Differential Impacts on Host Transcription by ROP and GRA Effectors from the

Intracellular Parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*

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ABSTRACT

The intracellular parasite *Toxoplasma gondii* employs a vast array of effector

proteins from the rhoptry and dense granule organelles to modulate host cell biology;

these effectors are known as ROPs and GRAs, respectively. To examine the individual

impacts of ROPs and GRAs on host gene expression, we developed a robust, novel

protocol to enrich for ultra-pure populations of a naturally occurring and reproducible

population of host cells called uninfected-injected (U-I) cells, which *Toxoplasma* injects

with ROPs but subsequently fails to invade. We then performed single cell

transcriptomic analysis at 1-3 hours post-infection on U-I cells (as well as on uninfected

and infected controls) arising from infection with either wild type parasites or parasites

lacking the MYR1 protein, which is required for soluble GRAs to cross the

parasitophorous vacuole membrane (PVM) and reach the host cell cytosol. Based on

comparisons of infected and U-I cells, the host's earliest response to infection appears

to be driven primarily by the injected ROPs, which appear to induce immune and

cellular stress pathways. These ROP-dependent pro-inflammatory signatures appear to

be counteracted by at least some of the MYR1-dependent GRAs and may be enhanced

by the MYR-independent GRAs, (which are found embedded within the PVM). Finally,

signatures detected in uninfected bystander cells from the infected monolayers

suggests that MYR1-dependent paracrine effects also counteract inflammatory ROP-

dependent processes.

IMPORTANCE

This work performs the first transcriptomic analysis of U-I cells, captures the

earliest stage of a host cell's interaction with *Toxoplasma gondii*, and dissects the

effects of individual classes of parasite effectors on host cell biology.

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

The obligate intracellular parasite *Toxoplasma gondii* parasitizes a wide range of

avian and mammalian organisms, including humans (1). During the acute phase of

infection, this unicellular eukaryote rapidly expands within host tissues by penetrating

host cells, establishing and replicating within an intracellular parasitophorous vacuole

(PV), and simultaneously avoiding clearance by the host immune system (reviewed in

(2)). To orchestrate these events (Fig. 1A), *Toxoplasma* employs a vast repertoire of

effector proteins housed primarily in two secretory organelles, the rhoptries and dense

granules. The rhoptry organelle effectors (ROPs) are secreted by the parasite into the

host cytosol during or immediately prior to invasion by an as yet undefined mechanism

(reviewed in (3)). The handful of ROPs that have been characterized to date include

virulence factors that disrupt immune clearance mechanisms (4-7), remodel the host's

cortical actin cytoskeleton at the point of parasite penetration (8, 9), and co-opt the

STAT3 and STAT6 pathways (10-12). In contrast, the dense granule effectors (GRAs)

are thought to be secreted later during the invasion process and mostly after the

parasite has invaded the host cell (reviewed in (3)). Many GRAs remain in the PV lumen

or PV membrane (PVM) (13-17), but others traverse the PVM to reach the host cytosol

and often proceed to the host nucleus (18-24). The translocation of this latter class of

GRAs across the PVM is dependent on a group of PVM proteins called the MYR

complex, i.e., MYR1, MYR2, and MYR3, which are so-named because they are

required for parasite-dependent host c-<u>My</u>c <u>r</u>egulation (25-27). Host signaling pathways

modulated by the PVM-embedded, MYR-independent GRAs (MIGs) include the nuclear

factor kappa light chain enhancer of activated B cells (NF-kB) pathway. Host pathways

modulated by MYR-dependent GRAs (MDGs) include the interferon gamma (IFN-

gamma), mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK), and p53 pathways, as well as the

cyclin E regulatory complex (22, 23, 28).

The collective host response to ROPs, MDGs, MIGs, and other perturbations

during infection with *Toxoplasma gondii* have been well-documented in transcriptomic

studies that compare infected and mock-infected cells; however, the contribution of

individual parasite effector compartments to the overall picture is more poorly defined,

particularly because many parasite effectors are introduced during the earliest stages of

infection in very narrow time intervals. Specifically, invasion is a rapid process that takes

approximately 40 seconds (29), and deployment of the ROPs likely occurs during the

first third of invasion in one shot (30). In contrast, MDGs have been detected by

immunofluorescence assays in the nuclei of parasitized host cells at ~3 hours post-

invasion at the earliest (19), which suggests that they likely modulate host transcription

much later than ROPs. Parasite mutants that lack a functional MYR complex have

helped separate the impact of MDGs from those of other parasite effectors (25, 26, 31),

but the specific impact on host transcription by ROPs and MIGs has yet to be

determined. The rhoptry organelle's contribution is of particular interest given that ROP

injection is essential to parasite invasion, survival, and virulence, and the functions of

most ROPs are unknown.

Here we document the impact of specific classes of parasite effector, including

for the first time ROPs, by leveraging a rare population of host cells that parasites inject

with ROPs but subsequently fail to invade (32). These underlined{u}ninfected-underlined{i}njected (U-I) host

cells (Fig. 1B) do not arise as a result of parasite-derived exosomes delivering effectors

to host cells (32) or due to impending host cell death (Fig. 1D). They arise

spontaneously in tissue culture and may also arise *in vivo* in the brains of mice

chronically infected with *Toxoplasma* (32). To interrogate the host response specifically

to effectors injected before invasion, we developed a novel pipeline to purify and

perform single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) of U-I cells. To resolve the impact of

effectors released during vs. after invasion, we also analyzed U-I cells from infection

with parasites lacking MYR1, a component of the complex required for translocation of

MDGs into the host cytosol (25, 26). Our findings reveal new insight into the impact of

individual parasite effector compartments on the biology of *Toxoplasma*-infected host

cells.

Results

A Novel FACS-based Strategy Purifies Uninfected-Injected Host Cells for Single

Cell RNA Sequencing

To investigate the impact of injected parasite effectors on host biology, we

devised a fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS)-based pipeline that purified U-I

cells for transcriptomic analysis (Fig 1C). The pipeline employed the toxofilin-beta-

lactamase (Tfn-BLA) assay (8), in which host cell monolayers were: 1) exposed to red

fluorescent RH (type I) strain parasites expressing the ROP fusion protein Tfn-BLA, and

then 2) stained for 30 minutes with CCF2-AM, a reporter dye that is taken up by live

host cells and shifts from green to blue fluorescence when cleaved by BLA. CCF2-AM

staining occurred at 30, 90, or 150 minutes post-infection, to yield cells at 1, 2, or 3

hours post-infection (hpi; Fig. 1C). U-I cells were then FACS sorted based on their blue

CCF2-AM fluorescence and their absent red fluorescence (since they lacked

internalized parasites). As experimental controls, we also sorted for infected cells

(designated I-I cells for being infected and injected) and uninfected bystander cells

(denoted U-U cells for being uninfected and uninjected) from the same host cell

monolayer as the U-I cells, as well as for mock-infected cells from a separate monolayer.

Single cells and bulk populations of 50-100 cells of each type (e.g., U-I, I-I, etc.) were

collected. This strategy enabled transcriptomic assessment of paracrine effects during

Toxoplasma infection (by comparison of U-U vs. mock-infected cells) and generated

pure I-I and U-I cell populations at extremely short infection durations, an improvement

over traditional methods that rely on high multiplicities of infection (MOIs) and long

infection times to distinguish infected vs. uninfected transcriptomic signatures. We

chose 10 T1/2 mouse fibroblasts as the preferred host cell type over conventionally

used human foreskin fibroblasts (HFFs), which we found unsuitable for single cell sorts

due to their propensity to remain clumped in FACS buffer.

To ensure confidence in the identity of the sorted cells and to limit the number of

parasites per I-I cell to one, we gated stringently, particularly for the "U-I cells" gate and

"parasite-associated" gate (which included I-I cells; Fig. 1D). We also subjected all cells

to extensive washes before FACS sorting, as debris from the human feeder cells used

to culture the parasites contaminates the U-I gate (Fig. S1), likely due to retention of

both CCF2-AM dye and the parasite fusion protein Tfn-BLA. Of note, these posed

significant challenges to downstream bioinformatic analyses of bulk U-I cells, but they

registered as single cells in the scRNA-seq pipeline and were automatically discarded

during quality control due to their high percentage of human reads. At a multiplicity of

infection (MOI) of ~6, U-I cells constituted ~8.8% of the injected (i.e., U-I + I-I) cell

population at 1 hpi, ~2.0% at 2 hpi, and ~3.4% at 3 hpi (Fig. 1E). Abundances of sorted

U-I, I-I, and U-U cells relative to all sorted cells are depicted in Fig. 1F.

To validate U-I cells as appropriate models for host responses to injected

parasite effectors, we also limited the possibility of U-I cells arising by mechanisms

other than aborted invasion events. One such mechanism is host immune clearance of

internalized parasites. However, this route is an unlikely source of U-I cells in our

pipeline for two reasons: 1) immune clearance of intracellular pathogens in mouse cells

is activated by exogenous IFN-gamma, which we did not add to the host cells, and 2) all

known strains of *Toxoplasma* escape IFN-gamma-mediated pathogen clearance by

suppressing the IFN-gamma signaling pathway if they infect the host cell before it is

exposed to extracellular IFN-gamma (33, 34). In another potential mechanism, an

infected host cell may divide and produce an uninfected daughter (a U-Id cell, for <u>U-I</u> by

<u>d</u>ivision). To limit the occurrence of U-Id cells, we serum starved all host cells for the 24

hours preceding infection to induce cell cycle arrest (Fig. S2A) and limited infection

durations to 3 hpi or less, as live video microscopy of 200 parasite-infected, serum-

starved 10 T1/2 host cells for 16 hours revealed that no infected cell divided before 3.67

hpi (Fig. S2B). Finally, a newly internalized parasite might spontaneously exit early from

the host cell, a rare and poorly characterized process that is therefore difficult to control.

Though we cannot exclude the possibility that a very small number of our U-I cells arose

from this mechanism of premature parasite egress, and though U-Id production cannot

be completely ruled out, an advantage of scRNA-seq is its ability to distinguish

differences between cells arising via different mechanisms (assuming they differ

transcriptomically).

Technical Validation of Single Cell Sequencing for Cells Exposed to or

Parasitized by **Toxoplasma gondii**

Given the limited duration of infection ($\leq$ 3 hours), we expected relatively subtle

transcriptional changes in U-I and I-I cells. To maximize the sensitivity of scRNAseq

analyses to detect such signatures, we employed Smart-seq2 library preparation and

sequenced to a depth of 1 million reads per cell. All reads were aligned to a

concatenated mouse-*Toxoplasma* genome using the genomic sequence for the GT1

parasite strain, a clonal relative of RH (35, 36). In addition, we identified and discarded

47 mouse genes to which reads from extracellular RH parasites aligned (mostly

representing evolutionarily conserved genes; Table S1).

To ensure that poorly amplified or poorly sequenced host cells did not confound

downstream analysis, we filtered samples based on several quality metrics (Materials

and Methods), yielding 453, 2,026, and 2,875 cells at 1, 2, and 3 hpi, respectively, for

downstream analysis (Fig. S3A). Mapping efficiency of the analyzed cells was >85% in

all experimental trials (Fig. S3B). Characterization of measurement sensitivity based on

logistic regression modeling of ERCC spike-in standards revealed a 50% detection rate

of 31, 11, and 34 RNA molecules per cell at 1 hpi, 2 hpi, and 3 hpi, respectively (Fig.

S3C), amounting to a level of sensitivity comparable to that previously reported (37).

After filtering out genes with expression above the detection limit in <6 cells, we

normalized for sequencing depth across cells by dividing each read count by the

median read sum to yield counts in units of "counts per median" (cpm) (Materials and

Methods). Gene expression in the single cell RNA-seq dataset exhibited a strong

positive correlation to expression in bulk RNA-seq samples processed the same way

specifically for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between experimental conditions

(i.e., U-U, I-I, and U-I cells) (Fig. S3D). Furthermore, each bulk experiment's expression

data exhibited the best correlation with their cognate single cell data (Fig. S3E). Taken

together, these data demonstrate that scRNAseq captures similar transcriptomic

signatures in host cells to those detected in bulk RNA-seq experiments, validating the

scRNAseq platform as an approach to further characterize host cell transcriptomic

responses during *Toxoplasma* infection.

Single Cell Resolution Reveals Cell-to-Cell Heterogeneity Inaccessible to the Bulk

RNA Sequencing Platform

A key advantage of single cell resolution is that it enables identification and

separation of parasite-independent host cell heterogeneity. Accordingly, single cell

resolution facilitates an extra checkpoint to validate the identities of U-I, I-I and U-U cells

by quantifying the percentage of *Toxoplasma*-derived reads in each cell. As expected,

Toxoplasma read content across all cells exhibited a bimodal distribution, where most

uninfected cells contained <0.01% *Toxoplasma* reads, while most infected cells

possessed higher, 0.5-4%, percentages. However, a small proportion of U-I cells and I-I

cells exhibited unexpectedly high (for U-I) or low (for I-I) *Toxoplasma* read counts and

were considered to be misclassified (Fig. S4A). This may have resulted from a low rate

of TdTomato or mCherry loss in some of the parasites (for cells misclassified as U-I) or

from attached but not fully invaded parasites being dislodged from the host cell at some

point between fluorescence detection and deposition of the cell into lysis buffer (for cells

misclassified as I-I). Such misclassified cells may have contributed significant and

potentially misleading signatures to their respective samples. To preclude this possibility

in our single cell dataset, we excluded all U-I cells with >0.04% *Toxoplasma* reads and

all I-I cells with <0.32% *Toxoplasma* reads from downstream analysis.

Next, because the experimental pipeline examined cells during their earliest

interaction with *Toxoplasma*, we expected the subtle, parasite-dependent transcriptional

signatures to be potentially eclipsed by intrinsic host processes such as cell cycle,

which still progressed in some cells even with serum starvation (Fig. S2A). To separate

host cell cycle from other biological processes the parasites could potentially modulate,

we determined the phases of all single cells (i.e., G1, S, or G2/M) based on expression

of 175 curated cell cycle marker genes (Fig. S4B; Table S2; Materials and Methods). A

breakdown of cell cycle phase composition for each experimental condition across all

time points revealed a consistent pattern at 2 hpi in which the proportion of cells in G2

or M phase increased in a manner that appeared dependent on injected effectors, i.e.,

from 13.3% in Mock to 33.9% in Wt U-I, 41.4% in Dmyr1 U-I, and 22.5% in CytD U-I

(Fig. S4C). These findings are consistent with potential induction of cell cycle arrest in

U-I cells by injected effectors, as previously reported (38-41).

To identify other sources of heterogeneity in the dataset, we used the *Uniform*

Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) algorithm for dimensionality reduction

and to visualize relationships between all cells based on the most dispersed (i.e.,

variable) genes. Leiden clustering revealed three distinct clusters, designated herein as

populations 1, 2, and 3 (Fig. S4D). Curiously, cells from different time points exhibited

differences in the proportion of cells belonging to each population, where 2 hpi cells fell

entirely in population 1, and 3 hpi cells fell in all three populations. In conventional single

cell analysis, dimensionality reduction and cell clustering are used to identify novel cell

types. Though the 10 T1/2 cell line is clonal, it is derived from a pluripotent stem cell

population which has a propensity to differentiate, such that the three identified

populations could conceivably represent distinct differentiation states (42).

To limit cell-to-cell heterogeneity from overshadowing potentially subtle

transcriptomic signatures induced by parasite effector secretion and parasite invasion,

we limited our remaining analyses to host cells in G1 phase (to limit cell cycle

signatures) and from UMAP population 1 (to factor out potential cell type signatures).

Injected Parasite Effectors Drive Inflammatory Transcriptional Signatures

Associated with Parasite Infection

To determine host responses to ROP and GRA secretion into host cells, we used

the Model-based Analysis of Single Cell Transcriptomics (MAST) algorithm to perform

differential gene expression analysis on G1 phase, UMAP population 1 cells. Across all

pairwise comparisons between conditions within each time point, 39, 2,252, and 10,995

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were detected at 1 hpi, 2 hpi, and 3 hpi,

respectively (Table S3A). These results show that parasite effectors and invasion result

in almost no detectable transcriptional response at 1 hpi, a modest response involving

regulation of a core group of genes at 2 hpi, and ramping up of this response at 3 hpi in

which transcription in a much larger set of host cells is modulated. Because of the

negligible response at 1 hpi, we excluded data from this time point from the remaining

analyses.

For additional validation, we assessed the 2 hpi and 3 hpi datasets for their

agreement with two previous bulk RNA-seq studies that captured the host response to

infection at 6 hpi in nominally the same parasite strains and culture conditions, albeit in

HFFs instead of mouse 10 T1/2 fibroblasts (10, 31). Because these studies measured

the infection response by comparing infected vs. mock-infected cells, we examined

DEGs between Wt I-I and mock-infected (i.e., Mock) cells in our own datasets. Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the resulting DEGs at 2 hpi and 3 hpi (Table S3B) using

the Molecular Signatures Database's Hallmark gene sets (43) revealed that nearly all

significantly enriched gene sets at 2 hpi and 3 hpi were previously identified in the Naor

et al reference dataset, and many pertained to immune processes (Fig. 2) (31). Of note,

gene sets were considered to be significantly enriched if their false discovery rates

(FDR) were < 0.25, a standard cutoff for GSEA given the lack of coherence in most

transcriptional datasets and the relatively low number of gene sets being analyzed.

Nearly all gene sets *not* preserved in the Naor et al reference were enriched from genes

*down*regulated upon infection. The lack of agreement between our downregulated gene

sets and those obtained from the references likely reflects the infection response's

tendency towards gene *up*regulation, and to stochasticity in expression levels for the

substantially fewer downregulated genes detected, an interpretation corroborated by the

downregulated genes' higher p-values and lower fold changes. Overall these results

indicate that the 2 hpi and 3 hpi datasets capture well-known host responses to infection

with *Toxoplasma gondii*.

Next, to determine the host response to injection of parasite effectors, we

compared Wt U-I cells to Wt U-U cells. At 2 hpi, only 10 DEGs were identified (Table

S3C), and GSEA of these DEGs revealed no significant enrichment of the Hallmark

gene sets. Therefore, injection of parasite effectors without invasion appears to elicit

only a trace response at 2 hpi. At 3 hpi, 156 DEGs were detected between Wt U-I and

Wt U-U cells (Table S3C), for which GSEA revealed at total of 17 gene sets (Fig. 3A);

14 corresponded to genes expressed higher in Wt U-I cells than in Wt U-U cells, and

several were associated with inflammation. In addition, 10 gene sets were common to

the infection response (Fig. 3B), i.e., also enriched in Wt I-I vs. Mock DEGs, which

suggests that much of the early response to parasite infection is driven by the injection

of parasite effectors (likely ROPs) into host cells prior to invasion.

To confirm that the transcriptional signatures in Wt U-I cells originated from ROP

injection, we made two additional comparisons. For the first, we constructed red

fluorescent RH Δmyr1 Tfn-BLA parasites from an RH Δmyr1 mCherry parental strain

((25); Fig. S5) and used them to infected host monolayers, from which we collected U-U,

U-I, and I-I cells. From here on, we designate these mutant parasites as Δmyr1

parasites and host cells arising from infection with Δmyr1 parasites as Dmyr1 cells. As

MDGs fail to traverse the PVM during Δmyr1 parasite infections, the absence of MYR1

should effectively limit the parasites' effector repertoire to ROPs and MIGs;

consequently, transcriptional signatures from U-I cells arising from Δmyr1 infection (i.e.,

Dmyr1 U-I cells) and from wild type infection (i.e., Wt U-I cells) should largely resemble

one another. To test this hypothesis, we compared Dmyr1 U-I and Dmyr1 U-U cells. In

the second comparison, to account for the possibility that Wt U-I signatures originated

from a pre-existing difference in those host cells from their neighbors, rather than from

injected effectors, we collected U-U, U-I, and I-I cells from host monolayers exposed to

wild type parasites pre-treated with the invasion inhibitor cytochalasin D, which allows

parasite attachment but blocks subsequent invasion. As expected, cytochalasin D

treatment increased the proportion of U-I cells in infected monolayers by ~6-fold at 2 hpi

and by ~9.3-fold at 3 hpi (Fig. S6), so at least 85-90% of the artificially induced U-I cells

(i.e., CytD U-I cells) presumably arose from drug-induced abortion of parasite invasion

events, rather than from parasite-independent host cell differences. We predicted that

transcriptional signatures detected in CytD U-I cells would be driven almost entirely by

injected parasite effectors and would mirror those identified in both Wt U-I and Dmyr1

U-I cells. As expected, at 2 hpi very few DEGs (29 and 51, respectively) and no

enriched gene sets were identified for Dmyr1 and CytD U-I cells vs. their corresponding

U-U cells, while at 3 hpi substantially more DEGs (103 and 174 for Dmyr1 and CytD U-I

vs. U-U cells, respectively) and gene sets were identified (Table S3D, Table S3E). The

3 hpi gene sets exhibited a strong degree of overlap with the original Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U

comparison, such that 14 of the 17 Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U gene sets were also identified in

either or both of the corresponding Dmyr1 and CytD comparisons (Fig. 3B). These data

are consistent with an inflammatory response to ROP injection that drives much of the

host cell's total response to parasite infection.

In light of the many shared genes and gene sets between the infection vs.

injection responses, we sought to define the distinction between these responses by

comparing Wt U-I (injected) to Wt I-I (infected) cells using two complementary

approaches. In the first approach, we used MAST to identify DEGs between Wt U-I and

Wt I-I cells and subjected the DEGs to GSEA. To better compare the trajectories of Wt

I-I and Wt U-I gene expression, we also computed fold changes in DEG expression

between each of these conditions and Wt U-U cells (Table S3F). In the second

approach, we identified genes with significant differences between Wt U-I and Wt I-I

cells in their correlation to a quantity called the CCF2-AM ratio, i.e., the ratio of blue

(cleaved) to green (uncleaved) CCF2-AM indicator dye detected during FACS sorting.

Briefly, the CCF2-AM ratio is a biological readout for penetration of a host cell by

injected ROPs. We identified genes that exhibited significant shifts between Wt U-I and

Wt I-I cells in their relationship to the CCF2-AM ratio (Table S4A) by first modeling a

Gaussian distribution of their Spearman correlations to the CCF2-AM ratio. Next, low

probability genes with a sufficient difference in their CCF2-AM correlation scores in Wt

U-I vs. Wt I-I cells were interpreted to be associated with either ROP injection alone (in

Wt U-I cells) or with all secreted effectors plus parasites (in Wt I-I cells, in which ROP

penetration should be accompanied by all other parasite-induced insults).

Analysis of Wt I-I vs. Wt U-I cells at 2 hpi revealed no significant DEGs, pointing

to a profound similarity in host transcription in Wt I-I and Wt U-I cells at 2 hpi. However,

the corresponding CCF2-AM correlation exhibited a higher sensitivity for detecting

differences between Wt I-I vs. Wt U-I cells and yielded 81 significant deviants from the

Gaussian distribution (Fig. 4B, top row). Of the deviants, 73 (~90.1%) fell in regions of

the scatterplot designated as "counterbalanced," where the genes were either: 1)

negatively correlated with the CCF2-AM ratio in one condition and positively correlated

in the other; or 2) had stronger positive or negative correlations in Wt U-I cells than in

Wt I-I cells as determined by a Gaussian model (Fig. 4B, top right panel; Table S4A).

This provides evidence for downstream events in infection (i.e., release of GRAs,

parasite penetration) suppressing effects of genes induced by ROP injection as early as

2 hpi.

At 3 hpi, 122 DEGs and 423 CCF2-AM correlation deviants were identified for Wt

I-I vs. Wt U-I cells, pointing to a divergence in the injection vs. infection responses at

this later time point. Of the DEGs, 100 (~82.0%) exhibited opposing trajectories in Wt I-I

vs. Wt U-I cells (Table S3F), i.e., they were either: 1) upregulated in one cell type and

downregulated in the other compared to a common Wt U-U standard; or 2) more

upregulated or downregulated in Wt U-I cells compared to the standard than in Wt I-I

cells. In addition, of the CCF2-AM correlation deviants, 333 (~79%) exhibited at least a

moderate negative correlation with the CCF2-AM ratio in Wt I-I cells, an observation

consistent with these genes being downregulated in response to the combination of all

parasite-derived insults and effectors during infection (Fig. 4A, bottom left panel; Table

S4A). Furthermore, 282 (~67%) of the deviants fell in regions of the scatterplot

designated as "counterbalanced" (Fig. 4A, bottom right panel; Table S4A), which is

consistent with host responses in Wt U-I cells being counteracted by parasite effectors

that are operating in Wt I-I cells only. This lends further support to the notion that

effectors injected circa invasion (i.e., ROPs) are counterbalanced by subsequently

introduced effectors (i.e., GRAs). Of note, the remaining 141 CCF2-AM deviant genes

at 3 hpi fell within the "enhanced" sections of the scatterplot (Fig. 4A, bottom right panel;

Table S4A). This suggests that while GRA release and parasite penetration may

counterbalance some ROP-induced host responses, these events may also enhance

other genes induced by ROP injection.

To discern the biological significance of the differences between the infection vs.

injection responses, we performed GSEA on Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I DEGs. The resulting

enriched gene sets included many that were previously identified in the host infection

response, with gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Wt I-I cells

corresponding to more inflammatory processes (Fig. 4B). Because the vast majority of

genes with higher expression in Wt U-I cells than in Wt I-I cells exhibited evidence of

being counterbalanced (84 out of 93 genes; Table S3F), these findings are consistent

with injection-associated inflammatory host processes ramping up upon parasite

penetration (and GRA release), while other injection-associated processes are

dampened by these later events.

Parasite Effectors Counterbalance to Yield a Modest Host Response to Early

Parasite Infection

Next, we sought to determine the contribution of individual parasite effector

compartments to the difference between the host infection (in Wt I-I cells) vs. ROP

injection (in Wt U-I cells) responses. According to the current model of parasite effector

secretion (Fig. 1A), the host response to an infection with *Toxoplasma* tachyzoites can

be attributed to 5 parasite-dependent stimuli: 1) secretion of paracrine effectors into the

extracellular milieu; 2) injection of ROPs; 3) activity of MIGs; 4) secretion of MDGs; and

5) parasite invasion and establishment of the PV (Table 1). Because Wt U-I and Wt I-I

cells are both injected with ROPs and originate from the same monolayer, ROPs and

paracrine effectors likely do not explain the differences between these two cell types.

Instead, MDGs, MIGs, and the act of parasite penetration itself are, *a priori,* most likely

to explain these differences. Our dataset, which includes infected (I-I), bystander

uninfected (U-U), and U-I cells originating from monolayers infected with wild type and

Δmyr1 parasites, presents a unique opportunity to examine the impacts of these

compartments in isolation.

To determine how individual effector compartments contribute to the

transcriptomic differences between Wt I-I vs. Wt U-I cells, we made two key

comparisons. In the first comparison, we examined Dmyr1 U-I cells, which presumably

respond to ROP injection, and Dmyr1 I-I cells, which are thought to respond to ROP

injection plus MIGs and parasite penetration (Table 1). We predicted that MIGs and

parasite penetration would account for the differences between Dmyr1 I-I and Dmyr1 U-

I cells, and for a subset of the differences between Wt U-I and Wt I-I cells. In the second

comparison, we examined Wt I-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I cells, which originate from monolayers

infected with wild type and Δmyr1 parasites, respectively. Signatures detected in Dmyr1

I-I cells likely reflect the host response to the combination of ROP injection, MIG activity,

parasite penetration of host cells, and paracrine effectors secreted into the extracellular

milieu, while those detected in Wt I-I cells likely reflect the response to these elements

plus MDG secretion (Table 1). Therefore, we predicted that comparing Dmyr1 I-I vs. Wt

I-I would illustrate the impact of MDGs, as well as any paracrine effects dependent on

the presence of MYR1, and that this would account for a second subset of the

differences between the infection vs. injection response showcased in the Wt I-I vs. Wt

U-I comparison.

MYR-Independent GRAs and Parasite Penetration Collectively Enhance ROP-induced

Inflammatory Responses

To examine the host response to the combination of MIGs and parasite

penetration, we compared Dmyr1 U-I cells, which should be penetrated by ROPs, and

Dmyr1 I-I cells, into which parasites should secrete ROPs and MIGs, but not MDGs

(Table 1; Table S3G). At 2 hpi, only 5 DEGs and no GSEA enriched gene sets were

identified, implying profound similarity between Dmyr1 U-I and Dmyr1 I-I cells at this

time point (also the case for Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I cells). At 3 hpi, 80 DEGs were identified,

pointing to a slight divergence between these two cell types at this time point. 48 (60%)

of the DEGs exhibited evidence of counterbalancing (i.e., their expression exhibited

either: 1) opposing trends in Dmyr1 U-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I cells when compared to an

uninfected Dmyr1 U-U standard; or 2) a stronger induction or suppression in Dmyr1 U-I

cells than in Dmyr1 I-I cells), which suggests that MIGs may play a role in neutralizing

the effects of the ROPs preceding them. Note, however, that we cannot exclude the

possibility that this effect is attributable to stimuli related to physical penetration by the

parasites. GSEA of the 3 hpi DEGs identified 15 enriched gene sets (Fig. 5), of which 9

were also found to be enriched in the Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I comparison. For gene sets

enriched from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in Dmyr1 U-I cells, many

corresponded to gene sets already identified as part of the host response to ROP

injection and/or were associated with inflammatory processes. In contrast, none of the

gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 U-I cells were identified as

part of the injection response. Taken together, these results suggest that MIGs and

parasite penetration do indeed account for much of the difference between the infection

response (in Wt I-I cells) vs. the injection response (in Wt U-I cells). More specifically,

inflammatory processes associated with ROP injection appear to be enhanced by the

combination of MIGs and parasite penetration, while other processes (i.e., complement

cascade, coagulation, MTORC1 signaling, and myogenesis) are suppressed.

MYR-dependent GRAs Counterbalance Parasite Effectors Released Earlier in the Lytic

Cycle

A previously published bulk RNA-seq experiment comparing host transcription in

monolayers infected with wild type vs. *Δmyr1* parasites at 6 hpi (31) revealed a set of

genes such that in the absence of MYR1, expression changes were unmasked, while in

the presence of MYR1 (i.e., during wild type infection), there was no net change. This

work implies that collectively, MDGs and associated paracrine effectors secreted during

infection with wild type but not *Δmyr1* parasites participate in counterbalancing

transcriptional signatures induced by prior parasite-dependent stimuli.

To determine whether MDGs and associated paracrine effects play a similar role

in the present single cell datasets, and to ascertain their contribution to the difference

between the infection vs. injection responses, we compared Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells.

MAST analysis of this comparison identified 46 and 367 DEGs at 2 hpi and 3 hpi (Table

S3H), respectively. While GSEA of the 2 hpi DEGs returned no significantly enriched

gene sets, GSEA at 3 hpi revealed 16 significantly enriched gene sets, of which all but

one were enriched from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in Wt I-I cells.

Furthermore, 8 gene sets were identified in the previously published bulk RNA-seq

experiment comparing infections with wild type vs. *Δmyr1* parasites (31), while 6

corresponded to infection-associated gene sets (i.e., were enriched from Wt I-I vs. Mock

DEGs), and 8 were identified as part of the ROP injection response (i.e., were enriched

from Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U DEGs) (Fig. 6A). Taken together, these data are consistent with

MDGs and/or their associated paracrine effects selectively impinging on Wt I-I cells and

dampening the effects of parasite effectors introduced into host cells earlier in the lytic

cycle. The overlap between these gene sets and those of the injection response shows

that some of the counterbalanced effectors include injected effectors (i.e., ROPs), which

was previously suspected (31) but never before explicitly demonstrated.

Though comparing Dmyr1 I-I vs. Wt I-I cells illustrates the collective impact of

MDGs and MYR-dependent paracrine effects on host transcription (Table 1), this

comparison cannot distinguish the individual impacts of these two stimuli. To determine

the effect of MDGs alone, we performed CCF2-AM ratio correlation analysis on Wt I-I vs.

Dmyr1 I-I cells (Table S4B), as was performed for Wt I-I vs. Wt U-I. This type of analysis

excludes the impact of paracrine effects because each set of CCF2-AM ratios results

from a comparison of I-I cells to U-U cells from the same infected monolayer, rather

than to mock-infected cells from a separate monolayer. 224 and 343 CCF2-AM ratio

correlation deviants were identified between Wt I-I and Dmyr1 I-I cells at 2 hpi and 3 hpi,

respectively. 218 (~97.3%) and 297 (~86.6%) deviants at 2 hpi and 3 hpi, respectively,

fell in the "counterbalanced" parts of the CCF2-AM correlation scatterplot (Fig. 6B;

Table S4B), which implies that signatures induced by effectors released into Dmyr1 I-I

cells are dampened specifically by MYR-dependent effectors released into Wt I-I cells.

MYR-dependent Paracrine Effects Also Counterbalance Parasite Effectors Released

Earlier in the Lytic Cycle

To determine the impact of specifically paracrine factors on the host response,

we examined two key comparisons: Wt U-U vs. Mock (which captures all paracrine

effects; Table S3I) and Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock (which captures MYR-independent

paracrine effects; Table S3J). Differences between these two comparisons should be

attributable to paracrine factors released from host cells in a MYR-dependent fashion.

At both 2 hpi and 3 hpi, paracrine effects exhibited robust differences between

wild type vs. *Δmyr1* parasite infections. At 2 hpi, ~196 and 54 DEGs were identified for

the Dmyr1 and Wt cell comparisons, respectively; at 3 hpi, the difference was even

more pronounced, with 1864 DEGS identified for the Dmyr1 comparison vs. only 20

DEGs for Wt. GSEA of Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock DEGs exposed an abundance of gene sets,

many of which corresponded to inflammatory processes and other pathways found to

be part of the infection response, whereas GSEA of Wt U-U vs. Mock DEGs enriched

for few, if any gene sets (3 and 0 at 2 hpi and 3 hpi, respectively) (Fig. 7A). Furthermore,

the responses of these DEGs were reproduced consistently between not only U-U cells

vs. mock-infected cells, but also between U-I or I-I cells vs. mock-infected cells, which

establishes that these trends affect all cell types within a given infected monolayer (Fig

7B). Taken together, these results suggest that a MYR-dependent paracrine

mechanism suppresses expression of genes induced during *Toxoplasma* infection,

including genes belonging to pathways that respond to injected ROPs.

Model of Host Responses to Individual Toxoplasma *Parasite-Dependent Stimuli*

and Effector Compartments

The preceding analyses have accounted for host responses to 6 parasite-

dependent stimuli: ROP injection, MIGs, MDGs, MYR-independent paracrine effects,

MYR-dependent paracrine effects, and parasite invasion. To succinctly represent the

interplay between these stimuli, we curated a list of gene sets that best represented the

expression trends captured in our analyses. Gene sets were included if they were

significantly enriched (FDR < 0.25) from DEGs between a majority of the following 8 key

comparisons: 1) Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U (ROP injection); 2) Wt I-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I (MDGs +

MYR-dependent paracrine effects); 3) Wt U-U vs. Dmyr1 U-U (MYR-dependent

paracrine effects); 4) Dmyr1 I-I vs. Dmyr1 U-I (MIGs + parasite invasion); 5) Dmyr1 U-U

vs. Mock (MYR-independent paracrine effects); 6) Wt I-I vs. Wt U-I (MIGs + MDGs +

parasite invasion); 7) Wt I-I vs. Wt U-U (all stimuli except paracrine effects); and 8) Wt I-

I vs. Mock (all stimuli). The 12 gene sets selected included those pertaining to immune

responses, cell proliferation, cellular stress, and the complement pathway. Expression

trends for the DEGs within these gene sets are summarized in Fig. 8.

Based on our analyses, we propose the following model of parasite-driven effects

on host cell transcription. First, because Wt U-I cells appeared to induce DEGs in nearly

all the showcased gene sets compared to Wt U-U cells, ROP injection likely induces

many of the pathways these gene sets capture, particularly immune-related and cellular

stress pathways (Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B, ROPs; Fig. 8C, ROP injection). These signatures

may arise in response to the ROPs themselves, or due to cell trauma secondary to

perforation of the host cell membrane by the parasite during ROP injection. Next,

parasites penetrate the host cell and secrete MIGs into the PVM. The host response to

these two stimuli together is relatively mild, as evidenced by the high FDRs and small

number of genes per gene set, even at 3 hpi. Though MIGs + Parasites appeared to

counterbalance the effects of ROP injection at the gene level, their most significant

impact at the gene set level appears to be enhancement of inflammatory transcriptional

signatures induced by ROP injection (Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B, MIGs + Invasion; Fig. 8C,

MIG Secretion and Parasite Penetration). This does not exclude the possibility that

other host processes not covered by the Hallmark gene sets are suppressed by MIGs +

Parasites. Next, in cells infected with *Δmyr1* parasites, MYR-independent paracrine

factors secreted by neighboring infected cells appear to enhance the effects of ROP

injection even more so than MIGs + Parasites and may do so not only for immune-

related genes, but also for genes pertaining to cellular stress, complement, and cellular

proliferation (Fig. 8A and 8B, dmyr1UU-mock/P(MI)). In contrast, during wild type

infections, two additional parasite-dependent stimuli, MDGs and MYR-dependent

paracrine factors, both appear to rein in transcriptional signatures induced by the other

stimuli (Fig. 8A and 8B, MDGs + P(MD); Fig. 8C, MYR-dependent stimuli), with MYR-

dependent paracrine factors (Fig. 8A and 8B, MDGs + P(MD)) and MDGs (Fig. 6B)

each contributing a significant counterbalancing effect in their own right. Together, all

six parasite classes produce transcriptional signatures that veer toward induction of

genes pertaining to inflammation and cellular stress but that are less pronounced than

the response to injection of ROPs.

Discussion

In this study, we examined host responses to infection with the parasite

Toxoplasma gondii using scRNA-seq on *in vitro* uninfected-injected (U-I) host cells,

which arise from aborted invasion events and that have until very recently (44) been

characterized primarily morphologically. Key fixtures of our experimental pipeline

included: 1) early time points, to limit isolating false positive U-I cells arising from

mechanisms besides aborted invasion; 2) FACS sorts, which purified rare U-I cells and

relatively rare infected cells at early time points; and 3) single cell resolution, which

enabled bioinformatic validation of all cells' infection status. The level of confidence lent

by these measures to the validity of the captured U-I cells enabled interrogation of host

responses specifically to ROP injection, an aspect of parasite infection previously

inaccessible to study due to the rapid kinetics of effector secretion at the time of

invasion. Note that while others have also used scRNA-seq to measure host responses

to *Toxoplasma* infection at a single cell level, these studies analyzed cells from animals

at many days post-infection, and therefore did not assess the earliest impacts of

infection or particularly ROP injection (45).

Because the experimental pipeline also leveraged infections with *Δmyr1*

parasites, our dataset is a comprehensive resource for the individual impacts of not only

ROPs, but also MIGs, MDGs, and paracrine stimuli on host transcription. Our analyses

revealed an early response to *Toxoplasma* infection with subtle yet clear signatures

overlapping with inflammatory and cellular stress signaling axes. Induction of these

axes appears to be 1) driven primarily by ROP injection; 2) enhanced somewhat by the

combination of MIGs, parasites, and MYR-independent paracrine factors; and 3)

counterbalanced by MDGs and downstream paracrine effects, i.e., factors secreted

during wild type but not *Δmyr1* infection. These findings substantiate previous evidence

that at least some MDGs suppress host responses induced by other parasite-driven

transcriptomic perturbations (31). They may also explain the recent finding that the

avirulent phenotype of *Δmyr1* parasites during *in vivo* mouse infections is rescuable by

co-infecting animals with both wild type and MYR1-deficient parasites (46); parasites

expressing MYR1 may induce host cells to secrete paracrine factors that suppress

transcription of inflammatory gene products that would otherwise limit *Δmyr1* parasite

infections. Note that while this manuscript was in preparation, a transcriptomic study of

U-I macrophages was published by Hunter and colleagues (44). While they used

different strains (Pru and CEP), looked at later time points (20-24 hpi), and did not look

at MYR1-dependent effects, their primary conclusions that U-I cells experience a major

impact of rhoptry effectors (in their case, specifically ROP16), and that paracrine effects

are also in play, are similar to the conclusions reached here.

Of note, the host response to MIGs + parasites was especially subtle, given that

parasite invasion involves dramatic, mechanical perturbations to host cells that might be

expected to trigger transcriptional responses. As we did not use host cells containing

MIGs and no parasites or vice versa, we could not discern the impact of the MIGs in

isolation. Nonetheless, it is tempting to speculate that the response to MIGs + parasites

may reflect MIGs counteracting the effects associated with parasite penetration and

PVM formation, which may explain the subtle net inflammatory response.

In addition, the presence of ROPs and MDGs that respectively activate and

suppress certain host processes might be interpreted as energetically wasteful. Why

might *Toxoplasma*, an obligate intracellular organism likely under selective pressure for

transcriptional efficiency, expend extra resources on effectors that negate one other's

effects? One possibility is that ROPs may have undergone selection optimizing for

functions required to establish and protect the parasite's intracellular niche (4-9, 47-52),

but may also trigger unavoidable host responses detrimental to the parasite. In this

scenario, MDGs and paracrine effects could ameliorate such ROP-triggered side effects

while theoretically leaving processes beneficial to the parasite intact. Another possibility

is that ROPs and GRAs could grant *Toxoplasma* the ability to fine tune host responses

in terms of timing and/or magnitude, likely an advantage to an organism that must be

equipped to encounter a diversity of intracellular environments due to its extraordinarily

broad host range (1, 53, 54).

Our analysis also reveals a striking effect on the host cell cycle, in which U-I cells

exhibit enrichment of G2/M phase cells. Curiously, this enrichment appeared not to be

preserved at 3 hpi, which suggests that the responsible parasite factors exert only a

transient influence on host cell cycle-related genes. Of the parasite effectors currently

known to modulate the host cell cycle (19, 22, 23, 40, 55), ROP16 is most likely to

explain these results: ROP16 phosphorylates ubiquitin-like containing PHD and RING

finger domain 1 (UHRF1) in a manner that peaks at 3 hpi, which leads to epigenetic

silencing of cyclin B1 (40), a component of the cyclin B1/Cdk1 complex required for the

G2/M transition. However, ROP16 is likely not the only ROP to impinge on the host cell

cycle, as comparison of G1 phase U-I vs. U-U cells also revealed enrichment in the p53

Pathway and KRAS Signaling Up gene sets (Fig. 3; Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B, ROPs), whose

corresponding pathways promote cell cycle progression. Further analysis of U-I cells

from yet more time points and particularly those not in G1 may shed more light on this

interplay.

Finally, our analyses thus far reflect a fraction of the possible uses of our dataset,

which includes variables of time, parasite strain, infection status, cell cycle phases, and

UMAP populations. For example, our dataset includes reads not only from host cells but

also the *Toxoplasma* parasites, rendering the data a co-transcriptomic resource that will

likely illuminate novel host-parasite interactions. Furthermore, because of limiting

numbers, the analyses described here dealt primarily with G1 phase cells in UMAP

population 1 and largely excluded cells in the remaining cell cycle phases and UMAP

populations. Future analyses of such cells may reveal roles for cell cycle phase, host

cell type, or other host-dependent processes.

Materials and Methods

<u>Cell and Parasite Culture</u>

All *Toxoplasma gondii* strains were maintained by serial passage in human

foreskin fibroblasts (HFFs) cultured at 37°C in 5% carbon dioxide (CO_2) in complete

Dulbeco's Modified Eagle Medium (cDMEM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated

fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 μg/ml

streptomycin.

<u>Construction of Parasite Strains</u>

RH Tfn-BLA TdTomato parasites were constructed by transfecting ~10^7 RH

Toxofilin-HA-beta-lactamase (RH Tfn-BLA) parasites (8) with the plasmid pSAT1::Cas9-

U6::sgUPRT (56) and with the linearized pCTR$_{2T}$ plasmid containing the construct to

express TdTomato (57) using the AMAXA Nucleofector 4D system (U-033 setting) and

the P3 primary cell 4D-nucleofector X kit with the 16-well nucleocuvette strip (Lonza,

V4XP-3032). Clones were obtained by FACS using the FACS Aria II sorter at the

Stanford Shared FACS Facility for the brightest red parasites and single cloning the

TdTomato+ enriched population by limiting dilution into 96-well plates.

A CRISPR-Cas9 strategy was used to construct RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-BLA

parasites from an RH *Δmyr1* mCherry parental strain (25). The parental strain was

transfected with the plasmid pSAG1::Cas9-U6::sgUPRT and a linear construct that

contained Toxofilin-HA-Beta-lactamase (Tfn-HA-BLA) expressed under *toxofilin*'s

endogenous promoter. The Tfn-HA-BLA construct was PCR amplified from the plasmid

SP3 (8) such that the final amplicon was flanked by 20 nucleotide (nt) homology arms to

the *UPRT* gene that are identical to those used to target constructs to the *UPRT* locus

in (56). 15 μg of pSAG1::Cas9-U6::sgUPRT and 3 μg of the Tfn-HA-BLA linear

amplicon were transfected into ~10^7 parental strain parasites using the AMAXA

Nucleofector 4D system as described above, except the setting on the nucleofector (T-

cell human unstimulated HE setting). Selection for parasites with 5 μM 5-

fluorodeoxyuridine (FUDR) began at 1 day post-transfection and proceeded for 3 lytic

cycles in monolayers of human foreskin fibroblasts (HFFs). The transfected, selected

parasite populations were subjected to two rounds of single cloning, one to generate

populations of parasites enriched for the presence of the Tfn-HA-BLA construct, and

one to purify for individual parasite clones containing the construct, where the readout

for the presence of the construct was cleavage of the BLA-cleavable FRET-based dye

CCF2-AM, which results in a fluorescence color shift.

IFA of monolayers infected with newly constructed RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-BLA

parasites was used to validate correct localization of the Tfn-HA-BLA construct to the

parasite rhoptry organelles and the absence of expression of host factors known to be

induced in the host nucleus as a result of MYR-dependent GRAs. Coverslips seeded

with confluent HFF monolayers were infected with putative RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-BLA

clones for ~24 hours, fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 20 minutes, permeabilized in 0.2%

Triton X-100 for 20 minutes, blocked in 1x PBS containing 3% bovine serum albumin (3%

BSA solution) for 1 hour at room temperature, stained with primary and secondary

antibodies in 3% BSA solution, and mounted onto glass slides using DAPI-containing

VectaShield (Vector Laboratories, H-1200) and sealed with colorless nail polish. For

Tfn-HA-BLA localization, primary antibodies were mouse-anti-ROP2/3/4 (1:250 dilution,

4A7, (58)) and rat anti-HA (1:500, clone 3F10, Sigma Aldrich, 11867431001), and

secondary antibodies were goat anti-mouse IgG-Alexa 647 (1:2000 dilution, Thermo

Fisher, A-21235) and goat anti-rat IgG-Alexa 488 (1:2000 dilution, Thermo Fisher, A-

11006). To verify the absence of the MYR1 protein, the primary antibody rabbit anti-c-

myc (1:600 dilution, Sigma, M5546) and the secondary antibody goat anti-rabbit IgG-

Alexa 594 (1:2000 dilution, Thermo Fisher, A-11012) were used, and coverslips were

seeded with either >3-week-old confluent HFF monolayers or with younger monolayers

that had been serum starved for at least 24 hours (using 0.5% FBS instead of 10% FBS

in the culture medium) to ensure no spurious induction of c-myc in uninfected host cells.

Only clones where the anti-HA and anti-ROP2/3/4 signal colocalized and where no

expression of c-myc was detected in the infected host nucleus were selected. RH Tfn-

HA-BLA TdTomato parasites (32) and the parental RH *Δmyr1* mCherry parasites were

also subjected to both protocols as positive and negative controls, respectively.

Coverslips were imaged either on the Stanford Neuroscience Imaging Service core's

Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope or on an Olympus BX60 upright fluorescence

microscope.

Western blot was used to verify for the correct size of the Tfn-HA-BLA fusion

protein expressed in RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-BLA parasite clones. Lysates were

generated by treatment of parasite pellets with SDS-PAGE loading dye containing 10%

beta-mercaptoethanol. The lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a

PVDF membrane, and the membrane was blocked with TBST (TBS, 0.05% Tween-20)

containing 5% milk for 1.25 hours. The membrane was incubated with horseradish

peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated rat anti-HA (clone 3F10) monoclonal antibodies (Roche,

Indianapolis, IN) at a dilution of 1:5,000 for 2 hours, and with 1:10,000 dilution rabbit

anti-SAG1 for 30 minutes followed by 1:20,000 dilution goat anti-rabbit-HRP for 30

minutes, and developed using the ECL Prime Western Blotting System (Sigma-Aldrich,

RPN2232).

<u>Determination of Time to Division for Infected 10 T1/2 Cells</u>

To determine the time post-infection at which infected 10 T1/2 cells divided, 10

T1/2 host cell monolayers were infected with RH Tfn-BLA TdTomato parasites, and the

infected monolayers were imaged by time lapse microscopy.

To prepare the parasites for the infection, the parasites were released from

heavily infected monolayers of HFFs by mechanical disruption of the monolayers using

sterile, disposable scrapers and passage at least 6 times through a 25 gauge syringe.

The parasites were washed by pelleting out HFF debris (133.5-208.5 x g for 5 minutes)

and resuspending the parasite pellet generated by spinning the remaining supernatant

469.2 x g in phenol red-negative low serum DMEM.

To prepare the host cell monolayers, 10 T1/2 cells approximately 1 week from

their date of thaw were seeded into 12-well tissue culture plates at approximately 6.0 x

10^4, 1.2 x 10^5, and 2.4 x 10^5 cells per well. The 10 T1/2 cells were then incubated for >2

hours in cDMEM, serum starved by incubation at 37°C in 5% CO_2 in low serum DMEM

(i.e., cDMEM containing 0.5% FBS instead of 10% FBS) for 23 hours, washed and

stained with 500 μl of Cell Tracker Green CMFDA (CTG-CMFDA; Thermo Fisher,

C2925) diluted 1:1000 in prewarmed PBS for 30 minutes at 37°C in 5% CO_2, and

washed and incubated in phenol red-negative low serum DMEM (Thermo Fisher,

31053028) for 30 minutes. At 24 hours post-infection, RH Tfn-BLA TdTomato parasites

were added to the monolayers at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 6.

Time lapse, epifluorescence images of the infected monolayers were acquired

over 16 hours in a controlled (37°C and 5% CO_2) environment using a Nikon Eclipse

inverted microscope (Julie Theriot lab). Images were acquired every 20 minutes using

100 ms of exposure at 25% power for the Phase, mCherry (to visualize parasites), and

GFP (to visualize host cytoplasmic CTG-CMFDA) channels. Cells that were uninfected

at the start of the time lapse were followed to determine whether they were infected by

the end of the time lapse, as determined by: 1) clearing of cytoplasmic CTG-CMFDA in

the exact position of the parasite, 2) disappearance of birefringence in the Phase

channel upon parasite invasion, and c) the parasite tracking with the cell at all time

points following presumed infection. For each cell for which the precise moment of

infection was captured in the live video footage, the time to division was determined

using the time the cell was infected as the start time and the time the cell divided (if

applicable) as the end time.

FACS of Single Uninfected-Injected (U-I) Cells for Single Cell RNA Sequencing

(scRNA-seq)

Preparation of Single Cells for FACS Sorting

To generate U-I cells for FACS sorting, 10 T1/2 host cells approximately 1 week

from their date of thaw were seeded into 6-well tissue culture plates at a density of

approximately 2.6×10^5 cells per well, incubated for >2 hours in cDMEM, and serum

starved by incubation in low serum DMEM (i.e., cDMEM containing 0.5% FBS instead of

10% FBS) for 24 hours. 10 T1/2 host cells were chosen as they are monolayer-forming,

contact-inhibited fibroblasts that are also suitable for single cell sorting due to adequate

dissociation into individual cells by a combination of mechanical and chemical disruption.

Next, either RH Tfn-BLA or RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-BLA parasites were released from

heavily infected monolayers of HFFs by mechanical disruption of the monolayers using

sterile, disposable scrapers and passage at least 6 times through a 25 gauge syringe.

Parasite-free lysate was similarly generated by mechanical disruption of uninfected

HFFs. Parasites and parasite-free lysate were washed by pelleting out HFF debris

(133.5-208.5 x g for 5 minutes) and resuspending the parasite pellet generated by

spinning the remaining supernatant 469.2 x g in low serum DMEM containing either 1

μM DMSO (for the wild type and *Δmyr1* conditions) or with 1 μM of the invasion inhibitor

cytochalasin D (cytD, for the cytD-treated wild type condition), incubated at room

temperature for 10 minutes, and applied to the serum starved 10 T1/2 monolayers at

MOI = 6, which maximized the abundance of U-I cells in tissue culture. All 10 T1/2

monolayers were spun at 469.2 x g for 5 minutes to synchronize parasite contact with

the monolayer. Infections were allowed to proceed for 30 minutes, 1.5 hours, or 2.5

hours at 37°C. Because cytD is a reversible inhibitor, extra cytD-containing low serum

DMEM was added to each of the drug-treated infections to maintain the concentration of

cytD at 0.5-1 μM for the entire infection duration.

To identify host cells injected by parasite proteins, a 6x stock solution of the BLA

substrate CCF2-AM (Thermo Fisher, K1032) was added to the media over 10 T1/2 cells

so that the final concentration of CCF2-AM was 1x. CCF2-AM treated monolayers were

incubated under foil (to protect from light) for 30 minutes at room temperature (to

prevent breakdown of CCF2-AM, which degrades at 37°C), bringing up the total

infection duration to 1 h, 2 h, and 3 h.

To harvest the 10 T1/2 monolayers for subsequent FACS analysis, the

monolayers were: 1) washed 3 times in 1x phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to remove

any HFF debris adhering to the monolayer; 2) incubated in trypsin (prepared in plastic

vessels only) at room temperature for 6-10 minutes; 3) quenched in an equal volume of

FACS buffer (1 x PBS + 2% FBS + 50 mM $MgCl_2*6H_2O$ + 50 μg/ml DNase I); 4) passed

3 times through an 18 gauge syringe to break any residual cell clumps; and 5) washed

in FACS buffer to remove excess trypsin. Of note, DNase I and $MgCl_2$ were included in

the FACS buffer to prevent clumping of cells from cell death. The cells were then

stained with a viability dye and an extracellular parasite stain by 1) resuspending them

in 500 μl of chilled 4°C 1x PBS containing 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 1:500

dilution rabbit anti-SAG2A primary antibody (gift of C. Lekutis) for 30 minutes on wet ice,

2) washing them in 5 ml of ice cold 1x PBS and spinning at 133.5 x g (lowest setting) at

4°C for 5 minutes, and 3) resuspending the pellets in chilled 1x PBS containing 3% BSA,

1:1000 dilution goat anti-rabbit IgG-Alexa 647 (Thermo Fisher), and 3 μl/ml near-

infrared live/dead fixable viability dye (Thermo Fisher, L94375) for 30 minutes on wet

ice. Samples were then washed as before, the pellets were resuspended in 1 ml of

chilled FACS buffer, and the cell suspension was transferred through a nylon filter cap

(Thomas Scientific, 4620F40) into polypropylene FACS tubes stored on wet ice and

protected from light until FACS sorting.

FACS of Single Cells

To prepare the multi-well lysis plates into which cells were deposited during

FACS sorting, lysis buffer was dispensed either by the Mantis liquid handling robot

(Formulatrix) at 0.4 µl per well into 384-well hard shell low profile PCR plates (Bio-rad)

for single cell RNA sequencing, or by hand at 5 µl per well into 96-well hard shell low

profile PCR plates (Bio-rad) for bulk RNA sequencing. Lysis buffer was prepared in

batches of 8 ml by mixing 5.888 ml water, 160 µl recombinant RNase inhibitor (Takara

Clonetech), 1.6 ml of 10 mM dNTP (Thermo Fisher), 160 µl of 100 µM oligo-dT (iDT),

1:600,000 diluted ERCC spike-in RNA molecules (Thermo Fisher), and 32 µl 10% Triton

X-100. All reagents were declared RNase free. Lysis plates were prepared the night

before each FACS sort, stored overnight at -80°C, and kept on dry ice during the FACS

sort.

All host cell samples were sorted at the Stanford Shared FACS Facility (SSFF)

by the BD Influx Special Order sorter using the following channels: forward scatter (488

nm blue laser, SSC detector), side scatter (488 nm blue laser, FSC detector), BV421

(405 nm violet laser, V460 detector, which detected cleaved CCF2-AM), BV510 (405

nm violet laser, V520 detector, which detected uncleaved CCF2-AM), mCherry (561 nm

yellow laser, Y610 detector, which detected parasite-associated cells), APC (640 nm

red laser, R670 detector, which detected the extracellular parasite stain vs. anti-SAG2A),

and APC-Cy7 (640 nm red laser, R750 detector, which detected dead cells). Gating

strategy used to obtain U-I cells is indicated in Fig. 1D. More specifically, cells without

red fluorescence (i.e., parasite-free) but with enhanced signal from cleaved CCF2-AM

(i.e., injected) were sorted as U-I cells, while those with red fluorescence (i.e., parasite-

associated), enhanced signal from CCF2-AM (i.e., injected), and low extracellular

parasite stain were sorted as I-I cells. Of note, the parasite-associated gate, from which

I-I cells were obtained, was intentionally kept narrow to ensure host cells were each

infected with approximately one parasite apiece, which limited confounding downstream

analysis with penetration of >1 parasite at two different time points. Single color and

colorless controls were used for compensation and adjustment of channel voltages.

Fluorescence data were collected with FACSDiva software and analyzed with Flowjo

software. Cells were index sorted such that each cell's fluorescence data were recorded

for subsequent analysis. For single cell experiments, cells were sorted into the 384-well

lysis plates at 1 cell per well. For bulk experiments, cells were sorted into 96-well lysis

plates at 50-100 cells per well. Plates were sealed with foil plate sealers and

immediately placed on dry ice until the completion of the sort. Plates were then stored at

-80°C until library preparation.

cDNA Synthesis from Single Cell RNA, Library Preparation, and Sequencing

To convert the RNA obtained from single cells and bulk samples to cDNA, we

employed the Smart-seq2 protocol (59). For single cell library preparation, the liquid

handling robots Mantis (Formulatrix) and Mosquito (TTP Labtech) were employed to

transfer and dispense small volumes of reagents, and final reaction volume was 2 μl per

well. For bulk sample library preparation, liquid handling was performed with standard

multichannel pipets and final reaction volume was 25 μl per sample. cDNA was subject

to 19 round of pre-amplification and then quantified using EvaGreen and diluted in EB

buffer to obtain a final concentration of 0.4-0.8 ng/μl per sample. Library preparation

continued using in-house Tn5 tagmentation. For single cell libraries, we used custom

barcoded indices for each cell, and for bulk libraries, we used Nextera XT indices.

Libraries were submitted to the Chan Zuckerberg Biohub Genomics Core for

sequencing. Single cell libraries were sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 by 2x150 base

pair paired end sequencing aiming at ~1 million reads per cell. Bulk libraries were

sequenced on the NextSeq by 2x150 base pair paired end sequencing at ~10 million

reads per sample.

For library preparation, the liquid handling robots Mantis and Mosquito were

employed to transfer and dispense small volumes of reagents, and final reaction volume

was 2 μl per cell. For bulk sample library preparation, liquid handling was performed

with standard multichannel pipets and final reaction volume was 25 μl per sample.

cDNA was subject to 19 round of pre-amplification and then quantified using EvaGreen

and diluted in EB buffer to obtain a final concentration of 0.4-0.8 ng/μl per sample.

Library preparation continued using in-house Tn5 tagmentation. For single cell libraries,

we used custom barcoded indices for each cell, and for bulk libraries, we used Nextera

XT indices. Libraries were submitted to the Chan Zuckerberg Biohub Genomics Core for

sequencing. Single cell libraries were sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 by 2x150 base

pair paired end sequencing aiming at ~1 million reads per cell. Bulk libraries were

sequenced on the NextSeq by 2x150 base pair paired end sequencing at ~10 million

reads per sample.

Sequencing Alignment

Reads output from sequencing were aligned to a concatenated genome

composed of the mouse genome (GRCm build 38) and the GT1 *Toxoplasma gondii*

genome (ToxoDB version 36), which is the most complete reference for type I parasite

strains such as the RH strains used in this work. Alignment was performed using STAR,

and transcript counting was performed by Htseq-count, with standard parameters used

for both packages. A custom python script was used to sum transcript counts to yield a

final gene count matrix consisting of all sequenced cells and the number of read counts

detected for each gene.

<u>Data Preprocessing</u>

To filter out cells of poor quality from the analysis, we excluded cells based on

the following metrics: gene count, total read sum, percentage of reads that mapped to

the mouse-*Toxoplasma* concatenated genome, percentage of reads derived from

spiked in ERCC standards, and percentage of reads derived from ribosomal RNA.

The gene count matrices were then normalized as counts per median (cpm).

Briefly, we first calculated the sum of reads for all cells. We then divided the read counts

by the corresponding sum of reads in each cell and multiplied the fractional count by the

median of the sum of reads as a scaling factor. Normalized data were transformed to

log2 space after adding a pseudo-count of 1 for each gene of each cell.

To determine the detection limit of each experimental trial (e.g., the 50%

detection rate), we computed a logistic regression model from a plot of the detection

probability for spiked-in ERCC standards. We then excluded genes where less than 5

cells in the experimental trial expressed that gene at a level above the detection limit.

To identify host genes associated with infection, we first excluded mouse genes

to which *Toxoplasma* sequences erroneously map by aligning RNA sequences obtained

from single cell extracellular RH parasites to the concatenated mouse-*Toxoplasma*

genome and eliminating all mouse genes with an average $\log_2(\text{cpm}+1)$ expression of

0.2 or greater.

<u>Single Cell vs. Bulk Sample Correlation Analysis</u>

To validate the single cell expression data, we plotted the log2 mean expression

of each differentially expressed gene, as identified by the MAST algorithm using the

single cell data, in single cells vs. bulk samples. The sklearn package was applied to

compute linear regression and the corresponding R^2 values.

<u>Cell Cycle Analysis and Annotation</u>

To predict the cell cycle phase of individual single cells, we curated a list of 175

cell cycle marker genes from the literature (60-67) and from the database CycleBase

3.0 (68). We computed the first two principle components of the gene count matrix using

principle component analysis (PCA) and projected the cells. We partitioned the cells

using K-Means clustering and assigned the clusters with their predicted cell cycle

phases (G1, S, and G2/M) based on the expression of 175 cell cycle marker genes

curated from the literature (Table S2).

<u>Dimensionality Reduction</u>

To visually represent relationships between single cells across all experimental

trials based on their transcriptional variation regardless of experimental conditions, we

identified and filtered for the top 1000 genes with the highest dispersion (i.e., the genes

with the most variable expression for their bin groups with similar expression level)

across all datasets, applied mutual nearest neighborhood batch correction (MNNPY) to

correct for batch effects, and projected the data onto two dimensional space with the

uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) algorithm using default

parameters in Scanpy (69). Leiden clustering using the top 1000 dispsered genes

enabled partitioning of cells into three populations (1, 2, and 3), which we separated into

individual datasets for downstream analysis.

Infection Status Classification

We also determined the host infection load by quantifying the percent of reads

that mapped to *Toxoplasma* in a given sample. We filtered samples which were shown

by FACS to exhibit one presumed infection status (based on red fluorescence from

internalized parasites) but were determined to exhibit the opposite or an ambiguous

infection status otherwise (based on percentage of reads derived from *Toxoplasma*).

Differential Expression Analysis

To obtain differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between all pairs of conditions,

we used the Model-based Analysis of Single Cell Transcriptomics (MAST) algorithm (70)

to compute the results on all G1, correctly classified, and UMAP population 1 cells. We

used the default settings except with an adaptive conditional mean of expression based

on 20 number of bins, at least 30 genes in each bin, and we did not filter out any gene

with non-zero expression frequency in the samples.

<u>Gene Set Enrichment Analysis</u>

We performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) on the lists of differentially

expressed genes between all pairs of experimental conditions, ranked by their relative

expression in each of the two conditions, for each individual experimental trial using the

fast pre-ranked gene set enrichment analysis (fgsea) package (71). Genes were

compared to the Molecular Signature Database's Hallmarks gene sets. Pathways with

an adjusted p-value (FDR) of < 0.25 were considered to be significantly enriched at the

top or the bottom of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes.

<u>Identification of Differentially Regulated Genes between Conditions Using CCF2-AM</u>

<u>Ratio Correlation Analysis</u>

To identify host genes associated with injection, we first computed the CCF2-

ratio for each cell, a metric that serves as a readout for parasite effector injection and

that was calculated by dividing the log-transformed cleaved CCF2-AM fluorescence by

the log-transformed uncleaved CCF2-AM fluorescence. Next, we excluded mouse

genes below the detection limit and mouse genes to which *Toxoplasma* sequences

erroneously map. Finally, for each infected or injected condition (i.e., Wt U-I, Wt I-I,

Dmyr1 U-I, Dmyr1 I-I, CytD U-I, and CytD I-I), we computed the Spearman correlation of

each of the remaining genes to the CCF2-AM ratio using cells from the condition of

interest and cells from the cognate U-U condition (e.g., to calculate Spearman

correlations for Wt U-I cells, we correlated gene expression to the CCF2-AM ratio in Wt

U-I and Wt U-U cells).

To identify genes differentially regulated between pairs of conditions using the

CCF2-AM correlation data, we generated scatterplots where each data point

represented a gene and its displacement on each of the x- and y-axes represented the

Spearman correlation in each of the conditions. We modeled a Gaussian distribution

using the Sklearn package with default parameters with settings "n_components=1" and

"covariance_type='full'". Genes with a difference in CCF2-AM correlation score of >0.2

or <-0.2 and whose probability densities were more than three standard deviations from

the mean probability density were considered to exhibit significant differential

expression between the pair of conditions under scrutiny.

<u>Generation of Strip Plots</u>

Strip plots in Fig. 7B were generated using seaborn's catplot and boxplot

packages to plot the normalized expression scores for each cell across 11 experimental

conditions for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock

samples. The normalized expression score for each cell was calculated by 1)

subtracting the minimum log2 cpm for that gene across all cells in the experiment, 2)

dividing the difference by the maximum log2 cpm across all cells, such that the cell with

the lowest count receives a score of 0 and the cell with the highest count receives a

score of 1, and 3) computing the average of the normalized cpm's for each cell.

<u>Generation of Bubble Plots</u>

Bubble plots in Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B were generated using a custom Python script

in which columns indicated the gene set and rows indicated the comparison (taken to

signify the impact of one to a few parasite-dependent stimuli on host transcription) from

which the gene sets were enriched. The bubbles in each plot were color coded and

sized based on one of two schemes. In the first scheme, bubble color indicated the

normalized enrichment score, where scores were positive if the genes corresponding to

a given gene set were expressed higher in the first member of the pair in the given

comparison than in the second member of the pair, and bubble size indicated the

significance (FDR) of the enrichment, where the absolute size of each bubble

corresponded to the reciprocal of the FDR. In the second scheme, bubble color

indicated the log2 normalized fold change in expression of DEGs from a given

comparison that also corresponded to a given Hallmark pathway, where positive fold

changes indicated genes were expressed higher in the first member of the pair in the

comparison than in the second member, and bubble size indicated the number of DEGs

used to calculate the fold change. To calculate fold change for each given comparison's

gene set, DEGs from the comparison that fell under the gene set were identified,

expression of these DEGs in cpm was normalized across all cells to a maximum value

of 1 and averaged across all the cells in each condition, and average normalized

expression in the first experimental condition was divided by average normalized

expression in the second experimental condition.

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 MAIN TEXT FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Experimental pipeline. **(A)** Simplified illustration of effector secretion during

early tachyzoite infection. Black curved arrows = modulation of host transcription, gray

curved arrows = transitions through stages of lytic cycle, black jagged arrow =

modulation without translocation to the nucleus, ROPs = rhoptry proteins, MIGs = MYR-

independent dense granule proteins (GRAs), MDGs = MYR-dependent GRAs, MYR =

putative translocation required for MDG penetration of host cytosol. **(B)** As a result of

the events in (A), infected host cell monolayers produce infected-injected (I-I) cells when

tachyzoite invasion proceeds as usual, uninfected-uninjected (U-U) bystander cells, and

uninfected-injected (U-I) cells from aborted invasion after effector injection. **(C)** Pipeline

to collect and analyze experimental conditions for single cell RNA sequencing. BLA =

toxofilin-beta-lactamase ROP fusion protein, CCF2-AM = indicator dye that reveals

injected (blue) vs. uninjected (green) cells. **(D)** FACS gating strategy to obtain mock-

infected U-U, I-I, and U-I cells. **(E)** Proportion of injected (U-I + I-I) cells that are U-I. **(F)**

Abundances of U-U, I-I, and U-I cells during FACS, expressed as percentages of cells

from the Live/Mock gate from which they were sorted.

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Figure 2. Infection response recapitulates previously identified signatures of early

infection. **(A)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the ranked list of differentially

expressed genes between Wt I-I and mock cells at 2 hpi (FDR < 0.1, FC > 1.5x) using

the Hallmark gene sets from the Molecular Signatures Database. **(B)** GSEA as in (A) of

the ranked differentially expressed genes between Wt I-I and mock cells at 3 hpi. FDR =

false discovery rate and NES = normalized enrichment score. Gray cells indicate

pathways common to those identified with FDR <10^{-5} in Naor et al 2018.

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Figure 3. Host response to injected parasite effectors. **(A)** GSEA of the ranked list of

differentially expressed genes (FDR < 0.1, fold change > 1.5x) between Wt U-I and Wt

U-U cells at 3 hpi using the Hallmark gene sets. Green rows indicate gene sets enriched

from genes expressed higher in Wt U-I than in Wt U-U, and red rows indicate gene sets

enriched in genes expressed lower in Wt U-I than in Wt U-U. Gene sets are designated

as part of the infection response if they were also found to be enriched from DEGs

between Wt I-I vs. Mock at 2 hpi or 3 hpi. **(B)** GSEA as in (A) between various U-I cells

(i.e., from the Wt, CytD, and Dmyr1 infection conditions) and their cognate U-U cells at

3 hpi. Gene sets in bold gray text were also found to be enriched in the infection

response. Positive normalized enrichment scores represent enrichment in genes

expressed higher in U-I cells than in U-U cells.

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Figure 4. Comparison of host response to injection vs. infection (i.e., signatures in Wt

U-I vs. Wt I-I cells.) **(A)** Scatterplot comparing injection-associated genes in Wt I-I cells

and Wt U-I cells, as determined by the Spearman correlation of gene expression to the

CCF2-AM ratio in Wt I-I and Wt U-I cells. Contours reflect density of points, with central

contours being in the area of highest density. Labeled points on the plot are the top 20

genes with the lowest probability of belonging to a Gaussian model fit with parameters

that best describe the observed Spearman correlation data. *Top panels*: Plots of genes

at 2 hpi. *Bottom panels*: Plots of genes at 3 hpi. *Right panels*: Schematics

demonstrating regions of the scatterplots where gene expression trends in Wt U-I cells

are either enhanced or counterbalanced (repressed) upon parasite penetration and

release of GRA effectors into the host cell (as seen in Wt I-I cells). **(B)** GSEA of the

ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Wt U-I and Wt I-I cells at 3 hpi,

where green rows denote gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Wt U-I

cells than in Wt I-I cells and red rows represent genes expressed higher in Wt I-I than in

Wt U-I. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score.

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Figure 5. GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 U-I

and Dmyr1 I-I cells at 3 hpi, which illustrates the impact of MYR-independent GRAs and

parasite penetration on the host response to infection with *Toxoplasma.* Green rows

denote gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 U-I cells than in

Dmyr1 I-I cells and red rows represent genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in

Dmyr1 U-I cells. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score.

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Figure 6. Impact of MYR-dependent GRAs and MYR-dependent paracrine effectors,

as illustrated by comparing Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells. **(A)** GSEA of ranked list of

differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells at 3 hpi. Green rows

denote enrichment from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in Wt I-I cells,

and red rows represent enrichment from genes expressed higher in Wt I-I than in Wt U-I.

FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score. **(B)** Scatterplot

comparing injection-associated genes in Dmyr1 I-I cells and Wt I-I cells, as determined

by the Spearman correlation of gene expression to the CCF2-AM ratio in Dmyr1 I-I and

Wt I-I cells. Contours reflect density of points, with central contours being in the area of

highest density. Labeled points on the plot are the top 20 genes with the lowest

probability of belonging to a Gaussian model fit with parameters that best describe the

observed Spearman correlation data. *Top panels*: Plots of genes at 2 hpi. *Bottom*

panels: Plots of genes at 3 hpi. *Right panels*: Schematics demonstrating regions of the

scatterplots where gene expression trends in Dmyr1 I-I cells are either enhanced or

counterbalanced (repressed) by MYR-dependent GRAs or paracrine effects (as seen in

Wt I-I cells).

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Figure 7. Comparison of Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock cell types reveals impact of MYR-

dependent paracrine effects on host cell transcription during *Toxoplasma* infection. **(A)**

GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock

cells at 3 hpi. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score, and sc =

the current single cell RNA-seq dataset. **(B)** Trends in expression of Dmyr1 U-U vs.

Mock DEGs are preserved in U-I and I-I cells from Wt and Dmyr1 infections, as

illustrated by strip plots depicting expression of DEGs between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock

cells across all cell types. Each point represents a single cell, and its y-axis

displacement reflects the average of the normalized expression scores for all DEGs

between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock cells. The normalized expression score of a given gene

is calculated by scaling the $\log_2$ count per median (cpm) for that gene, such that the cell

with the lowest cpm receives a score of 0, and the cell with the highest cpm receives a

score of 1.

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Figure 8. Summary of host transcriptional response to parasite-dependent stimuli. **(A)** Bubble plot of parasite-dependent host transcriptional signatures at 3 hpi that depicts the behavior of 11 representative Hallmark gene sets from the Molecular Signatures Database (columns) across 8 key comparisons between experimental conditions (rows, indicated on left of each plot) that each encapsulates the impact of certain parasite-dependent stimuli on the 11 gene sets (indicated on right of each plot). Colors indicate normalized enrichment scores (NES) from GSEA of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between each comparison. FDR = false discovery rate, where FDR < 0.25 is considered significant (as is standard for GSEA). Parasite-dependent stimuli include ROPs = rhoptry proteins, MDGs = MYR-dependent dense granule proteins (GRAs), MIGs = MYR-independent GRAs, P = paracrine effects (where MD = MYR-dependent and MI = MYR-independent), and All = ROPs + MDGs + MIGs + Parasite penetration + P. **(B)** Bubble plot as in (A) where colors indicate log2 normalized fold change in expression of DEGs that fall under each comparison and each gene set. **(C)** Model of individual impacts of parasite-dependent stimuli on host transcription, which include immune pathways (e.g., TNFA Signaling via NFKB, IL6 JAK STAT3 Signaling, Inflammatory Response, IL2 STAT5 Signaling, Interferon Gamma Response, and Allograft Rejection), cellular stress (e.g., Hypoxia, Apoptosis), and cell proliferation-associated pathways (i.e., KRAS signaling, p53 pathway). Curved lines indicate modulation of host transcription, and jagged lines indicate modulation without effector translocation to the nucleus.

Table 1. Parasite-derived stimuli (with an emphasis on effectors) to which cells from

each experimental condition responds, according to the current model of effector

secretion for *Toxoplasma* tachyzoites. ROPs = rhoptry proteins, GRAs = dense granule

proteins, PV = parasitophorous vacuole. The "wild type" and "mutant" designations for

paracrine effectors reflect potential differences in paracrine effectors from monolayers

infected with wild type vs. *Δmyr1* parasites.

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SUPPLEMENTARY FILE FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS

Figure S1. Human foreskin fibroblast (HFF) feeder cell debris contaminates the

uninfected-injected (U-I) FACS gate. In all panels, a host cell monolayer is treated with

either a parasite-free lysate of HFFs or RH Tfn-HA-BLA parasites syringe released from

HFFs and then incubated with CCF2-AM to reveal (un)injected cells. *Left:* Infection with

RH Tfn-HA-BLA reveals uninjected and injected cell populations. *Middle:* Mock

"infection" with para- site-free lysate reveals HFF feeder cell debris contaminating the

"injected" cell population. *Right:* Infection with parasite-free lysate that was washed to

remove HFF debris reveals a reduction in contamination of the injected population.

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Figure S2. (A) Serum starvation for 24 h partially inhibits cell division of 10 T1/2 host

cells, reducing the possibility of capturing U-I cells that arise from division of an infected

host cell (U-Id cells) rather than from an aborted invasion event. Note that the S phase

population in the bottom right panel (serum replete, infected cells) also contains G1

phase cells containing parasites, as parasite nuclear content enhances the propidium

iodide signal in these cells. **(B)** Histogram depicting the number of infected host cells

that divided at various times post-infection, as determined by live video microscopy

footage of 200 serum starved 10 T1/2 cells for which the precise moment of infection

was captured on camera. Of the 200 infected 10 T1/2 cells, 53 divided over a 16 hour

time course, and none divided at earlier than 3.67 hours post-infection.

1411

Figure S3. Quality control metrics for single cell RNA sequencing data. **(A)** Comparison

of gene counts (number of genes for which reads from each cell mapped to the

concatenated mouse-*Toxoplasma* genome, y-axis) and read sum (total reads, x-axis)

for all experimental trials. Cells that passed quality control are indicated in color. **(B)**

Percentages of total reads that mapped to open reading frames (ORFs) in the mouse-

Toxoplasma concatenated genome. **(C)** *Top panel:* Linear regression modeling of

measurement accuracy fitted on ERCC spike-ins with abundance above the detection

limit. The text within each subplot denotes the coefficient of determination for the

regression fit. *Bottom panel:* Logistic regression modeling of detection limit based on

ERCC spike-ins. The 50% detection rate is indicated with a black dotted line, and the

text within each subplot indicates the detection limit for each experiment in absolute

molecular counts. **(D)** Linear regression fitted to scatterplot of average gene counts of

differentially expressed genes for single cell RNA sequencing data (x-axis) vs. bulk RNA

sequencing data (y-axis). Each point represents a DEG. Text within each subplot

denotes the coefficient of determination (R^2) for the regression. **(E)** The coefficients of

determination for linear regression lines fit to scatterplots as in (D) for all possible

combinations of single vs. bulk RNA-seq combinations.

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Figure S3. Quality control metrics for single cell RNA sequencing data. **(A)** Comparison

of gene counts (number of genes for which reads from each cell mapped to the

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denotes the coefficient of determination (R^2) for the regression. **(E)** The coefficients of

determination for linear regression lines fit to scatterplots as in (D) for all possible

combinations of single vs. bulk RNA-seq combinations.

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Figure S4. Single cell resolution enables strategic partitioning of individual cells for

downstream analysis. **(A)** Percentage of reads derived from *Toxoplasma* validates

infection status of individual cells. Cells are scored as uninfected if left of the lower

decision line (bold, dashed), infected if right of the upper decision line (dotted), and

ambiguous if between the decision lines (cross-hatched section). **(B)** Principal

component analysis (PCA) projection of cells based on 175 curated cell cycle markers

and subsequent Leiden clustering enables partitioning of cells by predicted cell cycle

states, G1 (green), S (gold), and G2/M (purple). **(C)** Proportion of cells from each

experimental condition in each cell cycle phase. **(D)** Dimensionality reduction and

projection of single cells using the *Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection*

(UMAP) algorithm reveals 3 putative cell populations. All panels are reproduced copies

of the same projection, each of which is color coded by specific parameters. *Left:*

Louvain clusters, used to assign the cells to populations 1, 2, and 3; *middle:* cell cycle

phase; *right (3 panels):* experimental trial (1 hpi, 2 hpi, and 3 hpi).

1462

Figure S5. Construction and validation of RH Δmyr1 mCherry Toxofilin-HA-beta-

lactamase (RH Δmyr1 mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA). **(A)** CRISPR/Cas9 strategy to construct

RH Δmyr1 mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA by disrupting parasite UPRT (blue) in parental strain

RH Δmyr1 mCherry. The parental strain was transfected with plasmid pSAG1::Cas9-

U6::sgUPRT (pink) and a linear amplicon containing Tfn-HA-BLA (purple) and flanked

with 20 nucleotide homology arms to UPRT (blue). The region of UPRT complementary

to the guide RNA, which also contains the site at which Cas9 cleaves, is in pink. **(B)**

Western blot for the Tfn-HA-BLA construct in RH Δmyr1 mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA. All lanes

were obtained from the same gel. **(C)** Immunofluorescence assay (IFA) for

colocalization of the Tfn-HA-BLA protein product and ROP2/3/4. **(D)** FACS analysis of

10 T1/2 cells infected with parasite-free lysate, RH Tfn-HA-BLA, and RH Δmyr1

mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA. Cleavage of reporter dye CCF2-AM indicates injection of the Tfn-

HA-BLA construct.

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1477 **Table S1:** Mouse genes discarded due to reads from extracellular RH parasites

1478 mapping to these genes in the concatenated mouse-*Toxoplasma* genome

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1480 **Table S2:** Curated list of genes used to assign cell cycle phases to single host cells

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Table S3: Differentially expressed genes (DEGs). In all tables, fdr = false discovery rate,

and log2FC is the $\log_2$ fold change in expression of DEGs between the indicated

conditions. **(A)** All differentially expressed genes at all time points. **(B)** Wt I-I vs. Mock

Differentially Expressed Genes. **(C)** Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U Differentially Expressed Genes.

(D) Dmyr1 U-I vs. Dmyr1 U-U Differentially Expressed Genes. **(E)** CytD U-I vs. CytD U-

U Differentially Expressed Genes. **(F)** Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I Differentially Expressed Genes.

(G) Dmyr1 U-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I Differentially Expressed Genes. **(H)** Wt I-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I

Differentially Expressed Genes. **(I)** Wt U-U vs. Mock Differentially Expressed Genes. **(J)**

Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock Differentially Expressed Genes. For (F) and (G), a gene is

designated as showing evidence of being acted upon by counterbalancing effectors

(indicated in the "Evidence of Effector Counterbalancing?" column) if it exhibits either: 1)

upregulation in one cell type and downregulation in the other compared to a common

Wt U-U standard, or 2) more upregulation or downregulation in Wt U-I cells compared to

the standard than in Wt I-I cells.

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Table S4: CCF2-AM correlation data for **(A)** Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I cells and **(B)** Dmyr1 I-I vs.

Wt I-I cells. A gene is designated as showing evidence of being acted upon by

counterbalancing effectors (indicated under the "Evidence of Effector

Counterbalancing?" column) if it exhibits either: 1) negative correlation with CCF2-AM in

one cell type and a positive CCF2-AM correlation in the other cell type, or 2) stronger

positive or negative correlations in Wt U-I cells than in Wt I-I cells.

Figure 1. Experimental pipeline. **(A)** Simplified illustration of effector secretion during early tachyzoite infection. Black curved arrows = modulation of host transcription, gray curved arrows = transitions through stages of lytic cycle, black jagged arrow = modulation without translocation to the nucleus, ROPs = rhoptry proteins, MIGs = MYR-independent dense granule proteins (GRAs), MDGs = MYR-dependent GRAs, MYR = putative translocation required for MDG penetration of host cytosol. **(B)** As a result of the events in (A), infected host cell monolayers produce infected-injected (I-I) cells when tachyzoite invasion proceeds as usual, uninfected-uninjected (U-U) bystander cells, and uninfected-injected (U-I) cells from aborted invasion after effector injection. **(C)** Pipeline to collect and analyze experimental conditions for single cell RNA sequencing. BLA = toxofilin-beta-lactamase ROP fusion protein, CCF2-AM = indicator dye that reveals injected (blue) vs. uninjected (green) cells. **(D)** FACS gating strategy to obtain mock-infected U-U, I-I, and U-I cells. **(E)** Proportion of injected (U-I + I-I) cells that are U-I. **(F)** Abundances of U-U, I-I, and U-I cells during FACS, expressed as percentages of cells from the Live/Mock gate from which they were sorted.

Wt I-I vs mock GSEA (2 hpi)

A)

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Identified at 6 hpi (Naor et al 2018)
Higher in Wt I-I	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.078	1.888	Yes
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.086	1.634	Yes
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.108	1.692	Yes
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.108	1.785	Yes
	ESTROGEN RESPONSE LATE	0.169	1.573	Yes
Higher in Mock	TGF BETA SIGNALING	0.199	-1.725	No
	UV RESPONSE DN	0.199	-1.594	Yes

Figure 2. Infection response recapitulates previously identified signatures of early infection. **(A)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Wt I-I and mock cells at 2 hpi (FDR < 0.1, FC > 1.5x) using the Hallmark gene sets from the Molecular Signatures Database. **(B)** GSEA as in (A) of the ranked differentially expressed genes between Wt I-I and mock cells at 3 hpi. FDR = false discovery rate and NES = normalized enrichment score. Gray cells indicate pathways common to those identified with FDR <10^{-5} in Naor et al 2018.

Wt I-I vs mock GSEA (3 hpi)

B)

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Identified at 6 hpi (Naor et al 2018)
Higher in Wt I-I	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.052	2.596	Yes
	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	0.052	2.065	Yes
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.052	2.062	Yes
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.052	1.997	Yes
	APOPTOSIS	0.059	1.85	Yes
	P53 PATHWAY	0.059	1.762	Yes
	IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING	0.071	1.803	Yes
	KRAS SIGNALING DN	0.089	1.703	Yes
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.103	1.729	Yes
	UV RESPONSE DN	0.148	1.669	Yes
	UV RESPONSE UP	0.159	1.565	Yes
	HEME METABOLISM	0.163	1.574	Yes
	MTORC1 SIGNALING	0.163	1.525	Yes
	MITOTIC SPINDLE	0.185	1.504	No
	E2F TARGETS	0.243	1.458	Yes
Higher in Mock	APICAL SURFACE	0.052	-1.636	No
	OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION	0.052	-2.191	No
	KRAS SIGNALING UP	0.154	-1.639	No
	COAGULATION	0.159	-1.592	No
	ANGIOGENESIS	0.159	-1.602	No
	MYOGENESIS	0.163	-1.638	Yes

A)

GSEA for Wt U-I vs. Wt U-U at 3 hpi

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Part of Infection Response?
Higher in Wt U-I	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.019	2.699	Yes
	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	0.019	2.483	Yes
	KRAS SIGNALING UP	0.019	2.113	No
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.019	2.021	Yes
	HYPOXIA	0.058	1.842	No
	IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING	0.06	1.823	Yes
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.06	1.809	Yes
	EPITHELIAL MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION	0.06	1.787	No
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.06	1.766	Yes
	P53 PATHWAY	0.064	1.74	Yes
	COMPLEMENT	0.142	1.578	No
	KRAS SIGNALING DN	0.121	1.541	Yes
	APICAL JUNCTION	0.159	1.524	No
	UV RESPONSE DN	0.192	1.491	Yes
Higher in Wt U-U	NOTCH SIGNALING	0.115	-1.323	No
	UNFOLDED PROTEIN RESPONSE	0.216	-1.416	No
	OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION	0.075	-1.771	Yes

B)

Figure 3. Host response to injected parasite effectors. **(A)** GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes (FDR < 0.1, fold change > 1.5x) between Wt U-I and Wt U-U cells at 3 hpi using the Hallmark gene sets. Green rows indicate gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Wt U-I than in Wt U-U, and red rows indicate gene sets enriched in genes expressed lower in Wt U-I than in Wt U-U. Gene sets are designated as part of the infection response if they were also found to be enriched from DEGs between Wt I-I vs. Mock at 2 hpi or 3 hpi. **(B)** GSEA as in (A) between various U-I cells (i.e., from the Wt, CytD, and Dmyr1 infection conditions) and their cognate U-U cells at 3 hpi. Gene sets in bold gray text were also found to be enriched in the infection response. Positive normalized enrichment scores represent enrichment in genes expressed higher in U-I cells than in U-U cells.

A)

B)

GSEA for Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I at 3 hpi

	Gene Set	FDR	NES
Higher in Wt U-I	EPITHELIAL MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION	0.050	2.029
	MYOGENESIS	0.050	1.893
	COMPLEMENT	0.054	1.854
	COAGULATION	0.092	1.736
	PI3K AKT MTOR SIGNALING	0.100	1.645
	BILE ACID METABOLISM	0.100	1.574
	XENOBIOTIC METABOLISM	0.198	1.505
	ANDROGEN RESPONSE	0.198	1.487
	KRAS SIGNALING DN	0.198	1.407
	ANGIOGENESIS	0.232	1.334
Higher in Wt I-I	UV RESPONSE UP	0.05	-2.165
	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.081	-1.855
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.092	-1.934
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.100	-1.847
	ESTROGEN RESPONSE EARLY	0.186	-1.593
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.186	-1.627
	ESTROGEN RESPONSE LATE	0.186	-1.636
	MITOTIC SPINDLE	0.232	-1.458

Figure 4. Comparison of host response to injection vs. infection (i.e., signatures in Wt U-I vs. Wt I-I cells.) **(A)** Scatterplot comparing injection-associated genes in Wt I-I cells and Wt U-I cells, as determined by the Spearman correlation of gene expression to the CCF2-AM ratio in Wt I-I and Wt U-I cells. Contours reflect density of points, with central contours being in the area of highest density. Labeled points on the plot are the top 20 genes with the lowest probability of belonging to a Gaussian model fit with parameters that best describe the observed Spearman correlation data. *Top panels*: Plots of genes at 2 hpi. *Bottom panels*: Plots of genes at 3 hpi. *Right panels*: Schematics demonstrating regions of the scatterplots where gene expression trends in Wt U-I cells are either enhanced or counterbalanced (repressed) upon parasite penetration and release of GRA effectors into the host cell (as seen in Wt I-I cells). **(B)** GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Wt U-I and Wt I-I cells at 3 hpi, where green rows denote gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Wt U-I cells than in Wt I-I cells and red rows represent genes expressed higher in Wt I-I than in Wt U-I. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score.

Cell Type	Impinging Parasite-Derived Stimuli				
Mock	-	-	-	-	-
Wt U-U	Paracrine (wild type)	-	-	-	-
Wt U-I	Paracrine (wild type)	ROPs	-	-	-
Wt I-I	Paracrine (wild type)	ROPs	MYR-independent GRAs	MYR-dependent GRAs	Internalized Parasite/PV
Dmyr1 U-U	Paracrine (mutant)	-	-	-	-
Dmyr1 U-I	Paracrine (mutant)	ROPs	-	-	-
Dmyr1 I-I	Paracrine (mutant)	ROPs	MYR-independent GRAs	-	Internalized Parasite/PV

Table 1. Parasite-derived stimuli (with an emphasis on effectors) to which cells from each experimental condition responds, according to the current model of effector secretion for *Toxoplasma* tachyzoites. ROPs = rhoptry proteins, GRAs = dense granule proteins, PV = parasitophorous vacuole. The "wild type" and "mutant" designations for paracrine effectors reflect potential differences in paracrine effectors from monolayers infected with wild type vs. *Δmyr1* parasites.

GSEA for Dmyr1 U-I vs. Dmyr1 I-I at 3 hpi

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Part of Infection Response?	Part of Injection Response?	Differentially Regulated between Wt I-I and Wt U-I?
Higher in Dmyr1 U-I	COMPLEMENT	0.203	1.427	No	No	Yes
	COAGULATION	0.203	1.427	Yes	No	Yes
	MTORC1 SIGNALING	0.214	1.542	No	No	No
	MYOGENESIS	0.217	1.404	Yes	No	Yes
Higher in Dmyr1 I-I	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.093	-1.900	Yes	Yes	Yes
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.126	-1.780	Yes	Yes	Yes
	UV RESPONSE UP	0.126	-1.806	Yes	No	Yes
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.135	-1.711	Yes	Yes	Yes
	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	0.135	-1.738	Yes	Yes	No
	UV RESPONSE DN	0.135	-1.770	Yes	Yes	No
	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.135	-1.830	Yes	Yes	Yes
	P53 PATHWAY	0.189	-1.626	Yes	Yes	No
	KRAS SIGNALING DN	0.203	-1.335	Yes	Yes	No
	ESTROGEN RESPONSE EARLY	0.221	-1.497	No	Yes?	Yes
	ANGIOGENESIS	0.242	-1.312	No	No	No

Figure 5. GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 U-I and Dmyr1 I-I cells at 3 hpi, which illustrates the impact of MYR-independent GRAs and parasite penetration on the host response to infection with *Toxoplasma*. Green rows denote gene sets enriched from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 U-I cells than in Dmyr1 I-I cells and red rows represent genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in Dmyr1 U-I cells. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score.

A)

GSEA for Dmyr1 I-I vs. Wt I-I at 3 hpi

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Identified at 6 hpi (Naor et al 2018)	Part of Infection Response	Part of Injection Response
Higher in Dmyr1 I-I	KRAS SIGNALING UP	0.079	2.223	No	No	Yes
	IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING	0.080	2.000	Yes	Yes	Yes
	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.080	1.917	Yes	Yes	Yes
	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	0.080	1.891	Yes	Yes	Yes
	ANGIOGENESIS	0.080	1.852	No	No	No
	PI3K AKT MTOR SIGNALING	0.080	1.826	No	No	No
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.080	1.821	Yes	Yes	Yes
	APOPTOSIS	0.119	1.710	Yes	Yes	No
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.083	1.706	Yes	Yes	Yes
	COMPLEMENT	0.153	1.589	No	No	Yes
	GLYCOLYSIS	0.169	1.563	No	No	No
	HYPOXIA	0.153	1.517	Yes	No	Yes
	WNT BETA CATENIN SIGNALING	0.080	1.516	No	No	No
	HEDGEHOG SIGNALING	0.169	1.511	No	No	No
	NOTCH SIGNALING	0.169	1.504	No	No	No
Higher in Wt I-I	MITOTIC SPINDLE	0.124	-1.635	Yes	No	No

B)

Figure 6. Impact of MYR-dependent GRAs and MYR-dependent paracrine effectors, as illustrated by comparing Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells. **(A)** GSEA of ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells at 3 hpi. Green rows denote enrichment from genes expressed higher in Dmyr1 I-I cells than in Wt I-I cells, and red rows represent enrichment from genes expressed higher in Wt I-I than in Wt U-I. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score. **(B)** Scatterplot comparing injection-associated genes in Dmyr1 I-I cells and Wt I-I cells, as determined by the Spearman correlation of gene expression to the CCF2-AM ratio in Dmyr1 I-I and Wt I-I cells. Contours reflect density of points, with central contours being in the area of highest density. Labeled points on the plot are the top 20 genes with the lowest probability of belonging to a Gaussian model fit with parameters that best describe the observed Spearman correlation data. *Top panels*: Plots of genes at 2 hpi. *Bottom panels*: Plots of genes at 3 hpi. *Right panels*: Schematics demonstrating regions of the scatterplots where gene expression trends in Dmyr1 I-I cells are either enhanced or counterbalanced (repressed) by MYR-dependent GRAs or paracrine effects (as seen in Wt I-I cells).

GSEA for Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock at 3 hpi

	Gene Set	FDR	NES	Part of Infection Response (sc)	Part of Infection Response (Naor et al 2018)	Part of Injection Response (sc)
Higher in Dmyr1 U-U than in Mock	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	0.012	2.557	Yes	Yes	Yes
	HYPOXIA	0.012	2.000	No	Yes	Yes
	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	0.012	2.070	Yes	Yes	Yes
	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	0.012	2.304	Yes	Yes	Yes
	P53 PATHWAY	0.012	2.100	Yes	Yes	Yes
	KRAS SIGNALING UP	0.012	2.143	Yes (downregulated)	Yes	Yes
	CHOLESTEROL HOMEOSTASIS	0.026	1.834	No	Yes	No
	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	0.026	1.783	Yes	Yes	Yes
	APOPTOSIS	0.029	1.790	Yes	Yes	No
	MTORC1 SIGNALING	0.029	1.741	Yes	Yes	No
	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	0.044	1.733	Yes	Yes	Yes
	XENOBIOTIC METABOLISM	0.046	1.726	No	Yes	No
	UV RESPONSE DN	0.046	1.682	Yes	Yes	Yes
	IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING	0.104	1.617	Yes	Yes	Yes
	GLYCOLYSIS	0.133	1.540	No	Yes	No
	ESTROGEN RESPONSE EARLY	0.164	1.487	No	Yes	No
	MYC TARGETS V2	0.164	1.533	No	Yes	No
	MYOGENESIS	0.192	1.483	Yes (downregulated)	Yes	No
	PI3K AKT MTOR SIGNALING	0.199	1.444	No	No	No
	UV RESPONSE UP	0.247	1.418	Yes	Yes	Yes

A)

B)

Expression of Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock DEGs across All Cells

Figure 7. Comparison of Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock cell types reveals impact of MYR-dependent paracrine effects on host cell transcription during *Toxoplasma* infection. **(A)** GSEA of the ranked list of differentially expressed genes between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock cells at 3 hpi. FDR = false discovery rate, NES = normalized enrichment score, and sc = the current single cell RNA-seq dataset. **(B)** Trends in expression of Dmyr1 U-U vs. Mock DEGs are preserved in U-I and I-I cells from Wt and Dmyr1 infections, as illustrated by strip plots depicting expression of DEGs between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock cells across all cell types. Each point represents a single cell, and its y-axis displacement reflects the average of the normalized expression scores for all DEGs between Dmyr1 U-U and Mock cells. The normalized expression score of a given gene is calculated by scaling the $\log_2$ count per median (cpm) for that gene, such that the cell with the lowest cpm receives a score of 0, and the cell with the highest cpm receives a score of 1.

Figure 8. Summary of host transcriptional response to parasite-dependent stimuli. **(A)** Bubble plot of parasite-dependent host transcriptional signatures at 3 hpi that depicts the behavior of 11 representative Hallmark gene sets from the Molecular Signatures Database (columns) across 8 key comparisons between experimental conditions (rows, indicated on left of each plot) that each encapsulates the impact of certain parasite-dependent stimuli on the 11 gene sets (indicated on right of each plot). Colors indicate normalized enrichment scores (NES) from GSEA of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between each comparison. FDR = false discovery rate, where FDR < 0.25 is considered significant (as is standard for GSEA). Parasite-dependent stimuli include ROPs = rhoptry proteins, MDGs = MYR-dependent dense granule proteins (GRAs), MIGs = MYR-independent GRAs, P = paracrine effects (where MD = MYR-dependent and MI = MYR-independent), and All = ROPs + MDGs + MIGs + Parasite penetration + P. **(B)** Bubble plot as in (A) where colors indicate $\log_2$ normalized fold change in expression of DEGs that fall under each comparison and each gene set. **(C)** Model of individual impacts of parasite-dependent stimuli on host transcription, which include immune pathways (e.g., TNFA Signaling via NFKB, IL6 JAK STAT3 Signaling, Inflammatory Response, IL2 STAT5 Signaling, Interferon Gamma Response, and Allograft Rejection), cellular stress (e.g, Hypoxia, Apoptosis), and cell proliferation-associated pathways (i.e., KRAS signaling, p53 pathway). Curved lines indicate modulation of host transcription, and jagged lines indicate modulation without effector translocation to the nucleus.

Figure S1. Human foreskin fibroblast (HFF) feeder cell debris contaminates the uninfected-injected (U-I) FACS gate. In all panels, a host cell monolayer is treated with either a parasite-free lysate of HFFs or RH Tfn-HA-BLA parasites syringe released from HFFs and then incubated with CCF2-AM to reveal (un)injected cells. *Left:* Infection with RH Tfn-HA-BLA reveals uninjected and injected cell populations. *Middle:* Mock "infection" with parasite-free lysate reveals HFF feeder cell debris contaminating the "injected" cell population. *Right:* Infection with parasite-free lysate that was washed to remove HFF debris reveals a reduction in contamination of the injected population.

A)

Figure S2. (A) Serum starvation for 24 h partially inhibits cell division of 10 T1/2 host cells, reducing the possibility of capturing U-I cells that arise from division of an infected host cell (U-Id cells) rather than from an aborted invasion event. Note that the S phase population in the bottom right panel (serum replete, infected cells) also contains G1 phase cells containing parasites, as parasite nuclear content enhances the propidium iodide signal in these cells. **(B)** Histogram depicting the number of infected host cells that divided at various times post-infection, as determined by live video microscopy footage of 200 serum starved 10 T1/2 cells for which the precise moment of infection was captured on camera. Of the 200 infected 10 T1/2 cells, 53 divided over a 16 hour time course, and none divided at earlier than 3.67 hours post-infection.

Figure S3. Quality control metrics for single cell RNA sequencing data. **(A)** Comparison of gene counts (number of genes for which reads from each cell mapped to the concatenated mouse-*Toxoplasma* genome, y-axis) and read sum (total reads, x-axis) for all experimental trials. Cells that passed quality control are indicated in color. **(B)** Percentages of total reads that mapped to open reading frames (ORFs) in the mouse-*Toxoplasma* concatenated genome. **(C)** *Top panel:* Linear regression modeling of measurement accuracy fitted on ERCC spike-ins with abundance above the detection limit. The text within each subplot denotes the coefficient of determination for the regression fit. *Bottom panel:* Logistic regression modeling of detection limit based on ERCC spike-ins. The 50% detection rate is indicated with a black dotted line, and the text within each subplot indicates the detection limit for each experiment in absolute molecular counts. **(D)** Linear regression fitted to scatterplot of average gene counts of differentially expressed genes for single cell RNA sequencing data (x-axis) vs. bulk RNA sequencing data (y-axis). Each point represents a DEG. Text within each subplot denotes the coefficient of determination (R^2) for the regression. **(E)** The coefficients of determination for linear regression lines fit to scatterplots as in (D) for all possible combinations of single vs. bulk RNAseq combinations.

Figure S4. Single cell resolution enables strategic partitioning of individual cells for downstream analysis. **(A)** Percentage of reads derived from *Toxoplasma* validates infection status of individual cells. Cells are scored as uninfected if left of the lower decision line (bold, dashed), infected if right of the upper decision line (dotted), and ambiguous if between the decision lines (cross-hatched section). **(B)** Principal component analysis (PCA) projection of cells based on 175 curated cell cycle markers and subsequent Leiden clustering enables partitioning of cells by predicted cell cycle states, G1 (green), S (gold), and G2/M (purple). **(C)** Proportion of cells from each experimental condition in each cell cycle phase. **(D)** Dimensionality reduction and projection of single cells using the *Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection* (UMAP) algorithm reveals 3 putative cell populations. All panels are reproduced copies of the same projection, each of which is color coded by specific parameters. *Left:* Louvain clusters, used to assign the cells to populations 1, 2, and 3; *middle:* cell cycle phase; *right (3 panels):* experimental trial (1 hpi, 2 hpi, and 3 hpi).

Figure S5. Construction and validation of RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Toxofilin-HA-beta-lactamase (RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA). **(A)** CRISPR/Cas9 strategy to construct RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA by disrupting parasite UPRT (blue) in parental strain RH *Δmyr1* mCherry. The parental strain was transfected with plasmid pSAG1::-Cas9-U6::sgUPRT (pink) and a linear amplicon containing Tfn-HA-BLA (purple) and flanked with 20 nucleotide homology arms to UPRT (blue). The region of UPRT complementary to the guide RNA, which also contains the site at which Cas9 cleaves, is in pink. **(B)** Western blot for the Tfn-HA-BLA construct in RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA. All lanes were obtained from the same gel. **(C)** Immunofluorescence assay (IFA) for colocalization of the Tfn-HA-BLA protein product and ROP2/3/4. **(D)** FACS analysis of 10 T1/2 cells infected with parasite-free lysate, RH Tfn-HA-BLA, and RH *Δmyr1* mCherry Tfn-HA-BLA. Cleavage of reporter dye CCF2-AM indicates injection of the Tfn-HA-BLA construct.

Figure S6. Effect of cytochalasin D treatment on the proportion of 10 T1/2 host cells that are U-I cells. **(A)** U-U and U-I cells that arise from Wt and CytD infections at 2 hpi. **(B)** U-U and U-I cells that arise from Wt and CytD infections at 3 hpi.