# 1 Toxoplasma gondii microneme proteins 1 and 4 bind to Toll-like

## 2 receptors 2 and 4 N-glycans triggering innate immune response

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The infection of the host cell with *Toxoplasma gondii* involves the regulated secretion of microneme proteins (TgMICs). The complex formed by TgMIC1/4/6 on the *T. gondii* surface participates in the adhesion and invasion processes. Here, we show that TgMIC1- and TgMIC4-stimulated dendritic cells and macrophages produce proinflammatory cytokines through TLR2 and TLR4 signalling. This process depends on sugar recognition, since it was shown to be inhibited by point mutations introduced in the TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 carbohydrate-recognition domains. HEK cells transfected with TLR2 glycomutants were selectively unresponsive to TgMICs. Following parasite infection, phagocytes lacking TLR2 and TLR4 failed to generate an early IL-12 response in contrast to wild type cells. Moreover, TgMIC1-KO and TgMIC1/TgMIC4-DKO parasites stimulated a lower IL-12 response than wild type parasites. Together, our data reveal that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 interact physically with TLR2 and TLR4 N-glycans to trigger an early IL-12 response to *T. gondii*, which may contribute to acute control of infection.

#### **AUTHOR SUMMARY**

Toxoplasmosis is caused by the protozoan *Toxoplasma gondii*, of the Apicomplexa phylum. It comprises important parasites able to infect a broad diversity of animals, including humans. A particularity of *T. gondii* is the ability to invade all nucleated cells of its hosts through an active process, which depends on the expression of surface adhesion proteins. These proteins are secreted by specialized organelles localized in the parasite apical region, such as micronemes. We show, in this study, that two of the microneme proteins from *T. gondii* play a function that goes beyond the adhesion activity. These microneme proteins denoted TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 have the

ability to recognize sugars. Through this property, they bind to sugars contained in receptors on mammalian cells surface. This binding starts the process of activation of innate immune cells and secretion of cytokines, which may act by making more efficient the host defence mechanisms against the parasite, especially in the beginning of the infection. It results in an appropriate response because it helps to control the parasite replication during the acute infection and favours host healthy.

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**INTRODUCTION** Toxoplasma gondii is a coccidian belonging to the phylum Apicomplexa and the causative agent of toxoplasmosis. The protozoan infects a variety of vertebrate hosts, including humans, about one-third of the world population being infected with it [1]. Toxoplasmosis can be fatal in immunocompromised individuals or when contracted congenitally [1], and is considered the second leading cause of death from foodborne illnesses in the United States [2]. T. gondii invades host cells through an active process that relies on the parasite's actomyosin system, concomitantly with the release of microneme proteins (TgMICs) and rhoptry proteins (ROPs and RONs) from specialized organelles in the apical region of the organism [3]. These proteins are secreted by tachyzoites [4, 5] and form

complexes of soluble and transmembrane proteins. Some of the TgMICs act as adhesins, interacting tightly with host cell-membrane glycoproteins and receptors, and are involved in the formation of the moving junction [6]. This sequence of events ensures tachyzoite gliding motility, migration through host cells, and invasion [4, 7]. Among the released proteins, TgMIC1, TgMIC4, and TgMIC6 form a complex that plays a role in the adhesion and invasion of host cells [8, 9], contributing to the virulence of the parasite [10, 11].

Several studies have shown that host-cell invasion by apicomplexan parasites such as T. gondii involves carbohydrate recognition [12-15]. Interestingly, TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 have lectin domains [11, 16-18] that recognize oligosaccharides with sialic acid and D-galactose in the terminal position, respectively. Importantly, the parasite's Lac<sup>+</sup> subcomplex, consisting of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, induces adherent spleen cells to release high levels of IL-12 [17], a cytokine critical for the host's protective response to T. gondii infection [19]. In addition, immunization with this native subcomplex, or with recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, protects mice against experimental toxoplasmosis [20, 21]. The induction of IL-12 is frequently due to the detection of the pathogen by innate immunity receptors, including members of the Toll-like receptor (TLR) family, whose stimulation most frequently involves MyD88 activation and leads to the priming of Th1 response, which protects the host against T. gondii [19, 22]. Interestingly, the extracellular leucine-rich repeat domains of TLR2 and TLR4 contain four and nine N-glycans, respectively [23]. Therefore, we hypothesized that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 could target TLR2 and TLR4 N-glycans on antigen-presenting cells (APCs) and, through such interaction, trigger cell activation and IL-12 production. To investigate this possibility, we assayed the ability of recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 to bind and activate TLR2 and TLR4. Using several strategies, we demonstrated that TLR2 and TLR4 are indeed critical targets for both TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. These parasite and host cell structures establish lectin-carbohydrate interactions that contribute to the induction of IL-12 production during the early phase of T. gondii infection.

### **RESULTS**

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# Lectin properties of recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 are consistent with those of the native Lac<sup>+</sup> subcomplex

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Because the native TgMIC1/4 subcomplex purified from soluble *T. gondii* antigens has lectin properties, we investigated whether their recombinant counterparts retained the sugar-binding specificity. The glycoarray analysis revealed the interactions of: i) the Lac<sup>+</sup> subcomplex with glycans containing terminal  $\alpha(2-3)$ -sialyl and  $\beta(1-4)$ - or  $\beta(1-3)$ -galactose; ii) TgMIC1 with  $\alpha(2-3)$ -sialyl residues linked to  $\beta$ -galactosides; and iii) of TgMIC4 with oligosaccharides with terminal  $\beta(1-4)$ - or  $\beta(1-3)$ -galactose (Fig 1A). The combined specificities of the individual recombinant proteins correspond to the dual sugar specificity of the Lac<sup>+</sup> fraction, demonstrating that the sugar-recognition properties of the recombinant proteins are consistent with those of the native ones. Based on the sugar recognition selectivity of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, we tested two oligosaccharides ( $\alpha(2-3)$ -sialyllactose and lacto-N-biose) for their ability to inhibit the interaction of the microneme proteins with the glycoproteins fetuin and asialofetuin [24]. Sialyllactose inhibited the binding of TgMIC1 to fetuin, and lacto-N-biose inhibited the binding of TgMIC4 to asialofetuin (Fig 1B). To ratify the carbohydrate recognition activity of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, we generated point mutations into the carbohydrate recognition domains (CRDs) of the TgMICs to abolish their lectin properties [11, 18, 25]. These mutated forms, i.e. TgMIC1-T126A/T220A and TgMIC4-K469M, lost the capacity to bind to fetuin and asialofetuin, respectively (Fig 1B), having absorbance as low as that in the presence of the specific sugars. Thus, our results indicate that recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 maintained their lectin properties, and that the CRD function can be blocked either by competition with specific sugars or by targeted mutations.

#### TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 trigger the activation of DCs and macrophages

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We have previously demonstrated that the native Lac<sup>+</sup> subcomplex stimulates murine adherent spleen cells to produce proinflammatory cytokines [20]. We evaluated whether recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 retained this property and exerted it on BMDCs and BMDMs. BMDCs (Figs 2A-D) and BMDMs (Figs 2E-H) produced high levels of proinflammatory cytokines as IL-12 (Figs 2A and 2E), TNF-α (Figs 2B and 2F), IL-6 (Figs 2C and 2G). Although conventional CD4<sup>+</sup> Th1 cells are known to be the major producers of IL-10 during murine T. gondii infection [26], we found that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 are able to induce the production of this cytokine by BMDCs (Fig 2D) and BMDMs (Fig 2H). We verified that the two recombinant proteins induced the production of similar levels of IL-12, TNF-α, and IL-6 by both BMDCs (Figs 2A-C) and BMDMs (Figs 2E-G). Both microneme proteins induced the production of similar levels of IL-10 in BMDCs (Fig 2D); however, BMDMs produced significantly higher levels of IL-10 when stimulated with TgMIC1 than when stimulated with TgMIC4 (Fig 2H). These cytokine levels were similar to those induced by the TLR4 agonist LPS. Thus, recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 induce a proinflammatory response in innate immune cells, which is consistent with the results obtained for the native Lac<sup>+</sup> subcomplex [20]. LPS contamination of samples was avoided as described in the Material and Methods section. The activation of macrophages by TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 depends on TLR2 and TLR4 To investigate the mechanisms through which TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 stimulate innate immune cells to produce cytokines, we assessed whether these microneme proteins can activate specific TLRs. To this end, BMDMs from WT, MyD88<sup>-/-</sup>, TRIF<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR4<sup>-/-</sup>, or TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR4<sup>-/-</sup> (DKO) mice, as well as HEK293T cells transfected with TLR2 or TLR4, were cultured in the presence or absence of recombinant TgMIC1

and TgMIC4 for 48 hours. The production of IL-12 by BMDMs (Figs 3A-I) and IL-8 by 156 157 HEK cells (Figs 3J and 3K) were used as an indicator of cell activation. IL-12 production by BMDMs from MyD88<sup>-/-</sup>, TRIF<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>, and TLR4<sup>-/-</sup> mice was lower 158 than that of BMDMs from WT mice (Figs 3A-D); no IL-12 was detected in cultures of 159 DKO mice cells stimulated with either TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 (Fig 3E). These results 160 show that TLR2 and TLR4 are both relevant for the activation of macrophages induced 161 162 by TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. The residual cytokine production observed in macrophages from TLR2<sup>-/-</sup> or MyD88<sup>-/-</sup> mice may result from the activation of TLR4 (Figs 3A and 163 3C), and vice versa; e.g., the residual IL-12 levels produced by macrophages from 164 TLR4-- mice may result from TLR2 activation. The finding that microneme proteins fail 165 to induce IL-12 production in DKO mice BMDMs suggests that cell activation triggered 166 167 by TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 does not require the participation of other innate immunity 168 receptors beyond TLR2 and TLR4. Nevertheless, since TLR9, TLR11, and TLR12 account for the production of IL-12 by macrophages stimulated with parasite 169 components such as DNA or profilin [19, 22, 27], we investigated the involvement of 170 these receptors, as well as TLR3 and TLR5, in the response to TgMIC1 or TgMIC4. 171 BMDMs from TLR3<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR5<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR9<sup>-/-</sup>, and TLR11<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR12<sup>-/-</sup> mice stimulated with 172 173 TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 produced similar levels of IL-12 as cells from WT (Figs 3F-I), indicating that the activation triggered by TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 does not depend on these 174 receptors. Additionally, stimulation of HEK cells transfected with human TLR2 (Fig 3J) 175 or TLR4 (Fig 3K) with optimal concentrations of TgMIC1 (S1A and S1C Figs) and 176 TgMIC4 (S1B and S1D Figs) induced IL-8 production at levels that were higher than 177 178 those detected in the absence of stimuli (medium), and similar to those induced by the positive controls. Finally, by means of a pull-down experiment, we demonstrated the 179

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occurrence of physical interaction of TgMIC1 with TLR2 or TLR4 and TgMIC4 with TLR2 or TLR4 (Fig 3L). Cell activation induced by TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 results from the interaction of their CRDs with TLR2 and TLR4 N-glycans We hypothesized that in order to trigger cell activation, TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 CRDs target oligosaccharides of the ectodomains of TLR2 (four N-linked glycans) [23] and TLR4 (nine N-linked glycans) [28]. This hypothesis was tested by stimulating BMDCs (Fig 4A) and BMDMs (Fig 4B) from WT mice with intact TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 or with the mutated forms of these microneme proteins, namely TgMIC1-T126A/T220A and TgMIC4-K469M, which lack carbohydrate binding activity [11, 18, 25]. IL-12 levels in culture supernatants were lower upon stimulation with TgMIC1-T126A/T220A or TgMIC4-K469M, showing that induction of cell activation requires intact TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 CRDs. The same microneme proteins were used to stimulate TLR2-transfected HEK293T cells (Fig 4C), and, similarly, lower IL-8 production was obtained in response to mutated TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 compared to that seen in response to intact proteins. These observations demonstrated that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 CRDs are also necessary for inducing HEK cell activation. We used an additional strategy to examine the ability of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 to bind to TLR2 N-glycans. In this approach, HEK cells transfected with the fully Nglycosylated TLR2 ectodomain or with the TLR2 glycomutants [23] were stimulated with a control agonist (FSL-1) or with TgMIC1 or TgMIC4. HEK cells transfected with any TLR2 form, except those expressing totally unglycosylated TLR2 (mutant  $\Delta$ -1,2,3,4), were able to respond to FSL-1 (Fig 4D), a finding that is consistent with the previous report that the  $\Delta$ -1,2,3,4 mutant is not secreted by HEK293T cells [23]. Cells transfected with TLR2 lacking only the first N-glycan (mutant  $\Delta$ -1) responded to all

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stimuli. The response to the TgMIC1 stimulus was significantly reduced in cells transfected with five different TLR2 mutants, lacking the second, third, and fourth Nglycans (Fig 4D). Moreover, TgMIC4 stimulated IL-8 production was significantly reduced in cells transfected with the mutants lacking only the third N-glycan (Fig 4D). These results indicate that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 use their CRDs to induce TLR2- and TLR4-mediated cell activation. Among the TLR2 N-glycans, the TgMIC1 CRD likely targets the second, third, and the fourth glycan, while the TgMIC4 CRD is targets only the third. The early activation of T. gondii-infected DCs depends on TLR2- and TLR4mediated pathways We investigated the biological relevance of the TLR2- and TLR4-mediated activation of innate immune cells during a T. gondii infection of DCs. Twenty-four hours after infection with WT tachyzoites of the RH strain, BMDCs from WT mice produced IL-12 levels that were as high as those induced by LPS or STAg, which were used as positive controls. Consistent with previous studies, BMDCs from MyD88<sup>-/-</sup> mice produced nearly 80% less IL-12 (Fig 5A). We then performed additional experiments in which BMDCs derived from WT or TLR2-/-/TLR4-/- DKO mice were infected with T. gondii, and the kinetics of IL-12 production was evaluated. Lower levels of IL-12 were detected in the supernatants of DKO BMDCs at 6-24 h after infection than in those of WT cells. At 48 h after the infection, IL-12 levels were similar in both DKO and WT cells (Fig 5B). Our findings therefore indicated that TLR2 and TLR4 activation is required for the early induction of IL-12 production by DCs following *T. gondii* infection. The early activation of *T. gondii*-infected innate immune cells is primarily triggered by TgMIC1

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Because early IL-12 production by innate immune cells is induced by both T. gondii infection and stimulation with TgMICs, we investigated whether such production would be impaired in cells infected with T. gondii lacking TgMIC1 and/or TgMIC4. The assays were conducted by using TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 single-knockout parasites [8] and TgMIC1/TgMIC4 double knockout parasites. We generated the DKO strain from TgMIC1-KO parasites, which had the TgMIC4 gene disrupted by the insertion of a chloramphenicol (cat) cassette with flanking regions of the endogenous TgMIC4 locus (Fig 6A). After transfection and clone selection, we confirmed that the *TgMIC4* gene was absent in TgMIC1/TgMIC4-DKO parasites (Fig 6B) and there was no TgMIC4 protein expression (Fig 6C). For the infection, we compared the kinetics of IL-12 production following the infection of BMDMs and BMDCs with WT, TgMIC1-KO, TgMIC4-KO, or TgMIC1/TgMIC4 DKO parasites, all derived from the RH strain. We found that the infection with the WT strain led to early IL-12 production (within 6 h) in BMDCs, but not in BMDMs. The levels of IL-12 produced by BMDCs (Figs 6D-F) were sustained when cells were infected with TgMIC4-KO parasites, but decreased significantly when infected with TgMIC1-KO or DKO parasites. Notably, during the first 12 h after infection, the levels of IL-12 were significantly lower and comparable to those in the negative controls (non-infected cells). At 24 and 48 h post-infection, the IL-12 levels were restored by 61.3–78.25%, but were still lower than those induced by the infection with WT parasites. A significant increase in IL-12 production by BMDMs after infection with WT parasites (Figs 6G-I), compared to non-infected cells, was detected only 24 h post infection. However, similar to that observed in BMDCs, infection with TgMIC1-KO and TgMIC1/TgMIC4 DKO parasites resulted in lower IL-12 production compared to the infection with WT parasites. The kinetics IL-12 production by BMDC

in response to infection with WT or with transformed *T. gondii* suggests that TgMIC1 is crucial for stimulating the response of DCs in the early phases of *T. gondii* infection. In later time points, other *T. gondii* components would act as IL-12 inducers, such as profilin, which is a TLR11 and TLR12 agonist [27, 29], or GRA7 [30], GRA15 [31], and GRA24 [32], which directly triggers intracellular signalling pathways in a TLR-independent manner.

#### **DISCUSSION**

In this study, we report a new function for TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, two *T. gondii* microneme proteins involved in the host-parasite relationship. We show that TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, by interacting with N-glycans of TLR2 and TLR4, trigger the activation of innate immunity cells. This results in IL-12 secretion, known to lead to the production of IFN-γ, a cytokine responsible for parasite clearance and development of a protective T cell response by the host [19, 22]. This set of events explains, at least in part, the resistance conferred by TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 administration against experimental toxoplasmosis [20, 21].

*T. gondii* tachyzoites express microneme proteins either on their surface, as transmembrane proteins, or secrete them in their soluble form. These proteins may form complexes, such as those of TgMIC1, TgMIC4, and TgMIC6 (TgMIC1/4/6), in which TgMIC6 is a transmembrane protein that anchors the two soluble molecules TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 [8]. Genetic disruption of any of the three encoding genes does not interfere with parasite survival [8] nor its interaction with and attachment to the host cells [10]; however, TgMIC1 has been demonstrated to play a role in invasion and contribute to virulence in mice [10]. We previously isolated soluble TgMIC1/4, a lactose-binding complex from soluble *T. gondii* antigens (STAg) [17], and its lectin

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activity was confirmed by the fact that TgMIC1 binds to sialic acid [9] and TgMIC4 to β-galactose [18]. We also reported that TgMIC1/4 stimulates adherent splenic murine cells to produce IL-12 at levels as high as those induced by STAg [20]. The hypothesis that this result from interactions of microneme protein(s) with defined glycosylated receptor(s) expressed on the host cell surface was confirmed in the present study. To make this analysis possible, we generated recombinant forms of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, which retain their specific sialic acid- and  $\beta$ -galactose-binding properties conserved, as indicated by the results of their binding to fetuin and asialofetuin as well as the glycoarray assay. Both recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 triggered the production of proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines in DCs and macrophages via the recognition of TLR2 and TLR4 N-glycans, as well as by signalling through MyD88 and, partially, TRIF. Importantly, our results demonstrate that the binding of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 to selected N-glycans in the structures of TLR2 and TLR4 induces cell activation. We further proposed that cell activation occurred due to TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 targeting N-glycans of both TLR2 and TLR4. The ligands for TgMIC1 and TgMIC4,  $\alpha$ 2-3-sialyllactosamine and  $\beta$ 1-3- or  $\beta$ 1-4-galactosamine, respectively, are very often terminal residues of mammalian N-glycans attached to numerous glycoconjugates on the surface of cells. Such interactions account mostly for the adhesion and invasion of host cells by the parasite, thus making these proteins important candidate T. gondii virulence factors [10]. However, as already mentioned, TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 target N-glycans on the ectodomains of TLR2 and TLR4, the established interactions culminate in an immunostimulatory effect, which limits parasite survival. In this sense, TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 may work as double-edged swords during T. gondii infection.

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Several pathogens are known to synthesize lectins, which are most frequently reported to interact with glycoconjugates on host cells to promote adherence, invasion, and colonization of tissues [33-36]. Nonetheless, there are currently only a few examples of lectins from pathogens that recognize sugar moieties present in TLRs and induce IL-12 production by innate immunity cells. Paracoccin, a GlcNAc-binding lectin from the human pathogen *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis*, induces macrophage polarization towards the M1 phenotype [37] and the production of inflammatory cytokines through the interaction with TLR2 N-glycans [38]. Furthermore, the galactose-adherence lectin from Entamoeba histolytica activates TLR2 and induces IL-12 production [39]. In addition, the mammalian soluble lectin SP-A, found in lung alveoli, interacts with the TLR2 ectodomain [40]. The occurrence of cell activation and IL-12 production as a consequence of the recognition of TLR N-glycans has also been demonstrated by using plant lectins with different sugar-binding specificities [41, 42]. The binding of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, as well as the lectins above, to TLR2 and TLR4 may be associated with the position of the specific sugar residue present on the receptor's N-glycan structure. Since the N-glycan structures of TLR2 and TLR4 are still unknown, we assume that the targeted TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 residues, e.g. sialic acid  $\alpha$ 2-3-linked to galactose  $\beta$ 1-3- and  $\beta$ 1-4-galactosamines, are appropriately placed in the receptors' oligosaccharides to allow the recognition phenomenon and trigger the activation of innate immune responses. Several T. gondii components were shown to activate innate immune cells in a TLR-dependent manner, but independently of sugar recognition. This is the case for profilin (TgPRF), which is essential for the parasite's gliding motility based on actin polymerization; it is recognized by TLR11 [27] and TLR12 [29, 43]. In addition, T. gondii-derived glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchors activate TLR2 and TLR4 [44], and

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parasite RNA and DNA were shown to be the ligands for TLR7 and TLR9, respectively [19, 22, 43]. The stimulation of all of these TLRs culminates in MyD88 activation and results in IL-12 production [19, 22]. Several other T. gondii components induce the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-12, independent of TLRs. For example, the dense granule protein 7 (GRA7) induces MyD88-dependent NF-kB activation, which is followed by IL-12, TNF-α, and IL-6 production [30]. In addition, GRA15 activates NF-kB, promoting the release of IL-12 [31], and GRA24 triggers the autophosphorylation of p38 MAP kinase, which culminates in proinflammatory cytokine and chemokine secretion [32]. Furthermore, MIC3 was described to induce a TNF- $\alpha$  secretory response and macrophage M1 polarization [45]. Thus, several T. gondii components, including TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, can favour protective immunity to the parasite by inducing the production of proinflammatory cytokines, which are known to control the pathogen's replication during the acute phase of infection and favour the development of a Th1 adaptive response [19]. Our results regarding soluble TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 confirmed our hypothesis that they are associated with the induction of the innate immune response against T. gondii through TLR2- and TLR4-dependent pathways. We demonstrated that, during the first 24 h of infection, IL-12 production by DCs is dependent on TLR2 and TLR4 activation. This is consistent with previous studies that highlight the importance of TLR signalling pathways, as well as the MyD88 adapter molecule, as essential for conferring resistance to *T. gondii* infection [27, 44, 46, 47]. Finally, our results suggest that TgMIC1, in particular, contributes to the secretion of IL-12 by macrophages and DCs during the first 48 h of infection. More specifically, TgMIC1 seemed to be exclusively responsible for IL-12 production during the first 12 h of infection, since DCs infected with TgMIC1-KO parasites did not

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produce IL-12 during this period. The same activation pattern was generated by TgMIC1/TgMIC4 DKO tachyzoites. Although we did not detect active participation of TgMIC4 in the activation of infected innate immune cells, we still speculate that it contributes to the induction of IL-12 production during T. gondii infection. We have clearly demonstrated this property of TgMIC4 when performing in vitro assays with recombinant TgMIC4, which induced IL-12 production by APCs. We did not observe a decrease in IL-12 production when APCs were infected with TgMIC4-KO parasites probably because TgMIC1 is still expressed and properly targeted in the absence of TgMIC4. Therefore, TgMIC1 expression alone appears to be sufficient to induce IL-12 secretion by APCs. On the other hand, TgMIC4 and TgMIC6 rely on the expression of TgMIC1 to be transported through the secretory pathway, to the micronemes and, consequently, to the protozoan's cell surface [8, 18]. Thus, in TgMIC1-KO parasites, the TgMIC4 and TgMIC6 proteins remain inside intracellular compartments such as the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus. The subsequent reintroduction of TgMIC1 expression in knockout parasites restored the transport of TgMIC4 and TgMIC6 to the cell surface[8]. Marchant and collaborators [18] have proposed a model that explains the expression and secretion of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 in T. gondii: TgMIC1 forms a disulphide-linked trimer, and each TgMIC1 monomer engages a TgMIC4 monomer through its β-finger motif, creating a heterohexamer [15]. According to this model and previous studies on the issue, the interaction between TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 is required for TgMIC4 to correctly target micronemes [8, 48]. These data indicate that TgMIC1-KO parasites do not secrete TgMIC4, while TgMIC4-KO parasites do secrete TgMIC1. By analysing the infection of DCs and macrophages by TgMIC4-KO parasites, we observed that early IL-12 production is stimulated by TgMIC1 in compensation for the absence of TgMIC4. Infection with TgMIC1-KO tachyzoites yielded results that were

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similar to those obtained using DKO parasites, because TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 are not expressed on the surface of T. gondii nor secreted by TgMIC1-KO or DKO strains. Our findings demonstrate, for the first time, the importance of the recognition of the host's carbohydrates by T. gondii lectins, namely the interaction of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 with carbohydrates of TLR2 and TLR4, which triggers protective innate immune cytokine in vitro. Studies are in progress to test the role of this novel recognition pathway in the control of acute infection in vivo. If confirmed, the parasite lectin-host TLR interactions described here could serve as potential targets for therapeutic intervention strategies against toxoplasmosis. **METHODS Ethics statement** All experiments were conducted in accordance to the Brazilian Federal Law 11,794/2008 establishing procedures for the scientific use of animals, and State Law establishing the Animal Protection Code of the State of Sao Paulo. All efforts were made to minimize suffering, and the animal experiments were approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Experimentation (Comissão de Ética em Experimentação Animal - CETEA) of the Ribeirao Preto Medical School, University of Sao Paulo (protocol number 065/2012), following the guidelines of the National Council for Control of Animal Experimentation (Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal -CONCEA). Lac+ fraction and recombinant TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 The lactose-eluted (Lac<sup>+</sup>) fraction was obtained as previously reported [17, 21]. Briefly, the total soluble tachyzoite antigen (STAg) fraction was loaded into a lactose column (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and equilibrated with PBS containing 0.5 M

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NaCl. The material adsorbed to the resin was eluted with 0.1 M lactose in equilibrating buffer and dialyzed against ultrapure water. The obtained fraction was denoted as Lac<sup>+</sup> and confirmed to contain TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. For the recombinant proteins, TgMIC1 and TgMIC4 sequences were amplified from cDNA of the T. gondii strain ME49 with a 6-histidine tag added on the N-terminal, cloned into pDEST17 vector (Gateway Cloning, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Grand Island, NY), and used to transform DH5a E. coli chemically competent cells for ampicillin expression selection, as described before [21]. The plasmids with TgMIC1-T126A/T220A and TgMIC4-K469M were synthesized by GenScript (China) using a pET28a vector, and the TgMIC sequences carrying the mutations were cloned between the NdeI and BamH I sites. All plasmids extracted from DH5α E. coli were transformed in E. coli BL21-DE3 chemically competent cells to produce recombinant proteins that were then purified from inclusion bodies and refolded by gradient dialysis, as described previously [21]. Endotoxin concentrations were measured in all proteins samples using the Limulus Amebocyte Lysate Kit – QCL-1000 (Lonza, Basel, Switzerland). The TgMIC1, TgMIC1-T126A/T220A, TgMIC4 and TgMIC4-K469M contained 7.2, 3.2, 3.5 and 1.1 EU endotoxin/µg of protein, respectively. Endotoxin was removed by passing over two polymyxin-B columns (Affi-Prep® Polymyxin Resin; Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Additionally, prior to all *in vitro* cell-stimulation assays, the proteins samples were incubated with 50 µg/mL of polymyxin B sulphate salt (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for 30 min at 37 °C to remove possible residual LPS. Glycan array The carbohydrate-binding profile of microneme proteins was determined by Core H (Consortium for Functional Glycomics, Emory University, Atlanta, GA), using a printed glycan microarray, as described previously [49]. Briefly, TgMIC1-Fc,

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TgMIC4-Fc, and Lac<sup>+</sup>-Fc in binding buffer (1% BSA, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.05% (w/v) Tween 20, and 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4) were applied onto a covalently printed glycan array and incubated for 1 h at 25 °C, followed by incubation with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugate (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Grand Island, NY). Slides were scanned, and the average signal intensity was calculated. The common features of glycans with stronger binding are depicted in Fig. 1a. The average signal intensity detected for all of the glycans was calculated and set as the baseline. **Sugar-inhibition assay** Ninety-six-well microplates were coated with 1 µg/well of fetuin or asialofetuin, glycoproteins diluted in 50 µL of carbonate buffer (pH 9.6) per well, followed by overnight incubation at 4 °C. TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 proteins (both wild type (WT) and mutated forms), previously incubated or not with their corresponding sugars, i.e.  $\alpha(2-3)$ sialyllactose for TgMIC1 and lacto-N-biose for TgMIC4 (V-lab, Dextra, LA, UK), were added into coated wells and incubated for 2 h at 25 °C. After washing with PBS, T. gondii-infected mouse serum (1:50) was used as the source of the primary antibody. The assay was then developed with anti-mouse peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody, and the absorbance was measured at 450 nm in a microplate-scanning spectrophotometer (Power Wave-X; BioTek Instruments, Inc., Winooski, VT). Mice and parasites Female C57BL/6 (WT), MyD88-/-, TRIF-/-, TLR2-/-, TLR3-/-, TLR4-/-, double knockout (DKO) TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR4<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR5<sup>-/-</sup>, and TLR9<sup>-/-</sup> mice (all from the C57BL/6 background), 8 to 12 weeks of age, were acquired from the University of São Paulo -Ribeirão Preto campus animal facility, Ribeirão Preto, São Paulo, Brazil, and housed in the animal facility of the Department of Cell and Molecular Biology - Ribeirão Preto Medical School, under specific pathogen-free conditions. The TLR11<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR12<sup>-/-</sup> DKO

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mice were maintained at American Association of Laboratory Animal Care-accredited animal facilities at NIAID/NIH. A clonal isolate of the RH-Δhxgprt strain of *T. gondii* was used as the recipient strain to generate TgMIC1-KO and TgMIC4-KO strains, as described previously [8]. The TgMIC4-KO was produced from the TgMIC1-KO recipient strain to generate the TgMIC1/TgMIC4-DKO strain. Briefly, the previously described [8] TgMIC4-KO vector containing a chloramphenicol-resistant cassette was transfected in the TgMIC1-KO strain. Double homologous recombination was performed using the CRISPR/Cas9based genome editing to facilitate the targeting of the TgMIC4 locus. The specific gRNA/Cas9 were generated using the Q5 site-directed mutagenesis kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA), with pSAG1::CAS9-GFP-U6::sgUPRT as the template [50], using the primers ATGCAGTTGTACTCATCTCCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC and AACTTGACATCCCCATTTAC. Twenty micrograms of gRNA was transfected along with 40 µg of the linearized KO vector. Parasites were transfected and selected as previously described [51, 52]. Strains were maintained in human foreskin fibroblast (HFF) cells grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% heatinactivated foetal bovine serum (FBS), 0.25 mM gentamicin, 10 U/mL penicillin, and 10 μg/mL streptomycin (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Grand Island, NY). Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells and macrophages Bone marrows of WT, MyD88-/-, TRIF-/-, TLR2-/-, TLR3-/-, TLR4-/-, DKO TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR4<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR5<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR9<sup>-/-</sup>, and DKO TLR11<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR12<sup>-/-</sup> mice were harvested from femurs and hind leg bones. Cells were washed with RPMI medium and resuspended in RPMI medium with 10% FBS, 10 U/mL penicillin, and 10 µg/mL

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streptomycin (Gibco). For dendritic cell (DC) differentiation, we added 10 ng/mL of recombinant murine GM-CSF (Prepotech, Rocky Hill, NJ), and 10 ng/mL murine recombinant IL-4 (eBioscience, San Diego, CA); for macrophage differentiation, 30% of L929 conditioned medium was added to RPMI medium with 10% FBS. The cells were cultured in  $100 \times 20$  mm dish plates (Costar; Corning Inc., Corning, NY), supplemented with respective conditioned media at days 3 and 6 for DCs, and at day 4 for macrophages. DCs were incubated for 8–9 days and macrophages for 7 days; the cells were then harvested and plated into 24-well plates at  $5 \times 10^5$  cells/well for protein stimulations or *T. gondii* infections, followed by ELISA. **HEK293T** cells transfection Human embryonic kidney 293T (HEK293T) cells, originally acquired from American Tissue Culture Collection (ATCC, Rockville, MD), were used as an expression tool [53] for TLR2 and TLR4 [38, 54]. The cells grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco), and were seeded at  $3.5 \times 10^5$  cells/mL in 96-well plates  $(3.5 \times 10^4 \text{ cells/well})$  24 h before transfection. Then, HEK293T cells were transiently transfected (70-80% confluence) with human TLR2 plasmids as described previously [23] or with CD14, CD36, MD-2 and TLR4 [55] using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) with 60 ng of NF-κB Luc, an NF-κB reporter plasmid, and 0.5 ng of Renilla luciferase plasmid, together with 60 ng of each gene of single and multiple glycosylation mutants and of TLR2 WT genes [23]. After 24 h of transfection, the cells were stimulated overnight with positive controls: P3C (Pam3CSK4; EMC Microcollections, Tübingen, Germany), fibroblast stimulating ligand-1 (FSL-1; EMC Microcollections), or LPS Ultrapure (standard LPS, E. coli 0111:B4; Sigma-Aldrich); or with the negative control for cell stimulation (the medium). Cells transfected with empty vectors, incubated either with the medium or with agonists (FSL-1 or P3C), were

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also assayed; negative results were required for each system included in the study. IL-8 was detected in the culture supernatants. The absence of Mycoplasma contamination in the cell culture was certified by indirect fluorescence staining as described previously [56]. Cytokine measurement The quantification of human IL-8 and mouse IL-12p40, IL-6, TNF-α, and IL-10 in the supernatant of the cultures was performed by ELISA, following the manufacturer's instructions (OptEIA set; BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Human and murine recombinant cytokines were used to generate standard curves and determine cytokine concentrations. The absorbance was read at 450 nm using the Power Wave-X spectrophotometer (BioTek Instruments). TLR2-FLAG and TLR4-FLAG plasmids The pcDNA4/TO-FLAG plasmid was kindly provided by Dr. Dario Simões Zamboni. The pcDNA4-FLAG-TLR2 and pcDNA4-FLAG-TLR4 plasmids were constructed as follows. RNA from a P388D1 cell line (ATCC, Rockville, MD) was extracted and converted to cDNA with Maxima H Minus Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA USA) and oligo(dT). TLR2 and TLR4 were amplified from total cDNA from murine macrophages by using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase and the phosphorylated primers TLR2 F: ATGCTACGAGCTCTTTGGCTCTTCTGG, TLR2\_R: CTAGGACTTTATTGCAGTTCTCAGATTTACCCAAAAC, TLR4\_F: TGCTTAGGATCCATGATGCCTCCCTGGCTCCTG and TLR4\_R: TGCTTAGCGGCCGCTCAGGTCCAAGTTGCCGTTTCTTG. The fragments were isolated from 1% agarose/Tris-acetate-ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid gel, purified with GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo-Fisher Scientific), and inserted into the

pcDNA4/TO-FLAG vector by using the restriction enzymes sites for NotI and XbaI 528 529 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) for TLR2, and BamHI and NotI (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) for TLR4. Ligation reactions were performed by using a 3:1 insert/vector ratio with T4 530 DNA Ligase (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) and transformed into chemically competent 531 532 Escherichia coli DH5α cells. Proper transformants were isolated from LB agar medium plates under ampicillin selection (100 µg/mL) and analyzed by PCR, restriction 533 534 fragment analysis, and DNA sequencing. All reactions were performed according to the 535 manufacturer's instructions. Pull-down assay 536 537 We used the lysate of HEK293T cells transfected (70-80% confluence) with plasmids containing TLR2-FLAG or TLR4-FLAG. After 24 h of transfection, the HEK 538 cells were lysed with a non-denaturing lysis buffer (20 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 137 mM NaCl, 539 540 and 2 mM EDTA) supplemented with a protease inhibitor (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). After 10 min of incubation on ice, the lysate was subjected to centrifugation (16,000 g, 541 at 4 °C for 5 min). The protein content in the supernatant was quantified by the BCA 542 method, aliquoted, and stored at -80 °C. For the pull-down assay, 100 µg of the lysate 543 from TLR2-FLAG- or TLR4-FLAG-transfected HEK cells were incubated with 10 µg 544 545 of TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 overnight at 4 °C. Since these proteins had a histidine tag, the samples were purified on nickel-affinity resin (Ni Sepharose High Performance; GE 546 547 Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK) after incubation for 30 min at 25 °C and centrifugation 548 of the fraction bound to nickel to pull down the TgMIC-His that physically interacted 549 with TLR-FLAG (16,000 g, 4 °C, 5 min). After washing with PBS, the samples were resuspended in 100 µL of SDS loading dye with 5 µL of 2-mercaptoethanol, heated for 550 551 5 min at 95 °C, and 25 μL of total volume was run on 10% SDS-PAGE. After

transferring to a nitrocellulose membrane (Millipore, Billerica, MA), immunoblotting

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was performed by following the manufacturer's protocol. First, the membrane was incubated with anti-FLAG monoclonal antibodies (1:2,000) (Clone G10, ab45766, Sigma-Aldrich) to detect the presence of TLR2 or TLR4. The same membrane was then subjected to secondary probing and was developed with anti-TgMIC1 or anti-TgMIC4 polyclonal antibodies (IgY; 1:20,000) and followed by incubation with secondary polyclonal anti-chicken IgY-HRP (1:4,000) (A9046, Sigma-Aldrich) to confirm the presence of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. Toxoplasma gondii infection Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells (BMDCs) and bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) were infected with WT RH-Δhxgprt, TgMIC1-KO, TgMIC4-KO, or TgMIC1/TgMIC4-DKO strains recovered from T25 flasks with HFF cell cultures. The T25 flasks were washed with RPMI medium to completely remove parasites, and the collected material was centrifuged for 5 min at 50 g to remove HFF cell debris. The resulting pellet was discarded, and the supernatant containing the parasites was centrifuged for 10 min at 1,000 g and resuspended in RPMI medium for counting and concentration adjustments. BMDCs and BMDMs were dispensed in 24well plates at  $5 \times 10^5$  cells/well (in RPMI medium supplemented with 10% FBS), followed by infection with 3 parasites per cell (multiplicity of infection, MOI 3). Then, the plate was centrifuged for 3 min at 200 g to synchronize the contact between cells and parasites and incubated at 37 °C. The supernatants were collected at 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after infection for quantification of IL-12p40. **Statistical analysis** The data were plotted and analysed using GraphPad Prism 6.0 software (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA). Statistical significance of the obtained results was calculated

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using analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA) followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons. Differences were considered significant when the P value was <0.05. **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS** We are grateful to Dr. Tiago Wilson Patriarca Mineo (Universidade Federal de Uberlândia - MG) for kindly provided us the wild type *Toxoplasma gondii* (RH); to Dr. Larissa Dias Cunha and Dr. Dario Simões Zamboni (Universidade de São Paulo - SP) for help with double knockout TLR2/TLR4 mice generation and for kindly provide the pcDNA4/TO-FLAG plasmid; to Izaíra Tincani Brandão and Ana Paula Masson for technical assistance with endotoxin measurements; to Patricia Vendrusculo, Sandra Thomaz and Sara Hieny for all technical support essential for this study. We wish to acknowledge the grants from Consortium for Functional Glycomics (#GM62116), for doing the glycoarray assays; UK Medical Research Council (#G1000133 to N.J.G.), and Wellcome Investigator Award (#WT100321/z/12/Z to N.J.G.). **REFERENCES** 1. Dubey JP. Toxoplasmosis of animals and humans. 2nd ed. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press; 2009. 336 p. 2. Scallan E, Hoekstra RM, Angulo FJ, Tauxe RV, Widdowson MA, Roy SL, et al. Foodborne illness acquired in the United States--major pathogens. Emerging infectious diseases. 2011;17(1):7-15. Epub 2011/01/05. doi: 10.3201/eid1701.P1110110.3201/eid1701.091101p1. PubMed PMID: 21192848; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3375761.

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Young L, Sung J, Stacey G, Masters JR. Detection of Mycoplasma in cell 821 56. 822 cultures. Nat Protoc. 2010;5(5):929-34. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2010.43. PubMed PMID: 823 20431538. 824 **AUTHOR INFORMATION** 825 826 Aline Sardinha-Silva 827 Present Address: Molecular Parasitology Section, Laboratory of Parasitic Diseases, 828 National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA. 829 830 **AFFILIATIONS** 831 Department of Cell and Molecular Biology and Pathogenic Bioagents, Ribeirão 832 Preto Medical School, University of São Paulo- USP (FMRP/USP), Ribeirão Preto, 833 834 São Paulo, 14049-900, Brazil 835 Aline Sardinha-Silva, Flávia C. Mendonça-Natividade, Camila F. Pinzan, Carla D. 836 Lopes, Fabrício F. Fernandes, André L. V. Zorzetto-Fernandes & Maria Cristina Roque-Barreira 837 838 Immunobiology Section, Laboratory of Parasitic Diseases, National Institute of 839 840 Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA 841 Diego L. Costa, Alan Sher & Dragana Jankovic 842 843 Department of Microbiology and Molecular Medicine, CMU, University of 844 Geneva, 1 rue Michel-Servet, 1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland 845

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Damien Jacot & Dominique Soldati-Favre Department of Biochemistry, Cambridge University, 80 Tennis Court Road Cambridge CB2 1GA, United Kingdom Nicholas J. Gay Molecular Parasitology Section, Laboratory of Parasitic Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA Michael E. Grigg **CONTRIBUTIONS** A.S.S., F.C.M.N. and M.C.R.B. designed the experiments; A.S.S., F.C.M.N., C.F.P., C.D.L., D.L.C., F.F.F., A.L.V.Z.F. and D.Jan. performed the experiments; A.S.S., F.C.M.N. and C.D.L. and processed and analysed the data; D.Jac. and D.S.F. generated the Toxoplasma gondii knockout strains; N.J.G., M.E.G and A.S. provided reagents/material and contributed for the final manuscript writing; A.S.S., F.C.M.N., and M.C.R.B. wrote the manuscript; and all authors commented on the manuscript. **COMPETING INTERESTS** The authors declare no competing financial interests **CORRESPONDING AUTHOR** Maria Cristina Roque-Barreira, Phone: +55-16-3315-3062, e-mail: mcrbarre@fmrp.usp.br

#### FIGURES and LEGENDS

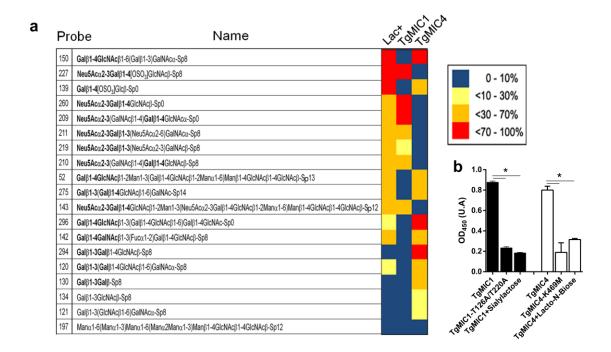


Fig 1. Lectin activity of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. (A) Glycoarray of the native TgMIC1/TgMIC4 subcomplex (Lac+) and of the recombinant forms of TgMIC1 and TgMIC4. In total, 320 oligosaccharide probes were analysed by reading their fluorescence intensities, and the 20 best recognized glycans are shown. The results were represented as previously reported [18]. (B) The activity and inhibition assays were performed in microplates coated with glycoproteins with or without sialic acid, fetuin (black bars), or asialofetuin (white bars), separately. After coating, wild type or mutated TgMIC1 and TgMIC4, pre-incubated with PBS or their corresponding sugars, were added to the wells. Later, bound proteins were detected through the addition of serum from *T. gondii*-infected mice. Data in (B) are expressed as mean ±S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data are representative of two (B) independent experiments. Gal: galactose; GalNAc: *N*-acetylgalactosamine; Glc: glucose; Man: mannose; Fuc: fucose; Neu5Ac: *N*-acetylneuraminic acid; wt: wild type

protein; mut: protein with a mutation in the carbohydrate-recognition domain (CRD); ns: not significant.

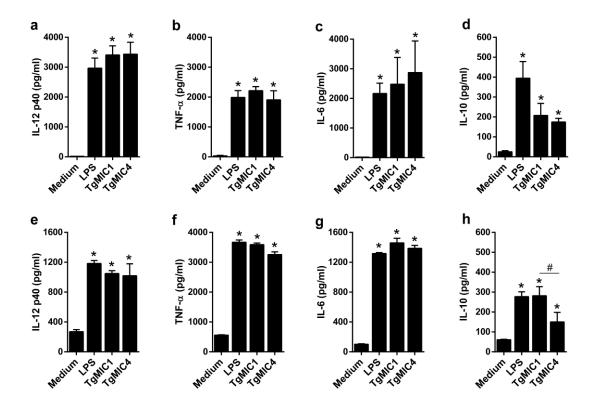


Fig 2. Microneme proteins stimulate proinflammatory cytokine production by dendritic cells and macrophages. (A-D) Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells and (E-H) bone marrow-derived macrophages from C57BL/6 mice were stimulated with TgMIC1 (5  $\mu$ g/mL) and TgMIC4 (5  $\mu$ g/mL) for 48 h. LPS (100 ng/mL) was used as positive control. The levels of IL-12p40, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-6 were measured by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$ S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data are representative of three independent experiments.

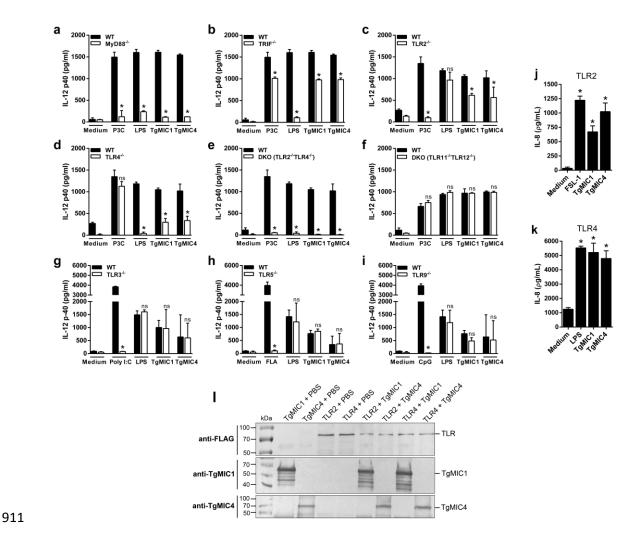


Fig 3. The IL-12 production induced by TgMICs is dependent on binding to TLR2 and TLR4. (A-I) Bone marrow-derived macrophages from WT, TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR4<sup>-/-</sup>, double knockout TLR2<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR4<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR3<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR5<sup>-/-</sup>, TLR9<sup>-/-</sup>, and double knockout TLR11<sup>-/-</sup>/TLR12<sup>-/-</sup> mice, all of the C57BL/6 background, were stimulated with TgMIC1 or TgMIC4 (5 μg/mL) for 48 h. Pam3CSK4 (P3C) (1 μg/mL), LPS (100 ng/mL), Poly I:C (10 μg/mL), Flagellin (FLA) (1 μg/mL) and CpG (25 μg/mL) were used as positive controls. IL-12p40 levels were measured by ELISA. (J and K) Transfected HEK293T cells expressing TLR2 were stimulated with TgMIC1 (750 nM) or TgMIC4 (500 nM), and TgMIC1 (200 nM) or TgMIC4 (160 nM) for HEK cells expressing TLR4, for 24 h. FSL-1 (100 ng/mL) and LPS (100 ng/mL) were used as positive controls. IL-8 levels were measured by ELISA. (L) The interaction between TgMICs and TLRs was

evaluated by western blot. HEK293T cells transiently expressing TLR2-Flag and TLR4-Flag were lysed and incubated with His-TgMIC1 (WT) or His-TgMIC4 (WT). His-TgMICs were subjected to Ni-affinity resin pull-down and analysed for TLR2 and TLR4 binding by protein blotting with antibodies specific for Flag and then for TgMIC. Data in (A-K) are expressed as mean ±S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data are representative of three (A-K) and two (L) independent experiments.

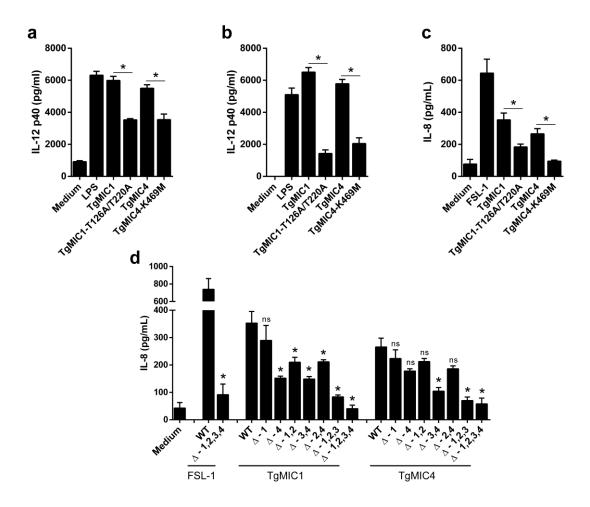


Fig 4. The cellular activation induced by TgMICs via TLRs depends on carbohydrate recognition. (A) Bone marrow-derived macrophages and (B) bone marrow-derived dendritic cells from C57BL/6 mice and (C) transfected HEK293T cells expressing fully glycosylated TLR2 were stimulated with TgMIC1 (WT) and TgMIC4 (WT) or with their mutated forms, TgMIC1-T126A/T220A and TgMIC4-K469M, 5 μg/mL of each, for 48 h. LPS (100 ng/mL) and FSL-1 (100 ng/mL) were used as positive controls. IL-12p40 and IL-8 levels were measured by ELISA. (D) HEK293T cells expressing fully glycosylated TLR2 (with 4 N-glycans, WT) or glycosylation mutants of TLR2 (Δ-1; Δ-4; Δ-1,2; Δ-3,4; Δ-2,4; Δ-1,2,3; Δ-1,2,3,4) were stimulated with TgMIC1 or TgMIC4. FSL-1 (100 ng/mL) was used as positive control. IL-8 levels were measured by ELISA. The statistical analysis compared fully glycosylated TLR2

(WT) and TLR2 mutants for the N-glycosylation sites for the same stimuli. Data are expressed as mean ±S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data are representative of three independent experiments.

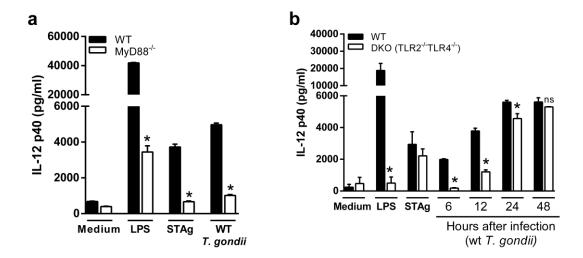


Fig 5. Initial production of IL-12 by dendritic cells during *T. gondii* infection depends on TLR2 and TLR4. Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells from WT, (**A**) MyD88-<sup>7-</sup>, and (**B**) DKO TLR2-<sup>7-</sup>/TLR4-<sup>7-</sup> mice (C57BL/6 background) were infected with WT *T. gondii* (RH strain, MOI 3). LPS (500 ng/mL) and STAg (10 μg/mL) (soluble *T. gondii* antigen) were used as positive controls. Cell-culture supernatants were collected after 6, 12, 24, and 48 h. IL-12p40 production was analysed by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean ±S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data are representative of two (**A**) and three (**B**) independent experiments.

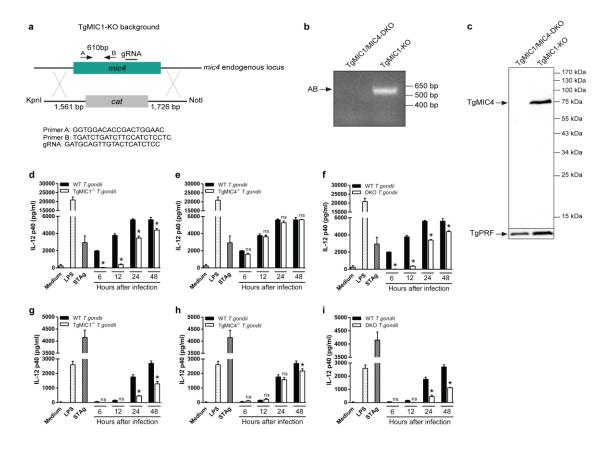


Fig 6. TgMIC1 is important for inducing the initial production of IL-12 during *in vitro* infection with *T. gondii*. (A) Schematic representation of chloramphenicol (cat) cassette with flanking TgMIC4 regions that was inserted into the endogenous *TgMIC4* locus in the recipient TgMIC1-KO strain. (B) Genomic DNA was isolated from both strains, and *TgMIC4* gene expression (610 bp from the upstream region) was analysed by PCR. (C) Western blot analyses of an equal loading of whole cell lysates corresponding to 5 × 10<sup>6</sup> tachyzoites from TgMIC1/TgMIC4-DKO and TgMIC1-KO parasites. The membrane was probed with the anti-MIC4 rabbit antibody. (D-F) Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells and (G-I) bone marrow-derived macrophages from C57BL/6 mice were infected with WT, TgMIC1-KO, TgMIC4-KO, or DKO TgMIC1/TgMIC4-dKO *T. gondii* (RH strain, MOI 3:1). LPS (500 ng/mL) and STAg (10 μg/mL) (soluble *T. gondii* antigen) were used as positive controls. Cell-culture supernatants were collected after 6, 12, 24, and 48 h. IL-12 production was analysed by

ELISA. Data are expressed as mean ±S.D. of triplicate wells and significance was calculated with ANOVA. \*P<0.05. Data in (**D-I**) are representative of three independent experiments.