Differential contribution of two organelles of endosymbiotic origin to iron-sulfur cluster synthesis in Toxoplasma

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Abstract

Iron-sulfur (Fe-S) clusters are one of the most ancient and ubiquitous prosthetic groups, and they are required by a variety of proteins involved in important metabolic processes. Apicomplexan parasites have inherited different plastidic and mitochondrial Fe-S clusters biosynthesis pathways through endosymbiosis. We have investigated the relative contributions of these pathways to the fitness of *Toxoplasma gondii*, an apicomplexan parasite causing disease in humans, by generating specific mutants. Phenotypic analysis and quantitative proteomics allowed us to highlight striking differences in these mutants. Both Fe-S cluster synthesis pathways are necessary for optimal parasite growth in vitro, but their disruption leads to markedly different fates: impairment of the plastidic pathway leads to a loss of the organelle and to parasite death, while disruption of the mitochondrial pathway trigger differentiation into a stress resistance stage. This highlights that otherwise similar biochemical pathways hosted by different sub-cellular compartments can have very different contributions to the biology of the parasites, which is something to consider when exploring novel strategies for therapeutic intervention.

Keywords: iron sulfur cluster, Toxoplasma, differentiation, bradyzoite, apicoplast, mitochondrion

Introduction

Endosymbiotic events were crucial in the evolutionary timeline of eukaryotic cells. Mitochondria and plastids evolved from free-living prokaryotes that were taken up by early eukaryotic ancestors and transformed into permanent subcellular compartments that have become essential for harnessing energy or synthesizing essential metabolites in present-day eukaryotes (1). As semiautonomous organelles, they contain a small genome, but during the course of evolution a considerable part of their genes have been transferred to the cell nucleus. Yet, they rely largely on nuclear factors for their maintenance and expression. Both organelles are involved in critically important biochemical processes. Mitochondria, which are found in most eukaryotic organisms, are mostly known as the powerhouses of the cell, owing to their ability to produce ATP through respiration. Importantly, they are also involved in several other metabolic pathways (2), including the synthesis of heme groups, steroids, amino acids, and iron-sulphur (Fe-S) clusters. Moreover, they have important cellular functions in regulating redox and calcium homeostasis. Similarly, plastids that are found in plants, algae and some other eukaryotic organisms host a diverse array of pathways that contribute greatly

to the cellular metabolism (3). While often identified mainly as compartments where photosynthesis

occurs, plastids host many more metabolic pathways. For example, they are involved in the

assimilation of nitrogen and sulfur, as well as the synthesis of carbohydrates, amino acids, fatty acids

and specific lipids, hormone precursors, and also Fe-S clusters. The best-characterized plastid is

arguably the plant cell chloroplast, but not all plastids have photosynthetic function, and in higher

plants they are in fact a diverse group of organelles that share basal metabolic pathways, but also

have specific physiological roles (4). As documented in plants, although mitochondria and plastids are

highly compartmentalized (5), they have metabolic exchanges and cooperate in the context of

several important metabolic pathways (6).

The phylum Apicomplexa comprises a large number of single-celled protozoan parasites responsible

for cause serious disease in animals and humans. For example, this phylum includes parasites of the

genus *Plasmodium* that are responsible for the deadly malaria, and *Toxoplasma gondii* a ubiquitous

parasite that can lead to a severe pathology in immunocompromised individuals. Apicomplexan

parasites evolved from a photosynthetic ancestor and many of them still retain a plastid (7, 8). This

plastid, named the apicoplast, originated from a secondary endosymbiotic event: the eukaryotic

ancestor of Apicomplexa engulfed and retained a eukaryotic alga that was already containing a

plastid obtained by primary endosymbiosis of a cyanobacterium-like prokaryote (9, 10). It has lost its

photosynthetic properties as the ancestors of Apicomplexa switched to an intracellular parasitic

lifestyle (11). The apicoplast nevertheless still hosts four main metabolic pathways (12, 13): a 2-C-

methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate/1-deoxy-d-xylulose 5-phosphate (MEP/DOXP) pathway for the

synthesis of isoprenoid precursors, a type II fatty acid synthesis pathway (FASII), part of the heme

synthesis pathway, and a Fe-S cluster synthesis pathway. As the apicoplast is involved in these vital

biological processes for the parasite, and as they markedly differ from those of the host (because of

their algal origin), that makes it a valuable potential drug target. Apicomplexan parasites also

generally contain a single tubular mitochondrion, although its aspect may vary during parasite

development (14, 15). The organelle is an important contributor to the parasites metabolic needs

(16). It classically hosts tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle reactions, which are the main source of

electrons that feeds the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) and generate a proton gradient

used for ATP production. It also contains additional metabolic pathways, like a Fe-S cluster synthesis

pathway and part of the heme synthesis pathway operating in collaboration with the apicoplast. The

latter reflects obvious functional links between the organelles and potential metabolic interactions,

which is also illustrated by their physical connection during parasite development (17, 18). Because

of their endosymbiotic origin, these organelles offer possibilities for intervention against

Apicomplexa and are currently the target of treatments (19). For instance, as their protein synthesis

machinery is bacterial in nature, both may therefore be a target of bacterial translation inhibitors

such as azithromycin, spiramycin or clindamycin (20). However, current evidence suggests that the

apicoplast is the primary target of these drugs. The mitochondrion, on the other hand, is an

important drug target through the ETC it harbours, which is inhibited by drugs such as atovaquone

(21).

Fe-S clusters are simple and ubiquitous cofactors involved in a great variety of cellular processes. As

their name implies, they are composed of iron and inorganic sulfur whose chemical properties confer

key structural or electron transfer features to proteins in all kingdoms of life. They are important to

the activities of numerous proteins that play essential roles to sustain fundamental life processes

including, in addition to electron transfer and exchange, iron storage, protein folding,

oxygen/nitrogen stress sensing, and gene regulation (22). The synthesis of Fe-S clusters and their

insertion into apoproteins requires complex machineries and several distinct pathways have been

identified in bacteria for synthesizing these ancient cofactors (23). They include the ISC (iron sulfur
cluster) pathway for general Fe–S cluster assembly (24), and the SUF (sulfur formation) pathway (25)
that is potentially activated in oxidative stress conditions (26). Eukaryotes have inherited machineries
for synthesizing Fe-S cluster through their endosymbionts (27). As a result, organisms with both
mitochondria and plastids, like higher plants, use the ISC pathway for assembling Fe-S clusters in the
mitochondria and the SUF pathway for Fe-S clusters in the plastids (28). Additional protein
components that constitute a cytosolic Fe-S cluster assembly machinery (CIA) have also been
identified: this pathway is important for the generation of cytosolic, but also of nuclear Fe-S proteins,
and is highly dependent on the ISC mitochondrial pathway for providing a sulfur-containing precursor
(29).

Like in plants and algae, apicoplast-containing Apicomplexa seem to harbour the three ISC, SUF and
CIA Fe-S cluster synthesis pathways. Although the CIA pathway was recently shown to be important
for *Toxoplasma* fitness (30), investigations in apicomplexan parasites have been so far almost
exclusively focused on the apicoplast-located SUF pathway (31–35) and mostly in *Plasmodium*
species. The SUF pathway was shown to be essential for the viability of malaria parasites during both
the erythrocytic and sexual stages of development and has thus been recognized as a putative
avenue for discovering new antiparasitic drug targets (reviewed in (36)). Contrarily to the ISC
pathway, which is also present the mammalian hosts of apicomplexan parasites, the SUF pathway
may indeed yield interesting specificities that may be leveraged for therapeutic intervention.
However, very little is known about Fe-S clusters synthesis in other apicomplexan parasites, including
T. gondii. For instance, out of the four known metabolic pathways hosted by the apicoplast, Fe-S
synthesis was the only one remaining to be functionally investigated in *T. gondii*, while the others
were all shown to be essential for the tachyzoite stage of the parasite (a fast replicating
developmental stage responsible for the symptoms of the disease) (37–40). Here, we present the
characterization of two *T. gondii* mutants we generated to specifically impact the plastidic and
mitochondrial SUF and ISC pathways, respectively. Our goal was to assess the relative contributions
of these compartmentalized pathways to the parasite development and fitness.

Results

TgSufS and TgIscU are functional homologs of components of the plastidic and mitochondrial iron
sulfur cluster synthesis pathways

Fe-S cluster biosynthesis pathways in the mitochondrion and the plastid follow a similar general
pattern: cysteine desulfurases (IscS, SufS) produce sulfur from L-cysteine, scaffold proteins (IscU,
SufB/C/D) provide a molecular platform allowing iron and sulfur to meet and form a cluster, and
finally carrier proteins (like IscA or SufA) deliver the cluster to target apoproteins (28). The cytosolic
CIA pathway, which is responsible for the de novo formation of Fe-S clusters to be incorporated in
cytosolic and nuclear proteins, is dependent on the ISC pathway, as its first step requires the import
of a yet unknown sulfur-containing precursor that is translocated to the cytosol from the
mitochondrion (29). To get a general overview of the predicted components for the Fe-S cluster
machinery in *T. gondii*, we conducted homology searches in the ToxoDB.org database (41), using
well-characterized proteins from plants (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) belonging to the SUF, ISC and CIA
pathways (Table S1). Data from global mapping of protein subcellular location by HyperLOPIT spatial
proteomics (42) was in general in good accordance with the expected localization of the homologs
(with the noticeable exception of members of the NBP35/HCF101 ATP-binding proteins). Overall, our
search revealed that *T. gondii* appeared to have a good conservation of all the main components of

the three ISC, SUF and CIA Fe-S synthesis pathways (Table S1, Figure 1A). Additional information
available on ToxoDB.org such as scores from a CRISPR/Cas9-based genome-wide screening (43),
highlighted that most components of the three pathways are important for parasite fitness. This
suggests several apoproteins localizing to the endosymbiotic organelles, but also the cytosol/nucleus,
are essential for the optimal growth of tachyzoites.

In order to verify this, we decided to generate mutants of the apicoplast-localized SUF pathway and
of the mitochondrion-localized ISC pathway in *T. gondii* tachyzoites. To this end, we targeted the SufS
and IscU homologs, which are both central (and presumably essential) to their respective pathways
(Figure 1A). We first sought to verify TgSufS (TGGT1_216170) and TgIscU (TGGT1_237560) were real
functional homologs by performing complementation assays of bacterial mutants. Expression of the
predicted functional domains of TgSufS and TgIscU in the respective *Escherichia coli* mutants
improved bacterial growth in the presence of an iron chelator or not (Figure 1B). This suggests TgSufS
and TgIscU, in addition to a good sequence homology with their bacterial homologues (Figure S1),
have a conserved function.

We next determined the sub-cellular localizations of TgSufS and TgIscU by epitope tagging of the
native proteins. This was achieved in the TATi ΔKu80 cell line, which favors homologous
recombination and would allow transactivation of a Tet operator-modified promoter we would later
use for generating a conditional mutant in this background (44–46). A sequence coding for a C-
terminal triple hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag was inserted at the endogenous *TgSufS* or *TgIscU*
locus by homologous recombination (Figure S2). Using the anti-HA antibody, by immunoblot we
detected two products for each protein (Figure 2A, B), likely corresponding to their immature and
mature forms (ie after cleavage of the transit peptide upon import into the organelle). Accordingly,
the analysis of TgSufS and TgIscU sequences with several subcellular localization and N-terminal
sorting signals site predictors confirmed they likely contained sequences for plastidic and
mitochondrial targeting (47), respectively, although no consensus position of the exact cleavage sites
could be determined. Immunofluorescence assay (IFA) in *T. gondii* tachyzoites confirmed HA-tagged
TgSufS and TgIscU co-localized with markers of the apicoplast and the mitochondrion, respectively
(Figure 2C, D).

SufS is a cysteine desulfurase whose activity is enhanced by an interaction with the SufE protein (48).
Similarly to plants that express several SufE homologues (49), there are two putative SufE-like
proteins in *T. gondii* (Table S1), one of which was already predicted to reside in the apicoplast by
hyperLOPIT (TgSufE1, TGGT1_239320). We generated a cell line expressing an HA-tagged version of
the other, TgSufE2 (TGGT1_277010, Figure S3A, B, C), whose localization was previously unknown.
Like for TgSufS, several programs predicted a plastidic transit peptide, which was confirmed by
immunoblot analysis (detecting TgSufE2 immature and mature forms, Figure S3D). IFA showed
TgSufE2 co-localized with an apicoplast marker (Figure S3E). This further confirms that the initial
steps of Fe-S cluster biogenesis in the apicoplast are likely functionally-conserved.

Disruption of either the plastidic or the mitochondrial Fe-S cluster pathway has a profound impact
on parasite growth

In order to get insights into plastidic and mitochondrial Fe-S biogenesis, we generated conditional
mutant cell lines in the TgSufS-HA or TgIscU-HA-expressing TATi ΔKu80 background (46).
Replacement of the endogenous promoters by an inducible-Tet07*SAG4* promoter, through a single
homologous recombination at the loci of interest (Figure S4), yielded conditional TgSufS and TgIscU
conditional knock-down cell lines (cKD TgSufS-HA and cKD TgIscU-HA, respectively). In these cell

lines, the addition of anhydrotetracycline (ATc) can repress transcription through a Tet-Off system
(50). For each cKD cell line several transgenic clones were obtained and found to behave similarly in
the initial phenotypic assays we performed, so only one was further analyzed. Transgenic parasites
were grown for various periods of time in presence of ATc, and protein down-regulation was
evaluated. Immunoblot and IFA analyses of cKD TgSufS-HA and cKD TgIscU-HA parasites showed that
the addition of ATc efficiently down-regulated the expression of TgSufS (Figure 3A, C) and TgIscU
(Figure 3B, D), and most of the proteins were undetectable after two days of incubation.

We also generated complemented cell lines expressing constitutively an additional copy of *TgSufS*
and *TgIscU* from the *uracil phosphoribosyltransferase* (*UPRT*) locus from a *tubulin* promoter in their
respective conditional mutant backgrounds (Figure S5A, B). We confirmed by semi-quantitative RT-
PCR (Figure S5C) that the transcription of *TgSufS* and *TgIscU* qenes was effectively repressed in the
cKD cell lines upon addition of ATc, whereas the corresponding complemented cell lines exhibited a
high transcription level regardless of ATc addition (due to the expression from the strong *tubulin*
promoter).

We next evaluated the consequences of TgSufS and TgIscU depletion on *T. gondii* growth in vitro.
First, to assess the impact on the parasite lytic cycle, the capacity of the mutants and complemented
parasites to produce lysis plaques was analyzed on a host cells monolayer in absence or continuous
presence of ATc for 7 days (Figure 4A, B). Depletion of both proteins completely prevented plaque
formation, which was restored in the complemented cell lines. To assess whether this defect in the
lytic cycle is due to a replication problem, all cell lines were preincubated in ATc for 48 hours and
released mechanically, before infecting new host cells and growing them for an additional 24 hours
in ATc prior to parasite counting. We noted that incubation with ATc led to an accumulation of
vacuoles with fewer parasites, yet that was not the case in the complemented cell lines (Figure 4C,
D). Overall, these data show that either TgSufS or TgIscU depletion impacts parasite growth.

Then, we sought to assess if the viability of the mutant parasites was irreversibly affected. We thus
performed a similar experiment, but at the end of the 7-day incubation, we washed out the ATc,
incubated the parasites for an extra 4 days in the absence of the drug and evaluated plaque
formation (Figure 4E). In these conditions, while cKD TgSufS-HA parasites displayed very few and very
small plaques suggesting their viability was irreversibly impacted, cKD TgIscU-HA parasites showed
considerable plaque numbers. However, comparing plaque number between the 7-day and 4-day
washout conditions in wells were the same initial dose of cKD TgIscU-HA parasites was added, we
could determine that only 28%±2% of plaques were formed after ATc removal (*n*=3 independent
biological replicates), suggesting some mortality.

We performed IFAs to assess possible morphological defects that may explain the impaired growths
of cKD TgSufS-HA and cKD TgIscU-HA parasites. We stained the apicoplast and mitochondrion of
parasites kept in the continuous presence of ATc for several days. cKD TgSufS-HA parasites managed
to grow and egress after three days and were seeded onto new host cells, where there were kept for
two more days in the presence of ATc. During this second phase of intracellular development, and in
accordance with the replication assays (Figure 4C), growth was slowed down considerably. Strikingly,
while the mitochondrial network seemed normal, we noticed a progressive loss of the apicoplast
(Figure 5A), which was quantified (Figure 5B). The growth kinetics we observed for this mutant are
consistent with the "delayed death" effect observed in apicoplast-defective parasites (8, 51, 52). On
the other hand, we were able to grow cKD TgIscU-HA parasites for five days of continuous culture:
they developed large vacuoles and showed little sign of egress from the host cells (Figure 5C). Both
the mitochondrion and the apicoplast appeared otherwise normal morphologically. These large
vacuoles could reflect a default in the egress of parasites during the lytic cycle (53). We thus

performed an egress assay on cKD TgIscU-HA parasites that were kept for up to five days in the
presence of ATc, and they were able to egress normally upon addition of a calcium ionophore (Figure
5D). These large vacuoles are also reminiscent of cyst-like structures (54), so alternatively this may
reflect spontaneous stage conversion. Cysts are intracellular structures that contain the slow-growing
form of *T. gondii*, called the bradyzoite stage (which is responsible for the chronic phase of the
disease), and they may appear even during in vitro growth in particular stress conditions (55).

In any case, our data show that interfering with the plastidial and mitochondrial Fe-S protein
pathways both had important consequences on parasite growth, but had a markedly different impact
at a cellular level.

Use of label-free quantitative proteomics to identify pathways affected by TgSufS or TgIscU
depletion

There is a wide variety of eukaryotic cellular processes that are depending on Fe-S cluster proteins.
To get an overview of the potential *T. gondii* Fe-S proteome, we used a computational tool able to
predict metal-binding sites in protein sequences (56) and performed subsequent manual curation to
refine the annotation. We identified 64 proteins encompassing various cellular functions or
metabolic pathways that included, beyond the Fe-S synthesis machinery itself, several DNA and RNA
polymerases, proteins involved in redox control and electron transfer and radical S-
adenosylmethionine (SAM) enzymes involved in methylation and methylthiolation (Table S2).
HyperLOPIT data or manual curation helped us assign a putative localization for these canditates. A
considerable proportion (19%) of these were predicted to localize to the nucleus, where many
eukaryotic Fe-S proteins are known to be involved in DNA replication and repair (57). Yet, strikingly,
most of the predicted Fe-S proteins likely localize to the endosymbiotic organelles. Several (19%) are
predicted to be apicoplast-resident proteins, including radical SAM enzymes lipoate synthase (LipA)
(58) and the MiaB tRNA modification enzyme (59), as well as the IspG and IspH oxidoreductases of
the MEP pathway (60). Finally, for the most part (43%) candidate Fe-S proteins were predicted to be
mitochondrial, with noticeably several important proteins of the respiratory chain (Fe-S subunit of
the succinate dehydrogenase complex, Rieske protein and TgApiCox13) (61–63), but also enzymes
involved in other metabolic pathways such as heme or molybdopterin synthesis. CRISPR/Cas9 fitness
scores (43) confirmed many of these putative Fe-S proteins likely support essential functions for
parasite growth.

We sought to confirm these results experimentally. Thus, in order to uncover the pathways primarily
affected by the depletion of TgIscU and TgSufS, and to identify potential Fe-S protein targets, we
conducted global label free quantitative proteomic analyses. Like most plastidic or mitochondrial
proteins, candidate Fe-S acceptors residing in these organelles are nuclear-encoded and thus need to
be imported after translation and have to be unfolded to reach the stroma of the organelle. This not
only implies the addition of the Fe-S cofactor should happen locally in the organelle, but also that this
may have a role in proper folding of these proteins. We thus assumed that disrupting a specific
pathway may have a direct effect on the stability and expression levels of local Fe-S proteins. Cellular
downstream pathways or functions may also be affected, while other pathways may be upregulated
in compensation. Parasites were treated for two days with ATc (TgIscU-HA) or three days (cKD
TgSufS-HA, as it takes slightly longer to be depleted, Figure 3A) prior to a global proteomic analysis
comparing protein expression with the ATc-treated TATi ΔKu80 control. For each mutant, we
selected candidates with a log2(fold change) ≤-0.55 or ≥0.55 (corresponding to a ~1.47 fold change in
decreased or increased expression) and a p-value <0.05 (ANOVA, *n*=4 biological replicates) (Tables S3

and S4, Figure 6A). To get a more exhaustive overview of proteins whose amounts varied drastically,
we completed this dataset by selecting some candidates that were consistently and specifically
absent from the mutant cell lines or only expressed in these (Tables S3 and S4).

Overall, depletion of TgIscU led to a higher variability in protein expression and while the pattern of
expression was essentially specific for the respective mutants, a number of shared variant proteins
were found (Figure 6B, Table S5). For instance, common lower expressed candidates include a SAM
synthase, possibly reflecting a general perturbation of SAM biosynthesis upon loss of function of Fe-
S-containing radical SAM enzymes (64). Using dedicated expression data (65, 66) available on
ToxoDB.org we realized that, strikingly, many of the common variant proteins were stage-specific
proteins (Table S5). For instance, the protein whose expression went down the most is SAG-related
sequence (SRS) 19F. The SRS family contains GPI-anchored surface antigens related to SAG1, the first
characterized _T. gondii_ surface antigen, and whose expression is largely stage-specific (67). This
protein, SRS19F is expressed in bradyzoites, but may be most highly expressed in stages present in
the definitive host (66, 68). Conversely, SRS44, also known as CST1 and one of the earliest marker of
stage conversion to bradyzoites (69), was upregulated in both mutants. Several other bradyzoite
proteins whose expression increased included Ank1, a tetratricopeptide-repeat protein highly
upregulated in the cyst-stages but not necessary for stage conversion (70), aspartyl protease ASP1,
an α-galactosidase, as well as several dense granule proteins (GRA). Dense granules are specialized
organelles that secrete GRA proteins that are known to participate in nutrient acquisition, immune
evasion, and host cell-cycle manipulation. Many GRA have been characterized in the tachyzoite
stage, but several stage-specific and expressed in bradyzoites (71). It should be noted that
bradyzoite-specific proteins were generally much strongly expressed upon TgIscU depletion than
TgSufS depletion. Nevertheless, altogether these results show that altering either the plastidic or the
mitochondrial Fe-S cluster synthesis pathway led to an initial activation of the expression of some
markers of the bradyzoite stage, whose involvement in the stress-mediated response is well
documented (55).

Depletion of TgSufS has an impact on the apicoplast, but also beyond the organelle

We next focused on proteins that varied upon depletion of TgSufS (Table S3). Using the hyperLOPIT
data available on ToxoDB.org, we assessed the putative localization of the candidates (Figure 7A) and
we also defined putative functional classes based on manual curation (Figure 7B). Surprisingly, few
apicoplast proteins were impacted. This could reflect a limited impact on apicoplast Fe-S
apoproteins, but this is in contradiction with the strong and specific effect we see on the organelle in
the absence of TgSufS (Figure 5A, B). There might also be a bias due to an overall low protein
abundance: less than half of the apicoplast candidates of the predicted Fe-S proteome (Table S2)
were robustly detected even in the control for instance, including our target protein SufS. Finally, of
course it is possible that depletion of Fe-S clusters, while impacting the functionality of target
proteins, did not have a considerable effect on their abundance. We sought to verify this for
apicoplast stroma-localized LipA, a well-established and evolutionarily-conserved Fe-S cluster
protein, which was found to be only marginally less expressed in our analysis (Table S3). LipA is
responsible for the lipoylation of a single apicoplast target protein, the E2 subunit of the pyruvate
dehydrogenase (PDH) (37). Using an anti-lipoic acid antibody on cKD TgSufS-HA protein extracts, we
could already see a marked decrease in lipoylated PDH-E2 after only one day of ATc incubation
(Figure 7C). This was not due to a general demise of the apicoplast as it considerably earlier than the
observed loss of the organelle (Figure 5A, B), and levels of the CPN60 apicoplast marker were clearly

not as markedly impacted (Figure 7C). This finding confirmed apicoplast Fe-S-dependent activities are
specifically affected in our mutant, before observing the general demise and loss of the organelle.

Other potential apicoplast Fe-S cluster-containing proteins include IspG and IspH, key enzymes of the
MEP isoprenoid synthesis pathway (60). Again, these proteins were only found marginally less
expressed in our quantitative analysis, yet our proteomics dataset provided indirect clues that their
function may be impacted. Isoprenoids precursors can be used as lipophilic groups to modify
proteins, but may also be incorporated into lipids like ubiquinone, which is an important
polyprenylated cofactor of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Quite strikingly, a single predicted
mitochondrial candidate was significantly less expressed upon TgSufS depletion and is homolog of
the UbiE/COQ5 methyltransferase, which is involved in ubiquinone synthesis (72). Isoprenoids are
also important for dolichol-derived protein glycosylation and glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-
anchor biosynthesis. That may account for effects of TgSufS depletion on specific proteins. For
instance, the three potentially rhoptry-localized candidates significantly less expressed (Table S3) are
predicted to be GPI-anchored and/or glycosylated. Overall, this might be an indication that TgSufS
depletion impacts isoprenoid synthesis in the apicoplast, which in turn would impact other metabolic
pathways.

There were additional indications that TgSufS depletion has consequences beyond apicoplast
metabolism, as we noticed clear variations in other proteins residing in other subcellular
compartments. For instance, changes in expression of stage-specific GRA and SRS proteins reflecting,
as mentioned before, a possible initiation of stage conversion to bradyzoites. Interestingly, the higher
expression of Golgi apparatus/plasma membrane transporters or endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-located
lipid-related enzymes suggest some sort of metabolic adaptation occurs upon depletion of TgSufS
(Figure 7A, B). The apicoplast and the ER cooperate for fatty acid (FA) and phospholipid (PL) synthesis
(73). The apicoplast generates short FA chains through the FASII system, but also lysophosphatidic
acid (LPA) as a PL precursor (74), and FA chains can then be further modified by ER-localized enzymes
that include elongases. Yet, these the ER-localized PL-synthesis machinery can also use FA scavenged
from the host (75). The increased expression of ER-localized lipid-related enzymes may thus reflect
an increased synthesis, potentially from exogenous lipid precursors, in compensation from a defect
in the apicoplast-localized machinery. Overall, this suggests impacting the Fe-S cluster synthesis
pathway in the apicoplast had important metabolic consequences beyond the organelle itself.

Depletion of TgIscU impacts the respiratory capacity of the mitochondrion and leads to stage
conversion

We also analyzed the proteins whose abundance changed upon TgIscU depletion (Table S4). Again,
we used hyperLOPIT data to determine the localization of variant proteins (Figure 8A) and we also
inferred their potential function from GO terms or manual curation (Figure 8B). Depletion of TgIscU
had a notable impact locally, as numerous mitochondrial proteins were found in lower abundance.
Remarkably, most of these proteins were identified as members of the mitochondrial respiratory
chain. This ETC comprises five complexes, in which several Fe-S proteins have important function. As
mentioned earlier, they include the iron-sulfur subunit of the succinate dehydrogenase complex
(complex II), the Rieske protein (part of complex III, with cytochrome *b* and *c*1) and TgApiCox13 (part
of complex IV, the cytochrome *c* oxidase) (61–63). Not only these three Fe-S cluster proteins were
found to be less expressed upon TgIscU depletion, but most components of the complexes III and IV
(including recently characterized parasite-specific subunits (62, 63)) were also significantly less
abundant (Table S4). This suggested the mitochondrial membrane potential and consequently the

respiratory capacity of the mitochondrion were likely altered in the absence of a functional
mitochondrial Fe-S cluster synthesis pathway. To verify this, we performed flow cytometry
quantification using JC-1, a monomeric green fluorescent carbocyanine dye that accumulates as a red
fluorescent aggregates in mitochondria depending on their membrane potential (Figure 9A).
Depletion of TgIscU led to a marked decrease of the parasite population displaying a strong red signal
(Figure 9B). The effect was maximal after two days of ATc treatment and not further increased by a
four-day treatment, which is consistent with the quantitative proteomics data already showing
strong impact on proteins from complexes II, III and IV after only two days of ATc treatment.
Concomitantly to the lesser expression of mitochondrial respiratory chain subunits, the proteomics
analysis revealed TgIscU depletion induced a significant increase in cytosolic enzymes involved in
glycolysis, as well as its branching off pentose phosphate pathway (Figure 8A, B, Table S4). The
upregulation of glycolytic enzymes potentially reflects a metabolic compensation for mitochondrial
defects in energy production due to the impairment of the respiratory chain. Other proteins whose
abundance was markedly decreased were predicted to cytoplasmic or nuclear, which is perhaps
unsurprising as the cytosolic CIA Fe-S cluster assembly pathway is supposedly dependent from the
SUF pathway (29). The changes in abundance of several RNA-binding proteins involved in mRNA half-
life or transcription/translation regulation may also reflect adaptation to a stress.

Indeed, another feature highlighted by the quantitative proteomics analysis of the TgIscU mutant is
the change in the expression of stage-specific proteins (Table S4). The expression of several
bradyzoite-specific including GRAs and proteins of the SRS family, was strongly increased. At the
same time, some tachyzoite-specific SRS and GRA proteins were found to be less expressed. This was
supporting the idea that intracellularly developing parasites lacking TgIscU may convert into bona
fide cyst-contained bradyzoites, as suggested by our initial morphological observations (Figure 5C).
To verify this, we used a lectin from the plant *Dolichos biflorus*, which recognizes the SRS44/CST1
glycoprotein that is exported to the wall of differentiating cysts (69). We could see that during
continuous growth of cKD TgIscU-HA parasites in the presence of ATc, there was an increasing
number of DBL-positive structures (Figure 10A). This was quantified during the first 48 hours of
intracellular development (Figure 10B) and, interestingly, was shown to mimic the differentiation
induced by nitric oxide, a known factor of stage conversion (76), and a potent damaging agent of Fe-S
clusters (77). We combined RNAseq expression data for tachyzoite and bradyzoite stages (66) to
establish a hierarchical clustering of the SRS proteins detected in our quantitative proteomics
experiments for the two mutants (Figure 10C). This clearly confirmed a strong increase in the
expression of bradyzoite-specific SRS in the TgIscU mutant. As mentioned earlier, some were also
upregulated in the TgSufS mutant but in much lesser proportions. The strongest increase in
bradyzoite-specific SRS expression upon TgSufS depletion was for SRS44/CST1, which happens to be
the protein DBL preferentially binds to (69). However, contrarily to the TgIscU mutant, labelling
experiments did not indicate any detectable increase in DBL recruitment in the TgSufS mutant (Figure
10B), confirming that impairing the plastidic Fe-S center synthesis pathway does not trigger full stage
conversion in this cell line. Stage conversion is a progressive process that happens over the course of
several days, as it involves the expression of distinct transcriptomes and proteomes (55). Markers for
specific steps of in vitro cyst formation had been previously described (78), so we have used several
of these to check the kinetics of stage conversion in the TgIscU-depleted parasites. We kept the cKD
TgIscU-HA parasites for up to 20 days in the presence of ATc and tested for the presence of SAG1
(tachyzoite maker), DBL (early bradyzoite marker), P18/SAG4 (intermediate bradyzoite marker) and
P21 (late bradyzoite marker) (Figure 10D). After 7 days of ATc treatment, the DBL-positive cyst
contained parasites were still expressing SAG1 and not yet SAG4, whereas after 20 days parasites
with SAG4 labelling were found, but there was still a residual SAG1 expression; expression of late

marker P21 was, however, never detected. This suggests stage conversion of these parasites
progresses beyond the appearance of early cyst wall markers, but not only it does so with slow
kinetics, but it seems incomplete. In fact, observation of DBL-positive cysts showed a marked
decrease in their mean size between the 7 and 20 days timepoints (Figure 10D). This suggests
incomplete conversion may be leading to subsequent reactivation/reinvasion events. There is also
possibly a lack of fitness in the long term for the TgIscU-depleted converting parasites, which would
be in accordance with our plaque assays that showed not all mutant parasites were able to grow
back upon ATc removal.

Discussion

Because of their origin and metabolic importance, the two apicomplexan endosymbiotic organelles
have gathered considerable interest as potential drug targets (79, 80). It may be obvious as for
example the plastid hosts several metabolic pathways which are not present in the mammalian hosts
of these parasites. Yet, even for conserved housekeeping functions or, in the case of the
mitochondrion early phylogenetic divergence, may still provide enough molecular differences to
allow selective chemical inhibition. In fact, several drugs used for prophylactic or curative treatments
against Apicomplexa-caused diseases are already targeting these organelles. They are essentially
impacting the organellar protein synthesis by acting on the translation machinery (81), although the
mitochondrial respiratory chain inhibitor atovaquone is also used to treat malaria and toxoplasmosis
(82). One main difference when targeting *Plasmodium* and *Toxoplasma* by drugs is that the latter
easily converts into the encysted bradyzoite resistance form. It has been known for some time that
treatment of tachyzoites with mitochondrial inhibitors triggers stage conversion (76, 83, 84). This
may be efficient to counteract the acute phase of toxoplasmosis, but at the same time may favour
persistence of the parasites in the host.

Here we characterized pathways which are very similar biochemically, but are located into two
distinct endosymbiotic organelles and whose inactivation has drastically different effects on the
parasites. Fe-S clusters are ancient, ubiquitous and fundamental to many cellular functions, but their
synthesis by distinct biosynthetic pathways was inherited by specific endosymbiotic organelles
through distinct bacterial ancestors, and have thus specialized into adding these cofactors to
different client proteins (27). A key function of Fe-S clusters, owing to their mid-range redox
potential, is electron transfer and redox reactions, mainly as components the respiratory and
photosynthetic electron transfer chains. They also have important functions in stabilizing proteins,
redox sensing, or catalysis through SAM enzymes. Several of these are not retained in Apicomplexa,
whose plastid has lost its photosynthetic ability for example. Nevertheless, our prediction of the *T.*
gondii Fe-S proteins repertoire suggests many key functions associated with the apicoplast or the
mitochondrion are likely to be affected by a perturbation of Fe-S assembly (Table S2).

For the apicoplast, these include lipoic acid or isoprenoid synthesis. Inactivation of the apicoplast-
located TgSufS had a marked effect on the organelle itself, as it led ultimately to a loss of the
apicoplast, which is consistent with the phenotype observed when disrupting the Suf pathway in
Plasmodium (31). Isoprenoid synthesis is vital for *T. gondii* tachyzoites (38), and it has implication
beyond the apicoplast, as prenylated proteins or isoprenoid precursors are involved in more general
cellular processes including intracellular trafficking or mitochondrial respiration (85). Impairing
isoprenoid synthesis does not, however, necessarily lead to a loss of the organelle (31). There may
thus be another explanation for this phenotype. Interestingly, we could show that perturbing the Suf
pathway, which is supposedly important for Fe-S-containing enzyme LipA, impacts the lipoylation of

E2 subunit of the apicoplast-located PDH (Figure 7C). The PDH complex catalyzes the production of
acetyl-CoA, which is the first step of the FASII system, and perturbation of either the PDH or other
steps of the FASII system lead to a loss of the organelle and severely impairs fitness of the parasites
(38, 86). Our quantitative proteomic analysis shows potential compensatory mechanisms may be
used by the parasites in response this early perturbation of the apicoplast lipid metabolism that
precedes organelle loss. Tachyzoites are indeed known to be able to use exogenous lipid sources to
adapt metabolically (86, 87), and interestingly upon depletion of TgSufS we observed a pattern of
overexpression for ER-located enzymes involved in the synthesis of several phospholipids and
ceramides (Table S3). These lipids are usually synthesized in the ER from apicoplast-synthesized
precursors, but this may clearly indicate a compensatory mechanism that would make use of
precursors scavenged form the host instead. In spite of this, it seems the alteration of the Suf
pathway in *T. gondii* has such a profound impact on the apicoplast itself, that is causes a typical
"delayed death" phenotype that ultimately leads to the irreversible demise of the parasites (Figure
4).

For the mitochondrion, important pathways potentially involving Fe-S proteins include the
respiratory ETC, the TCA cycle, as well as molybdenum and heme synthesis (Table S2). Accordingly,
perhaps the most obvious consequence of disrupting the ISC pathway was the profound impact on
the mitochondrial respiratory capacity, as evidenced experimentally by measuring the mitochondrial
membrane potential (Figure 9), and supported by proteomic analyses showing a clear drop in
expression of many respiratory complex proteins (Table S4). Although the mitochondrion, through
the TCA cycle and the respiratory chain/oxidative phosphorylation, contributes to energy production
in tachyzoites (88), the glycolytic flux is also believed to be a major source of carbon and energy for
these parasites (89). Thus, rather coherently, as highlighted by our quantitative proteomic analysis,
disruption of the ISC pathway led to the overexpression of glycolytic enzymes concurrently with the
lower expression of mitochondrial ETC components. The overexpression of enzymes of the pentose
phosphate pathway, which is branching off from glycolysis and is providing redox equivalents and
precursors for nucleotide and amino acid biosynthesis, is also potentially indicative of a higher use of
glucose in these conditions. The metabolic changes encountered by SUF-deficient parasites do not
cause their rapid demise, as they are able to initiate conversion to the bradyzoite stage, which has
been suggested to rely essentially on glycolysis for energy production anyway (90).

The transition from tachyzoite to bradyzoite is known to involve a considerable change in gene
expression (65, 66), and it takes several days of in vitro differentiation-inducing conditions to obtain
mature cysts (91, 92). TgIscU-depleted parasites rapidly displayed a high expression of bradyzoite-
specific surface antigens and GRA markers (Table S4, Figure 10), and as they developed they were
included in structures with typical cyst-like morphology (Figure 5, Figure 10). However, using specific
antibodies against early or late bradyzoite markers, we could see that even when depleting TgIscU
for an extended time period, the differentiating parasites never appeared to reach fully mature
bradyzoite stage (Figure 10). One of the reason is that our mutants were generated in a type I *T.*
gondii strain, which is associated with acute toxoplasmosis in the mouse model (93) and typically
does not form cysts: type I tachyzoites may upregulate specific bradyzoite genes and, according to
some reports, produce bradyzoite-specific proteins or cyst wall components, but are largely
incapable of forming mature bradyzoite cysts (94). A second explanation is that these parasites may
not be viable long enough to fully differentiate. For instance, although we found the impact of TgIscU
depletion on the lytic cycle was partly reversible, a large proportion of the parasites was not able to
recover after 7 days of ATc treatment. This may not be solely due to the alteration of the
mitochondrial metabolism, as the inactivation of the ISC pathway likely has consequences on other
important cellular housekeeping functions. In other eukaryotes, the SUF pathway provides a yet

unknown precursor molecule as a sulfur provider for the cytosolic CIA Fe-S cluster assembly pathway
(29). The ISC pathway thus not only governs the proper assembly of mitochondrial Fe-S proteins, but
also of cytoplasmic and nuclear ones. Our quantitative proteomics data suggests it is also the case in
T. gondii, as several putative nuclear Fe-S proteins involved in gene transcription (such as DNA-
dependent RNA polymerases) or DNA repair (like DNA endonulease III) were found to be impacted by
TgIscU depletion. The CIA pathway has recently been shown to be important for tachyzoite
proliferation (30), and several of the cytoplasmic or nuclear Fe-S cluster-containing proteins are likely
essential for parasite viability. It is thus possible that in spite of their conversion to a stress-resistant
form, the long-term viability of TgIscU parasites could be affected beyond recovery.

Our quantitative proteomics analysis shows that SUF-impaired parasites also seem to initiate an
upregulation of some bradyzoite markers early after TgSufS depletion. Yet, these parasites did not
display the hallmarks of bradyzoite morphology. They did not progress towards stage conversion and
instead they eventually died. Both the apicoplast and the mitochondrion have established a close
metabolic symbiosis with their host cell, so there are likely multiple mechanisms allowing these
organelles to communicate their status to the rest of the cell. This raises the question as to why
mitochondrion, but not apicoplast, dysfunction can lead to differentiation into bradyzoites. This may
be due to differences in the kinetics or the severity of apicoplast-related phenotypes that may not
allow stage conversion (which is typically a long process) to happen. Alternatively, there might be
differentiation signals specifically associated to the mitochondrion. In fact this organelle is
increasingly seen as a signalling platform, able to communicate its fitness through the release of
specific metabolites, reactive oxygen species, or by modulating ATP levels (95). Interestingly, it was
shown in other eukaryotes that mitochondrial dysfunctions such as altered oxidative phosphorylation
significantly impair cellular proliferation, oxygen sensing or specific histone acetylation, yet without
diminishing cell viability and instead may lead to quiescent states (96, 97). Environmental and
metabolic cues likely drive specific gene expression, leading to a functional shift to drive stage
conversion, but how are these stimuli integrated is largely unknown. A high-throughput approach has
allowed the recent identification of a master transcriptional regulator of stage conversion (98), but
how upstream events are converted into cellular signals to mobilize the master regulator is still an
important, yet unresolved, question. Translational control (99) may play a role in regulating this
factor in the context of the integrated stress response (100). In fact, an essential part of the
eukaryotic cell stress response occurs post-transcriptionally and is achieved by RNA-binding proteins
(101). Interestingly, among the proteins significantly less abundant in the mitochondrial SUF pathway
mutant were many RNA-binding proteins, including components of stress granules (PolyA-binding
protein, PUF1, Alba1 and 2, some of which are linked to stage conversion (102–104)) which are
potentially involved in mRNA sequestration from the translational machinery, but also two regulators
of the large 60S ribosomal subunit assembly, as well as the gamma subunit of the eukaryotic
translation initiation factor (eIF) complex 4 (known to be down-regulated in the bradyzoite stage
(105)). Variation in these candidates may have a considerable impact on the translational profile and
on the proteostasis of differentiating parasites, and how they may help regulating stage conversion
in this context should be investigated further. Understanding the mechanisms that either lead to
encystment or death of the parasites is crucial to the development of treatments against
toxoplasmosis. This question is key to the pathology caused by *T. gondii*, as bradyzoites act as
reservoirs susceptible to reactivate as and cause acute symptoms, and are essentially resistant to
treatment. Comparative studies of stress-induced or spontaneously differentiating conditional
mutants may bring further insights on how the parasites integrate upstream stresses or dysfunctions
into global regulation of stage conversion.

Materials and methods

Parasites and cells culture. Tachyzoites of the TATi ΔKu80 *T. gondii* strain (46), as well as derived
transgenic parasites generated in this study, were maintained by serial passage in human foreskin
fibroblast (HFF, American Type Culture Collection, CRL 1634) cell monolayer grown in Dulbecco's
modified Eagle medium (Gibco), supplemented with 5% decomplemented fetal bovine serum, 2-mM
L-glutamine and a cocktail of penicillin-streptomycin at 100 µg/ml.

Bioinformatic analyses. Sequence alignments were performed using the MUltiple Sequence
Comparison by Log-Expectation (MUSCLE) algorithm of the Geneious 6.1.8 software suite
(http://www.geneious.com). Transit peptide and localization predictions were done using IPSORT
(http://ipsort.hgc.jp/), Localizer 1.0.4 (http://localizer.csiro.au/), and Deeploc 1.0
(http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/DeepLoc-1.0/) algorithms.

The putative Fe-S proteome was predicted using the MetalPredator webserver
(http://metalweb.cerm.unifi.it/tools/metalpredator/) (56). The whole complement of *T. gondii*
annotated proteins was downloaded in FASTA format from the ToxoDB database (https://toxodb.org
(41), release 45) and used for analysis in the MetalPredator webserver. Additional manual curation
included homology searches for known Fe-S proteins from plants (see appendix A in (106)), and
search for homologues in the Uniprot database (https://www.uniprot.org) that were annotated as
containing a Fe-S cofactor. For proteomics candidates, annotations were inferred from ToxoDB,
KEGG (https://www.genome.jp/kegg/)
and the Liverpool Library of Apicomplexan Metabolic Pathways (http://www.llamp.net/ (107)).
N-glycosylation predictions were done with the GlycoEP webserver
(http://crdd.osdd.net/raghava/glycoep/index.html). GPI anchor predictions were done with the
PredGPI (http://gpcr.biocomp.unibo.it/predgpi/) and GPI-SOM (http://gpi.unibe.ch/) webservers.

Heterologous expression in *E. coli*. Constructs for designing recombinant proteins were defined by
aligning TgSufS and TgIscU amino acid sequences with their *E. coli* counterparts. For *TgSufS*, a 1,438
bp fragment corresponding to amino acids 271-699, was amplified by polymerase chain reaction
(PCR) from *T. gondii* cDNA using primers ML4201/ML4012 (sequences of the primers used in this
study are found in Table S6). For *TgIscU*, a 393 bp fragment corresponding to amino acids 64-194,
was amplified by PCR from *T. gondii* cDNA using primers ML4204/ML4205. The fragments were
cloned into the pUC19 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the HindIII/BamHI and SphI/BamHI restriction
sites, respectively. *E. coli* mutants from the Keio collection (obtained from the The *Coli* Genetic Stock
Center at the University of Yale: stain numbers JW1670-1 for *SufS*, JW2513-1 for *IscU*), were
transformed with plasmids for expressing recombinant TgSufS and TgIscU and selected with
ampicillin. For growth assays (108), overnight stationary phase cultures were adjusted to the same
starting OD_{600} of 0.6 in salt-supplemented M9 minimal media containing 0.4% glucose and varying
amounts of the 2,2☐-Bipyridyl iron chelator (Sigma-Aldrich). Growth was monitored through OD_{600}
measurement after 7, 14 and 24 hours at 37°C in a shaking incubator.

Generation of HA-tagged TgSufS, TgSufE2 and TgIscU cell lines. The ligation independent strategy
(45) was used for C-terminal hemagglutinin $(HA)_3$-tagging TgIscU. Fragment corresponding to the 3'
end of the target gene was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA, with the Q5 DNA polymerase (New
England BioLabs) using primers ML4208/ML4209 (*TgIscU*) and inserted in frame with the sequence
coding for a triple HA tag, present in the pLIC-HA_3-chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (CAT) plasmid.
The resulting vector was linearized and 40 µg of DNA was transfected into the TATi ΔKu80 cell line to

allow integration by single homologous recombination, and transgenic parasites of the TgIscU-HA cell
line were selected with chloramphenicol and cloned by serial limiting dilution.

For TgSufS and TgSufE2, a CRISPR-based strategy was used. Using the pLIC-HA$_3$-CAT plasmid as a
template, a PCR was performed with the KOD DNA polymerase (Novagen) to amplify the tag and the
resistance gene expression cassette with primers ML3978/ML3979 (*TgSufS*) and ML4023/ML4162
(*TgSufE2*), that also carry 30 bp homology with the 3 end of the corresponding genes. A specific
single-guide RNA (sgRNA) was generated to introduce a double-stranded break at the 3 of the
respective loci. Primers used to generate the guides were ML3948/ML3949 (*TgSufS*) and
ML4160/ML4161 (*TgSufE2*) and the protospacer sequences were introduced in the Cas9-expressing
pU6-Universal plasmid (Addgene, ref #52694) (43). Again, the TATi ΔKu80 cell line was transfected
and transgenic parasites of the TgSufS-HA or TgSufE2-HA cell lines were selected with
chloramphenicol and cloned by serial limiting dilution.

Generation of TgSufS and TgIscU conditional knock-down and complemented cell lines. The
conditional knock-down cell for *TgSufS* and *TgIscU* were generated based on the Tet-Off system using
the DHFR-TetO7Sag4 plasmid (109).

For *TgIscU*, a 930 bp 5' region of the gene, starting with the initiation codon, was amplified from
genomic DNA by PCR using Q5 polymerase (New England Biolabs) with primers ML4212/ML4213 and
cloned into the DHFR-TetO7Sag4 plasmid, downstream of the anhydrotetracycline (ATc)-inducible
TetO7Sag4 promoter, obtaining the DHFR-TetO7Sag4-TgIscU plasmid. The plasmid was then
linearized and transfected into the TgIscU-HA cell line. Transfected parasites were selected with
pyrimethamine and cloned by serial limiting dilution.

For *TgSufS*, a CRISPR-based strategy was used. Using the DHFR-TetO7Sag4 plasmid as a template, a
PCR was performed with the KOD DNA polymerase (Novagen) to amplify the promoter and the
resistance gene expression cassette with primers ML4154/ML4155 that also carry 30 bp homology
with the 5 end of the *TgSufS* gene. A specific single-guide RNA (sgRNA) was generated to introduce
a double-stranded break at the 5 of the *TgSufS* locus. Primers used to generate the guide were
ML4156/ML4157 and the protospacer sequences were introduced in the pU6-Universal plasmid
(Addgene ref#52694) (43). The TgSufS-HA cell line was transfected with the donor sequence and the
Cas9/guide RNA-expressing plasmid and transgenic parasites were selected with pyrimethamine and
cloned by serial limiting dilution.

The cKD TgSufS-HA and cKD TgIscU-HA cell lines were complemented by the addition of an extra copy
of the respective genes put under the dependence of a tubulin promoter at the *uracil*
phosphoribosyltransferase (*UPRT*) locus. *TgSufS* (2097 bp) and *TgIscU* (657 bp) whole cDNA
sequences were amplified by reverse transcription (RT)-PCR with primers ML4576/ML4577 and
ML4455/ML4456, respectively. They were then cloned downstream of the *tubulin* promoter
sequence of the pUPRT-TUB-Ty vector (46) to yield the pUPRT-TgSufS and pUPRT-TgIscU plasmids,
respectively. These plasmids were then linearized prior to transfection of the respective mutant cell
lines. The recombination efficiency was increased by co-transfecting with the Cas9-expressing pU6-
UPRT plasmids generated by integrating *UPRT*-specific protospacer sequences (with primers
ML2087/ML2088 for the 3' and primers ML3445/ML3446 for the 5') which were designed to allow a
double-strand break at the *UPRT* locus. Transgenic parasites were selected using
5-fluorodeoxyuridine and cloned by serial limiting dilution to yield the cKD TgSufS-HA comp cKD
TgIscU-HA comp cell lines, respectively.

Immunoblot analysis. Protein extracts from 10^7 freshly egressed tachyzoites were prepared in
Laemmli sample buffer, separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane using

the BioRad Mini-Transblot system according to the manufacturer's instructions. Rat monoclonal
antibody (clone 3F10, Roche) was used to detect HA-tagged proteins. Other primary antibodies used
were rabbit anti-lipoic acid antibody (ab58724, Abcam), mouse anti-SAG1 (110), rabbit anti-CPN60
(111) and mouse anti-actin (112).

Immunofluorescence microscopy. For immunofluorescence assays (IFA), intracellular tachyzoites
grown on coverslips containing HFF monolayers, were either fixed for 20 min with 4% (w/v)
paraformaldehyde in PBS and permeabilized for 10 min with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS or fixed for
5 min in cold methanol (for the use of cyst-specific antibodies). Slides/coverslips were subsequently
blocked with 0.1% (w/v) BSA in PBS. Primary antibodies used (at 1/1,000, unless specified) to detect
subcellular structures were rabbit anti-CPN60 (111), mouse monoclonal anti-F1-ATPase beta subunit
(gift of P. Bradley), mouse monoclonal anti-GRA3 (113), rabbit anti-GAP45 (114), mouse monoclonal
anti-SAG1 (110), anti SAG4/P18 (diluted 1/200, T8 3B1) and anti P21 (diluted 1/200, T8 4G10) (115).
Rat monoclonal anti-HA antibody (clone 3F10, Roche) was used to detect epitope-tagged proteins.
Staining of DNA was performed on fixed cells by incubating them for 5 min in a 1 µg/ml
4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) solution. All images were acquired at the Montpellier RIO
imaging facility from a Zeiss AXIO Imager Z1 epifluorescence microscope driven by the ZEN software
v2.3 (Zeiss). Z-stack acquisition and maximal intensity projection was performed to visualize larger
structures such as in vitro cysts. Adjustments for brightness and contrast were applied uniformly on
the entire image.

Plaque assay. Confluent monolayers of HFFs were infected with freshly egressed parasites, which
were left to grow for 7 days in the absence or presence of ATc. They were then fixed with 4% v/v
paraformaldehyde (PFA) and plaques were revealed by staining with a 0.1% crystal violet solution
(V5265, Sigma-Aldrich).

Egress assay. *T. gondii* tachyzoites were grown for 40 (without ATc) or 120 (with ATc) hours on HFF
cells with coverslips in 24-well plates. The infected host cells were incubated for 7 min at 37°C with
DMEM containing 3 µM of calcium ionophore A23187 (C7522, Sigma-Aldrich) prior to fixation with
4% PFA. Immunofluorescence assays were performed as previously described (116): the parasites
and the parasitophorous vacuole membrane were labelled with anti-GAP45 and anti-GRA3,
respectively. The proportion of egressed and non-egressed vacuoles was calculated by counting 250
vacuoles in three independent experiments. Data are presented as mean values ± SEM.

Semi-quantitative RT-PCR. Total mRNAs of freshly egressed extracellular parasites from the cKD
TgSufS-HA, cKD TgIscU-HA and their respective complemented cell lines (incubated with or without
ATc at 1.5 µg/mL for 3 days) were extracted using Nucleospin RNA II Kit (Macherey-Nagel). The
cDNAs were synthesized with 450 ng of total RNA per RT-PCR reaction using High-Capacity cDNA
Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). Specific primers for *TgSufS* (ML4686/ML4687), *TgIscU*
(ML4684/ML4685) and, as a control, *Tubulin β* (ML841/ML842) were used to amplify specific
transcripts with the GoTaq DNA polymerase (Promega). PCR was performed with 21 cycles of
denaturation (30 s, 95 °C), annealing (20 s, 55 °C), and elongation (30 s, 72 °C).

Mitochondrial membrane potential measurement. Parasites grown for the indicated time with or
without ATc were mechanically released from their host cells, purified on a glass wool fiber column,
washed and adjusted to 10^7 parasites/ml in phenol red-free medium, and incubated in with 1.5 µM
of the JC-1 dye (5,5',6,6'-tetrachloro-1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolylcarbocyanine Iodide, T3168,
Invitrogen) for 30 min at 37°C, washed phenol red-free medium and analyzed by flow cytometry or
microscopy. Flow cytometry analysis was performed on a FACSAria III flow cytometer (Becton

Dickinson). An unstained control was used to define gates for analysis. 50,000 events per condition
were collected and data were analysed using the FlowJo Software.

Quantitative label-free mass spectrometry. Parasites of the TATi ΔKu80 and cKD TgIscU-HA cell lines
were grown for two days in the presence of ATc; parasites of the cKD TgSufS-HA were grown for
three days in the presence of ATc. Then they were mechanically released from their host cells,
purified on a glass wool fiber column, washed in Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (Gibco). Samples were
first normalized on parasite counts, but further adjustment was performed after parasite pellet
resuspension in SDS lysis buffer (50 mm Tris-HCl pH8, 10 mm EDTA pH8, 1% SDS) and protein
quantification with a bicinchoninic acid assay kit (Abcam). For each condition, 20 μg of total proteins
were separated on a 12% SDS-PAGE run for 20 min at 100 V, stained with colloidal blue (Thermo
Fisher Scientific), and each lane was cut in three identical fractions. Trypsin digestion and mass
spectrometry analysis in the Q Exactive Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were
carried out as described previously (117).

For peptide identification and quantification, the raw files were analyzed with MaxQuant version
1.6.10.43 using default settings. The minimal peptide length was set to 6. Carbamidomethylation of
cysteine was selected as a fixed modification and oxidation of methionine, N-terminal-
pyroglutamylation of glutamine and glutamate and acetylation (protein N terminus) as variable
modifications. Up to two missed cleavages were allowed. The files were searched against the *T.*
gondii proteome (March 2020 -https: //www.uniprot.org/proteomes/UP000005641-8450 entries).
Identified proteins were filtered according to the following criteria: at least two different trypsin
peptides with at least one unique peptide, an *E* value below 0.01 and a protein E value smaller than
0.01 were required. Using the above criteria, the rate of false peptide sequence assignment and false
protein identification were lower than 1%. Peptide ion intensity values derived from MaxQuant were
subjected for label-free quantitation. Unique and razor peptides were considered (118). Statistical
analyses were carried out using R package software. ANOVA test with threshold of 0.05 was applied
to identify the significant differences in the protein abundance. Hits were retained if they were
quantified in at least three of the four replicates in at least one experiment. Additional candidates
that consistently showed absence or presence of LFQ values versus the control, and mean LFQ was
only considered if peptides were detected in at least 3 out of the four biological replicates.

Statistical analysis for phenotypic assays. Unless specified, values are usually expressed as means ±
standard error of the mean (SEM). Data were analysed for comparison using unpaired Student's
t-test with equal variance (homoscedastic) for different samples or paired Student's t-test for similar
samples before and after treatment.

Data availability. All raw MS data and MaxQuant files generated have been deposited to the
ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository
(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/pride/archive) with the dataset identifier PXD023854.

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1032   **Figure legends**
1033
1034   **Figure 1. TgSufS and TgIscU are functional homologs of components of the plastidic and**
1035   **mitochondrial iron sulfur cluster synthesis pathways.**

A) Putative Fe-S cluster synthesis pathways and associated molecular machinery in *Toxoplasma*. B) Functional complementation of bacterial mutants for IscU (top) and SufS (bottom). Growth of bacterial mutant strains and strains complemented ('comp') by their respective *T. gondii* homologues ('comp'), was assessed by monitoring the optical density at 600 nm in the presence or not of an iron chelator (2,2'-bipyridyl, 'chel'). Values are mean from n=3 independent experiments ±SEM. * denotes $p \leq 0.05$, Student's *t*-test.

Figure 2. TgSufS and TgIscU localize to the apicoplast and the mitochondrion, respectively.
Detection by immunoblot of C-terminally HA-tagged TgSufS (A) and TgIscU (B) in parasite extracts reveals the presence of both precusor (p) and mature (m) forms of the proteins. Anti-actin (TgACT1) antibody was used as a loading control. Immunofluorescence assay shows TgSufS co-localizes with apicoplast marker TgCPN60 (C) and TgIscU co-localizes with mitochondrial marker F1 β ATPase (D). Scale bar represents 5 µm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.

Figure 3. Efficient down-regulation of TgSufS and TgIscU expression with anhydrotetracyclin (ATc).
A) Immunoblot analysis with anti-HA antibody shows efficient down-regulation of TgSufS after 48h of incubation with ATc. Anti-SAG1 antibody was used as a loading control. B) Immunoblot analysis with anti-HA antibody shows efficient down-regulation of TgIscU after 24h of incubation with ATc. Anti-SAG1 antibody was used as a loading control. C) and D) Immunofluorescence assays show TgSufS and TgIscU are not detectable anymore after 48h of incubation with ATc. Scale bar represents 5 µm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.

Figure 4. Depletion of TgSufS and TgIscU affects in vitro growth of the tachyzoites. Plaque assays were carried out by infecting HFF monolayers with the TATi ΔKu80 cell line, the cKD TgSufS-HA (A) or the cKD TgIscU-HA (B) cell lines, or parasites complemented with a wild-type version of the respective proteins. They were grown for 7 days ± ATc. Measurements of lysis plaque areas are shown on the right and highlight a significant defect in the lytic cycle when TgSufS (A) or TgIscU (B) were depleted. Values are means of n=3 experiments ± SEM. ** denotes $p \leq 0.01$, Student's *t*-test. Scale bars= 1mm. TgSufS (C) and TgIscU (D) mutant and complemented cell lines, as well as their parental cell lines and the TATi ΔKu80 control, were grown in HFF in the presence or absence of ATc for 48 hours, and subsequently allowed to invade and grow in new HFF cells for an extra 24 hours in the presence of ATc. Parasites per vacuole were then counted. Values are means ± SEM from n=3 independent experiments for which 200 vacuoles were counted for each condition. E) Plaque assays for the TgSufS and TgIscU mutants were performed as described in A) and B), but ATc was washed out after 7 days and parasites were left to grow for an extra 4 days. Plaque number and area were measured. Data are means ± SEM from three independent experiments. * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, Student's *t*-test. Arrowheads show plaques forming in the TgIscU upon ATc removal. Scale bar= 1mm.

Figure 5. Impact of TgSufS and TgIscU depletion on intracellular tachyzoites.
A) Depletion of TgSufS impacts the apicoplast. cKD TgSufS-HA parasites were kept in the presence of ATc and the aspect of the apicoplast and mitochondrion was evaluated by microscopic observation using specific markers (CPN60 and F1β ATPase, respectively). After 72 hours, parasites egressed and were used to reinvade new host cells for subsequent timepoints. Scale bar represents 5 µm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast. B) Quantification of apicoplast loss in vacuoles containing cKD TgSufS-HA parasites after 72 to 120 hours of incubation with ATc. Data are mean values from n=3 independent experiments ±SEM. ** $p \leq 0.005$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$, Student's *t*-test. C) Depletion of TgIscU does not impact mitochondrial and overall parasite morphologies, but affects parasite growth. cKD TgIscU-HA parasites were grown in the presence of ATc for up to five days and the aspect of the apicoplast and mitochondrion was evaluated by microscopic observation

using specific markers described in A). Growth in the presence of ATc was continuous for up to five
days. Scale bar represents 5 µm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.
D) Egress is not affected by TgIscU depletion. An egress assay was performed using calcium
ionophore A23187. On the left are representative images of vacuoles containing parasites that
egressed normally or did not. GRA3 (parasitophorous vacuole marker) staining is shown in green and
GAP45 (parasite periphery marker) in red. Scale bars= 10 µm. On the right is the quantification of
egress for cKD TgIscU-HA parasites kept in the presence of ATc or not. Mean values ± SEM from *n*=3
independent biological experiments are represented.
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Figure 6. Change in protein expression induced by TgSufS and TgIscU depletion. A) Volcano plots
showing the protein expression difference based on label-free quantitative proteomic data from
TgSufS ans TgIscU mutants grown in the presence of ATc. X-axis shows log2 fold change versus the
TATi ΔKu80 control grown in the same conditions, and the Y-axis shows -log10(p value) after ANOVA
statistical test for *n*=4 independent biological replicates. Less abundant or more abundant proteins
that were selected for analysis are displayed in red and blue, respectively. B) Venn diagram
representation of the shared and unique proteins whose expression is affected by the depletion of
TgSufS and TgIscU.
1106
Figure 7. Depletion of TgSufS impacts know apicoplast Fe-S protein function, but also seem to
trigger compensatory response from other cellular pathways. Classification of variant proteins
according to their putative cellular localization (A) and function (B). N/A: not available; ER:
endoplasmic reticulum; PM: plasma membrane; VAC: vacuolar compartment; GRA: dense granule
protein; SRS: SAG-related sequence. In particular, the increased expression of ER-located lipid
metabolism enzymes suggests possible compensation for loss of apicoplast-related lipid synthesis
function. C) A decrease in the lipoylation of the E2 subunit of proline dehydrogenase (TgPDH-E2),
which depends on the Fe-S protein LipA lipoyl synthase in the apicoplast, was observed by
immunoblot using an anti-lipoic acid antibody on cell extracts from cKD TgSufS-HA parasites kept
with ATc for an increasing period of time. TgCPN60 was used as a control for apicoplast integrity.
TgSAG1 was used as a loading control.
1118
Figure 8. TgIscU-depleted parasites show a marked decrease in proteins related to mitochondrial
respiration, and a strong increase in bradyzoite-specific dense granules proteins and surface
antigens. Classification of variant proteins according to their putative cellular localization (A) and
function (B). N/A: not available; ER: endoplasmic reticulum; PM: plasma membrane; VAC: vacuolar
compartment; GRA: dense granule protein; SRS: SAG-related sequence. A large proportion of
components of complexes II, III and IV of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, which involve Fe-S
proteins, were found to be less abundant. Conversely, the abundance of many bradyzoite-specific
dense granule proteins of plasma membrane-located surface antigens increased.
1127
Figure 9. Depletion of TgIscU stongly impacts the parasite mitochondrial membrane potential. A)
TATi ΔKu80 or cKD TgIscU-HA parasites were grown in the presence of ATc, mechanically released
from their host cells and labelled with the JC-1 dye. This dye exhibits potential-dependent
accumulation in the mitochondrion, indicated by a switch from green fluorescence for the
monomeric form of the probe, to a concentration-dependent formation of red aggregates (top left,
DNA is labelled with DAPI and shown in blue, scale=1µm). B) TATi ΔKu80 (top series) or cKD TgIscU-
HA parasites (bottom series) were then analysed by flow cytometry. Unlabelled parasites (no JC-1)
was used as a control for gating. One representative experiment out of *n*=3 biological replicates is
shown.
1137
Figure 10. Depletion of TgIscU triggers parasite differentiation.

A) cKD TgIscU-HA parasites were grown in the presence of ATc and labelled with ant-TgIMC3 (to
outline parasites and spot dividing parasites) and a lectin of *Dolicos biflorus* (DBL) to specifically
outline cyst walls. Scale bar represents 10 µm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential
interference contrast. B) Quantification of DBL-positive vacuoles after 24 hours or 48 hours of culture
of 1) the cKD TgIscU-HA mutant in the presence of ATc 2) the TATi ΔKu80 cell line, as a negative
control, 3) the TATi ΔKu80 cell line in the presence of 100µM nitric oxide (NO), as a positive control.
Data are from *n*=3 independent experiments. Values are mean ±SEM. * denotes $p \leq 0.05$, Student's
t-test C) Clustering of bradyzoite (Bz) or tachyzoite (Tz)-specific proteins of the SRS family shows
specific enrichment of bradyzoite proteins upon TgIscU depletion. D) The cKD TgIscU-HA mutant was
grown for up to 20 days in the presence of ATc and labelled for tachyzoite marker SAG1), or early
(P18/SAG4) or late (P21) bradyzoite markers. Scale bar represents 10 µm. DNA was labelled with
DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast. E) Measurement of the cyst area size after growing the
cKD TgIscU-HA mutant for 7 and 20 days in the presence of ATc and labelling the cyst wall with DBL
and measuring the surface of 60 cysts per condition. Mean ±SD is represented. One representative
experiment out of *n*=3 independent biological replicates is shown. **** denotes $p \leq 0.0001$,
Student's *t*-test.
1155
1156
1157 **Supplemental table legends**
1158
1159 **Table S1. Predicted Toxoplasma homologues of the iron sulfur cluster synthesis machinery.**
1160 Homology searches were conducted in ToxoBD.org using *Arabidopsis thaliana* proteins as a query.
1161 Putative subcellular localization was obtained from the hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, or
1162 by manual annotation. CRISPR fitness score data was obtained from ToxoDB.org.
1163
1164 **Table S2. Predicted Toxoplasma iron sulfur proteome.** The Toxoplasma predicted whole proteome
1165 was obtained from the ToxoDB.org database and searched for putative iron sulfur-containing
1166 proteins with the MetalPredator web server (http://metalweb.cerm.unifi.it/tools/metalpredator/).
1167 Putative subcellular localization was obtained from the hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, or
1168 by manual annotation. CRISPR fitness score data was obtained from ToxoDB.org.
1169
Table S3. Proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgSufS as found by label-free
quantitative proteomics. For each protein candidate (with www.ToxoDB.org and www.Uniprot.org
identifier), $\log_2$ of the different ratio were calculated between the mean MaxQuant LFQ values
('moyLFQ') found for the IscU ('Mito') and SufS ('Apicoplast') mutants, and the TATi ΔKu80 control
('CTRL'). $-\log_{10}$(pvalue) is also provided. Putative subcellular localization was obtained from the
hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, or by manual annotation. CRISPR fitness score and
transcriptomic data for tachyzoites (Tz) and bradyzoites (Bz) were obtained from ToxoDB.org.
1177
1178 **Table S4. Proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgIscU as found by label-free**
1179 **quantitative proteomics**. See legend of Table S3. Candidates from the Fe-S proteome (Table S2) that
1180 were found to have a lower expression upon TgIscU depletion are highlighted in red.
1181
1182 **Table S5. Common proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgSufS or TgIscU, as**
1183 **found by label-free quantitative proteomics.** See legend of Table S3.
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1185 **Table S6. Oligonucleotides used in this study.**
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A

cKD TgSufS-HA

kDa	TATi ΔKu80	TgSufS-HA	24h		48h		72h	
			- ATc	+ ATc	- ATc	+ ATc	- ATc	+ ATc

70 ——— TgSufS-HA

25 ——— TgSAG1

B

cKD TgIscU-HA

kDa	TATi ΔKu80	TgIscU-HA	24h		48h		72h	
			- ATc	+ ATc	- ATc	+ ATc	- ATc	+ ATc

25
15 ——— TgIscU-HA

25 ——— TgSAG1

C cKD TgSufS-HA

no ATc   ATc (48h)

Merge: SufS-HA DAPI DIC   Merge: SufS-HA DAPI DIC

D cKD TgIscU-HA

no ATc   + ATc (48h)

Merge: IscU-HA DAPI DIC   Merge: IscU-HA DAPI DIC

A

A

Decreased expression in TgSufS mutant

Increased expression in TgSufS mutant

Apicoplast
Mitochondrion
ER
Dense granules
Cytosol
Nucleus
Rhoptry
N/A
Micronemes
PM

Apicoplast
Mitochondrion
VAC/endomembrane...
Cytosol
Rhoptry
Nucleus
Micronemes
Dense granules
N/A
ER
PM
Golgi

B

Decreased expression chart:
- Mitochondrial respiratory chain
- DNA repair and replication
- Basal complex constriction
- Catabolism/peptidase
- Ribosome biogenesis
- Amino acid metabolism
- RNA-interacting/regulating
- SRS
- Unknown

% of candidates with decreased expression in TgSufS mutant

Increased expression chart:
- Plastid protein import
- RNA-interacting/regulating
- Organophosphorus synthesis
- NAD/NADP synthesis
- Sugar metabolism
- Pentose phosphate pathway
- Receptor
- Folate metabolism
- SRS
- Catabolism/peptidase
- Channel/transporter
- Lipid metabolism
- GRA
- Unknown

% of candidates with increased expression in TgSufS mutant

C

TATi ΔKu80   cKD TgSufS-HA

kDa   4   0   1   2   3   4   days +ATc

100 — Lipoylated TgPDH-E2

70 —
55 —   TgCPN60

25 —   TgSAG1

A

Decreased expression in TgIscU mutant

Micronemes · ER · Dense granules · Apicoplast · N/A · PM · Cytosol · Mitochondrion · Nucleus

Increased expression in TgIscU mutant

Proteasome · Cytoskeleton · Rhoptry · ER · Micronemes · Apicoplast · Dense granules · Golgi · VAC/endomembrane system · Cytosol · Mitochondrion · PM · N/A · Nucleus

B

Fe-S cluster biosynthesis
Regulation of iron and ROS
DNA repair and replication
Stress response
Mitochondrial protein import
Channel/transporter
Isoprenoid metabolism
GRA
Ribosome biogenesis
Catabolism/peptidase
Amino acid metabolism
SRS
RNA-interacting/regulating
Unknown
Mitochondrial respiratory chain

% of candidates with decreased expression in TgIscU mutant

Mitochondrial respiratory chain
NAD/NADP synthesis
Organophosphorus synthesis
CoA synthesis
Lipid metabolism
Nucleic acid synthesis
Stress response
Glycolysis/gluconeogenesis
Amino acid metabolism
Oxidative stress response
RNA-interacting/regulating
Pentose phosphate pathway
Catabolism/peptidase
Folate metabolism
Channel/transporter
SRS
GRA
Unknown

% of candidates with increased expression in TgIscU mutant