin et al., 2010**).

We applied MITOMASTER, for identification of nucleotide variants comparatively to the rCRS and determination of the haplogroups and their influence on LHON in our Serbian subjects. However, traditionally, mtDNA typing is based on the hypervariable segments I and II (HVS-I and HVS-II) of the control region (CR, ~ 1100 bp) and sometimes does not have sufficient discriminatory power to resolve distinct maternal lineages among individuals (**Carracedo et al., 2000; Mm & Tj, 1999**), so we preferred to do whole mitogenome analysis. Sanger sequencing enables us to detect all the sequence variations in the coding region as well, for precise analysis and increases the power of discrimination (**Bodner et al., 2015; Smith, 2016**). Our analysis revealed the association of all detected LHON mutations with haplogroups (R and N1) that are rooted from the macro-haplogroup N. Both 3460 and 11778 in the present study are associated with haplogroup R subtypes U, J and H, while the previously analysed 14484 showed preference to J1c subhaplogroup. They all arose from of mitochondrial macro-haplogroup R. Only one proband who harbours the less frequent m.8836 LHON mutation was associated with haplogroup N1b.

Haplogroup U is dating from the Epipaleolithic and considered the oldest one and the most widespread in the Serbian population (**López-Gallardo et al. 2018; Šarac et al., 2018; Secher et al. 2014**). Previous studies reported that Serbians share a number of U mtDNA lineages (U2e, U4a, and U5) (**Davidovic et al., 2015, 2017**). Our analysis detected haplogroup U lineages (U2e, U4a, U5a and K1a). Haplogroup U markers and motifs were defined at nps: 73A>G, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 11467A>G, 11719G>A, 12308A>G 12372G>A 14766C>T and 15326A>G. Haplogroup U5 is estimated to be the most ancient European mitochondrial DNA haplogroup and it is suggested that its subclade U5a could be of eastern European origin (**Malyarchuk et al., 2010; Šebest et al., 2018**). U5a has been detected in our m.3460G>A positive proband by 3197T>C, 9477G>A, 9667A>G, 14793A>G, 16192C>T 16256C>T, and 16399A>G. Also, U2'3'4'7'8'9, the common descendant of haplogroup U, is defined by mutation m.1811A>G. Its sub clades U2, U4, and K were detected in our m.11778G>A positive subjects on the basis of finding of characteristic variants at nps: 508A>G, 6045C>T, 10876A>G, 13734T>C 15907A>G, 16129G>C and 16189T>C for haplogroup U2, that is subdivided to U2e1 in presence of 217T>C and 340C>T; 152T>C, 8818C>T, 12937A>G, 16134C>T for haplogroup U4; 3480A> G, 9055G>A, 9698T>C, 14167C>T 14798T>C, 16224T>C, 16311T>C, and 16519T>C for haplogroup K, a subclade of U8, that is subdivided to K1a in presence of 497C>T, 1189T>C, and 10398A>G. Additionally, haplogroup H a subclass of HV haplogroup was found in association with the same two primary LHON mutations as for haplogroup U, haplogroup H markers and motifs were defined at nps: 263A>G, 750A>G, 2706G>A, 1438A>G, 4769A>G, 7028 C>T 8860A>G, 14766C>T 15326A>G and 16519C>T. Both H1 and H2 suclades are detected by the presence of 1438 A>G and 3010 G>A that further classified to H1b by detection of a unique HVS-I haplotype 16356T>C and H2a3 by two different haplotypes at 4769A>G and 16274G>A.

Whilst, Haplogroup J seems to be recently introduced to Europe during the Neolithic (**Pereira et al., 2000**), it was found linked to all the primary LHON mutations 3460G>A, 11778G>A and 14484T>C in our results. Its ancestral marker motifs were detected at 73A>G, 295C>T, 489T>C, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4216T>C, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 10398A>G, 11251A>G, 11719G>A, 12612A>G, 13708G>A, 14766C>T, 15326A>G, 16069C>T, 16126T>C. Both J1c and J2b subclasses were detected based on variants at 185G>A, 228G>A, and 462C>T for J1c ; 150C>T, 152T>C, 5633C>T, 7476C>T, 15257G>A, 15812G>A, and 16193C>T. On the other side, haplogroup N1 has macro-haplogroup markers and motives at nps: 73A>G, 263A>G, 750A>G, 1719G>A, 1438A>G, 2706A>G, 4769A>G, 7028C>T, 8860A>G, 10238T>C, 11719G>A, 12501G >A, 12705C>T, 15326A>G, 16223C>T, 16519T>C. The subclass N1b was defined by variants at nps: 152T>C, 1598A>G, 1703 G>A, 2639C>A, 3921C>A, 4960C>T, 5471A>G, 8251G>A, 8472C>T, 12822A>G, 16145 G>A, 16176C>G, 16390G>A, further classified to N1b1 by variant 9335C>T.

Our analysis revealed other polymorphic changes nonspecific to the detected haplogroups at nps: 14T>A, 188A>G, 194C>T, 309insC, 310T>C, 310insC, 315insC, 316G>C, 391T>A, 391T>G, 392T>G, 392T>G 401T>C, 489T>C, 574A>G, 1189T>C, 1192C>G, 1243T>C, 14761C>T, 1594 A>G, 1798A>G, 2391T>C, 3083T>A, 3349A>G, 3480 A> G, 3548T>C, 4092G>A, 4233T>C, 4643G>A, 5325A>C, 7158A>G, 8639T>C, 9389A>G, 9698T>C 9716 T>C, 10398A>G, 10685G>A, 12438T>C, 12777A>G, 12798C>T, 13251C>T, 13899T>C, 14167C>T, 14433C>T, 14634T>C 14798T>C, 15218A>G, 15562 A>G, 15520A>G, 16086T>C, 16183A>C, 16258A>C, 16270C>T, 16291C>T, 16301C>T, 16304T>C, 16366C>T, 16384G>A, and 16538insC. Many other SNPs were found in more than one proband: 188A>G, 310T>C, 310insC, 315insC, 9055G>A, 14634T>C, 14798T>C and 16384G>A.

These results are in accordance with prior epidemiological studies that analyzed the European-specific mtDNA background of LHON primary mutations from different European geographical areas (**Gómez-Durán et al., 2012; Starikovskaya et al., 2019; Torroni et al., 1997**). Dissection of haplogroups in Serbian LHON families has shown the increased frequency of J haplogroup. Increased mutation penetrance is linked with two specific nested sub-clades of J (one deriving from J1 and another deriving from J2) and series of successive secondary mutations previously mentioned (3394T>C, 4216T>C, 13708G>A, m.15257G>A and 15812G>A). All of them are considered to be remarkably haplogroup-specific variants for haplogroup J and present at an increased frequency in LHON families with m.3460G>A, m.11778G>A and m.14484T>C. Our results are in agreement with other European and Serbian studies (**Šehović et al., 2018; Carelli et al., 2006; A.-M. Zhang et al., 2011**). For instance, it has been shown that mutations on 11778 and 14484 have higher penetrance than 3460 mutation (**Caporali et al., 2018; Hudson et al., 2007**). Consistent with the previous observation, our result yields meaningful information on the mtDNA haplogroup J background effect on LHON in Serbian probands.

Taken singularly in our study, m.8836A>G mutation is presented within N1b subhaplogroup, which is estimated with frequency of 0.39% in Serbian population (**Scorrano et al., 2017**) and 2.0% of the Saudi Arabs (**Fregel et al. 2015**). Previously mentioned single Arabian proband study, reported its occurrence in M1a haplogroup that is prevalent in this area. Haplogroup N1b is also very rare, and is primarily found in Southwest Asia. It is noteworthy that haplotypes matching Serbian N1b haplotype is usually found within the Arabian Peninsula, northern Africa and in Ashkenazi Jews. The main subclade, N1b1 includes several branches detected in the Near East, Europe (rarely; mainly in central and eastern Mediterranean Europe), Arabia, and northern Africa (**Costa et al., 2013; Fernandes et al., 2012**). Its reported that N1b haplogroup is associated with MELAS syndrome (**Pierron et al., 2008**), moreover, having an apparent protective effect against T2DM complications in Ashkenazi Jews (**Feder et al., 2008**).

All detected mtDNA SNPs in this study were used for construction of phylogenetic tree, for the currently investigated probands in our study (P1-P8) as well as for the previously diagnosed subjects (L1-L6) in order to analyse and understand the molecular genetic diversity and present a broader picture of evolution. Based on mtDNA tree Build 17 both coding and control region mutations, by using the reference sequence rCRS haplogroup (H2a2a), the haplogroup affiliation of each haplotype was done. In recent years more insight has been gained by the increasing use of D-Loop control region and a non-coding gene region in mtDNA as a molecular marker for investigating the inter-specific and intra-specific genetic differentiation in vertebrate mtDNA animal models (**Gupta & Bhardwaj, 2013; Zhang et al., 2017**). Eighty non-coding variants were detected in our analysis distributed in mitochondrial rRNA, tRNA genes, and in D-Loop region. Multiple variants were found in more than one proband. It included 9 subhaplogroups previously mentioned (J1c, J2b, U2e, U4a, U5a, K1, H1, H2a and N1b). Genotype-phenotype correlation was done in view of clear signs of gradual disappearance of vision in both eyes without pain, for several weeks to months. Probands P1 and P4 had greater binocular onset of the disease. The age at onset of the disease ranges between the second and fourth decade of life, with the exception of P4 who

was at the sixth decade. Visual acuity and fundoscopy show marked impairment of vision and optic disc followed by nerve atrophy. Also, findings of optic nerve hyperintensity on MRI in proband P2 contribute to deliberation of differences between MRI findings according to associated mutations, and early onset of visual loss (**Blanc et al., 2018**). In addition, environmental factors as cigarettes and/or alcohol played a role in LHON penetrance.

Our research proved the presence of pathogenic LHON mutations in our suspected Serbian subjects, as well. We were able to exclude other diseases as a differential diagnosis. Other conditions of inherited optic atrophies, especially the dominant optic atrophy, type Kjer, OPA1(**Kjer 1959; Lenaers et al. 2012**), as well as many other inherited optic atrophies, such as Wolfram syndrome caused by mutation in the WFS1 gene on chromosome 4 (**Galvez-Ruiz, Galindo-Ferreiro, and Schatz 2017; Hansen et al. 2005**) and all aetiologies of acquired optic atrophies, must be differentiated from LHON. It is particularly important to exclude toxic optic neuropathies, since toxic factors are sometimes considered as risk factors promoting vision loss in subjects harboring LHON mutations (**Lubos et al. 2003**). Proband P4 had loss of vision which was preceded by cough and cold. Our analysis revealed m.11778G>A as primary LHON mutation. This finding excluded post-infections optic neuropathy that is mainly presented by unilateral pain (except in atypical cases presented bilaterally). Depending on other clinical features, 11778G>A major LHON mutation was not supporting the etiology of infection in this proband (**Hoorbakht & Bagherkashi, 2012; Kahloun et al., 2015**). On the other side, proband P7 has been considered as LHON with exclusion of tobacco-alcohol amblyopia by our molecular genetic mutational findings at nps: 3460G<A, 4216T>C, 13708G>A, 15275G>A, and 15812G>A (**Korkiamäki et al., 2013**). Interestingly, proband P8 showed untypical LHON clinical phenotype with loss of the ability to see accompanied by headache without nausea or vomiting. Fundoscopy displayed bilateral papilledema and retinal detachment that has been reported in LHON cases. The change 8836A>G indicates LHON rather than other causes (**Sajjadi & Poorsalman, 2019**). Also fundoscopy detected retinal detachment that was observed in LHON cases in previous studies (**Chicani et al., 2013; Edwards et al., 2007**). Leber himself in his first article, noticed some LHON patients with headaches (**Kwitken & Barest, 1958; Leber, 1871**). In a new study it is observed that some mtDNA LHON changes can predispose cluster headaches (**Rozen, 2020**).

The first sporadic case of mtDNA-associated Leigh syndrome in our population was reported in our genetic analysis, following Baertling et al. who refined the most recent diagnostic criteria for LS (**Baertling et al., 2014**). Our finding disclosed a Serbian girl who has been initially presented with global developmental delay and regression in infancy with characteristic lesions in the basal ganglia and brainstem which control movement and organs function. Symptoms appeared few months after birth and were triggered by an acute viral respiratory infection. Associated symptoms as nystagmus and alalia speech disorder were reported. Lactate acidosis in blood and cerebrospinal fluid were detected. The nearly homoplasmic point mutation m.8993T>G with mutation load greater than 90% was detected in protein-coding gene *MT-ATP6* that encodes the ATP synthase Fo subunit 6 causing replacement of the strongly conserved leucine to an arginine at position 156 in complex V (**Balasubramaniam et al., 2016; Holt et al., 1990**) that subsequently blocks the terminal step in oxidative phosphorylation (**Sgarbi et al., 2006**). Other differential diagnoses as neuropathy, ataxia, and retinitis pigmentosa (NARP) was excluded (**Ruhoy & Saneto, 2014; Uziel et al., 2011**). De novo occurrence of 8993T>G variant in sporadic cases with rapid segregation toward homoplasmy, is frequently observed in a single generation and reported in about 1/5 LS cases (**White et al., 1999b**). Many theories were postulated for explaining appearance of sporadic cases (**Blok et al., 1997; Degoul et al., 1997**). Our case matches with the previous suggestions that onset or worsening of symptoms frequently followed the infection, particularly respiratory and intestinal one, or operation history (**Ma et al., 2013; Plaitakis et al., 1980; Wick et al., 2007**). In silico prediction tools asset 8993T>G as probably damaging by Polyphen and PANTHER, and with a deleterious effect by PROVEAN.

MtDNA haplogroup analysis in our LS case was performed by full-length mitochondrial DNA sequencing, using the same method described above for mutational analysis, the results were predicted the European mtDNA haplogroup H, subclade H34 by detecting the unique coding-region mutations m.15519T>C and the control-region mutation 16291C>T (with frequency in H34 haplogroup branch 100.0% and 90.9%, respectively). To date, still exhaustive work predicting haplogroups modifiers for Leigh syndrome is in progress. It is worth mentioning that European ethnic haplogroup H was detected in association with LS phenotypes, H1r1 subclade in Spanish pedigree (**Habbane et al., 2020**) and H2a2 subclade in Italian case report (**Ronchi et al., 2011**). In previous mutational studies for Chinese pedigrees mitochondrial haplogroup Y and haplogroup B5 were associated with an increased risk for LS (**Hao et al., 2013**). On the contrary, N9 likely has an additive effect to the insusceptibility to LS (**Chen et al., 2015**).

The pathogenic heteroplasmic m.3243A>G mutation in *MT-TL1* gene was detected in two sporadic Serbian pediatric patients who experienced MELAS symptoms of rapid decrease of cognitive and neurological functions, seizures episodes, recurrent headaches, muscle weakness, and vomiting. MRI abnormalities of the cortex and areas of abnormal, high signal on Flair, T2-weighted were found in our probands without Basal ganglia involvement (**Oyama et al., 2020; Renard & Ion, 2020**); increase of lactate level in blood and cerebrospinal fluid was associated; neither of them had stroke-like lesions. The pathogenicity of m.3243A>G mutation was confirmed by both MitoTIP and Mito-tRNA and showed conservation of 97.78% on Mitomap, causing a defect of mitochondrial tRNA^{Leu(UUR)}. Phenotypic expression of MELAS m.3243A>G mutation shows a special predilection for the nervous system and muscles. (**Pavlakis et al., 1984**). Our study had one restriction - inability to determine the exact mutation load of heteroplasmy. Our genetic screening aimed for fast diagnosis as MELAS has high mortality rate in fully symptomatic cases. In the study of natural history of 3243A>G positive cases it has been shown that patients with MELAS had a greater death rate than carrier relatives, and that 22% of deaths occurred in younger than 18 years (**Kaufmann et al., 2011**).

European haplogroups detected in MELAS probands had preference for U and H haplogroups, U2e and H15 subclades by detecting haplotypes at HVR1 and HVR2 at nps: 73A>G, 152T>C, 263A>G, 508A>G, 739C>T, 16051A>G, 16129G>C, 16183A>C, and 16189T>C for U2e1 and 55T>C, 57T>C, 6253T>C for H15. Non-synonymous mitochondrial variants 3847T>C/*ND1*, 8860A>G/*ATP6*, 13359G>A/*ND5*, 14766C>T/*CYB* and 15326A>G/*CYB* were detected with high frequencies within the haplogroup subclades. These main haplogroups U and H were previously reported in MELAS cases positive for the m.3243A>G mutation at least once in literature (**Manwaring et al., 2007; Torroni et al., 2003**), in contrast to the frequent German haplogroup D (**Hofmann et al. 1997b**) and American haplogroup B2 (**Delgado-Sánchez et al., 2007**).

6. Conclusion

Our study tries to clarify some genetic aspects which enable us to gain a better insight not only into the diagnosis of MCPs but also into the molecular genetic events that might have had influence on variable penetrance and classification of subjects into probands and mutation carriers. We here confirm the pathogenicity of two well known LHON mutations (m.3460G>A and m.11778G>A), discuss pathogenicity of one rare mutation (m.8836A>G) and suggest inclusion of genetic testing in the diagnostic protocols. All probands were homoplasmic with male predominance. Consistent with their clinical expression, we confirm the influence of the associated secondary mutations 3394T>C, 4216T>C, 13708G>A, 15257G>A, 15812G>A as genetic modifiers for primary LHON mutations penetrance. Moreover, we also emphasize that ATPase 6 gene mutation is the most causative for Leigh syndrome, in particular m.8993T>G mutation. We report harbouring of the heteroplasmic m.3243A>G mutation in cases with MELAS phenotypic expression with predilection for the nervous system and muscles symptoms. Further, we demonstrate that mtDNA (sub)haplogroups found in Serbians are proportionate with general European mtDNA landscape having a substantial proportion of shared haplotypes and we verify the haplogroup J effect on LHON and the potential effect of mtDNA background in cases of suspected LHON. We encourage targeted genetic mtDNA mutation analysis for rapid diagnosis of mitochondrial diseases for better disease monitoring and therapeutic benefit with minimization of the extensive biochemical and other studies.

7. References

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<http://provean.jcvi.org>

<http://www.mitomap.org/MITOMAP/MitoTipInfo>

<http://mamit-tRNA.u-strasbg.fr>

<http://www.mitomap.org/foswiki/bin/view/MITOMASTER/WebHome>

<http://www.phylotree.org/>

8. Appendices

Appendix A– Abbreviations (In alphabetical order)

ADP:	adenosine diphosphate	ETC:	electron transport chain
Ala:	alanine	FADH:	flavine adenine dinucleotide
AR:	autosomal recessive	Fe-S:	iron-sulphur
Arg:	Arginine	FGF21:	fibroblast growth factor 21
ARMS:	allele refractory mutation system	Fis 1:	fission-1
ANT1:	adenine nucleotide translocase type 1	His:	histidine
ATP:	adenosine triphosphate	HSP:	heavy strand promoter
bp:	base pairs	HV:	hypervariable
CADASIL:	cerebral autosomal dominant arteriopathy with subcortical infarcts and leukoencephalopathy	IVF:	in vitro fertilization
Ca:	Calcium	IOSCA:	infantile onset spinocerebellar ataxia
CI:	complex 1	IMM:	inner mitochondrial membrane
CNS:	central nervous system	kb:	kilobase
COX:	cytochrome c oxidase	KKS:	Kearns-Sayre syndrome
CPEO:	chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia	lac:	lactate
Cr:	Creatine	LHON:	Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy
CNS:	central nervous system	LS:	Leigh syndrome
CSF:	cerebrospinal fluid	LSP:	light strand promoter
DGUOK:	deoxyguanosine Kinase	MCPs:	mitochondriopathies
D-loop:	displacement loop	MDC:	mitochondrial disease criteria
DOA:	dominant optic atrophy	MEGS:	mitochondrial energy-generating system
ddNTPs:	dideoxynucleotide triphosphate	MELAS:	mitochondrial encephalomyopathy, lactic acidosis, strokes-like episodes
dNTPs:	deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate	MERRF:	myoclonus epilepsy associated with ragged red fibers
Dyn2:	dynamamin-2	Met:	methionine

Mff::	mitochondrial fission factor	np:	nucleotide position
Mfn 1:	mitofusin 1	nm:	nanometers
Mfn 2:	mitofusin 2	O.D:	optical density
ml:	Myoinositol	O _H :	origin of H-strand
MILS:	maternally inherited Leigh syndrome	O _L :	origin of L-strand
mitoTALENs:	mitochondrially targeted transcription activator-like effector nucleases	OMIM:	online Mendelian inheritance in man
ml:	Millilitre	OMM:	outer mitochondrial membrane
MNGIE:	mitochondrial neuro-gastro-intestinal leukoencephalopathy	OPA1:	optic atrophy protein 1
mM:	Millimolar	OXPHOS:	oxidative phosphorylation system
MRI:	magnetic resonance imaging	PANTHER:	Protein ANalysis THrough Evolutionary Relationships
MRS:	magnetic resonance spectroscopy	Piog:	pioglitazone
MRT:	mitochondrial replacement therapy	pol-γ:	polymerase γ
MTD:	mitochondrial touchdown	PS:	Pearson's syndrome
mtDNA:	mitochondrial DNA	qPCR:	quantitative PCR
MTERF1:	mitochondrial transcription termination factor 1	rCRS:	revised Cambridge reference sequence
MT-ND:	mitochondrial NADH dehydrogenase	RC:	respiratory chain
mt-RNAP:	mitochondrial RNA polymerase	RCDs:	respiratory chain disorders
mt-SSB:	mitochondrial single-stranded DNA binding protein	RGCs:	retinal ganglion cells
NAA:	N-acetyl aspartate	RITOLS:	ribonucleotide incorporation throughout the lagging strand
NADH:	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide	RNFL:	retinal nerve fiber layer
NARP:	neuronal ataxia retinitis pigmentosa	ROS:	reactive oxygen species
NCR:	non-coding region	rpm:	revolutions per minute
nDNA:	nuclear DNA	RRF:	ragged red fiber
NGS:	next generation sequencing	RRM2B:	ribonucleotide reductase regulatory TP53 inducible subunit M2B

rRNAs:	ribosomal RNAs	T _m :	melting temperature
SANDO:	sensory-ataxia neuropathy, dysarthria and ophthalmoplegia	Top:	topoisomerases
SNPs:	single nucleotide polymorphisms	TP:	thymidine phosphorylase
SCM:	strand-coupled model	tRNAs:	transfer RNAs
SDM:	strand-displacement model	Tyr:	tyrosine
tCho:	total choline	UV:	ultraviolet
TEFM:	transcription elongation factor of mitochondria	Val:	valine
TFAM:	mitochondrial transcription factor A	WES:	whole-exome sequencing
Thr:	threonine	WGS:	whole-genome sequencing
TK2:	thymidine kinase 2	ZFN:	zinc finger nucleases

Appendix B–Primers sequences for whole mtDNA (16,569)

Sky blue color for forward primers, yellow color for revers primers, overlap for mitochondrial fragments can be noticed, the exact positions for primers can be check by word count property

GATCACAGGTCATCACCCATTAACCACCTCACGGGAGCTCTCCATGCATTTGGTATTTTCGTCTGGGG
GTATGCACGCGATAGCATTGCGAGACGCTGGAGCCGGAGCACCCTATGTGCGAGTATCTGTCTTTGATTC
CTGCCTCATCCTATTATTTATCGCACCTACGTTCAATATTACAGGCGAACATACTTACTAAAGTGTGTTA
ATTAATTAATGCTTGTAGGACATAATAATAACAATTGAATGCTGACAGCCACTTCCACACAGACATC
ATAACAAAAATTTCCACCAAACCCCCCTCCCCCGCTTCTGGCCACAGCAC (D3F)
AACCCCAAAACAAAGAAC CCTAACACCAGCCTAACCG (ATTTCAAATTTTATCTTTGGCGGTATGCAC (D2R)
TTTTAACAGTCACCCCAACTAACACATTATTTCCCTCCACTCCCATACTACTAATCTCATCAATA
CAACCCCGCCATCCTACCCAGCA CACACACACCGCTGCTAAC (CCCATACCCGAACCAACCAACCC (1F)
AAAGACACCCCCACAGTTTATGTAGCTTACCTCCTCAAAGCAATACACTGAAAATGTTTAGACGGGCTC
ACATACCCCAATAAACAAATAGTGTGGTCCTAGCTTTCTATAGCTCTTAGTAAGATTACACATGCAA
GCATCCCGGTTCCAGTGTAGTTACCCCTCTAAATCACCACGATCAAAAAGAACCAAGCATCAAGCACGCAG
AATGCAGCTCAAAAC GCTTAGCCTAGCCACACC (CCACGGGAAACAGCAGTGATTAACCTTTAGCAATAA (D3R)
ACGAAAGTTTAACTAAGCTATACTAACCCAGGGTGGTCAATTCGTGCCAGCCACCGGGTACACGA
TTAACCCAAGTCAATAGAAGCCGCGTAAAGAGTGTTTAGATCACCCCTCCCAATAAAGCTAAAAC
CACCTGAGTTGTAACAACTCCAGTTGACACAAAATAGACTACGAAAGTGGCTTTAACATATCTGAAAC
ACAATAGCTAAGACCAAACTGGGATTAGATACCCACTATGCTTAGCCCTAACCTCAACAGTTAAATC
AACAAAAGTCTCGCCA GAACACTACGAGCCACAG (TTAAAACCAAAGGA CCTGGCGGTGCTTCATATC (2F, 1R)
CCTCTAGAGGAGCCTGTTCGTAAATCGATAAACCCCGATCAACCTCACACCTCTGTCTAGCCTATATA
CCGCCATCTTCAGCAAACCTGATGAAGGCTACAAAAGTAAAGCGCAAGTACCCACGTAAAGACGTTAGGTC
AAGGTGTAGCCATGAGGTGGCAAGAAATGGGTACATTTTCTACCCAGAAAACCTACGATAGCCCTTAT
GAAACTTAAGGTGCGAAGGTGGATTTAGCAGTAAACTAAGAGTAGAGTGCTTAGTTGAACAGGGCCCTGA
AGCGCGTACACACCCCGCTCACCCCTCAAGTATACTTCAAAGGACATTTAACTAAAACCCCTACGCA
TTTATATAGAGGAGACAAGTCTAATGTAAGTGTACTGGAAAGTGCACCTGGACGAACAGAGTGTGTA
GCTTAACACAAAAGCACCACACTTACACTTAGGAGATTCAACTTAACTTGACCGCTCTGAGCTAAACCTA
GCCCCAAACCCACTCCACCTTACTACCAGACAACCTTAGCCAAACCATTTACCCAAAATAAAGTATAGGG
ATAGA AATTGAAACCTGGCGCAATAG (ATATA GTACCCGAAGGGAAAGATGA) AAAATTATAACCAAGCATA (3F, 2R)
ATATAGCAAGGACTAACCCCTATACCTTCTGCATAATGAATTAAC TAGAAAATACTTTGCAAGGAGAGCC
AAAGCTAAGACCCCGAAACCAGACGAGCTACCTAAGAACAGCTAAAAGAGCACACCCGCTCTATGTAGCA
AAATAGTGGGAAGATTTATAGGTAGAGGCGACAAACCTACCGAGCCTGGTGATAGCTGGTTGTCCAAGAT
AGAATCTTAGTTCAACTTTAAATTTGCCACAGAACCCCTCTAAATCCCTTGTAATTTAACTGTAGTC
CAAAGGAAACGCTCTTTGGACACTAGGAAAAACCTTG TAGAGAGAGTAAAAAATTTAACACCCATAG
TAGGCCTAAAAGCAGCCACCAATTAAGAAAGCGTTCAAGCTCAACACCCACTACCTAAAAAATCCAAAC
ATATAACTGAACCTCACACCCCAATTGGACCAATCTATCACCTATAGAAGAACTAATGTTAGTATAAG
TAACATGAAAACATTTCTCCTCGCATAAAGCTGGGTGAGATTAACACTGAACTGACAATTAACAGCCC
AATATCTACAATCA ACCAACAAGTCATTATTACCC (TCACTGTCA) CCAACACAGGCATGCTCA (TAAGGA (4F, 3R)
AAGGTAAAAAAGTAAAAGGAACCTCGGCAATCTTACCCGCTGTTTACCAAAAACATCACCTCTAGC
ATCACAGTATTAGAGCCCGCTGCCAGTGACACATGTTTAAAGCGCCGCGGTACCTAACCGTGCAA
AGGTAGCATAACTACTTGTCTTAAATAGGGACTGTATGAATGCTCCACGAGGGTTAGCTGTCTCT
TACTTTTAAACAGTGAATGACCTGCCCGTGAAGAGGCGGCATAACACAGCAAGACGAGAAGACCCTA
TGGAGCTTTAATTTATTAATGCAAAACAGTACCTAACAAACCCACAGGTCTTAACTACCAACCTGCATT
AAAAATTTCCGTTGGGGCGACCTCGGAGCAGAACCCAACTCCGAGCAGTACATGCTAAGACTTACCAG
TCAAAGCAACTACTATACTCAATFGATCCAATAACTTGACCAACGGAAACAAGTTACCTAGGGATAACA
GCGCAATCTTCTAGAGTCATCAACAATAGGGTTTACGACCTCGATGTT GGATCAGGACATCCCG (5F)
ATG GTGACGCCGTATTAAGGTTCTGTTGTTCAACGATTAAG GTCTTACGTGATCTGAGTTCA (GACCGG (4R)
AGTAATCCAGGTCGGTTTTCTATCTACNTTCAAATTCCTCCCTGTACGAAAGGACAAGAGAAAATAAGCCCT
ACTTACAAAAGCGCTTCCCCGTAAATGATATCATCTCAACTTAGTATTATACCCACACCCACCAAGA
ACAGGGTTTTGTTAAGATGGCAGACCCGGTAATCGCATAAAACTTAAAACCTTTACAGTCAGAGGTCAAT
TCTCTTCTTAAACAACATACCCATGGCCAACCTCCTACTCCTCATGTACCCATTTCAATCGCAATGGCA
TTCTAATGCTTACCGAAGCAAAAATCTAGGCTATATAACAAC TAGCAAAGGCCCAACGTTGTAGGCC
CCTACGGCTACTACAACCTTCGCTGACGCCATAAAACTCTTACCAAAGAGCCCTAAAACCCGCCAC
ATCTACCATCACCTCTACATCACCCGCCCCGACT TAGCTCTCACCATCGCTC (TTCTACTATGAACCC (6F)
CTCCCATACCAACCCCTGGTCAACCTCAACCTAGGCCTCCTATTTATTTAGC CACCTCTAGCCTAG (5R)
CCGTT (TACTCAATCCTCTGATCAGGGTGTGATCAAACCTCAACTACGCCCTGATCGGCGACTGCGAGC
AGTAGCCAAAACATCTCATATGAAAGTCACTTAGCCATCATTTACTATCAACATTACTAATAAGTGGC
TCCTTTAACCTTCCACCCCTATCACAACACAAGAACACCTCTGATTACTCTGCCATCATGACCCTTGG
CCATAATATGATTTATCTCCACACTAGCAGAGACCAACCGAACCCCTTCGACCTTGGCGAAGGGGAGTC
CGAATAGTCTAGGCTTCAACATCGAATACGCCGAGGCCCTTCCCTTACTTCTTAGCCGAATAC
ACAAAACATTATATAATAAACCCCTCACCACTACAATCTTCTAGGAAACAATATGACGCACTCTCC
CTGAACTCTACACAACATAATTTGTACCAAGACCTACTTCTAACCTCCCTGTCTTATGAATTCGAAC
AGCATAACCCCGATTCCGCTACGACCAACTCATAACCTCTATGAAAAACT TCCTACCACTCACCTA (7F)
GC (TACTTATATGATAT GTCTCCATACCCATTACAATC) TCCAGCATTCCCCCTCAAACCTAAGAAATAT (6R)
GTCTGATAAAAAGAGTACTTTGATAGAGTAAATAAGGAGCTTAAACCCCTTATTTCTAGGACTATGA
GAATCGAACCATCCCTGAGAAATCCAAAATTCCTGTCACCTATCACACCCCATCTAAAGTAAGGTC
AGCTAAATAAGCTATCGGGCCATACCCGAAAATGTGGTTAACCCTTCCCTACTAATTAATCCCT
GGCCAAACCGTCATCTACTTACCATCTTGCAGGCACACTCATCACAGCGCTAAGCTCGCACTGATTT

TTTACCTGAGTAGGCCCTAGAAAATAAACATGCTAGCTTTTATTCCAGTTCTAACCAAAAAATAAACCCCTC
GTTCCACAGAAGCTGCCATCAAGTATTTCTCACGCAAGCAACCGCATCCATAATCTTCTAATAGCTAT
CCTCTTCAACAAATATACTCTCCGACAATGAACCAATAACCAATAC TACCAATCAATACTCATCATTAATA
ATCATAATAGCTATAGCAATAAAACTAGGAATAGCCCCCTTCTACTTCTGAGTCCCAGAGGTTACCCAAG
G**CACCCCTCTGACATCCGG****CCTGCTTCTTCTCACATGAC**AAAACTAGCCCCATCTCAATCATATACCA (8F, 7R)
AATCTCTCCCTACTAAACGTAAGCCTTCTCCTACTCTCTCAATCTTATCCATCATAGCAGGCAGTTGA
GGTGGATTAACCAAACCCAGCTACGCAAAATCTTAGCATACTCCTCAATTACCCACATAGGATGAATAA
TAGCAGTTCTACCGTACAACCCTAACATAACCATTCTTAATTTAACTATTTATATATCTTAACCTACTAC
CGCATTCCTACTACTCAACTTAACTCCAGCACCAGCCCTACTACTATCTCGCACCTGAAACAAGCTA
ACATGACTAACACCCCTTAATTTCCATCCACCCCTCCTCTCCCTAGGAGGCCCTGCCCCGCTAACCCGGCTTT
TGCCCAAATGGGCCATTATCGAAGAATTCACAAAAACAATAGCCTCATCATCCCCACCATCATAGCCAC
CATCACCCCTCTTAACCTCTACTTCTACCTACGCTAATCTACTCCACCTCAATCACACTACTCCCATA
TCTAACACGTAATAAATAAAATGACAGTTTGAACATACAAAACCCACCCATTCCTCCCACACTCATCG
CCCTTACCACGCTACTCTACCTATCTCCCTTTTATACTAATAATCTTATAGAAATTTAGGTTA **AATAC** (9F, 8R)
AGACCAAGAGCCTTCAAAGC**CCTCAGTAAGTTGCAATACT**TAATTTCTGTAACAGCTAAGGACTGCAAAA
CCCCACTCTGACTCAACTGAACGCAAAATCAGCCACTTTAATTTAAGCTAAGCCCTTACTAGACCAATGGGA
CTTAAACCCACAAACACTTAGTTAACAGCTAAGCACCCCTAATCAACTGGCTTCAATCTACTTCTCCCGCC
GCCGGGAAAAAGGCGGGAGAAGCCCGGCAGGTTTGAAGCTGCTTCTCGAATTTGCAATTCAAATATGA
AAATCACCTCGGAGCTGGTAAAAAGAGGCCTAACCCCTGTCTTTAGATTTACAGTCCAATGCTTCACTCA
GCCATTTTACCTCACCCACCTGATGTTGCGCGACCGTTGACTATCTCTACAACCCACAAAGACATGG
AACACTATACCATTATTCGGGCGCATGAGCTGGAGTCCACTAGGCACAGCTCTAAGCCCTCTTATTCGAGCC
GAGCTGGGCGACCCAGGCAACCTCTAGGTAACGACACACTACAACGTTATCGTACAGCCCATGTCAT
TTGTAATAATCTTCTTCATAGTAA**TACCCATCATAAATCGGAGGC**TTTGGAACACTGACTAGTTCCCTAAT (10F, 9R)
AATCGGTGCC**CCCGATATGGCGTTTCCC**CGCATAAAACAATAAGCTTCTGACTCTTACCTCCCTCTCTC
CTACTCTGCTCGCATCTGCTATAGTGAGGCCGGAGCAGGAACAGGTTGAACAGTCTACCCCTCCCTTAG
CAGGGAACCTACTCCCACCCCTGGAGCCTCCGTAGACCTAACCATCTCTCCTTACACCTAGCAGGTGTCTC
CTCTATCTTAGGGGCCATCAATTTTCATCAACAATTTATCAATATAAAAACCCCTGCCATAACCCAATAC
CAAACGCCCCCTTTCGTCTGATCCGTCCTAATCACAGCAGTCCACTTCTCCTATCTCTCCAGTCCCTAG
CTGTGGCATACTATACTACTAACAGACCCGCAACTCAACACCACCTTCTTCGACCCCGCCGGAGGAGG
AGACCCCAATTTCTATACCAACACCTATTCTGATTTTTTCGGTACCCCTGAAGTTTATATCTTATCTTACCA
GGCTTCGGAATAATCTCCCATATTTGTAACCTACTACTCCGGAAAAAAGAACCATTTGGATACATAGGTA
TGGTCTGAG**CTATGATATCAATTTGGCTTCC**TAGGTTTAT**CGTGTGAGCACACCATATATT**TACAGTAGG (11F, 10R)
AATAGACGTAGACACACGAGCATATTTCACTCCGCTACCATAATCATCGCTATCCCACCCGGCTCAAAA
GTATTTAGCTGACTCGCCACACTCCACGGAAGCAATATGAAATGATCTGCTGCAGTGTCTGAGCCCTAG
GATTCATCTTCTTTTACCCTTAGGTGGCCTGACTGGCATTGTATAGCAAACTCATCACTAGACATCGT
ACTACAGCACGTACTACTAGTTGAGCCACTTCCACTATGTCTTATCAATAGGAGCTGTATTTGGCCATC
ATAGGAGGCTTCATTCACTGATTTCCCTATTTCTCAGGCTACACCCTAGACCAAACCTACGCCAAAAATCC
ATTTCACTATCATATTCATCGCGTAAATCTAACTTTCTTCCCACAACACTTTCTCGGCCATCCGGAAT
GCCCGACGTTACTCGGACTACCCCGATGCATACACCACATGAAACATCCTATCATCTGTAGGCTCATTC
ATTTCTCTAACAGCAGTAATAATTAATAATTTTCATGATTTGAGAGCCTTCGCTTCGAAGCGAAAAGT **CC** (12F, 11R)
TAATAGTAGAAGAACCCTCCATAAACCT**GGAGTGACTATATGGATGCC**CCCCACCTACACACATTCGA
AGAACCCTGATACATAAAAATCTAGACAAAAAAGGAAGGAATCGAACCCCAAGCTGGTTTCAAGCCAA
CCCCATGGCCTCATGACTTTTCAAAAAGGTATTAGAAAAACCATTTTATAACTTTGTCAAAGTTAAAT
TATAGGCTAAATCCATATATCTTAATGGCACATGCAGCGCAAGTAGGCTACAAAGACGCTACTTCCCT
ATCATAGAAGAGCTTATCACCTTTCATGATCAGCCCTCATAA TCATTTTCCTTATCTGCTTCCCTAGTCC
TGTATGCCCTTTTCTTAACACTCACAACAAAATTAACCTAATAC TAACATCTCAGACGCTCAGGAAATAGA
AACCGTCTGAACATATCCTGCCCGCCATCATCCTAGTCTCATCGCCCTCCCATCCCTACGCATCCTTTAC
ATAACAGACGAGGTACACGATCCTCCTTACCATCAATCAATTTGGCCACCAATGGTACTGAACCTACG
AGTACACCCGATACGCGGACTAATCTTCACTCTCATACTACTCTCCCTC**ATTATTCTTAGAACCCAGGCG**A (13F)
CCTGCGACT**CCTTGACGTTGACAATCGAG**TAGTACTCCCGATTGAAGCCCCATTTCGTATAATAATTAACA (12R)
TCACAAGACGCTTTCGACTCATGAGCTGTCCCACATTAGGCTTAAAAACAGATGCAATTCCCGGACGTC
TAAACCAAACCACTTTTACCCTACACGACCCGGGGTATACTACGGTCAATGCTCTGAAATCTGTGGAGC
AAACCACAGTTTTCATGCCCATCGTCTAGAAATTAATTTCCCTAAAAATCTTTGAAATAGGGCCCGTATTT
ACCCTATAGCACCCCTCTACCCCTCTAGAGCCCACTGTAAGCTAACTTAGCATTAACCTTTTAAAGTT
AAAGATTAAGAGAACCAACACCTCTTACAGTGAATGCCCACTAAATACTACCGTATGGCCACCAT
AATTAACCCCACTACTACTACTATTCTCTCATACCCCACTAAAAATATTAACACAAACTACCCACTA
CCTCCCTCACCAAAGCCATAAAAAATAAAAAATTATAACAAACCTTGAGAACCAAAAATGAACGAAAAATCT
GTTCGCTTCAATCATTGCCCC**ACAATCCTAGGCCCTACCCG**CGCAGTACTGATCATCTATTTCCCT (14F)
CTATTGATCC**CCACCTCCAAATATCTCATCA**ACACCGACTAATCACCAACCAATGACTAATCAAAC (13R)
TAACCTCAAAACAAATGATAACCATACACAACACTAAAGGACGAACTGATCTCTTATACTAGTATCCTT
AATCATTTTTTATTTGCCACAACCTAACCTCTCGGACTCTCGCTCACTCATTTACACCAACCCCAACTA
TCTATAAACCTAGCCATGGCCATCCCTTATGAGCGGGCACAGTGATTATAGGCTTTTCGCTCTAAGATTA
AAAAATGCCCTAGCCACTTCTTACCACAAGGCACACTACACCCCTTATCCCCATACTAGTTATTATCGA
AACCATCAGCTACTCATTCAACCAATAGCCCTGGCCGTACGCCCTAACCGCTAACATTACTGCAGGCCAC
CTACTCATGCACCTAATTTGGAAGGCCACCCCTAGCAATATCAACCATTAACCTTCCCTCTACACTTATCA
TCTTCACAATTCATTTCTACTGACTATCTAGAAATCGCTGTGCGCTTAATCCAAGCCTACGTTTTTAC
ACTTCTAGTA**AGCCTCTACCTGCACGAC**ACACATAATGAC**CCACCAATCACATGCCTATC**ATATAGTAA (15F, 14R)
AACCCAGCCCATGACCCCTAACAGGGGCCCTCTCAGCCCTCCTAATGACCTCCGGCCTAGCCATGTGATT
TCACTTCCACTCCATAACGCTCCTCATACTAGGCTACTAACCACCACTAACCATTAACCAATGATGG
CGCGATGTAACAGAGAAAGCACATACCAAGGCCACCACACACCCTGTCCAAAAAGGCCTTCGATACG

GGATAATCCTATTTATTACCTCAGAAGTTTTTTTTCTTCGACAGGATTTTTCTGAGCCTTTTACCCTCCAG
CCTAGCCCCCTACCCCAATTAGGAGGGCCTGGCCCCAACAGGCATCACCCCGCTAAATCCCCTAGAA
GTCCCACTCCTAAACACATCCGTATTACTCGCATCAGGAGTATCAATCACCTGAGCTCACCATAGCTAA
TAGAAAAACAACCGAAACCAATAATTCAGCACTGCTTATTACAATTTTACTGGGTCTCTATTTTACCCT
CCTACAAGCCTCAGAGTACTTCGAGTCTCCCTTACCATTTCGACGGCATCTACGGCTCAACATTTTTT
GTAGCCACAGGTTCCACGG**ACTTCACGTCATTATTGGCTC**AACTTT**CCTCACTATCTGCTTCATCC**GCC (16F, 15R)
AACTAATATTTCACTTTACATCCAAACATCACTTTGGCTTCGAAGCCGCCGCTGATACTGGCATTTTGT
AGATGTGGTTTACTATTTCTGTATGTCTCCATCTATTGATGAGGGTCTTACTCTTTTAGTATAAATAGT
ACCGTTAACTTCCAATTAACCTAGTTTGGACAACATTCAAAAAGAGTAATAAACTTCGCCTTAATTTAA
TAATCAACACCTCCTAGCCTTACTACTAATAAATATTACATTTTACTACCACAACCAACGGCTACAT
AGAAAAATCCACCCCTTACGAGTGGGCTTCGACCTATATCCCCCGCCGCTCCCTTTCTCCATAAAA
TTCTTCTTAGTAGCTATTACCTTCTTATTATTGATCTAGAAATGGCCCTTTTACCCTACCATGAG
CCCTACAAACAACCTAACCTGCCACTAATAGTTATGTCATCCCTCTATTAATCATCATCTAGCCCTAAG
TCTGGCCTATGAGTGACTACAAAAGGATTAGA**CTGAACCGAATTGGTATATAG**TTTAAACAAAACGAAT (17F)
GATTTGACTCATATAAATTATGATAATCATATTTACCAATGCCCTCATTACATAAAATATTATA**CTAG** (16R)
CATTTACCATCTCACTTTCTAGGAATACCTAGTATATCGCTCACACCTCATATCTCCCTACTATGCCTAGA
AGGAATAACTATATCGCTGTTTATTATAGTACTCTCATAACCTCAACACCCACTCCCTCTTAGCCAAT
ATTGTGCCTATTGCCATACTAGTCTTTGCCGCTCGAAGCAGCGGTGGGCCTAGCCCTACTAGTCTCAA
TCTCCAACACATATGGCCTAGACTACGTACATAACCTAAACCTACTCCAATGCTAAAACCTAATCGTCCCA
ACAATTATATTACTACCCTGACATGACTTTCCAAAAACACA TAATTTGAATCAACACAACCCACCCACA
GCCTAATTTAGCATCATCCCTCTACTATTTTTTAACCAATCAACAACACCTATTTAGCTGTTCCTCC
AACCTTTTCTCCGACCCCTAACACCCCTCCTAATAACTAACCTACCTGACTCCCTACCCCTC**ACAATC** (18F)
ATGGCAAGCCACGCCCACTTAT**CCAGTGAACCACCTATCACGA**AAAAAACTTACCTCTCTATACTAATCT (17R)
CCCTACAAATCTCCTTAATTAACATTCACAGCCACAGAACCTAATCATATTTTATATCTTCTTCGAAAC
CACACTTATCCCACCTTGGCTATCATCACCCGATGAGGCAACCAGCCAGAAGCCTGAACGCAGGCACA
TACTTCTTATTTACACCTAGTAGGCTCCCTTCCCTACTCATCGCACTAATTTACACTCACAAACCC
TAGGCTCACTAAACATTCTACTACTCTCACTCTCACTGCCAAGAATATCAAACCTCTGAGCCAACAACCT
AATAGTACTAGCTTACACAATAGCTTTTATAGTAAAGATACTCTTTACGGACTCCACTTATGACTCCCT
AAAGCCATGTCGAAGCCCTTACGCTGGGTCAATAGTACTTGGCGAGTACTTTAAAACCTAGGGCGCT
ATGGTATAATACGCTCACACTCATTTCAACCCCTGACAAAACACATAGCCTACCCTTCTGTACT
ATCCCTATGAGGCATAATTATAACAAGCTCCATCTGCCTACGACAAAACAGACCTAAAATCGCTCATTGCA
TACTCTTCAAT**AGCCACATAGCCCTCGTAG**TAACAGCCATTTCTCATCAAACCCCTGAAGCTTCA**CG** (19F, 18R)
GCGCAGTCATTCATATATCGCCACGGGCTTACATCCTCATTACTATTCTGCCTAGCAAACCTCAAACCTA
CGAACGCATTCACAGTCGCATATAATCCTCTCTCAAGGACTTCAAACCTCTACTCCCACTAATAGCTTTT
TGATGACTTCTAGCAAGCTCGCTAACCTCGCTTACCCCTCACTATTAACTACTGGGAGAACCTCTCTG
TGCTAGTAACCAGTCTCTCTGATCAAATATCACTCTCTACTTACAGGACTCAACATAGTACAGC
CCTATACTCCCTCTACATAATTTACCACAACACAATGGGGCTCACTCACCCACCACATTAACAACATAAAA
CCCTCATTACACAGAGAAAACACCTCATGTTTACACACCTATCCCCATTTCTCTCTATCCCTCAACC
CGACATCATTACGGGTTTTCTCTTGTAAATATAGTTTAAACAAAACATCAGATTGTGAATCTGACAA
CAGAGGCTTACGACCCCTTATTTACCGAGAAAGTCCACAAGAAGTCTAATCTATGCCCCATGTCTAAC
AACATGGCTTTCTCACTTTTAAAGGATAACAG**CTATCCATTGGTCTTAGGC**CCAAAAATTTTGGTGCA (20F)
ACTCCAAATAAAAGTATA**CCATGCACACTACTATAACCA**CCCTAACCCCTGACTTCCCTAATTCCTCC (19R)
ATCCTTACCACCTCGTTAACCTTAAACAAAACCACTCATACCCCTTATGTAAAACTCATTGTGCGCAT
CCACCTTTATTTACGTCTCTTCCCAACAATAATTCATGTGCCAGTACCAAGAGTTATTTATCTCGAA
CTGACTGAGCCACAACCCAAACAACCCAGCTCTCCCTAAGCTTCAAACCTAGACTACTTCTCCATAATA
TTCATCCCTGTAGCATTGTTCTGTTACATGGTCCATCATAGAATCTCACTGTGATATATAAACTCAGACC
CAAACATTAATCAGTTCTTCAAATATCTACTCATCTTCTTAATACCATACTAATCTTAGTTACCCTAA
CAACCTTTCCAAGTGTTCATCGGCTGAGAGGGCGTAGGAATTTATCTTCTTGCTCATCAGTTGATGA
TACGCCCTGAGAGATGCAACACAGCACCATTCAAGCAATCCATACACCGTATCGGCGATATGGGTT
TCATCCTCGCTTAGCATGATTTATCTTCACTCCAACCT**ATGAGACCCACAACAAATAGC**CTTTCTAAA (21F)
CGCTAATCCAAGCCTCACCCACTACTAGGCCCTCT**CCTAGCAGCAGCAGGCAAA**TCAGCCCAATTAGGT (20R)
CTCCACCCCTGACTCCCTCAGCCATAGAAGGCCCAACCCAGTCTCAGCCCTACTCCACTCAAGCACTA
TAGTTGTAGCAGGAATCTTCTTACTCATCCGCTTCCACCCCTAGCAGAAAATAGCCCACTAATCCAAAC
TCTAACACTATGCTTAGGCGCTATCACCCTCTGTTTCGACGAGTCTGCGCCCTTACACAAAATGACATC
AAAAAATCGTAGCCTTCTCCACTTCAAGTCAACTAGGACTCATAATAGTTACAATCGGCATCAACCAAC
CACACCTAGCATCTCTGCACATCTGTACCACGCTTCTTCAAAGCCATACTATTATGTGCTCCGGTCT
CATCATCCACAACCTTAAACAATGAACAAGATATTCGAAAAATAGGAGGACTACTCAAAAACCATACCTCTC
ACTTCAACCTCCCTCACCATTTGGCAGCCTAGCATTAGCAGGAATACCTTTCTCTCACAGGTTTCTACTCCA
AAGACCACATCTCGAAACCGCAAACATATCATACACAACGCTGAGCCCTATCTA**TTACTCTCATCGG** (22F)
TACCTCCCTGACAA**GCGCCTATAGCACTCGAATA**ATTCTTCTCACCCTAACAGGTCAACCTCGCTTCCCT (21R)
ACCCTTACTAACATTAACGAAAAAATACCCACCCCTACTAAACCCCTTAAACGCTTGGCAGCCGGAGGCC
TATTGCGAGGATTTCTCATTACTAACAACATTTCCCCCGCATCCCTTCCAACAACAATCCCTCTTA
CCTAAAACCTCACAGCCCTCGCTCACTTTCTTAGGACTTCTTAACAGCCCTAGACCTCAACTACC2AAC
AACAAAATTTAAAATAAAATCCCCTATGACATTTTATTTCTCCAACATACTCGGATTCTACCTTAGCA
TCACACACCGCACAAATCCCTTATCTAGGCCTTCTTACGAGCCAAAACCTGCCCTACTCTCTTAGACCT
AACCTGACTAGAAAAGCTATTACCTAAAACAATTTACAGCACCAAACTCTCCACCTCCATCATACCTCA
ACCAAAAAGGCATAAATAAACTTTACTTCTCTCTTTCTTCTTCCCACTCATCTAACCTACTCTCTAA
CTACTACTAATCAACGC**CCATAATCATACAAGCCG**CGCACCAATA**GGATCCTCCCGAATCAACC**CTGA (23F, 22R)
CCCCTCTCTTCAATAAATTATTCAGCTTCTTACTATAAAGTTTACCACAACCCACCCCTCATAC

TCTTTACCCACAGCACCAATCCTACCTCCATCGCTAACCCCACTAAAAACTCACCAGACCTCAACCC
CTGACCCCATGCCTCAGGATACTCCTCAATAGCCATCGCTGTAGTATATCCAAAGACAACCATCATTCC
CCCTAAATAAATAAAAAAACTATTAAACCCATATAACCTCCCCAAAATTCAGAATAATAACACACCCCG
ACCACACCGCTAACAACTCAATACTAAACCCCCATAAATAGGAGAAGGCTTAGAAGAAAAACCCACAAACC
CCATTACTAAACCCCACTCAACAGAAACAAAGCATACATCATTATTCTCGCACGGACTACAACCACGAC
CAATGATATGAAAAACCATCGTTGTATTTCAACTACAAGAACACCAATGACC)CCAATACGCAAACTAAC (24F)
CCCCTAAATAAATAAATTAACCACTCATTTCATCGACCTCCCCACCCCATCCAACATCTCCGCATGATGAA
ACTTCGGCTCACTCCTTGGCGCCTGCCTGATCCTCCAAATCACCACAGGACTATTCCTAGCCATGCACTA (23R)
CTCACCAGACGCCTCAAC)CGCCTTTTCATCAATCGCCACATCACTCGAGACGTAAATTATGGCTGAATC
ATCCGCTACCTTCACGCCAATGGCGCCTCAATATCTTTATCTGCCTCTTCCCTACACATCGGGCGAGGCC
TATATTACGGATCATTTCTCTACTCAGAAACCTGAAACATCGGCATTATCTCCTGCTTGCAACTATAGC
AACAGCCTTCATAGGCTATGTCTCCCGTGAGGCCAAATATCATTTCTGAGGGGCCACAGTAATTACAAC
TTACTATCCGCCATCCCATACATGGGACAGACCTAGTTCAATGAATCTGAGGAGGCTACTCAGTAGACA
GTCCCACCTTCACACGATTCTTTACCTTTCACTTCATCTTGCCCTTCATTATTGCAGCCCTAGCAACT
CCACCTCCTATTCTTGACGAAACGGGATCAAACAACCCCTTAGGAATCACCTCCATTCC)SATAAAAT) (25F, 24R)
ACCTTCCACCCCTTACTACA)CAATCAAAGACGCCCTCGGCTTACTTCTTCCCTCTCCTTAATGACAT
TAACACTATTCTCACCAGACCTCTTAGGCGACCCAGACAATTATACCTAGCCACCCCTTAAACACCC
TCCCACATCAAGCCGAATGATATTTCTATTGCGCTACACAATTCTCCGATCCGTCCTAACAAACTA
GGAGGCGTCTTGCCCTATTACTATCCATCCTCATCCTAGCAATAATCCCATCCTCCATATATCCAAC
AACAAAGCATAAATTTGCCCCACTAAGCCAATCACTTTATTGACTCCTAGCCGCAGACCTCCTCATTCT
AACCTGAATCGGAGGACAACCAGTAAGCTACCCTTTTACCATCATTTGGACAAGTAGCATCCGTACTATAC
TTCACAACAATCCTAATCCTAATACCAACTATCTCCCTAATTGAAAACAAAATACTCA)AATGGGCCTGTC (D1F)
CTTGTAG)TATAAACTAATACACCAGTCTTGTAACCCGGAGATGAAAACCTTTTTCCAAGGACAAATCAGA
GAAAAAGTCTTTAACTCCACCATTAGCACCCAAAGCTAAGATTCTAATTTAAACTATTCTCTGTTCTTTC
ATGGGGAAGCAGATTTGGTACCACCCAAGTATTGAC)TCACCCATCAACAACCGCTATGTATTTTCGTACA (25R)
TTACTGCCAGCCACCATGAATATGTACGGTACCATAAATACTGACCACCTGTAGTACATAAAAAACCCA
ATCCACATCAAAACCCCTCCCCATGCTTACAAGCAAGTACAGCAATCAACCCTCAACTATCACACATCA
ACTGCAACTCCAAAGCCACCCCTCACCACTAGGATACCAACAACCTACCCACCCTTAACAGTACATAG
TACATAAAGCCATTTACCGTACATAGCACATTACAGTCAAATCCCTTCTCGTCCCATGGATGACCCCC
TCAGATAGGGGTCCCTTGACCACCATCCTCCGTGAAATCAATATCCCACACAAGAGTGCTACTCTCCTCG
CTCCGGGCCATAAACACTTGGGGGTAGCTAAAGTGAAGTGTATCGACATCTGGTTCCTACTTC)AGGGTC (D2F)
ATAAA)GCCTAAATAGCCACACGTT)CCCCTAAATAAGACATCACGATG (D1R)

Appendix C– Collection of mtDNA mutations detected in MCPS.

Appendix C-1 LHON

Gene	mtDNA Mutation	Fragment No.	No. of mutation in ref. seq	Amino acid change	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
MT-RNR1 (12S rRNA)	m.856 A>G	1	341	-	Homoplasmy
MT-ND1, complex I	m.3316G > A	5	322	A-T	Homoplasmy
	m.3335T > C	5	341	I-T	Homoplasmy
	3391G > A	5	397	G-S	Homoplasmy
	m.3394T>C	5	400	Y-H	Homoplasmy
	m.3395A>G	5	401	Y-C	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.3460G>A	5	466	A-T	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.3472T>C	5	478	F-L	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.3488T > C	5	494	L-P	Homoplasmy
	m.3496G > T	5	502	A-S	Homoplasmy
	m.3497C > T	5	503	A-V	Homoplasmy
	m.3551C > T	5	557	A-V	Homoplasmy
	m.3632C > T	6	97	S-F	Homoplasmy
	m.3634A>G	6	99	S-G	Homoplasmy
	m.3635G>A	6	100	S-N	Homoplasmy
	m.3700G>A	6	165	A-T	Homoplasmy
	m.3713T>C	6	178	V-A	Homoplasmy
	m.3733G>C	6	189	E-Q	Heteroplasmy
	m.3733G>A	6	189	E-K	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.3736G>A	6	201	V-I	-
	m.3769C>G	6	234	L-V	Homoplasmy
	m.3781T>C	6	246	S-P	Homoplasmy
	m.3866T>C	6	331	I-T	-
	m.3919T>C	6	384	S-P	Homoplasmy
	m.3958G>A	6	423	G-S	Homoplasmy
	m.4081T>C	6	546	F-L	Homoplasmy
	m.4123A>T	6	588	I-F	Homoplasmy

	m.4136A>G	6	601	Y-C	Homoplasmy
	m.4160T>C	6	625	L-P	Homoplasmy
	m.4163T>C	6	628	M-T	Homoplasmy
	m.4171C>A	6	636	L-M	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.4216T>C	6	681	Y-H	Homoplasmy
MT-TM (tRNA Met)	m.4435A>G	7	252	-	Homoplasmy
MT-ND2, complex I	m.4633C>G	7	450	A-D	Homoplasmy
	m.4640C>A	7	457	I-M	Homoplasmy
	m.4917A>G	8	86	N-D	Homoplasmy
	m.5244G>A	8	413	G-S	Heteroplasmy
MT-CO1, complex IV	m.6261G>A	10	147	A-T	Homoplasmy
	m.7444G>A	12	96	Ter-K	Homoplasmy
MT-CO2, complex IV	m.7598G>A	12	250	A-T	Heteroplasmy
	m.7623C>T	12	275	T-I	Homoplasmy
	m.7868C>T	12	520	L-F	Homoplasmy
MT-ATP6, complex V	m.8668T>C	14	106	W-R	Homoplasmy
	m.8836A>G	14	274	M-V	Homoplasmy
	m.9016A>G	14	454	I-V	Heteroplasmy
	m.9101T>C	14	539	I-T	Homoplasmy
	m.9139G>A	14	577	A-T	Homoplasmy
MT-CO3, complex IV	m.9438G>A	15	258	G-S	Homoplasmy
	m.9660A>C	15	480	M-L	Homoplasmy
	m.9738G>T	15	558	A-S	Homoplasmy
	m.9804G>A	15	624	A-T	Homoplasmy
MT-ND3, complex I	m.10398A>G	16	578	T-A	Homoplasmy
MT-ND4L, complex I	m.10543A>G	17	150	H-R	Heteroplasmy
	m.10591T>G	17	198	F-C	Heteroplasmy
	m.10663T>C	17	270	V-A	Homoplasmy
	m.10680G>A	17	287	A-T	Homoplasmy
MT-ND4, complex I	m.11253T>C	18	269	I-T	Homoplasmy
	m.11696G>A	19	64	V-I	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.11778G>A	19	146	R-H	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy

	m.11874C>A	19	242	T-N	Homoplasmy
MT-ND5, complex I	m.12338T>C	20	55	M-T	Homoplasmy
	m.12782T>G	20	499	I-S	Heteroplasmy
	m.12811T>C	20	528	Y-H	Homoplasmy
	m.12848C>T	20	565	A-V	Heteroplasmy
	m.13042G>A	21	122	A-T	Heteroplasmy
	m.13051G>A	21	131	G-S	Homoplasmy
	m.13379A>C	21	459	H-P	Homoplasmy
	m.13528A>G	21	608	T-A	Homoplasmy
	m.13708G>A	22	141	A-T	Homoplasmy
	m.13730G>A	22	163	G-E	Heteroplasmy
MT-ND6, complex I	m.14279G>A	23	52	S-L	Homoplasmy
	m.14325T>C	23	98	N-D	Homoplasmy
	m.14482C>A	23	255	M-I	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.14482C>G	23	255	M-I	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.14484T>C	23	257	M-V	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.14495A>G	23	268	L-S	Heteroplasmy
	m.14498C>T	23	271	Y-C	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	m.14502T>C	23	275	I-V	Homoplasmy
	m.14568C>T	23	341	G-S	Homoplasmy
	m.14596A>T	23	369	I-M	Homoplasmy
MT-TE(tRNA Glu)	m.14692A>G	23	465	-	Homoplasmy
	m.14693A>G	23	466	-	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
MT- CYB,complex III	m.14831G>A	24	100	A-T	Homoplasmy
	m.14841A>G	24	110	N-S	Heteroplasmy
	m.15257G>A	24	526	D-N	Homoplasmy
	m.15395A>G	24	664	K-E	Homoplasmy
	m.15674T>C	25	303	S-P	Homoplasmy
	m.15773G>A	25	402	V-M	Homoplasmy
	m.15812G>A	25	441	V-M	Homoplasmy
MT-TT (tRNA Thr)	m.15927G>A	25	556	-	Homoplasmy

Collection of confirmed/ reported both primary/rare and secondary/intermediate mutations and possible synergistic LHON helper factors. Primary mutations are in bold; Frag. fragment; No. number; Mut. mutation; ref. reference sequence

Appendix C-2 MELAS

Mitochondria Disease	Gene	mtDNA Mutation	Frag. No.	No. of mutation in ref. seq	Amino acid change	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
MELAS	MT-TF (tRNA Phe)	m.583G>A	1	68	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TV (tRNA Val)	m.1616A>G	2	479	-	-
		m.1630A>G	2	493	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.1642G>A	2	505	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.1644G>A	2	507	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-RNR2 (16S rRNA)	m.3093C>G	5	99	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TLI (tRNA Leu (UUR))	m.3243A>G	5	249	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3244G>A	5	250	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3252A>G	5	258	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3256C>T	5	262	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3258T>C	5	264	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3260A>G	5	266	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3271T>C	5	277	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.3291T>C	5	297	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND1, Complex I	m.3308T>C	5	314	M-T	Heteroplasmy
		m.3380G>A	5	386	R-Q	Heteroplasmy
		m.3481G>A	5	487	E-K	Heteroplasmy
		m.3697G>A	6	162	G-S	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.3946G>A	6	411	E-K	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.3949T>C	6	414	Y-H	Heteroplasmy
		m.3959G>A	6	424	G-D	-
		m.3995A>G	6	460	N-S	-
	MT-T1 (tRNA Ile)	m.4290T>C	7	107	-	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
m.4320C>T		7	137	-	Heteroplasmy	
MT-TQ (tRNA Gln)	m.4332G>A	7	149	-	Heteroplasmy	

	MT-TN (tRNA Asn)	m.5693T>C	9	168	-	Homoplasmy
	MT-TC (tRNA Cys)	m.5814T>C	9	289	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TK (tRNA Lys)	m.8316T>C	13	357	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-CO3, Complex IV	m.9957T>C	16	137	F-L	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND4, Complex I	m.11084A>G	18	100	T-A	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-TH (tRNA His)	m.12146A>G	19	514	-	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.12206C>T	19	574	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TL2 (tRNA Leu (CUN))	m.12299A>C	19	667	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND5, Complex I	m.12770A>G	20	287	E-G	Heteroplasmy
		m.13084A>T	21	164	S-C	Heteroplasmy
		m.13094T>C	21	174	V-A	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.13513G>A	21	593	D-N	Heteroplasmy
		m.13514A>G	21	594	D-G	Heteroplasmy
		m.13528A>G	21	608	T-A	Homoplasmy
		m.13849A>C	22	282	N-H	Homoplasmy
	MT-TE (tRNA Glu)	m.14693A>G	23	466	-	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND6, Complex I	m.14453G>A	23	226		Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-CYB, Complex III	m.14787delTTAA				
		m.14864T>C	23	637	C-R	Heteroplasmy
		m.15092G>A	24	361	G-S	Heteroplasmy
LHON overlap MELAS	MT-ND I, complex I	m.3376G > A	5	382	E-K	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND 5, complex I	m.13045A>C	21	125	M-L	Heteroplasmy
		m.13046T>C	21	126	M-T	Heteroplasmy
		m.13513G>A	21	593	D-N	Heteroplasmy
MELAS like syndrome	MT-CO1, Complex IV	m.6597C>A	10	483	Q-K	Heteroplasmy
		m.7023G>A	11	294	V-M	Heteroplasmy

Appendix C-3 Other Mitochondriopathies

Mitochondrial Disease	Gene	mtDNA Mutation	Fragment No.	No. of mutation in ref. seq	Amino acid change	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
LS	MT-TV (tRNA Val)	m.1624 C>T	2	486	-	Homoplasmy
		m.1644 G>T (Adult onset)	2	507	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TLI (tRNA Leu (UUR))	m.3243A>G	5	249	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND1, complex I	m.3697G>A	6	0	G-S	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND2, complex I	m.4681T>C	7	498	L-P	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ATP6, complex V	m.8993T>C	14	431	L-P	Heteroplasmy
		m.8993T>G	14	431	L-R	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.9176T>C	14	614	L-P	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.9176T>G	14	614	L-R	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
	MT-COXIII, complex I	m.9537 CIns				
	MT-ND3, complex I	m.10197G>A	16	377	A-T	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.10134C>A	16	314	Q-K	Heteroplasmy
		m.10158T>C	16	338	S-P	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.10191T>C	16	371	S-P	Heteroplasmy
		m.10197G>A	16	377	A-T	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.10254G>A	16	434	D-N	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND4, complex I	m.11240C>T	18	256	L-F	Heteroplasmy
		m.11777A>C	19	145	R-S	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND5, complex I	m.12338T>C	20	55	M-T	Homoplasmy
		m.12706T>C	20	423	F-L	Heteroplasmy
		m.13513G>A	21	593	D-N	Heteroplasmy
		m.13514T>C	21	594	D-G	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND6, complex I	m.14459G>A	23	232	A-V	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy

		m.14487T>C	23	260	M-V	Heteroplasmy
Leigh-like phenotype	MT-ND1, complex I	m.4171C>A	6	636	L-M	Homoplasmy-Heteroplasmy
NARP	MT-ATP6,complex V	m.8993T>C	14	431	L-P	Heteroplasmy
		m.8993T>G	14	431	L-R	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m.9127-9128 del				
MERRF	MT-TF (tRNA Phe)	m.611G>A	1	96	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TI (tRNA Ile)	m.4279A>G	7	96	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TK (tRNA Lys)	m.8296A>G	13	337	-	Homoplasmy/Heteroplasmy
		m. 8344A>G	13	385	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.8356T>C	13	397	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.8361G>A	13	402	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.8363G>A	13	404	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TH (tRNA His)	m.12147G>A	19	515	-	Heteroplasmy
MT-TP (tRNA Pro)	m.15967G>A	25	596	-	Heteroplasmy	
KSS	4.9 kb deletion from 8469 to 13447					
	MT-TL2 (tRNA Leu (CUN))	m.12315G>A	19	683	-	Heteroplasmy
MERRF / KSS overlap	MT-TLI (tRNA Leu (UUR))	m.3255G>A	5	261	-	Heteroplasmy
Pearson Syndrome	424 bp deletion from 8578 -14001					
	5182 bp deletion 10,901-16,082					
	4977 bp deletion from 8482-13460					
	2461 bp deletion from 10368 12828					
CPEO	MT-TI (tRNA Ile)	m.4308G>A	7	125	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-TL2 (tRNA Leu (CUN))	m.12276G>A	19	644	-	Heteroplasmy
		m.12315G>A	19	683	-	Heteroplasmy
MIDD	MT-TLI (tRNA Leu (UUR))	m.3243A>G	5	249	-	Heteroplasmy
	MT-ND1, Complex I	m.3421G >A	5	427	V-I	Homoplasmy
	MT-CO2	m.8241T>G	13	282	F-C	Heteroplasmy

Appendix D– mtDNA genes and OMIM entries

Genes	Positions in the human mitogenome	OMIM Entries
<i>MT-TF</i>	577–647	590070
<i>MT-RNR1</i>	648–1,601	561000
<i>MT-TV</i>	1,602–1,670	590105
<i>MT-RNR2</i>	1,671–3,229	561010
<i>MT-TL1</i>	3,230–3,304	590050
<i>MT-ND1</i>	3,307–4,262	516000
<i>MT-TI</i>	4,263–4,331	590045
<i>MT-TQ</i>	4,329–4,400	590030
<i>MT-TM</i>	4,402–4,469	590065
<i>MT-ND2</i>	4,470–5,511	516001
<i>MT-TW</i>	5,512–5,579	590095
<i>MT-TA</i>	5,587–5,655	590000
<i>MT-TN</i>	5,657–5,729	590010
<i>MT-TC</i>	5,761–5,826	590020
<i>MT-TY</i>	5,826–5,891	590100
<i>MT-CO1</i>	5,904–7,445	516030
<i>MT-TS1</i>	7,446–7,514	590080
<i>MT-TD</i>	7,518–7,585	590015
<i>MT-CO2</i>	7,586–8,269	516040
<i>MT-TK</i>	8,295–8,364	590060
<i>MT-ATP8</i>	8,366–8,572	516070
<i>MT-ATP6</i>	8,527–9,207 (overlap with MT-ATP8)	516060
<i>MT-CO3</i>	9,207–9,990	516050
<i>MT-TG</i>	9,991–10,058	590035
<i>MT-ND3</i>	10,059–10,404	516002
<i>MT-TR</i>	10,405–10,469	590005
<i>MT-ND4L</i>	10,470–10,766	516004

<i>MT-ND4</i>	10,760–12,137 (overlap with MT-ND4L)	516003
<i>MT-TH</i>	12,138–12,206	590040
<i>MT-TS2</i>	12,207–12,265	590085
<i>MT-TL2</i>	12,266–12,336	590055
<i>MT-ND5</i>	12,337–14,148	516005
<i>MT-ND6</i>	14,149–14,673	516006
<i>MT-TE</i>	14,674–14,742	590025
<i>MT-CYB</i>	14,747–15,887	516050
<i>MT-TT</i>	15,888–15,953	590090
<i>MT-TP</i>	15,956–16,023	590075

Author's biography

Phepy Gamil Anwar Dawod, born 11.09.1982 in Cairo, Egypt, she enrolled at Ain Shams Medical School in Egypt in 1999. She graduated in 2005 and obtained Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery with an average grade of 8.8. After graduation, she was employed at Ain Shams University School of Medicine in Egypt at the Department of Medical Biochemistry and Molecular Biology where she works as an assistant (2007 – present). In 2008, she enrolled in a master's degree at Ain Shams University School of Medicine in Egypt, medical science module (Biochemistry). She enrolled in doctoral studies in the field of Molecular Medicine in 2015 at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Belgrade. Under the mentorship of Prof. dr Ivana Novakovic. She is a scholarship holder of the "World in Serbia" project of the Government of the Republic of Serbia.

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Phepy Gamil Anwar Dawod, rođena 11.09.1982 godine u Kairu, Egipat, upisala je Medicinski fakultet Ain Shams Univerzitet u Egiptu 1999 godine. Diplomirala je 2005 godine I dobijena diplomu medicine i hirurgiju sa prosečnom ocenom 8.8. Nakon diplomiranja zaposlena je na Medicinskom fakultetu Ain Shams Univerzitet u Egiptu na katedri za Medicinsku biohemiju i molekularnu biologiju gde radi kao asistent (2007 – 2021). 2008 godine upisala je magistarske studije na Medicinskom fakultetu Ain Shams Univerzitet u Egiptu, modul prirodne nauke (biohemiju). Doktorske studije iz oblasti Molekularne medicine upisala je 2015 godine na Medicinskom fakultetu Univerziteta u Beogradu. pod mentorstvom prof. dr Ivane Novaković. Ona je stipendista projekta "Svet u Srbiji" Vlade Republike Srbije.

Изјаве о ауторству

Име и презиме аутора Phepy Gamil Anwar Dawod

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да је докторска дисертација под насловом

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Ови лични подаци могу се објавити на мрежним страницама дигиталне библиотеке, у електронском каталогу и у публикацијама Универзитета у Београду.

Потпис аутора

У Београду, 12.01.2021

phepy dawod

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Анализа секвенце митохондријске ДНК код пацијената са митохондриопатијама

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Кратак опис лиценци је саставни део ове изјаве).

Потпис аутора

У Београду, 12.01.2021

Phery Dawood