

<http://dx.doi.org/10.7124/bc.000B25>  
UDC 577.218+616.65

**G.V. Gerashchenko, M.A. Tukalo**

Institute of Molecular Biology and Genetics, NAS of Ukraine  
150, Akademika Zabolotnoho Str., Kyiv, Ukraine, 03143  
[g.v.gerashchenko@edu.imbg.org.ua](mailto:g.v.gerashchenko@edu.imbg.org.ua)

## CLINICALLY SIGNIFICANT MOLECULAR ALTERATIONS OF MITOCHONDRIA IN CARCINOGENESIS AND AGE-RELATED DISEASES: PART 1. DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY AND DIAGNOSTIC SIGNIFICANCE

---

*Mitochondrial dysfunction is associated with the hallmarks of cancer, aging, and age-related diseases. In recent years, numerous mitochondrial molecular alterations have been identified at the DNA, RNA, and protein levels, as well as metabolic shifts and metabolic reprogramming in various types of cancer and age-related diseases. The review analyzes a number of clinically significant parameters of mitochondrial disorders, including susceptibility to disease development, diagnosis, prognosis, and the course of these pathologies. The manifestations of mitochondrial dysfunction at the molecular level are constantly being refined and revised, so in the future, we can expect the emergence of new clinically significant signs of these disorders in cancer and age-related diseases.*

**Keywords:** mitochondria, somatic and germline genetic alterations, metabolic reprogramming, cancer, age-related diseases, clinical-significant alterations.

### Introduction

Mitochondria are cellular organelles that not only provide cells with ATP energy through oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), but also play an im-

portant role in cellular homeostasis, survival, differentiation, cell death, and response to stress factors [1]. These factors have been shown to have a profound impact on both the prevalence and management of treatment of diseases.

---

Citation: Gerashchenko G.V., Tukalo M.A. (2025) Clinically significant molecular alterations of mitochondria in carcinogenesis and age-related diseases: Part 1. Disease susceptibility and diagnostic significance. *Biopolymers & Cell*, 4(41), 235—250. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7124/bc.000B25>

© Publisher PH "Akademperiodyka" of the NAS of Ukraine, 2025. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited

Mitochondrial dysfunction has been associated with the hallmarks of cancer [2, 3] and aging, as well as with many age-related diseases [4, 5]. Conversely, the active mitochondrial function and the capacity for recovery following periods of stress are indicative of optimal health [6]. Mitochondrial alterations and dysfunctions have been demonstrated to exert different effects and possess varying significances in various carcinogenesis theories, particularly the mutational and metabolic theories of cancer [3, 7, 8]. The prevailing theories of aging posit divergent interpretations of mitochondrial dysfunction, including the mitochondrial free radical theory [9], the hyperfunctional theory [10], and the epigenetic theory of aging [11]. Consequently, these theories adopt disparate approaches to the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment of these diseases. However, mitochondrial alterations and dysfunction constitute an integral feature of carcinogenesis and age-related diseases across all of these theories.

In recent years, a number of studies have been conducted on molecular abnormalities of mitochondria at the DNA, RNA, and protein levels, as well as metabolic dysfunctions in various types of cancer and age-related diseases. A number of effects of these disorders on clinically significant parameters have been identified, including susceptibility to disease development, diagnosis, prognosis, course, and therapeutic responses to these pathologies. This review will analyze a number of these alterations in relation to their identified or potential clinical significance.

### **Key structural and functional specific features of human mitochondria**

The human mitochondrial proteome comprises over 1,000 proteins that play a crucial role in the functioning of these organelles. In conjunction with tissue-specific mitochondrial proteins, their quantity can reach up to 1,500 [12]. However, it has been determined that only 13 proteins of the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) electron

transport chain are encoded by mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA). Furthermore, mtDNA encodes a total of 37 genes, including 22 tRNAs and 2 rRNAs. mtDNA itself is 16,569 base pairs (bp) in size and is a double-stranded ring molecule that is not protected from damage, particularly by histones, in contrast to nuclear DNA [13]. mtDNA is susceptible to numerous genetic disturbances under the influence of endogenous and exogenous reactive oxygen species (ROS), stress, inflammation, high glucose levels and hormonal resistance among other factors [14]. While each mitochondrion contains numerous copies of mtDNA in every cell, genetic abnormalities in only a subset of these copies may be sufficient to trigger pathological processes [15]. The presence of normal mtDNA alongside mutated copies gives rise to the phenomenon of heteroplasmy. This phenomenon has been demonstrated to influence the appearance of precancerous cells in certain tissues, as well as senescent cells with impaired metabolism. In certain conditions, these cells can trigger the development of diseases [14, 15, 16, 17].

Mitochondrial tRNAs exhibit structural differences compared to cytoplasmic tRNAs, suggesting that mitochondria possess distinct aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) that differ from those found in the cytoplasm. These aaRSs are encoded in the nucleus and subsequently transported to organelles. A total of 19 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases have been identified as functioning in human mitochondria for all amino acids except Gln [18]. Of these, 17 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases are specific to mitochondria, and two (GARS1 and KARS1) are isoforms of cytosolic enzymes [19].

The genetic code of mtDNA has slight differences from the nuclear code, particularly in the stop, tryptophan, and methionine codons [20]. The processes of replication, transcription, and translation in mitochondria are distinct from their nuclear counterparts. The human mitochondrial transcription initiation machinery contains two accessory factors, namely, transcription factors A and B2 (TFAM and TFB2M), and RNA polymerase (POLRMT) [21]. A distinctive feature of mitochondrial transcription

is its association with mtDNA replication, for which mitochondrial RNA polymerase is indispensable [22]. The processes of transcription elongation and termination are controlled by TEFM and MTERF1, respectively. The process of transcription results in the formation of polycistronic RNA from the heavy or light chain, which is then subjected to processing through two distinct pathways [23]. Disruption of the regulation of these factors directly leads to impaired mtDNA expression in tumor cells, mitochondrial dysfunction, and cellular metabolic reprogramming [24].

The import system of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial proteins plays a pivotal role in mitochondrial biogenesis [25]. The process of translocation through the outer and inner mitochondrial membranes is facilitated by the TIM-TOM complex translocases [26]. These processes necessitate precise nuclear-mitochondrial interaction, which is disrupted at various levels during the development of pathological processes, particularly cancer and age-related diseases [1, 4].

Another significant feature of mitochondria is the structure of the inner membrane, which forms cristae. These structures facilitate the formation of enzyme supercomplexes, which consist of rows of ATP synthase dimers that delineate the edges of lamellar cristae, MICOS subunits (mitochondrial contact site and cristae organizing system) that function as transport hubs, optic atrophy 1 (OPA1) isoforms, and specific tissue-specific features [27]. Furthermore, a specific phospholipid, cardiolipin, is present in the structure of the lipid bilayer of the inner membrane of mitochondria. It is synthesized by mitochondria and participates in the formation of cristae and the functioning of enzyme supercomplexes, protein translocation, and contacts with the endoplasmic reticulum [28].

The dynamics of mitochondria are an integral part of their functioning. These factors encompass transport, fission, fusion, and morphological changes of mitochondria, influenced by both endogenous and exogenous factors within physiological and pathological contexts [29]. Mitochondrial dynamics are closely related to the endo-

plasmic reticulum and mitochondria-associated membrane (MAM). Their dysfunction has been reported to be associated with the progression of hyperlipidemia, insulin resistance, hypertension, and other pathologies [30]. Metabolons and enzyme supercomplexes facilitate substrate channeling, which is critical for the effective functioning and normal metabolism of mitochondria. Disruptions in this process underpin carcinogenesis and age-related pathologies [31, 32].

### **mtDNA and nuclear encoded genes of mitochondrial proteins alterations for diagnostic and prognostic applications in cancer and age-related diseases**

It has been established that mtDNA exposes a multitude of molecular characteristics and abnormalities, which have the potential to influence the development of cancer and age-related diseases. These abnormalities play different roles in these processes [33]. These characteristics can be either congenital, reflecting both population characteristics and relating to a specific haplotype, or they can be a feature of familial inheritance [34, 35]. It is important to note that mtDNA is transmitted exclusively through the maternal lineage. It has been posited that germline characteristics can function as adapters for pathological processes [33]. Somatic mtDNA disorders are acquired during life and may be associated with the influence of exogenous factors, lifestyle, and the development of pathological processes, in particular infections and chronic inflammation. These somatic alterations have been demonstrated to act as inducers of cancer and age-related diseases [15, 36].

#### *Germinal alterations of mtDNA and nuclear-encoded genes of mitochondrial proteins in cancer and age-related diseases*

Germinal types of mtDNA disorders have a high degree of correlation with various forms of cancer.

For instance, in Brazilian patients diagnosed with stomach cancer, the most prevalent disorders were identified in the following regions: MT-RNR1, MT-ND5, MT-ND4, MT-ND2, MT-DLOOP1, and MT-CO1 as being associated with haplogroup C (Native American ancestry) in this type of cancer [37]. Patients with mtDNA haplogroup M D5 exhibited an elevated risk of developing breast cancer, while those with haplogroup M D4a demonstrated an augmented risk of thyroid cancer. However, no discernible association was observed with respect to colorectal cancer [38].

In the context of age-related diseases, particularly dementia, mitochondrial haplogroups have been demonstrated to affect the risk of developing dementia. Furthermore, genetic variants in the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes interact to influence the age of onset of dementia [39].

Haplogroup characteristics have been demonstrated to influence a degree of protection against certain types of cancer. For instance, haplogroup K has been identified as an independent genetic factor associated with a reduced risk of neuroblastoma in populations of European descent [40]. Haplogroup N9a and its diagnostic SNP, m.16257C>A, negatively correlated with the incidence and progression of hepatocellular carcinoma in northern China [41]. Haplogroup D4a is a marker for extreme longevity in Japan [42].

Ghezzi (2005) found an association between haplogroup K and a reduced risk of developing Parkinson's disease in the Italian population [43]. A recent meta-analysis of European and Asian samples of patients with Parkinson's disease demonstrated a close relationship between mitochondrial haplotypes, mitochondrial dysfunction, and genomic instability of mtDNA at this disease [44].

Hereditary alterations in mitochondrial energy generation, otherwise known as mitochondrial diseases, are the causative agents of a clinically and genetically heterogeneous array of diseases, including those affecting the brain, skeletal muscle, eyes, and heart. The minimum prevalence of this condition is estimated to be 1 in 5,000 live births. In re-

cent decades, mutations that underlie these disorders have been identified in nearly 290 genes [45]. The most prominent syndromes associated with m.3243A>G (MT-TL1) mutations are MELAS (Mitochondrial Encephalomyopathy, Lactic Acidosis, and Stroke-like episodes). As indicated by Al-Gadi [46], the condition is associated with age-related complications, including diabetes and deafness. This mutation has been demonstrated to impact insulin secretion and resistance in individuals diagnosed with diabetes [47].

The inherited mutation m.8344A>G (MT-TK) is linked to MERRF (Myoclonic Epilepsy with Ragged-Red Fibers) syndrome, which is characterized by the developing of diabetes, thyroid/calcium disorders, and constitutes a component of age-related target organ damage [48]. The MT-ATP6 mutation (m.8993T>G/C) has been identified in NARP syndrome (Neuropathy, Ataxia, and Retinitis Pigmentosa) and leads to systemic damage with age [49].

The impact of these mutations on cancer remains to be substantiated; however, Pearson syndrome, an mtDNA deletion-based condition, are linked to an increased susceptibility to leukemia and age-related multisystemic lesions [50]. The collective effect of pathogenic mtDNA variants on health outcomes was a subject of considerable research interest. A body of evidence suggests a possible association between these variants and an increased risk of cancer [51] as well as elevated mortality rates from cancer [52].

The majority of clinically significant germline mutations have been identified in non-mitochondrial genes and proteins associated with human cancers [53–55]. Hereditary DNA mutations in mitochondrial proteins, encoded in the nucleus, are uncommon and manifest exclusively in specific types of cancer. For instance, rare germline mutations in isocitrate dehydrogenase 1 or 2 (IDH1/2), a pivotal enzyme in the citric acid cycle, have been identified in patients with gliomas, which have been shown to adversely impact survival outcomes in this disease [56]. Germline mutations in the succinate dehydrogenase subunit D gene (SDHD-G12S,

SDHD-H50R) (mitochondrial protein) and in the tumor suppressor gene *PTEN* have been identified as risk factors for a subgroup of Cowden syndrome, with the concurrence of these mutations resulting in an elevated probability of developing breast, thyroid, and other cancers [57, 58]. Two DNA repair genes that have mitochondrial isoforms (*MUTYH* and *NTHL1*) have been linked to cancer predisposition syndromes. Some germline mutations in *NTHL1* are associated with a syndrome that increases the risk of colorectal and other cancers (NTHL1-associated polyposis) [59]. The presence of germline pathogenic variants of *MUTYH* has been detected in sporadic gastric cancer, secretory carcinoma of the salivary glands, and adenocarcinoma of the pancreatic ducts. A subset of these variants are associated with alterations in sensitivity to chemotherapy [60]. On an annual basis, novel data appear concerning the germline variants associated with mitochondria disfunctions, a consequence of advancements in modern sequencing methodologies. These new data necessitate systematic analysis and the subsequent determination of the function in carcinogenesis and age-related diseases.

### *Somatic alterations of mtDNA and mitochondrial proteins in cancer and age-related diseases*

Approximately fifteen years ago, a role of mtDNA mutations in carcinogenesis was the subject of extensive study, employing a variety of approaches. However, the conclusions regarding pathogenicity and impact on carcinogenesis remained controversial [61]. Furthermore, it has been established that somatic mutations accumulate in the mitochondrial genome of normal cells of various tissues and organs, as well as in stem cells, with age [62]. Therefore, it is necessary to separate the influence of various factors and determine their synergistic or antagonistic effects on the development of multifactorial pathologies, such as cancer and age-related diseases.

The advent of contemporary sequencing technologies over the past decade facilitated the identi-

fication and characterization of numerous genetic variants in mtDNA and nuclear-encoded mitochondrial proteins, both germline and somatic, that play a pivotal role in the onset of various diseases. These variants were thoroughly examined and evaluated with respect to their clinical significance. Additionally, significant genetic variants in mtDNA and mitochondrial proteins encoded in the nucleus, both germline and somatic, were identified as contributing factors to the development of various types of cancer and age-related pathologies. As a result of international collaboration, the whole-genome sequencing data from 2,658 cancers of 38 tumor types were analyzed, and the characteristics of mitochondrial genome mutations and mitochondrial protein transcriptomes were characterized [63]. These data are collected in The Cancer Mitochondrial Atlas (TCMA) in four modules: somatic mutations, mtDNA copy number, nuclear transfer, and gene expression in tumors. The study showed that, in contrast to nuclear DNA mutations, mtDNA mutations in tumors exhibit a high degree of similarity in their mutation signatures, independent of the origin of the cancerous tissue. These signatures predominantly consist of G > A and T > C substitutions on the L-strand [63, 64].

A multitude of somatic mutations, including synonymous, non-synonymous, and indels, were identified and thoroughly examined in the D-loop region of various cancerous specimens, extending to bladder, lung, stomach, ovarian, prostate, and colorectal cancers, among others [65]. Another study demonstrated that somatic mtDNA mutations in the D-loop and in the MT-ND1 and MT-ND5 genes affect mitochondrial function and are widely found in various types of cancer [66].

In the context of breast cancer, a number of potentially pathogenic mutations have been identified in mitochondrial tRNAs, including Val, Ile, Ser, Glu, and Thr, located in conservative positions capable of affecting tRNA transcription and modification during protein synthesis [76]. This may have implications for mitochondrial protein synthesis in tumors and mitochondrial metabolic function.

Conversely, pathogenic mtDNA mutations can have a deleterious effect on cancer cells, impeding their proliferation, migration, and metastasis. This phenomenon has been observed in melanoma cells [68].

Specific somatic mutations and mutation signatures of mtDNA in aging and age-related diseases in different cell and tissue types were identified using modern sequencing methods [69, 70]. Furthermore, clock-like mutation signatures were recognized as indicators of aging, environmental impact, and the activity of DNA repair and metabolism processes [71, 72].

The mtDNA mutation rate or burden has a significant impact on various indicators of clinical importance in the context of cancer and age-related diseases. It has been established that numerous malignant tumors exhibit elevated levels of somatic mtDNA mutations, which may generate a driver effect on carcinogenesis [73]. As indicated in the MITOMAP database, the non-coding region, designated as the D-loop, have the highest number of mtDNA mutations. They were demonstrated to regulate a multitude of mtDNA processes, with a particular emphasis on transcription and replication. Furthermore, the pathogenic mutations were identified in the coding regions of specific genes, MT-CO1 and MT-ND4L, among others. Furthermore, numerous mutations with unknown functions (VUS) were found. These mutations may have diagnostic and therapeutic potential for precision oncology [74, 75].

The topic of mitochondrial genes encoded in the nucleus has recently attracted significant attention due to the presence of somatic mutations in the numerous genes of this type in various cancerous tissues. A number of genes have been identified as clinically significant in the context of carcinogenesis, and the impact of the mutations in these genes have been demonstrated (Tier 1-Tier 2). This group include *IDH1*, *IDH2*, *FH*, the *SDHx* gene family, the *POLG*, *SDHAF2*, *SDHAF2*, *MPC1* genes, and others [76–79]. For the multitude of identified mtDNA mutations in

cancer, their clinical significance remains to be validated, similar to the numerous somatic mutations of nuclear DNA in tumors [15]. In the context of age-related diseases, the elevated levels of somatic mtDNA mutations have been identified as biomarker, prognostic and therapeutic indicators of metabolic dysfunction in the human body with age [80, 81].

In addition to specific mtDNA sequence alterations, the changes in mtDNA copy number and the transfer of mtDNA sequences to the nucleus (NUMTs) may contribute to the development of certain types of cancer [33, 66]. The changes in mtDNA copy number have been identified as a diagnostic and prognostic indicator, as well as a risk factor for various types of cancer and some age-related diseases [82, 83]. For the patients with glioblastoma, a decrease in the mtDNA copy number was identified as an age-dependent prognostic marker [84]. Furthermore, the mtDNA copy number serves as a valuable indicator in combination with epigenetic age determination and the interplay between mitochondrial dysfunction and epigenetic abnormalities in the context of aging and age-related diseases [85].

Various types of mtDNA abnormalities, including point mutations and deletions in different regions, as well as a decrease in the mtDNA copy number, have been detected in the brains and blood of patients with neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, Huntington's disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis [86].

Mitochondrial haplogroups may have a population-specific, tissue-specific, and stage-specific role in cancer development and aging [38, 87]. Somatic mtDNA mutations have been shown to directly impact metabolic homeostasis in cancer cells, suggesting a need for further investigation using high-resolution sequencing methods and in-depth analysis of heteroplasmic disorders [73]. The heterogeneity of somatic and germline mtDNA mutations, as well as the disruption of its homeostasis, are pivotal factors in the progression of cancer and age-related diseases [88].

## Metabolic alterations and mitochondrial dynamics changes in carcinogenesis and age-related diseases

Mitochondrial metabolic dysfunction is a hallmark of the aging process, contributing to the development of various age-related pathologies, including cardiovascular disease, metabolic syndrome, endocrine disorders, neurodegenerative diseases, and cancer [89, 90].

Mitochondrial dysfunction can be caused by molecular disorders at various levels, ranging from replication, transcription, and translation processes in mitochondria in cancer and age-related diseases to mitochondrial dynamics, disruption of apoptosis mechanisms and mitochondrial-nuclear interactions. For instance, TFAM and POLG have been identified as playing a role in mtDNA replication. The gene variants have been recognized that affect the functioning of these proteins in head and neck cancers and are associated with the patient survival in these diseases [91]. In the early stages of carcinogenesis and certain types of tumors, a decrease in mtDNA copy number is observed, which is directly related to the replication process [63, 92]. Conversely, as cancer progresses, an increase in this indicator may be observed as a result of an increase on the level of mtDNA transcription [93, 94]. A correlation between low mtDNA copy number and increased chemoresistance in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma has been demonstrated in recent studies [95]. However, for certain other types of cancer, this indicator is not associated with clinical manifestations [92]. On the contrary, the tumors exhibiting elevated replication/copy number may be amenable to pharmacological mitochondrial inhibition [93]. A potential explanation for the elevated mtDNA copy number observed in tumors may be alterations in the activity of the oncogenes, particularly KRAS and MYC [93, 94]. For KRAS, it has been demonstrated that the KRASG12D mutation can result in elevated mtDNA replication and mitochondrial respiration, thereby promoting the progression of lung adenocarcinoma [94].

In addition to impaired mitochondrial replication/copy number, many tumors have been found to have dysregulated transcription factors POLRMT, TFB2M, TFAM, and MTERF, leading to reprogramming of mitochondrial gene expression. This, in turn, affects the metabolism and proliferation of tumor cells and is associated with cancer prognosis [24, 96].

Disruptions in mitochondrial translation processes have also been observed during the process of carcinogenesis. Detected mutations in mt-tRNA has been shown to affect the process of aminoacylation and lead to defective mitochondrial translation [97]. Mutations in mt-tRNA genes in patients with breast cancer have functional consequences, including significantly lower levels of mtDNA copy numbers and ATP levels in tumors compared to the control group [67].

Cytoplasmic aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases have been widely described as participating in the carcinogenesis of various types of cancer [98]. Meanwhile, the mutations in mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases are associated with specific syndromes that affect the central nervous system [99] and many mitochondrial diseases [18, 100]. To date, the extant research has been limited in scope and has focused on the impact of changes in the expression of mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases on the carcinogenic process. For instance, mitochondrial AARS2 has been identified as overexpressed in numerous cancerous cell types through pan-cancer studies, a finding that is associated with the activity of oncogenic pathways. Conversely, its deficiency has been observed to inhibit cell proliferation and migration in hepatocellular carcinoma [101]. Furthermore, these studies substantiate the function of AARS2 as a novel biomarker for cancer prognosis. Given the significant role of mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases in mitochondrial function, it can be hypothesized that mutations in these genes and their expression disorders during the process of carcinogenesis and age-related diseases may intensify mitochondrial dysfunction in these pathologies. Further research is necessary to investigate this hypothesis [102, 103].

It has been revealed that defects in oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) caused by somatic mtDNA mutations, which increase with age and during carcinogenesis, result in metabolic reprogramming in cells. This may functionally contribute to the accelerated development of various types of human cancer [104, 105]. It has been demonstrated that effective OXPHOS is essential for maintaining the differentiated state of somatic cells [106]. Therefore, researchers who support the metabolic theory of cancer consider chronic OXPHOS deficiency to be a pathophysiological mechanism associated with malignant transformation. This phenomenon is associated with an increase in glycolysis and glutaminolysis in transformed cells. Therefore, the pathophysiological phenotype common to all major cancer types is a greater dependence on phosphorylation at the substrate level than on OXPHOS for energy production [7, 107].

Numerous disturbances in the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle), which is closely related to OXPHOS, have also been identified in carcinogenesis and age-related diseases. The disruption of this process can be attributed to mutations or shifts in the expression of enzymes such as isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH), fumarate hydratase (FH), and succinate dehydrogenase (SDH). These alterations can lead to the production of various oncometabolites, including succinate, fumarate, itaconate,  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate, and others [108]. These factors have been demonstrated to significantly impact tumor progression, epigenetic regulation, and immune response evasion. Oncometabolites represent a class of target molecules for the development of various types of therapy [109]. In certain types of cancer, such as gastrointestinal stromal tumors, pheochromocytomas, and paragangliomas, a deficiency of the TCA cycle enzyme succinate dehydrogenase has been identified. This deficiency leads to the accumulation of the oncometabolite succinate, promoting tumor progression. The development of specific treatment strategies for this type of tumor is actively underway [77]. In age-related diseases, mitochondrial stress and

TCA (tricarboxylic acid) abnormalities have been demonstrated to reduce acetyl-CoA levels. This phenomenon has been shown to contribute to mitochondrial dysfunction, which, in turn, is linked to a decline in histone acetylation and an increase in chromatin remodeling. This, in turn, is associated with an increased risk of age-related diseases [110].

The coenzyme NAD<sup>+</sup>, which participates in the OXPHOS and TCA cycles, plays a pivotal role in maintaining mitochondrial function. Its decline is associated with general aging and chronic disorders, which manifest themselves through the dysfunction of homeostatic components such as mitophagy and the disruption of mitochondrial antioxidant systems in age-related diseases [111]. NAD<sup>+</sup> metabolism in carcinogenesis plays a dual role in cancer cells and the tumor microenvironment and is a target for targeted cancer therapy and restoration of immune functions in the tumor microenvironment [112, 113].

The decrease in mitochondrial intermembrane potential, impaired apoptosis, and increased mitochondrial ROS observed in cancer and age-related diseases are closely related to the metabolic activity of mitochondria and their dynamics. These phenomena have a number of clinical implications.

In aged tissues, a reduction in mitochondrial potential and an increase in mtROS, which are produced endogenously, promote cellular senescence and a senescence-associated secretory phenotype [114]. These effects are associated with the multimorbidity characteristic of age-related diseases, ranging from cardiovascular to neurodegenerative pathologies [115]. Moreover, this effect results in mtDNA damage and genomic instability in cancer cells. ROS levels in cancer cells have been demonstrated to function as a signaling driver of growth and invasion [116]. These phenomena, in turn, increase the likelihood of cancer recurrence and create tolerance to therapy. However, stabilizing mitochondrial dynamics (fusion) has been shown to reduce these effects [117].

It has been well established that mitochondria are the origin of diverse programmed cell death



pathways that regulate both apoptotic and non-apoptotic cell death [118]. Disruption of programmed cell death processes, particularly apoptosis, is a hallmark of carcinogenesis and age-related diseases, typically manifesting in opposite directions. For instance, cancer cells inhibit mitochondrial apoptosis through a variety of mechanisms. Specifically, anti-apoptotic proteins, including BCL-2, BCL-XL, and MCL-1, are activated, and mitochondrial pores (MOMP) are closed. This shift in the BH3 balance, within the BCL-2 protein family, has been identified as a critical factor in the immortality of cancer cells and the development of resistance to treatment [119, 120]. Conversely, in age-related diseases, mitochondrial apoptosis is observed to be activated and dysregulated in various organs (e.g., brain, heart, muscles), resulting in cell death, atrophy, fibrosis, and deterioration of organ function [9, 121].

It has been demonstrated that the size, shape, and configuration of cristae within mitochondria exhibit characteristic patterns that vary according to distinct metabolic states, physiological conditions, and pathological processes [122]. Disrupted cristae are a manifestation of increased ROS production and a reflection of mitochondrial dysfunction in cancer and age-related diseases [27]. Tumor cells actively remodel cristae through OPA1 and MICOS components, which are promising targets for cancer therapy [123]. Another significant component of cristae is cardiolipin. It plays a structural role in the formation of the internal structure of mitochondria and undergoes significant changes in age-related diseases in the form of pathological remodeling/oxidation, which clinically manifests itself in the progression of heart failure and muscle weakness [124]. A modification in the composition or oxidation of cardiolipin has been demonstrated to induce alterations in the apoptotic competence and metabolic plasticity of tumor cells. Simultaneously, the tumor-specific heterogeneity of cardiolipin levels is observed in different types of tumors [125]. The targeting of cardiolipin has emerged as a promising clinical

therapeutic strategy for cardiovascular diseases and cancer [124, 126].

The importance of mitochondrial disorders, with an emphasis on dynamics in neurodevelopmental disorders, has been demonstrated by clinical studies [127].

It has been established that the accumulation of mtDNA mutations in neurodegenerative diseases leads not only to its incorrect replication and a highly oxidative environment, but also to defective mitophagy after division. This process involves a number of proteins, including ATAD3A, TFAM, and OPA1, among others [86].

The imbalance between mitochondrial quality control and mitochondrial biogenesis in cancer and ageing also has significant clinical implications. It has been established that the sensitivity of cancer cells to radiotherapy depends on mitophagy processes and has a double-edged effect. Furthermore, a relationship is identified between the time and dose of radiotherapy and the state of mitochondria in tumour cells [128]. Several studies have demonstrated an inverse relationship between cancer and neurodegenerative diseases. One of the underlying mechanisms is the dysregulation of mitophagy and mitochondrial dynamics in opposite directions [129]. While cancer is associated with PINK1/Parkin down-regulation, BNIP3/NIX-mediated mitophagy increases for survival under hypoxia by preventing mitochondrial degradation through the down-regulation of Mfn1/Mfn2. In neurodegenerative diseases, however, these processes have the opposite effect [129, 130].

PGC-1 $\alpha$  is an important regulator of mitochondrial processes, recovery and the ROS stress response in normal cells [131].

In age-related diseases, there is a decrease in PGC-1 $\alpha$  expression, which is associated with mitochondrial biogenesis deficiency, oxidative stress and neurodegenerative processes [132]. In tumours, this factor can have different effects on carcinogenesis. For example, increased PGC-1 $\alpha$  plays a decisive role in maintaining the malignant phenotype of glioma cells [133]. In breast cancer, there

is a strong correlation between PGC-1 $\alpha$  expression and tumour metastasis [134].

Among the key regulators of aging and age-related diseases are mitochondrial sirtuins, in particular SIRT3-5. Their dysfunction, particularly the reduction in expression and activity, results in impaired mtDNA stability, decreased biogenesis and quality control of mitochondria, and impaired mitophagy. Additionally, there is an increase in ROS production and impaired nuclear-mitochondrial interactions [135]. This statement applies to nearly the entire family of sirtuins (SIRT1-7), which function in both mitochondria and the nucleus and, under certain conditions, can be used as therapeutic targets for age-related diseases [136].

A number of paradoxes have been identified in the functioning of mitochondria. In particular, the prevailing notion that oxidative stress and apoptosis accelerate aging may not always be valid [137]. As many of the mechanisms of mitochondrial dysfunction are constantly being refined and clarified at a molecular level, we can expect new, clinically

significant signs of these disorders to emerge in cancer and age-related diseases in the future.

## Conclusion

Therefore, even minor alterations in the mitochondrial genotype and mitochondrial proteins encoded in the nucleus can have significant effects on nuclear-mitochondrial interactions, cellular metabolism, as well as carcinogenesis and age-related diseases. The mechanisms underlying these effects and their clinical significance for a variety of molecular mitochondrial dysfunctions have yet to be thoroughly delineated, particularly in different cell types and in the context of diverse factors and pathologies.

**Acknowledgments.** This work was supported by a grant from the National Research Foundation of Ukraine [grant number 2021.01/0024] and IMBG Simons Foundation Grant for Ukrainian institutions № SFI-PD-Ukraine-00017453 [G.G].

## REFERENCES

1. Casanova A, Wevers A, Navarro-Ledesma S, Pruimboom L. Mitochondria: It is all about energy. *Front Physiol.* 2023; **14**:1114231.
2. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. The hallmarks of cancer. *Cell.* 2000; **100**(1):57—70.
3. Hanahan D. Hallmarks of Cancer: New Dimensions. *Cancer Discov.* 2022; **12**(1):31—46.
4. López-Otín C, Blasco MA, Partridge L, et al., and Kroemer G. Hallmarks of aging: An expanding universe. *Cell.* 2023; **186**(2):243—78.
5. van der Rijt S, Molenaars M, McIntyre RL, et al., and Houtkooper RH. Integrating the Hallmarks of Aging Throughout the Tree of Life: A Focus on Mitochondrial Dysfunction. *Front Cell Dev Biol.* 2020; **8**:594416.
6. López-Otín C, Kroemer G. Hallmarks of Health. *Cell.* 2021; **184**(1):33—63.
7. Seyfried TN, Chinopoulos C. Can the Mitochondrial Metabolic Theory Explain Better the Origin and Management of Cancer than Can the Somatic Mutation Theory? *Metabolites.* 2021; **11**(9):572.
8. Gerashchenko GV, Kashuba VI, Tukalo MA. Key models and theories of carcinogenesis. *Biopolym Cell.* 2023; **39**(3):161—9.
9. Xu X, Pang Y, Fan X. Mitochondria in oxidative stress, inflammation and aging: from mechanisms to therapeutic advances. *Signal Transduct Target Ther.* 2025; **10**(1):190.
10. Barzilai DA. Mikhail 'Misha' Blagosklonny's enduring legacy in geroscience: the hyperfunction theory and the therapeutic potential of rapamycin. *Aging (Albany NY).* 2025; **17**(1):1—15.
11. Yang JH, Hayano M, Griffin PT, et al., and Sinclair DA. Loss of epigenetic information as a cause of mammalian aging. *Cell.* 2023; **186**(2):305—326.e27.
12. Song J, Herrmann JM, Becker T. Quality control of the mitochondrial proteome. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol.* 2021; **22**(1):54—70.
13. Ferreira T, Rodriguez S. Mitochondrial DNA: Inherent Complexities Relevant to Genetic Analyses. *Genes (Basel).* 2024; **15**(5):617.

14. Gómez J, Mota-Martorell N, Jové M, et al., and Barja G. Mitochondrial ROS production, oxidative stress and aging within and between species: Evidences and recent advances on this aging effector. *Exp Gerontol.* 2023; **174**:112134.
15. Smith ALM, Whitehall JC, Greaves LC. Mitochondrial DNA mutations in ageing and cancer. *Mol Oncol.* 2022; **16**(18):3276—94.
16. Ziada AS, Lu MY, Ignas-Menzies J, et al., and HIV comorbidities in women, children (CARMA). Mitochondrial DNA somatic mutation burden and heteroplasmy are associated with chronological age, smoking, and HIV infection. *Aging Cell.* 2019; **18**(6):e13018.
17. Parakatselaki ME, Ladoukakis ED. mtDNA Heteroplasmy: Origin, Detection, Significance, and Evolutionary Consequences. *Life (Basel).* 2021; **11**(7):633.
18. Figuccia S, Degiorgi A, Ceccatelli Berti C, et al., and Goffrini P. Mitochondrial Aminoacyl-tRNA Synthetase and Disease: The Yeast Contribution for Functional Analysis of Novel Variants. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2021; **22**(9):4524.
19. Sangha AK, Kantidakis T. The Aminoacyl-tRNA Synthetase and tRNA Expression Levels Are Deregulated in Cancer and Correlate Independently with Patient Survival. *Curr Issues Mol Biol.* 2022; **44**(7):3001—17.
20. Chinnery PF, Hudson G. Mitochondrial genetics. *Br Med Bull.* 2013; **106**(1):135—59.
21. Posse V, Gustafsson CM. Human Mitochondrial Transcription Factor B2 Is Required for Promoter Melting during Initiation of Transcription. *J Biol Chem.* 2017; **292**(7):2637—45.
22. Tan BG, Gustafsson CM, Falkenberg M. Mechanisms and regulation of human mitochondrial transcription. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol.* 2024; **25**(2):119—32.
23. Vučković A, Freyer C, Wredenberg A, Hillen HS. The molecular machinery for maturation of primary mtDNA transcripts. *Hum Mol Genet.* 2024; **33**(R1):R19—R25.
24. Lei T, Rui Y, Xiaoshuang Z, et al., and Jihong Z. Mitochondria transcription and cancer. *Cell Death Discov.* 2024; **10**(1):168.
25. Lionaki E, Gkikas I, Tavernarakis N. Mitochondrial protein import machinery conveys stress signals to the cytosol and beyond. *Bioessays.* 2023; **45**(3):e2200160.
26. Bauer MF, Hofmann S, Neupert W, Brunner M. Protein translocation into mitochondria: the role of TIM complexes. *Trends Cell Biol.* 2000; **10**(1):25—31.
27. Ježek P, Jabůrek M, Holendová B, et al., and Dlasková A. Mitochondrial Cristae Morphology Reflecting Metabolism, Superoxide Formation, Redox Homeostasis, and Pathology. *Antioxid Redox Signal.* 2023; **39**(10—12):635—83.
28. Fuentes JM, Morcillo P. The Role of Cardiolipin in Mitochondrial Function and Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Cells.* 2024; **13**(7):609.
29. Baker N, Patel J, Khacho M. Linking mitochondrial dynamics, cristae remodeling and supercomplex formation: How mitochondrial structure can regulate bioenergetics. *Mitochondrion.* 2019; **49**:259—68.
30. Yang M, Li C, Sun L. Mitochondria-Associated Membranes (MAMs): A Novel Therapeutic Target for Treating Metabolic Syndrome. *Curr Med Chem.* 2021; **28**(7):1347—62.
31. Whitehall JC, Greaves LC. Aberrant mitochondrial function in ageing and cancer. *Biogerontology.* 2020; **21**(4):445—59.
32. Tian T, Fan J, Elf SE. Metabolon: a novel cellular structure that regulates specific metabolic pathways. *Cancer Commun (Lond).* 2021; **41**(6):439—41.
33. Kopinski PK, Singh LN, Zhang S, et al., and Wallace DC. Mitochondrial DNA variation and cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2021; **21**(7):431—45.
34. Tasdogan A, McFadden DG, Mishra P. Mitochondrial DNA Haplotypes as Genetic Modifiers of Cancer. *Trends Cancer.* 2020; **6**(12):1044—58.
35. Weigl S, Paradiso A, Tommasi S. Mitochondria and familial predisposition to breast cancer. *Curr Genomics.* 2013; **14**(3):195—203.
36. Cavalcante GC, Ribeiro-Dos-Santos Â, de Araújo GS. Mitochondria in tumour progression: a network of mtDNA variants in different types of cancer. *BMC Genom Data.* 2022; **23**(1):16.
37. Cavalcante GC, Marinho ANR, Anaissi AK, et al., and Ribeiro-Dos-Santos Â. Whole mitochondrial genome sequencing highlights mitochondrial impact in gastric cancer. *Sci Rep.* 2019; **9**(1):15716.
38. Fang H, Shen L, Chen T, et al., and Bai Y. Cancer type-specific modulation of mitochondrial haplogroups in breast, colorectal and thyroid cancer. *BMC Cancer.* 2010; **10**:421.

39. Andrews SJ, Fulton-Howard B, Patterson C, et al., and Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative. Mitonuclear interactions influence Alzheimer's disease risk. *Neurobiol Aging*. 2020; **87**:138.e7—138.e14.
40. Chang X, Bakay M, Liu Y, et al., and Hakonarson H. Mitochondrial DNA Haplogroups and Susceptibility to Neuroblastoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2020; **112**(12):1259—66.
41. Hua S, Li M, Zhao Q, et al., and Shen L. Mitochondrial DNA Haplogroup N9a Negatively Correlates with Incidence of Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Northern China. *Mol Ther Nucleic Acids*. 2019; **18**:332—40.
42. Bilal E, Rabadan R, Alexe G, et al., and Tanaka M. Mitochondrial DNA haplogroup D4a is a marker for extreme longevity in Japan. *PLoS One*. 2008; **3**(6):e2421.
43. Ghezzi D, Marelli C, Achilli A, et al., and Zeviani M. Mitochondrial DNA haplogroup K is associated with a lower risk of Parkinson's disease in Italians. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2005; **13**(6):748—52.
44. Sena-Dos-Santos C, Moura DD, Epifane-de-Assunção MC, et al., and Santos-Lobato BL. Mitochondrial DNA variants, haplogroups and risk of Parkinson's disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2024; **125**:107044.
45. Frazier AE, Thorburn DR, Compton AG. Mitochondrial energy generation disorders: genes, mechanisms, and clues to pathology. *J Biol Chem*. 2019; **294**(14):5386—95.
46. Al-Gadi IS, Haas RH, Falk MJ, et al., and McCormack SE. Endocrine Disorders in Primary Mitochondrial Disease. *J Endocr Soc*. 2018; **2**(4):361—73.
47. K S PK, Jyothi MN, Prashant A. Mitochondrial DNA variants in the pathogenesis and metabolic alterations of diabetes mellitus. *Mol Genet Metab Rep*. 2024; **42**:101183.
48. Carmona Alexandrino H, Ferreira MA, Ramalho D, et al., and Oliveira MJ. Endocrine Challenges in Myoclonic Epilepsy With Ragged Red Fibers Syndrome: A Case Report. *Cureus*. 2023; **15**(12):e51114.
49. Carli S, Levarlet A, Diodato D, et al., and Garone C. Natural History of Patients With Mitochondrial ATPase Deficiency Due to Pathogenic Variants of MT-ATP6 and MT-ATP8. *Neurology*. 2025; **104**(7):e213462.
50. Yoshimi A, Ishikawa K, Niemeyer C, Grünert SC. Pearson syndrome: a multisystem mitochondrial disease with bone marrow failure. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2022; **17**(1):379.
51. Finsterer J, Krexner E. Increased prevalence of malignancy in adult mitochondrial disorders. *J Med Life*. 2013; **6**(4):477—81.
52. Hong YS, Battle SL, Shi W, et al., and Arking DE. Deleterious heteroplasmic mitochondrial mutations are associated with an increased risk of overall and cancer-specific mortality. *Nat Commun*. 2023; **14**(1):6113.
53. Chatrath A, Ratan A, Dutta A. Germline Variants That Affect Tumor Progression. *Trends Genet*. 2021; **37**(5):433—43.
54. Stout LA, Hunter C, Schroeder C, et al., and Schneider BP. Clinically significant germline pathogenic variants are missed by tumor genomic sequencing. *NPJ Genom Med*. 2023; **8**(1):30.
55. Gerashchenko GV, Kashuba VI, Tukalo MA. Genetic and epigenetic alterations in human cancers. *Biopolym Cell*. 2024; **40**(1):14—36.
56. Alfattal R, Nagarajan P, O'Brien B, et al., and Gubbiotti MA. A Case of a Fumarate Hydratase Deficient Astrocytoma in Association With a Germline Fumarate Hydratase Mutation With Review of the Literature: Considerations for Patients With Hereditary Leiomyomatosis and Renal Cell Cancer (HLRCC) Syndrome. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2025 Aug 11.
57. Yu W, He X, Ni Y, et al., and Eng C. Cowden syndrome-associated germline SDHD variants alter PTEN nuclear translocation through SRC-induced PTEN oxidation. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2015; **24**(1):142—53.
58. Ni Y, He X, Chen J, et al., and Eng C. Germline SDHx variants modify breast and thyroid cancer risks in Cowden and Cowden-like syndrome via FAD/NAD-dependant destabilization of p53. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2012; **21**(2):300—10.
59. Kuiper RP, Hoogerbrugge N. NTHL1 defines novel cancer syndrome. *Oncotarget*. 2015; **6**(33):34069—70.
60. Curia MC, Catalano T, Aceto GM. MUTYH: Not just polyposis. *World J Clin Oncol*. 2020; **11**(7):428—49.
61. Li H, Hong ZH. Mitochondrial DNA mutations in human tumor cells. *Oncol Lett*. 2012; **4**(5):868—72.
62. Manders F, van Dinter J, van Boxtel R. Mutation accumulation in mtDNA of cancers resembles mutagenesis in normal stem cells. *iScience*. 2022; **25**(12):105610.
63. Yuan Y, Ju YS, Kim Y, et al., and PCAWG Consortium. Comprehensive molecular characterization of mitochondrial genomes in human cancers. *Nat Genet*. 2020; **52**(3):342—52.

64. Ju YS, Alexandrov LB, Gerstung M, et al., and Campbell PJ. Origins and functional consequences of somatic mitochondrial DNA mutations in human cancer. *Elife*. 2014; **3**:e02935.
65. Hertweck KL, Dasgupta S. The Landscape of mtDNA Modifications in Cancer: A Tale of Two Cities. *Front Oncol*. 2017; **7**:262.
66. Nguyen NNY, Kim SS, Jo YH. Deregulated Mitochondrial DNA in Diseases. *DNA Cell Biol*. 2020; **39**(8):1385—400.
67. Ding HJ, Zhao YP, Jiang ZC, et al., and Zhu R. Analysis of Mitochondrial Transfer RNA Mutations in Breast Cancer. *Balkan J Med Genet*. 2023; **25**(2):15—22.
68. Shelton SD, House S, Martins Nascentes Melo L, et al., and Mishra P. Pathogenic mitochondrial DNA mutations inhibit melanoma metastasis. *Sci Adv*. 2024; **10**(44):eadk8801.
69. Sanchez-Contreras M, Kennedy SR. The Complicated Nature of Somatic mtDNA Mutations in Aging. *Front Aging*. 2022; **2**:805126.
70. Ren P, Zhang J, Vijg J. Somatic mutations in aging and disease. *Geroscience*. 2024; **46**(5):5171—89.
71. Alexandrov LB, Jones PH, Wedge DC, et al., and Stratton MR. Clock-like mutational processes in human somatic cells. *Nat Genet*. 2015; **47**(12):1402—7.
72. Moore L, Cagan A, Coorens THH, et al., and Rahbari R. The mutational landscape of human somatic and germline cells. *Nature*. 2021; **597**(7876):381—6.
73. Kim M, Mahmood M, Reznik E, Gammage PA. Mitochondrial DNA is a major source of driver mutations in cancer. *Trends Cancer*. 2022; **8**(12):1046—59.
74. Murillo Carrasco AG, Chammas R, Furuya TK. Mitochondrial DNA alterations in precision oncology: Emerging roles in diagnostics and therapeutics. *Clinics (Sao Paulo)*. 2025; **80**:100570.
75. Rong F, Cheng B, Guo L, et al., and Meng Z. Correlation analysis of mitochondrial DNA maintenance-related genes with HCC prognosis, tumor mutation burden and tumor microenvironment features. *PLoS One*. 2025; **20**(6):e0325033.
76. Tang G, Liu X, Cho M, et al., and Wang X. Pan-cancer discovery of somatic mutations from RNA sequencing data. *Commun Biol*. 2024; **7**(1):619.
77. Wang J, Yuan T, Yang B, et al., and Zhu H. SDH defective cancers: molecular mechanisms and treatment strategies. *Cell Biol Toxicol*. 2025; **41**(1):74.
78. Cai Z, Yang H, Yu Z, et al., and Zhou H. Efficacy and safety of IDH inhibitors in IDH-mutated cancers: a systematic review and meta-analysis of 4 randomized controlled trials. *World J Surg Oncol*. 2024; **22**(1):295.
79. Yisraeli Salman M, Terry AR, Derkach A, et al., and Stein EM. Patients with AML and an IDH2-R172 mutation exhibit a unique initial response to intensive chemotherapy induction. *Blood Adv*. 2025; **9**(13):3213—22.
80. Zhang R, Wang Y, Ye K, et al., and Gu Z. Independent impacts of aging on mitochondrial DNA quantity and quality in humans. *BMC Genomics*. 2017; **18**(1):890.
81. Kong M, Guo L, Xu W, et al., and Gu Z. Aging-associated accumulation of mitochondrial DNA mutations in tumor origin. *Life Med*. 2022; **1**(2):149—67.
82. Abd Radzak SM, Mohd Khair SZN, Ahmad F, et al., and Mohamed Yusoff AA. Insights regarding mitochondrial DNA copy number alterations in human cancer (Review). *Int J Mol Med*. 2022; **50**(2):104.
83. Wu IC, Liu CS, Cheng WL, et al., and Hsu CC. Association of leukocyte mitochondrial DNA copy number with longitudinal C-reactive protein levels and survival in older adults: a cohort study. *Immun Ageing*. 2022; **19**(1):62.
84. Sourty B, Dardaoud LM, Bris C, et al., and Rousseau A. Mitochondrial DNA copy number as a prognostic marker is age-dependent in adult glioblastoma. *Neurooncol Adv*. 2022; **4**(1):vdab191.
85. Win PW, Nguyen J, Morin AL, et al., and Castellani CA. Simultaneous assessment of mitochondrial DNA copy number and nuclear epigenetic age towards predictive models of development and aging. *BMC Res Notes*. 2024; **17**(1):21.
86. Shang D, Huang M, Wang B, et al., and Zhang X. mtDNA Maintenance and Alterations in the Pathogenesis of Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Curr Neuroparmacol*. 2023; **21**(3):578—98.
87. Mareckova K, Mendes-Silva AP, Jáni M, et al., and Nikolova YS. Mitochondrial DNA variants and their impact on epigenetic and biological aging in young adulthood. *Transl Psychiatry*. 2025; **15**(1):16.
88. Kobayashi H, Imanaka S. Understanding the impact of mitochondrial DNA mutations on aging and carcinogenesis (Review). *Int J Mol Med*. 2025; **56**(2):118.

89. Srivastava S. The Mitochondrial Basis of Aging and Age-Related Disorders. *Genes (Basel)*. 2017; **8**(12):398.
90. Yuan Y, Zhao G, Zhao Y. Dysregulation of energy metabolism in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurol*. 2024; **272**(1):2.
91. Golubickaite I, Ugenskiene R, Bartnykaite A, et al., and Juozaityte E. Mitochondria-Related TFAM and POLG Gene Variants and Associations with Tumor Characteristics and Patient Survival in Head and Neck Cancer. *Genes (Basel)*. 2023; **14**(2):434.
92. Manto K, Ustun Yilmaz S, Pala Kara Z, et al., and Özbek U. Association of Mitochondrial DNA Copy Number Variations with Triple-Negative Breast Cancer: A Potential Biomarker Study. *Diseases*. 2025; **13**(6):175.
93. Chen J, Zheng Q, Hicks JL, et al., and De Marzo AM. MYC-driven increases in mitochondrial DNA copy number occur early and persist throughout prostatic cancer progression. *JCI Insight*. 2023; **8**(24):e169868.
94. Mennuni M, Wilkie SE, Michon P, et al., and Larsson NG. High mitochondrial DNA levels accelerate lung adenocarcinoma progression. *Sci Adv*. 2024; **10**(44):eadp3481.
95. Kubo Y, Tanaka K, Masuike Y, et al., and Doki Y. Low mitochondrial DNA copy number induces chemotherapy resistance via epithelial-mesenchymal transition by DNA methylation in esophageal squamous cancer cells. *J Transl Med*. 2022; **20**(1):383.
96. Wang Y, Hu W, Zhou B, et al., and Chen M. Mitochondrial transcription elongation factor TEFM promotes malignant progression of gliomas. *Cancer Cell Int*. 2024; **24**(1):429.
97. Webb BD, Diaz GA, Prasun P. Mitochondrial translation defects and human disease. *J Transl Genet Genom*. 2020; **4**:71—80.
98. Wusiman W, Zhang Z, Ding Q, Liu M. The pathophyiological role of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases in digestive system diseases. *Front Physiol*. 2022; **13**:935576.
99. Fine AS, Nemeth CL, Kaufman ML, Fatemi A. Mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase disorders: an emerging group of developmental disorders of myelination. *J Neurodev Disord*. 2019; **11**(1):29.
100. Moulinier L, Ripp R, Castillo G, et al., and Sissler M. MiSynPat: An integrated knowledge base linking clinical, genetic, and structural data for disease-causing mutations in human mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. *Hum Mutat*. 2017; **38**(10):1316—24.
101. Liu L, Gao J, Liu X, et al., and Zhang S. AARS2 as a novel biomarker for prognosis and its molecular characterization in pan-cancer. *Cancer Med*. 2023; **12**(23):21531—44.
102. Zheng T, Luo Q, Han C, et al., and Liu J. Cytoplasmic and mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases differentially regulate lifespan in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *iScience*. 2022; **25**(11):105266.
103. López-Soldado I, Torres AG, Ventura R, et al., and Hernández-Alvarez MI. Decreased expression of mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases causes downregulation of OXPHOS subunits in type 2 diabetic muscle. *Redox Biol*. 2023; **61**:102630.
104. Seton-Rogers S. Metabolic benefits of mitochondrial DNA mutations. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2020; **20**(12):696.
105. Smith AL, Whitehall JC, Bradshaw C, et al., and Greaves LC. Age-associated mitochondrial DNA mutations cause metabolic remodelling that contributes to accelerated intestinal tumorigenesis. *Nat Cancer*. 2020; **1**(10):976—89.
106. Ishida T, Nakao S, Ueyama T, et al., and Kawamura T. Metabolic remodeling during somatic cell reprogramming to induced pluripotent stem cells: involvement of hypoxia-inducible factor 1. *Inflamm Regen*. 2020; **40**:8.
107. Seyfried TN, Lee DC, Duraj T, et al., and Chinopoulos C. The Warburg hypothesis and the emergence of the mitochondrial metabolic theory of cancer. *J Bioenerg Biomembr*. 2025; **57**(2—3):57—83.
108. Eniafe J, Jiang S. The functional roles of TCA cycle metabolites in cancer. *Oncogene*. 2021; **40**(19):3351—63.
109. Sarkar S, Chang CI, Jean J, Wu MJ. TCA cycle-derived oncometabolites in cancer and the immune microenvironment. *J Biomed Sci*. 2025; **32**(1):87.
110. Guo J, Huang X, Dou L, et al., and Li J. Aging and aging-related diseases: from molecular mechanisms to interventions and treatments. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*. 2022; **7**(1):391.
111. Yusri K, Jose S, Vermeulen KS, et al., and Sorrentino V. The role of NAD<sup>+</sup> metabolism and its modulation of mitochondria in aging and disease. *NPJ Metab Health Dis*. 2025; **3**(1):26.
112. Yong J, Cai S, Zeng Z. Targeting NAD<sup>+</sup> metabolism: dual roles in cancer treatment. *Front Immunol*. 2023; **14**:1269896.
113. Ghanem MS, Caffa I, Monacelli F, Nencioni A. Inhibitors of NAD<sup>+</sup> Production in Cancer Treatment: State of the Art and Perspectives. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2024; **25**(4):2092.

114. Cuollo L, Antonangeli F, Santoni A, Soriani A. The Senescence-Associated Secretory Phenotype (SASP) in the Challenging Future of Cancer Therapy and Age-Related Diseases. *Biology (Basel)*. 2020; **9**(12):485.
115. Miwa S, Kashyap S, Chini E, von Zglinicki T. Mitochondrial dysfunction in cell senescence and aging. *J Clin Invest*. 2022; **132**(13):e158447.
116. Nakamura H, Takada K. Reactive oxygen species in cancer: Current findings and future directions. *Cancer Sci*. 2021; **112**(10):3945—52.
117. Cao K, Riley JS, Heilig R, et al., and Tait SWG. Mitochondrial dynamics regulate genome stability via control of caspase-dependent DNA damage. *Dev Cell*. 2022; **57**(10):1211—25.e6.
118. Nguyen TT, Wei S, Nguyen TH, et al., and Ryu D. Mitochondria-associated programmed cell death as a therapeutic target for age-related disease. *Exp Mol Med*. 2023; **55**(8):1595—619.
119. Vogler M, Braun Y, Smith VM, et al., and Dyer MJ. The BCL2 family: from apoptosis mechanisms to new advances in targeted therapy. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*. 2025; **10**(1):91.
120. Pan RA, Wang Y, Qiu S, et al., and Letai A. BH3 profiling as pharmacodynamic biomarker for the activity of BH3 mimetics. *Haematologica*. 2024; **109**(4):1253—8.
121. Sagar S, Gustafsson AB. Cardiovascular aging: the mitochondrial influence. *J Cardiovasc Aging*. 2023; **3**(3):33.
122. Kondadi AK, Anand R, Reichert AS. Cristae Membrane Dynamics — A Paradigm Change. *Trends Cell Biol*. 2020; **30**(12):923—36.
123. Murata D, Ito F, Tang G, et al., and Sesaki H. mCAUSE: Prioritizing mitochondrial targets that alleviate pancreatic cancer cell phenotypes. *iScience*. 2024; **27**(9):110880.
124. Zhang H, Yu F, Tian Z, Jia D. Cardiolipin Remodeling in Cardiovascular Diseases: Implication for Mitochondrial Dysfunction. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)*. 2025; **241**(7):e70073.
125. Dimitrijevs P, Freiliba I, Pćolkins A, et al., and Arsenyan P. Total cardiolipin levels in gastric and colon cancer: evaluating the prognostic potential. *Lipids Health Dis*. 2025; **24**(1):76.
126. Wang YP, Zhang RQ, Li N, et al., and Liu X. The involvement and possible targeting of cardiolipins degradation and disturbed linoleic acid metabolism in cardiac atrophy under cancer cachexia. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2024; **985**:177108.
127. Yang Z, Luo Y, Yang Z, et al., and Xin W. Mitochondrial dynamics dysfunction and neurodevelopmental disorders: From pathological mechanisms to clinical translation. *Neural Regen Res*. 2025 Jun 19.
128. Wang Q, Liu C. Mitophagy plays a “double-edged sword” role in the radiosensitivity of cancer cells. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol*. 2024; **150**(1):14.
129. Huang J, Pham VT, Fu S, et al., and Zheng L. Mitophagy’s impacts on cancer and neurodegenerative diseases: implications for future therapies. *J Hematol Oncol*. 2025; **18**(1):78.
130. Mary A, Eysert F, Checler F, Chami M. Mitophagy in Alzheimer’s disease: Molecular defects and therapeutic approaches. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2023; **28**(1):202—16.
131. Abu Shelbayeh O, Arroum T, Morris S, Busch KB. PGC-1 $\alpha$  Is a Master Regulator of Mitochondrial Lifecycle and ROS Stress Response. *Antioxidants (Basel)*. 2023; **12**(5):1075.
132. Tang MB, Liu YX, Hu ZW, et al., and Xu YM. Study insights in the role of PGC-1 $\alpha$  in neurological diseases: mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2025; **16**:1454735.
133. Cheng YW, Lee JH, Chang CH, et al., and Kwan AL. High PGC-1 $\alpha$  Expression as a Poor Prognostic Indicator in Intracranial Glioma. *Biomedicines*. 2024; **12**(5):979.
134. LeBleu VS, O’Connell JT, Gonzalez Herrera KN, et al., and Kalluri R. PGC-1 $\alpha$  mediates mitochondrial biogenesis and oxidative phosphorylation in cancer cells to promote metastasis. *Nat Cell Biol*. 2014; **16**(10):992—1003, 1—15.
135. Ji Z, Liu GH, Qu J. Mitochondrial sirtuins, key regulators of aging. *Life Med*. 2025; **4**(4):lnaf019.
136. Lagunas-Rangel FA. Sirtuins in mitophagy: key gatekeepers of mitochondrial quality. *Mol Cell Biochem*. 2025 Jul 24.
137. Chen J, Li H, Liang R, et al., and Tang Q. Aging through the lens of mitochondrial DNA mutations and inheritance paradoxes. *Biogerontology*. 2024; **26**(1):33.

Received 29.09.2025

Г.В. Геращенко, М.А. Тукало

Інститут молекулярної біології і генетики НАН України

вул. Академіка Заболотного, 150, Київ, Україна, 03143

g.v.gerashchenko@edu.imbg.org.ua

КЛІНІЧНО-ЗНАЧУЩІ МОЛЕКУЛЯРНІ ПОРУШЕННЯ  
МІТОХОНДРІЙ ПРИ КАНЦЕРОГЕНЕЗІ ТА ВІКОВИХ  
ЗАХВОРЮВАННЯХ: СУЧАСНИЙ СТАН І ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ:  
ЧАСТИНА 1. СХИЛЬНІСТЬ ДО ЗАХВОРЮВАНЬ  
ТА ДІАГНОСТИЧНЕ ЗНАЧЕННЯ

Порушення функціонування мітохондрій пов'язано з ознаками раку, старіння та вікових хвороб. За останні роки виявлені численні молекулярні порушення мітохондрій на рівні ДНК, РНК, білків, метаболічних зсувів та перепрограмування метаболізму при різних видах раку та вікових хворобах. У огляді проаналізовано низку клінічно-значущих параметрів мітохондріальних порушень, зокрема схильність до розвитку хвороб, діагностика, прогноз та перебіг означених патологій. Прояви мітохондріальної дисфункції на молекулярному рівні постійно уточнюються та доопрацьовуються, тому у перспективі можна очікувати появу нових клінічно-значущих ознак цих порушень при раку та вікових хворобах.

**Ключові слова:** мітохондрія, соматичні та термінальні генетичні порушення, метаболічне перепрограмування, рак, вікові захворювання, клінічно-значущі порушення.