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

Sarah Pamukcu[1], Aude Cerutti[1], Yann Bordat[1], Sonia Hem[2], Valérie Rofidal[2], Sébastien Besteiro[3*]

[1]LPHI, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, Montpellier, France

[2]BPMP, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, INRAE, Institut Agro, Montpellier, France

[3]LPHI, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, INSERM, Montpellier, France

* sebastien.besteiro@inserm.fr

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 notable 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.

Author summary

Toxoplasma gondii is a ubiquitous unicellular parasite that harbours two organelles of endosymbiotic
origin: the mitochondrion, and a relict plastid named the apicoplast. Each one of these organelles
contains its own machinery for synthesizing iron-sulfur clusters, which are important protein co-
factors. In this study, we show that interfering with either the mitochondrial or the plastidic iron-
sulfur cluster synthesizing machinery has a profound impact on parasite growth. However, while
disrupting the plastidic pathway led to an irreversible loss of the organelle and subsequent death of
the parasite, disrupting the mitochondrial pathway led to conversion of the parasites into a stress
resistance form. We used a comparative quantitative proteomic analysis of the mutants, combined
with experimental validation, to provide mechanistic clues into these different phenotypic outcomes.
Although the consequences of disrupting each pathway were manifold, our data highlighted distinct
changes at the metabolic level. For instance, the plastidic iron-sulfur cluster synthesis pathway is
likely important for maintaining the lipid homeostasis of the parasites, while the mitochondrial
pathway is clearly crucial for maintaining their respiratory capacity. Interestingly, we have discovered
that other mutants severely impacted for mitochondrial function, in particular the respiratory chain,
are able to survive and initiate conversion to the stress resistance form. This illustrates a different
capacity for *T. gondii* to adapt for survival in response to distinct metabolic dysregulations.

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

Short title: Iron-sulfur cluster synthesis in *Toxoplasma*

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-sulfur (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 other important 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].

The phylum Apicomplexa comprises a large number of single-celled protozoan parasites responsible for serious disease in animals, including 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 [5,6]. This plastid, named the apicoplast, originated from a secondary endosymbiotic event [7,8]. It has lost its photosynthetic properties as the ancestors of Apicomplexa switched to an intracellular parasitic lifestyle [9]. The apicoplast nevertheless still hosts four main metabolic pathways [10,11]: a so-called non-mevalonate 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 important 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 [12,13]. The organelle is an important contributor to the parasite's metabolic needs [14]. It classically hosts tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle reactions, which are the main source of electrons that feeds the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) which generates 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 [15,16].

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 [17]. 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 [18]. They include the ISC (iron-sulfur
cluster) pathway for general Fe–S cluster assembly [19], and the SUF (sulfur formation) pathway [20]
that is potentially activated in oxidative stress conditions [21]. Eukaryotes have inherited machineries
for synthesizing Fe-S cluster through their endosymbionts [22]. As a result, organisms with both
mitochondria and plastids, like land plants, use the ISC pathway for assembling Fe-S clusters in the
mitochondria and the SUF pathway for Fe-S clusters in the plastids [23]. 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
[24].

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 [25], investigations in apicomplexan parasites have been so far almost
exclusively focused on the apicoplast-located SUF pathway [26–30] 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 [31]). Contrarily to the ISC
pathway, which is also present in 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) [32–35]. 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 parasite development and fitness.

Results

TgNFS2 and TgISU1 are functional homologs of components of the Fe-S cluster synthesis pathways

Fe-S cluster biosynthesis pathways in the mitochondrion and the plastid follow a similar general
pattern: cysteine desulfurases (NFS1, NFS2) produce sulfur from L-cysteine, scaffold proteins (ISU1,
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 [23]. 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 [24]. 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 [36], 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 [37] 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 [38],
highlighted that most components of the three pathways are predicted to be important for parasite
fitness. This suggests several Fe-S proteins localizing to the endosymbiotic organelles, but also the
cytosol/nucleus, are essential for the optimal growth of tachyzoites. In order to verify this, our aim
was to specifically interfere with the apicoplast-localized SUF pathway or the mitochondrion-
localized ISC pathway in *T. gondii* tachyzoites. More precisely, we wanted to target the homologs of
A. thaliana NFS2 and ISU1, which are both central (and presumably essential) to their respective
pathways (Figure 1A): NFS2 is a cysteine desulfurase that provides the inorganic sulfur part of
plastidic Fe-S clusters, while ISU1 is a scaffold protein important for cluster assembly in the
mitochondrial pathway. Interfering with these key players of the upstream machinery would likely
lead to a comparable disruption of the respective Fe-S cluster biogenesis pathways hosted by each
organelle [39].

As a first step, we sought to determine whether TgNFS2 (TGGT1_216170) and TgISU1
(TGGT1_237560) were real functional homologs by performing complementation assays of bacterial
mutants. In many bacteria, the ISC machinery is the primary system for general Fe-S cluster
biosynthesis, while the SUF system plays a similar general role, but is mostly operative under stress
conditions (like iron limitation or oxidative stress). In *Escherichia coli*, both pathways are partially
redundant, but their individual disruption results in slowed bacterial growth, especially when limiting
iron availability with a specific chelator [40]. Expression of the predicted functional domains of
TgNFS2 and TgISU1 in mutant strains for the corresponding *E. coli* proteins (named SUFS and ISCU,
respectively) improved bacterial growth, in the presence of an iron chelator or not (Figure 1B). The
complementation seemed partial as complemented strains remained more sensitive to the iron
chelator than the wild-type strain. Yet, and although stationary phase was reached earlier than for
the wild-type bacteria, contrarily to the mutants the complemented strains showed a bacterial
density close to that of the WT at stationary phase. This suggests TgNFS2 and TgISU1, 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 TgNFS2 and TgISU1 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 [41–43]. A sequence coding for a C-
terminal triple hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag was inserted at the endogenous *TgNFS2* or *TgISU1*
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 TgNFS2 and TgISU1 sequences with several subcellular localization and N-terminal
sorting signals site predictors confirmed they likely contained sequences for plastidic and
mitochondrial targeting [44], respectively, although no consensus position of the exact cleavage sites
could be determined. Immunofluorescence assay (IFA) in *T. gondii* tachyzoites confirmed HA-tagged
TgNFS2 and TgISU1 co-localize with markers of the apicoplast and the mitochondrion, respectively
(Figure 2C, D).

NFS2 is a cysteine desulfurase whose activity is enhanced by an interaction with the SUFE protein
[45]. Similar to plants that express several SUFE homologues [46], 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 TgNFS2, 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-localizes 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.

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

In order to get insights into plastidic and mitochondrial Fe-S biogenesis, we generated conditional
mutant cell lines in the TgNFS2-HA or TgISU1-HA-expressing TATi ΔKu80 background [43].
Replacement of the endogenous promoters by an inducible-Tet07*SAG4* promoter, through a single
homologous recombination at the loci of interest (Figure S4), yielded TgNFS2 and TgISU1 conditional
knock-down cell lines (cKD TgNFS2-HA and cKD TgISU1-HA, respectively). In these cell lines, the
addition of anhydrotetracycline (ATc) can repress transcription through a Tet-Off system [47]. For
each cKD cell line several transgenic clones were obtained and were found to behave similarly in the
initial phenotypic assays we performed, so only one was analysed further. 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 further -HA and cKD TgISU1-HA parasites showed that the
addition of ATc efficiently down-regulated the expression of *TgNFS2* (Figure 3A, C) and *TgISU1*
(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 *TgNFS2*
and *TgISU1* 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 *TgNFS2* and *TgISU1* genes 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 TgNFS2 and TgISU1 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 absence or presence of
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 TgNFS2 or TgISU1 depletion impacts parasite
growth.

Then, we sought to assess if the viability of the mutant parasites was irreversibly affected. We thus
performed another series of plaque assays, but at the end of the 7-day incubation, we washed out
the ATc, incubated the parasites for an extra 7 days in the absence of ATc and evaluated plaque
formation (Figure 4E). In these conditions, cKD TgNFS2-HA parasites displayed very small plaques
suggesting their viability was irreversibly impacted. In contrast, cKD TgISU1-HA parasites showed
plaques, suggesting parasite growth had at least partly resumed after ATc washout, while host cell

lysis remained limited if the drug was kept continuously during the same period of time. This
suggests that although depletion of TgISU1 has a marked impact on parasite growth, it is not
completely lethal.

We performed IFAs to assess possible morphological defects that may explain the impaired growths
of cKD TgNFS2-HA and cKD TgISU1-HA parasites. We stained the apicoplast and mitochondrion of
parasites kept in the continuous presence of ATc for several days. cKD TgNFS2-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
marker TgCPN60 (Figure 5A), which was quantified (Figure 5B). As this could reflect a specific impact
on this protein marker rather than a loss of the organelle, we also stained the parasites with
fluorescent streptavidin, which mainly detects the biotinylated apicoplast protein acetyl-CoA
carboxylase [48], confirming a similar loss of signal (Figure S6). This suggests there is a general impact
of TgNFS2 depletion on the organelle. The growth kinetics we observed for this mutant are
consistent with the "delayed death" effect observed in apicoplast-defective parasites [6,49,50]. On
the other hand, we were able to grow cKD TgISU1-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 defect in the parasite egress stage of the lytic cycle [51]. We thus performed
an egress assay on cKD TgISU1-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 [52], 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 [53]. Yet, this mutant
cell line was generated in a type I *T. gondii* strain, which is associated with acute toxoplasmosis in the
mouse model [54], and typically does not spontaneously form cysts. So, to be confirmed this
hypothesis needed further investigations, as we will see later in the manuscript.

In any case, our data show that interfering with the plastidic 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 TgNFS2 or TgISU1
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 [55], 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 candidates. 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 [56]. 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)
[57] and MiaB, a tRNA modification enzyme [58], as well as the IspG and IspH oxidoreductases of the
non-mevalonate isoprenoid pathway [59]. Finally, for the most part (43%), candidate Fe-S proteins
were predicted to be mitochondrial, with noticeably several important proteins of the respiratory
chain (SDHB, the Fe-S subunit of the succinate dehydrogenase complex, Rieske protein and
TgApiCox13) [60–62], but also enzymes involved in other metabolic pathways such as heme or
molybdopterin synthesis. CRISPR/Cas9 fitness scores [38] 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 TgISU1 and TgNFS2, 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 (TgISU1-HA) or three days (cKD
TgNFS2-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, B). 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 TgISU1 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 6C, 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 [63]. Using dedicated expression data [64,65] 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 [66]. This
protein, SRS19F, may be most highly expressed in stages present in the definitive host [65,67].
Conversely, SRS44, also known as CST1 and one of the earliest marker of stage conversion to
bradyzoites [68], 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 [69], 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 are
stage-specific and expressed in bradyzoites [70]. It should be noted that bradyzoite-specific proteins
were generally much strongly expressed upon TgISU1 depletion than TgNFS2 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 [53].

Depletion of TgNFS2 has an impact on the apicoplast, but also beyond the organelle

We next focused on proteins that varied specifically upon depletion of TgNFS2 (Table S3). Using the
hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, we assessed the putative localization of the candidates
(Figure 6D, Figure S7A) and we also defined putative functional classes based on manual curation
(Figure 6A, Figure S7B). Surprisingly, few apicoplast proteins were impacted. This could reflect a
limited impact on apicoplast Fe-S apoproteins, but this is in contradiction with the late, yet
pronounced, effect we see on the organelle in the absence of TgNFS2 (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 TgNFS2. 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) [32]. Using an anti-lipoic acid antibody on cKD TgNFS2-HA
protein extracts, we could already see a marked decrease in lipoylated PDH-E2 after only one day of
ATc incubation (Figure 7A). 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 7A). This is also unlikely to reflect a general
decrease of TgPDH-E2 levels upon TgNFS2 knock-down, as our quantitative proteomics data, which
was performed after 3 days of ATc incubation, show the same amount of unique peptides for TgPDH-
E2 (32 ± 2.5 for the control and 32.25 ± 2.75 for the mutant, ~60% of sequence coverage). This
finding suggests apicoplast Fe-S-dependent activities may be specifically affected in our mutant,
which would happen before observing the general demise and loss of the organelle. Long term
incubation of cKD TgNFS2-HA parasites with ATc and co-staining with apicoplast and inner membrane
complex (IMC) markers, revealed general cell division defects, including organelle segregation
problems and an abnormal membranous structures (Figure 7B). Overall, this suggests impacting the
Fe-S cluster synthesis pathway in the apicoplast had important metabolic consequences beyond the
organelle itself.

Depletion of TgISU1 impacts the mitochondrial respiratory chain

We also analyzed the proteins whose abundance changed upon TgISU1 depletion (Table S4). Again,
we used hyperLOPIT data to determine the localization of variant proteins (Figure 6E, Figure S8A) and
we also inferred their potential function from GO terms or manual curation (Figure 6B, Figure S8B).
Depletion of TgISU1 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: while our proteomic study detected peptides corresponding to as
much as 92% of the hyperLOPIT-predicted mitochondrial membrane and soluble proteins, 12% of
these were found to be significantly less expressed upon TgISU1 depletion, 60% of which are known
mitochondrial ETC components (Figure 6A, Figure 8A, Table S4). This suggests a specific effect of
TgISU1 depletion on the mitochondrial ETC. This ETC comprises four complexes in Apicomplexa
(which typically lack complex I), in which several Fe-S proteins have important function. As

mentioned earlier, they include the Fe-S subunit of the succinate dehydrogenase complex (SDHB,
part of complex II), the Rieske protein (part of complex III) and TgApiCox13 (part of complex IV) [60–
62]. Not only these three Fe-S cluster proteins were found to be less expressed upon TgISU1
depletion, but about 60% and 80% of complexes III and IV components (including recently
characterized parasite-specific subunits [61,62]), respectively, were also significantly less abundant
(Table S4, Figure 8A). The impact on components of complexes III and IV beyond their respective Fe-
S-dependent subunits is not surprising: as shown by others in *T. gondii* depletion of selected
members of a mitochondrial ETC complex can result in stalled assembly or impaired stability of the
whole complex [60–62,71].

We sought to verify the impact of TgISU1 depletion on proteins of the mitochondrial respiratory
chain by tagging two candidates, TgSDHB and TgApiCox13. In order to do this, due to the lack of
efficient selectable marker in the cKD TgISU1-HA cell line, we first had to generate a new
independent cKD TgISU1 untagged mutant from the TATi ΔKu80 cell line (Figure S9A, B). In this cell
line, we verified proper regulation of *TgISU1* expression by ATc (Figure S9C) and impact of TgISU1
depletion on parasite growth (Figure S9D). In this cKD TgISU1 mutant, a sequence coding for a C-
terminal triple HA epitope tag was inserted at the endogenous *TgSDHB* or *TgApiCox13* locus by
homologous recombination (Figure S10). We then incubated these parasites with ATc for three days
and used an anti-HA antibody to detect and quantify the proteins of interest by IFA (Figure 8B) and
immunoblot (Figure 8C). In accordance with the quantitative proteomics data, both TgSDHB and
TgApiCox13 were found to be less expressed in absence of TgISU1.

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 8D). Depletion of TgISU1 led to a
marked decrease of the parasite population displaying a strong red signal (Figure 8D). 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. It should be noted that although we
believe the drop in mitochondrial membrane potential is likely due to a specific alteration of the
respiratory chain, it may also be due to a loss of parasite viability. Reassuringly, our results are in line
with the recent findings obtained by Aw et al., who generated a mutant of mitochondrial Fe-S cluster
synthesis (by depleting TgNFS1), and observed a sharp decrease in TgSDHB abundance and a clear
drop in mitochondrial O_2 consumption rate [25].

Concomitantly to the lesser expression of mitochondrial respiratory chain subunits, the proteomics
analysis revealed TgISU1 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 be cytoplasmic or nuclear, including proteins
involved in DNA repair and replication (Table S4), which is perhaps unsurprising as the cytosolic CIA
Fe-S cluster assembly pathway is supposedly dependent from the ISC pathway [24]. Finally, 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 (Table S4).

Depletion of TgISU1 initiates conversion into bradyzoites

Another feature highlighted by the quantitative proteomics analysis of the TgISU1 mutant is indeed
the change in the expression of stage-specific proteins (Table S4). The expression of several
bradyzoite-specific proteins 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 TgISU1 may convert into
bona fide cyst-contained bradyzoites, as suggested by our initial morphological observations (Figure
5C). To verify this experimentally, we used a lectin from the plant *Dolichos biflorus* (DBL), which
recognizes the SRS44/CST1 glycoprotein that is exported to the nascent wall of differentiating cysts
[68]. We could see that during continuous growth of cKD TgISU1-HA parasites in the presence of ATc,
there was an increasing number of DBL-positive structures (Figure 9A). This was quantified during the
first 48 hours of intracellular development (Figure 9B) and, interestingly, was shown to mimic the
differentiation induced by nitric oxide, a known factor of stage conversion [72], and a potent
damaging agent of Fe-S clusters [73]. We combined RNAseq expression data for tachyzoite and
bradyzoite stages [65] to establish a hierarchical clustering of the SRS proteins detected in our
quantitative proteomics experiments for the two mutants (Figure 9C). This clearly confirmed a strong
increase in the expression of bradyzoite-specific SRS in the TgISU1 mutant. As mentioned earlier,
some were also upregulated in the TgNFS2 mutant but in much lesser proportions. The strongest
increase in bradyzoite-specific SRS expression upon TgNFS2 depletion was for SRS44/CST1, which
happens to be the protein DBL preferentially binds to [68]. However, contrarily to the TgISU1 mutant,
labelling experiments did not indicate any detectable increase in DBL recruitment in the TgNFS2
mutant (Figure 9B), confirming that impairing the plastidic Fe-S center synthesis pathway does not
trigger full stage conversion.

Stage conversion is a progressive process that happens over the course of several days, as it involves
the expression of distinct transcriptomes and proteomes [53]. Markers for specific steps of in vitro
cyst formation had been previously described [74], so we have used several of these to check the
kinetics of stage conversion in the TgISU1-depleted parasites. We kept the cKD TgISU1-HA parasites
for up to 14 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 9D). After 7 days of ATc treatment, the DBL-positive cyst contained parasites that
were still expressing SAG1 and not yet SAG4, whereas after 14 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 14 days timepoints (Figure 9D). This suggests incomplete conversion may be
leading to subsequent reactivation/reinvasion events. The smaller cyst size may also suggest a lack of
fitness in the long term for TgISU1-depleted parasites.

Lack of lethality and initiation of stage conversion are features shared by other mitochondrial
mutants

As impairment of the mitochondrial ETC and stage conversion are the two main features observed
for the TgISU1 mutant, it raised the possibility the former may be involved in triggering the latter. We
thus sought to evaluate in more details viability and differentiation of other mitochondrial mutants.
We used the ATc-regulatable cKD cell line for TgQCR11 [62], a complex III subunit found less

abundant in absence of TgISU1 (Figure 8A), and which was found by others to be essential for
mitochondrial respiration and parasite growth [61,62]. We also included in our study an ATc-
regulatable cKD cell line for TgmS35, a mitoribosomal protein whose depletion impacts organelle
morphology and function (including mitochondrial respiration), and overall parasite fitness [75].

Like for TgISU1 (Figure 4E), we assessed whether or not the fitness phenotype of these mutants was
reversible by performing plaque assays in the presence of ATc for 7 days, and then monitored plaque
formation for another 7 days upon drug removal (Figure 10A). The TgQCR11 mutant behaved very
similarly to the TgISU1 mutant, with virtually no plaques formed when incubated with ATc, while it
was able to reactivate the lytic cycle upon ATc washout. The TgmS35 mutant seemed less affected by
protein depletion: not only it generated small plaques after 7 days in the presence of ATc, but
whether or not the drug was washed out, prolonged incubation led to large lysis plaques in the host
cells. Overall, this experiment showed that mitochondrial mutants, whether they are affected in a
metabolic or more structural function, remain essentially viable. The similarity between the TgISU1
and the TgQCR11 mutant suggested the latter may be switching to a slow-growing but still viable
bradyzoite stage. The slowed-down, but less hampered progression through the lytic cycle of the
TgmS35 mutant suggested it might retain more tachyzoite-like growth kinetics.

To investigate the ability of these mutants to form cysts, we performed IFAs with specific bradyzoite
markers, like we did previously for the cKd TgISU1-HA cell line (Figure 9A, B). We first looked for the
recruitment of DBL to parasite-containing vacuoles during the first 48 hours of protein depletion,
(Figure 10B, C). As a control, we also treated TATi ΔKu80 parasites with atovaquone, an inhibitor of
the mitochondrial ETC that was previously shown to trigger stage conversion [76]. Interestingly, like
the atovaquone-treated TATi ΔKu80 parasites and the TgISU1 mutant (Figure 9A and B), treatment of
both TgQCR11 and TgmS35 mutants with ATc seemed to trigger stage conversion, as illustrated by an
increase in DBL staining of vacuoles over time (Figure 10B and C). When then tried to evaluate
conversion over a longer period by keeping the parasites for up to 14 days in the presence of ATc
(Figure 10D). For the TgmS35 mutant, this was achieved by using very low doses of parasite
inoculum, which allowed preserving some host cells in spite of the extensive lysis caused by the
parasites. Like for the TgISU1 mutant, even long term parasite did not allow complete disappearance
of the SAG1 tachyzoite marker in the TgQCR11 and TgmS35 mutants, and staining of the late
bradyzoites marker P21 was not observed. However, while a few DBL-labelled cysts remained in the
TgmS35 culture after 14 days of ATc treatment, they very rarely showed staining with the
intermediate bradyzoite marker P18/SAG4. On the contrary, substantial staining was observed upon
long term depletion of TgQCR11, like we observed for the TgISU1 mutant.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that interfering with general function like mitochondrial
translation, or targeting more specifically the mitochondrial ETC, does not irreversibly impair parasite
viability and instead leads to an initiation of stage conversion into bradyzoites, although it may not
necessarily be complete.

Discussion

Because of their origin and metabolic importance, the two apicomplexan endosymbiotic organelles
have gathered considerable interest as potential drug targets [77,78]. 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, there may still be 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 [79]. They are essentially
impacting the organellar protein synthesis by acting on the translation machinery [80], although the
mitochondrial ETC inhibitor atovaquone is also used to treat malaria and toxoplasmosis [81]. 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 [72,76,82]. 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 Fe-S synthesis pathways which are very similar biochemically, but are located
into two distinct endosymbiotic organelles, and whose inactivation has drastically different
consequences for parasite fitness. Fe-S clusters are ancient, ubiquitous and fundamental to many
cellular functions, but their synthesis by distinct biosynthetic pathways was inherited by plastids or
by the mitochondrion through distinct bacterial ancestors, and have thus specialized into adding
these cofactors to different client proteins [22]. 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 ETCs. 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 TgNFS2 had a late but marked effect on the organelle itself, as it led ultimately to a partial
loss of the apicoplast, which is consistent with the phenotype observed when disrupting the SUF
pathway in *Plasmodium* [26]. IspG and IspH, which are key Fe-S-dependent enzymes of the non-
mevalonate isoprenoid synthesis pathway [59], were only found marginally less expressed in our
quantitative analysis after TgNFS2 depletion. However, our proteomics dataset provided indirect
clues that their function may be impacted. Isoprenoid synthesis is vital for *T. gondii* tachyzoites [33],
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 [83]. Isoprenoids are for instance important for synthesizing ubiquinone/coenzyme Q,
and the single predicted mitochondrial candidate that was significantly less expressed upon TgNFS2
depletion is a putative UbiE/COQ5 methyltransferase, involved in synthesis of this co-factor [84].
Isoprenoids are also important for dolichol-derived protein glycosylation and
glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchor biosynthesis, and interestingly the three putative rhoptry-
localized candidates significantly less expressed in the TgNFS2 mutant (Table S3) are predicted to be
GPI-anchored and/or glycosylated. Overall, this might be an indication that TgNFS2 depletion impacts
isoprenoid synthesis in the apicoplast, which in turn would impact other metabolic pathways.

Impairing isoprenoid synthesis does not, however, necessarily lead to a loss of the organelle [26].
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 the E2 subunit of the apicoplast-located PDH (Figure 7A). 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 leads to a loss of the organelle and severely impairs
fitness of the parasites [33,85]. Interestingly, long term depletion of TgISU1 leads to cell division
problems, and affects membrane compartments such as the IMC (Figure 7B), which are defects
previously observed in parasites where the FASII system has been genetically- or chemically-

disrupted [86–88]. 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 [85,87] and, interestingly, upon depletion of TgNFS2 we observed a pattern of
overexpression for ER-located enzymes involved in the synthesis of several phospholipids and
ceramides (Figure 6A and D, Table S3). These lipids are usually synthesized in the ER from apicoplast-
generated precursors, as both organelles cooperate for FA and phospholipid (PL) synthesis [89]. Yet,
the ER-localized PL-synthesis machinery can also use FA scavenged from the host [90]. The increased
expression of ER-localized lipid-related enzymes may thus reflect an increased synthesis, potentially
from exogenous lipid precursors, in compensation for a defect in the apicoplast-localized machinery.
In spite of this potential compensation mechanism, it seems the alteration of the SUF pathway in *T.*
gondii has such a profound impact that it ultimately leads to the irreversible demise of the parasites
(Figure 4E). It would be interesting to use recently described approaches like stable isotope labelling
of lipid precursors combined to lipidomic analysis [87], to investigate in the SUF pathway mutant the
potential changes in de novo synthesis of FA or in lipid scavenging from the host.

In 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 8D), and supported by quantitative analyses showing a clear drop in
expression of many respiratory complex proteins (Figure 8A, B, and C, Table S4). This is also in line
with the recent description of another mitochondrial Fe-S cluster synthesis mutant that showed a
marked alteration of its respiratory capacity [25]. Although the mitochondrion, through the TCA cycle
and the respiratory chain/oxidative phosphorylation, contributes to energy production in tachyzoites
[91], the glycolytic flux is also believed to be a major source of carbon and energy for these parasites
[92]. Thus, rather coherently, as highlighted by our quantitative proteomic analysis, disruption of the
ISC pathway led to a potential overexpression of glycolytic enzymes concurrently with the lower
expression of mitochondrial ETC components (Figure 6B, Table S4). The possible 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 ISC-
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
[93]. Our analysis of the viability of other mitochondrial mutants confirmed results obtained by
others showing that the organelle, and in particular the ETC, seem important for parasite fitness
[61,62,75]. Yet, perhaps because of their metabolic flexibility, we have shown that mutant parasites
seem to retain the ability to survive as tachyzoites, or initiate a switch to bradyzoites.

The inactivation of the ISC pathway likely has consequences on other important cellular
housekeeping functions besides mitochondrial metabolism. In other eukaryotes, the ISC pathway
provides a yet unknown precursor molecule as a sulfur provider for the cytosolic CIA Fe-S cluster
assembly pathway [24]. 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 TgISU1 depletion. The CIA pathway has recently been shown to be important for
tachyzoite proliferation [25], 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 TgISU1 parasites could be affected beyond recovery.
In vivo experiment in the mouse model may be used to assess this.

The transition from tachyzoite to bradyzoite is known to involve a considerable change in gene
expression [64,65], and it takes several days of in vitro differentiation-inducing conditions to obtain
mature cysts [94,95]. Quantitative proteomic analysis showed that TgISU1-depleted parasites rapidly
display a high expression of bradyzoite-specific surface antigens and GRA markers (Table S4, Figure
9C). In all the mitochondrial mutants investigated in this study, long term perturbation of the
organelle led to the appearance of parasite-containing structures with typical cyst-like morphology
(Figure 5, Figure 9, Figure 10). However, using specific antibodies against early or late bradyzoite
markers, the differentiating parasites never appeared to reach a fully mature bradyzoite stage
(Figures 9 and 10). Also, contrarily to the ETC mutants (TgQCR11 and TgISU1), the mitochondrial
translation mutant (TgmS35), while seemingly initiating conversion to bradyzoite, largely continued
to thrive with almost tachyzoite growth dynamics (Figure 10A). However, as the mitochondrion
encodes three proteins that are subunits of mitochondrial ETC complexes III (cytochrome b) and IV
(CoxI and III), this mutant should also be supposedly impacted for ETC function. This apparent
discrepancy might then be explained by a looser control of down-regulation of protein expression, or
by compensatory mechanisms that may be specifically at play in this particular mutant. It is also
possible that more directly targeting the ETC is a much stronger inducer of differentiation, and thus
different mitochondrial mutants may behave differently regarding stage conversion. Importantly,
one main reason potentially explaining the incomplete differentiation of these mitochondrial
mutants is that they were generated in a type I *T. gondii* strain that 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 they are largely incapable of forming
mature bradyzoite cysts [96]. This calls for further investigations, and in particular generating similar
mitochondrion-related mutants in more cystogenic type II parasites, which could be very insightful.

Our quantitative proteomics analysis shows that SUF-impaired parasites also seem to initiate an
upregulation of some bradyzoite markers early after TgNFS2 depletion. Yet, these parasites did not
display the hallmarks of bradyzoite morphology. They did not progress towards stage conversion and
instead they displayed considerable perturbation of the cell division process (Figure 7B), and
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 [97]. 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 [98–100]. Consequences of mitochondrial
dysfunction include a restricted energy supply and thus constitutes a metabolic challenge that can
trigger important cellular adaptations that ultimately determine eukaryotic cell fate and survival. Our
results suggest that this is also possibly the case for *T. gondii*. It is for instance quite interesting to see
that altering the respiratory activity of the organelle, whether it is by generating specific mutants or
by the use of drugs such as atovaquone, seems to lead to a similar differentiation phenotype.

More generally, the environmental or metabolic cues that drive specific gene expression to induce a
functional shift leading to conversion into bradyzoites are not fully identified. Moreover, how these
stimuli are integrated is also largely unknown. A high-throughput approach has allowed the recent
identification of a master transcriptional regulator of stage conversion [101], but how upstream
events are converted into cellular signals to mobilize the master regulator is still an important, yet
unresolved, question. Translational control [102] may play a role in regulating this factor in the
context of the integrated stress response [103]. In fact, an essential part of the eukaryotic cell stress
response occurs post-transcriptionally and is achieved by RNA-binding proteins [104]. Interestingly,
among the proteins significantly less abundant in the spontaneously-differentiating TgISU1 mutant
were many RNA-binding proteins. They include components of stress granules (PolyA-binding
protein, PUF1, Alba1 and 2, some of which are linked to stage conversion [105–107]), 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
[108]). 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, because long term persistence of bradyzoites
and their resistance to current treatments makes them a durable threat for their human hosts.
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 [43], 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 (DMEM, Gibco), supplemented with 5% decomplemented fetal bovine
serum, 2-mM L-glutamine and a cocktail of penicillin-streptomycin at 100 μg/ml. The TgQCR11 [62]
and TgmS35 [75] conditional mutants cell lines were generously provided by the Sheiner laboratory.

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/) [55]. The whole complement of *T. gondii*
annotated proteins was downloaded in FASTA format from the ToxoDB database (https://toxodb.org
[36], 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 [109]), 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/ [110]).

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.

Candidate variant proteins identified by quantitative proteomics were mapped on the graphic
representation of the high-resolution spatial proteome map of *T. gondii* using the hyperLOPIT dataset
[37] (https://proteome.shinyapps.io/toxolopittzex/).

Heterologous expression in *E. coli*. Constructs for designing recombinant proteins were defined by
aligning TgNFS2 and TgISU1 amino acid sequences with their *E. coli* counterparts. For *TgNFS2*, 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 *TgISU1*, 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 TgNFS2 and TgISU1 and selected with
ampicillin. For growth assays [40], 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). Parental *E. coli* (strain K12) were
included as a control. Growth was monitored through OD_{600} measurement after 7, 14 and 24 hours at
37°C in a shaking incubator.

Generation of HA-tagged TgNFS2, TgSUFE2 and TgISU1 cell lines. The ligation independent strategy
[42] was used for C-terminal hemagglutinin $(HA)_3$-tagging of TgISU1. A fragment corresponding to the
3' end of *TgISU1* was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA, with the Q5 DNA polymerase (New
England BioLabs) using primers ML4208/ML4209 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 TgISU1-HA
cell line were selected with chloramphenicol and cloned by serial limiting dilution.

For TgNFS2 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 (*TgNFS2*) 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 (*TgNFS2*) and
ML4160/ML4161 (*TgSUFE2*) and the protospacer sequences were introduced in the Cas9-expressing
pU6-Universal plasmid (Addgene, ref #52694) [38]. Again, the TATi ΔKu80 cell line was transfected
and transgenic parasites of the TgNFS2-HA or TgSUFE2-HA cell lines were selected with
chloramphenicol and cloned by serial limiting dilution.

Generation of TgNFS2 and TgISU1 conditional knock-down and complemented cell lines. The
conditional knock-down cell for *TgNFS2* and *TgISU1* were generated based on the Tet-Off system
using the DHFR-TetO7Sag4 plasmid [111].

For *TgISU1*, 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, yielding the DHFR-TetO7Sag4-TgISU1 plasmid. The plasmid was then linearized
and transfected into the TgISU1-HA cell line. Transfected parasites were selected with
pyrimethamine and cloned by serial limiting dilution. A similar approach was used to generate an
independent cKD TgISU1 cell line, but starting from the TATi ΔKu80 cell line instead of the TgISU1-HA
cell line, to allow subsequent tagging of mitochondrial candidates.

For *TgNFS2*, 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 *TgNFS2* gene. A specific sgRNA was generated to introduce a double-stranded
break at the 5 of the *TgNFS2* locus. Primers used to generate the guide were ML4156/ML4157 and
the protospacer sequences were introduced in the pU6-Universal plasmid (Addgene ref#52694) [38].
The *TgNFS2*-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 TgNFS2-HA and cKD TgISU1-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. *TgNFS2* (2097 bp) and *TgISU1* (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 [43] to yield the pUPRT-TgNFS2 and pUPRT-TgISU1plasmids,
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 TgNFS2-HA comp cKD
TgISU1-HA comp cell lines, respectively.

Generation of HA-tagged TgSDHB and TgApiCox13 cell lines. 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
ML5116/ML5117 (*TgSDHB*) and ML5114/ML5115 (*TgApiCox13*), that also carry 30 bp homology with
the 3 end of the corresponding genes. A specific sgRNA was generated to introduce a double-
stranded break at the 3 of the respective loci. Primers used to generate the guides were
ML4986/ML4987 (*TgSDHB*) and ML4984/ML4985 (*TgApiCox13*) and the protospacer sequences were
introduced in the Cas9-expressing pU6-Universal plasmid (Addgene, ref #52694) [38]. The cKD TgISU1
cell line was transfected and parasites were selected with chloramphenicol and cloned by serial
limiting dilution.

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 [112], rabbit anti-CPN60
[113] and mouse anti-actin [114]. Protein quantification was performed by band densitometry using
FIJI (https://imagej.net/software/fiji/).

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 (PFA) 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 [113], mouse monoclonal anti-F1-
ATPase beta subunit (gift of P. Bradley), mouse monoclonal anti-GRA3 [115], rabbit anti-TgHSP28
[116], rabbit anti-GAP45 [117], mouse monoclonal anti-SAG1 [112], anti SAG4/P18 (diluted 1/200, T8
3B1) and anti P21 (diluted 1/200, T8 4G10) [118]. 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 (added to a final concentration of 1
µg/ml). They were then fixed with 4% v/v PFA and plaques were revealed by staining with a 0.1%
crystal violet solution (V5265, Sigma-Aldrich). For the washout experiments, after 7 days the culture
medium was removed from the wells and one gentle wash was performed with Hanks' Balanced Salt
Solution (HBSS), taking care not to disturb the cells; then new DMEM medium containing or not ATc
was added for another 7-day incubation, before termination of the experiment by PFA fixation and
crystal violet staining.

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 [119]: 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
TgNFS2-HA, cKD TgISU1-HA and their respective complemented cell lines, as well as cKD TgISU1
(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 *TgNFS2*
(ML4686/ML4687), *TgISU1* (ML4684/ML4685) and, as a control, *Tubulin β* (ML841/ML842) or *actin*
(ML843/ML844) 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 TgISU1-HA cell lines
were grown for two days in the presence of ATc; parasites of the cKD TgNFS2-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 [120].

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 [121]. 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 three 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. For comparisons with of ratios of groups of samples with a
reference set to 1, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.

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.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to L. Sheiner, P. Bradley, B. Striepen, V. Carruthers, S. Lourido, S. Angel and D.
Soldati-Favre for providing cell lines, antibodies and plasmids. We thank the developers and the
managers of the VeupathDB.org/ToxoDB.org databases, as well as scientists who contributed
datasets. We also thank the MRI imaging facility for providing access to their microscopes and flow
cytometers, and the Mass Spectrometry Proteomics Platform (MSPP) of the BPMP laboratory. Thanks

to F. Vignols for insights into the biochemistry of Fe-S proteins. This project was supported by the

Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (Equipe FRM EQ20170336725), the Labex Parafrap (ANR-11-

LABX-0024) and the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-19-CE15-0023).

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

868
869 **References**
870

1. Zimorski V, Ku C, Martin WF, Gould SB. Endosymbiotic theory for organelle origins. Current
Opinion in Microbiology. 2014;22: 38–48. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2014.09.008

2. Spinelli JB, Haigis MC. The multifaceted contributions of mitochondria to cellular metabolism.
Nat Cell Biol. 2018;20: 745–754. doi:10.1038/s41556-018-0124-1

3. Rolland N, Bouchnak I, Moyet L, Salvi D, Kuntz M. The main functions of plastids. In: Maréchal
E, editor. Plastids. New York, NY: Springer US; 2018. pp. 73–85. doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-8654-
5_5

4. Inaba T, Ito-Inaba Y. Versatile roles of plastids in plant growth and development. Plant and Cell
Physiology. 2010;51: 1847–1853. doi:10.1093/pcp/pcq147

5. McFadden GI, Reith ME, Munholland J, Lang-Unnasch N. Plastid in human parasites. Nature.
1996;381: 482–482. doi:10.1038/381482a0

6. Fichera ME, Roos DS. A plastid organelle as a drug target in apicomplexan parasites. Nature.
1997;390: 407–409. doi:10.1038/37132

7. Keeling PJ. The number, speed, and impact of plastid endosymbioses in eukaryotic evolution.
Annu Rev Plant Biol. 2013;64: 583–607. doi:10.1146/annurev-arplant-050312-120144

8. Gould SB, Maier U-G, Martin WF. Protein import and the origin of red complex plastids.
Current Biology. 2015;25: R515–R521. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2015.04.033

9. van Dooren GG, Striepen B. The algal past and parasite present of the apicoplast. Annu Rev
Microbiol. 2013;67: 271–289. doi:10.1146/annurev-micro-092412-155741

10. Sheiner L, Vaidya AB, McFadden GI. The metabolic roles of the endosymbiotic organelles of
Toxoplasma and Plasmodium spp. Curr Opin Microbiol. 2013;16: 452–458.
doi:10.1016/j.mib.2013.07.003

11. van Dooren GG, Hapuarachchi SV. The dark side of the chloroplast: biogenesis, metabolism
and membrane biology of the apicoplast. Advances in Botanical Research. Elsevier; 2017. pp.
145–185. doi:10.1016/bs.abr.2017.06.007

12. de Souza W, Attias M, Rodrigues JCF. Particularities of mitochondrial structure in parasitic
protists (Apicomplexa and Kinetoplastida). The International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell
Biology. 2009;41: 2069–2080. doi:10.1016/j.biocel.2009.04.007

13.　Ovciarikova J, Lemgruber L, Stilger KL, Sullivan WJ, Sheiner L. Mitochondrial behaviour
throughout the lytic cycle of Toxoplasma gondii. Sci Rep. 2017;7: 42746.
doi:10.1038/srep42746

14.　Seeber F, Limenitakis J, Soldati-Favre D. Apicomplexan mitochondrial metabolism: a story of
gains, losses and retentions. Trends in Parasitology. 2008;24: 468–478.
doi:10.1016/j.pt.2008.07.004

15.　Kobayashi T, Sato S, Takamiya S, Komaki-Yasuda K, Yano K, Hirata A, et al. Mitochondria and
apicoplast of Plasmodium falciparum: Behaviour on subcellular fractionation and the
implication. Mitochondrion. 2007;7: 125–132. doi:10.1016/j.mito.2006.11.021

16.　Nishi M, Hu K, Murray JM, Roos DS. Organellar dynamics during the cell cycle of Toxoplasma
gondii. J Cell Sci. 2008;121: 1559–1568. doi:10.1242/jcs.021089

17.　Lill R. Function and biogenesis of iron–sulphur proteins. Nature. 2009;460: 831–838.
doi:10.1038/nature08301

18.　Roche B, Aussel L, Ezraty B, Mandin P, Py B, Barras F. Iron/sulfur proteins biogenesis in
prokaryotes: formation, regulation and diversity. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) -
Bioenergetics. 2013;1827: 455–469. doi:10.1016/j.bbabio.2012.12.010

19.　Zheng L, Cash VL, Flint DH, Dean DR. Assembly of Iron-Sulfur Clusters: identification of an
iscSUA-hscBA-fdx gene cluster from Azotobacter vinelandii. J Biol Chem. 1998;273: 13264–
13272. doi:10.1074/jbc.273.21.13264

20.　Takahashi Y, Tokumoto U. A third bacterial system for the assembly of Iron-Sulfur clusters
with homologs in archaea and plastids. J Biol Chem. 2002;277: 28380–28383.
doi:10.1074/jbc.C200365200

21.　Boyd ES, Thomas KM, Dai Y, Boyd JM, Outten FW. Interplay between Oxygen and Fe–S cluster
biogenesis: insights from the Suf pathway. Biochemistry. 2014;53: 5834–5847.
doi:10.1021/bi500488r

22.　Tsaousis AD. On the origin of Iron/Sulfur cluster biosynthesis in eukaryotes. Front Microbiol.
2019;10: 2478. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2019.02478

23.　Couturier J, Touraine B, Briat J-F, Gaymard F, Rouhier N. The iron-sulfur cluster assembly
machineries in plants: current knowledge and open questions. Front Plant Sci. 2013;4.
doi:10.3389/fpls.2013.00259

24.　Lill R, Srinivasan V, Mühlenhoff U. The role of mitochondria in cytosolic-nuclear iron–sulfur
protein biogenesis and in cellular iron regulation. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2014;22:
111–119. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2014.09.015

25.　Aw YTV, Seidi A, Hayward JA, Lee J, Victor Makota F, Rug M, et al. A key cytosolic iron-sulfur
cluster synthesis protein localises to the mitochondrion of Toxoplasma gondii. Mol Microbiol.
2020; mmi.14651. doi:10.1111/mmi.14651

26.　Gisselberg JE, Dellibovi-Ragheb TA, Matthews KA, Bosch G, Prigge ST. The Suf iron-sulfur
cluster synthesis pathway is required for apicoplast maintenance in malaria parasites. Seeber
F, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2013;9: e1003655. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003655

27. Haussig JM, Matuschewski K, Kooij TWA. Identification of vital and dispensable sulfur
utilization factors in the Plasmodium apicoplast. Waller RF, editor. PLoS ONE. 2014;9: e89718.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089718

28. Kumar B, Chaubey S, Shah P, Tanveer A, Charan M, Siddiqi MI, et al. Interaction between
sulphur mobilisation proteins SufB and SufC: Evidence for an iron–sulphur cluster biogenesis
pathway in the apicoplast of Plasmodium falciparum. International Journal for Parasitology.
2011;41: 991–999. doi:10.1016/j.ijpara.2011.05.006

29. Charan M, Singh N, Kumar B, Srivastava K, Siddiqi MI, Habib S. Sulfur mobilization for Fe-S
cluster assembly by the essential SUF pathway in the Plasmodium falciparum apicoplast and
its Inhibition. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2014;58: 3389–3398. doi:10.1128/AAC.02711-13

30. Charan M, Choudhary HH, Singh N, Sadik M, Siddiqi MI, Mishra S, et al. [Fe-S] cluster assembly
in the apicoplast and its indispensability in mosquito stages of the malaria parasite. FEBS J.
2017;284: 2629–2648. doi:10.1111/febs.14159

31. Pala ZR, Saxena V, Saggu GS, Garg S. Recent advances in the [Fe–S] cluster biogenesis (SUF)
pathway functional in the apicoplast of Plasmodium. Trends in Parasitology. 2018;34: 800–
809. doi:10.1016/j.pt.2018.05.010

32. Mazumdar J, H Wilson E, Masek K, A Hunter C, Striepen B. Apicoplast fatty acid synthesis is
essential for organelle biogenesis and parasite survival in Toxoplasma gondii. Proc Natl Acad
Sci USA. 2006;103: 13192–13197. doi:10.1073/pnas.0603391103

33. Nair SC, Brooks CF, Goodman CD, Sturm A, Strurm A, McFadden GI, et al. Apicoplast
isoprenoid precursor synthesis and the molecular basis of fosmidomycin resistance in
Toxoplasma gondii. J Exp Med. 2011;208: 1547–1559. doi:10.1084/jem.20110039

34. Bergmann A, Floyd K, Key M, Dameron C, Rees KC, Thornton LB, et al. Toxoplasma gondii
requires its plant-like heme biosynthesis pathway for infection. PLoS Pathog. 2020;16:
e1008499. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1008499

35. Tjhin ET, Hayward JA, McFadden GI, van Dooren GG. Characterization of the apicoplast-
localized enzyme TgUroD in Toxoplasma gondii reveals a key role of the apicoplast in heme
biosynthesis. J Biol Chem. 2020;295: 1539–1550. doi:10.1074/jbc.RA119.011605

36. Harb OS, Roos DS. ToxoDB: functional genomics resource for Toxoplasma and related
organisms. Methods Mol Biol. 2020;2071: 27–47. doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-9857-9_2

37. Barylyuk K, Koreny L, Ke H, Butterworth S, Crook OM, Lassadi I, et al. A comprehensive
subcellular atlas of the Toxoplasma proteome via hyperLOPIT provides spatial context for
protein functions. Cell Host & Microbe. 2020; S193131282030514X.
doi:10.1016/j.chom.2020.09.011

38. Sidik SM, Huet D, Ganesan SM, Huynh M-H, Wang T, Nasamu AS, et al. A Genome-wide CRISPR
Screen in Toxoplasma Identifies Essential Apicomplexan Genes. Cell. 2016;166: 1423-
1435.e12. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2016.08.019

39. Braymer JJ, Freibert SA, Rakwalska-Bange M, Lill R. Mechanistic concepts of iron-sulfur protein
biogenesis in Biology. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Cell Research.
2021;1868: 118863. doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2020.118863

40.   Outten FW, Djaman O, Storz G. A suf operon requirement for Fe-S cluster assembly during
979   iron starvation in Escherichia coli: suf operon role during iron starvation. Molecular
980   Microbiology. 2004;52: 861–872. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2958.2004.04025.x

981   41.   Fox BA, Ristuccia JG, Gigley JP, Bzik DJ. Efficient gene replacements in Toxoplasma gondii
982   strains deficient for nonhomologous end joining. Eukaryotic Cell. 2009;8: 520–529.
983   doi:10.1128/EC.00357-08

984   42.   Huynh M-H, Carruthers VB. Tagging of endogenous genes in a Toxoplasma gondii strain
985   lacking Ku80. Eukaryot Cell. 2009;8: 530–539. doi:10.1128/EC.00358-08

986   43.   Sheiner L, Demerly JL, Poulsen N, Beatty WL, Lucas O, Behnke MS, et al. A Systematic Screen
987   to Discover and Analyze Apicoplast Proteins Identifies a Conserved and Essential Protein
988   Import Factor. PLoS Pathog. 2011;7. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002392

989   44.   Pino P, Foth BJ, Kwok L-Y, Sheiner L, Schepers R, Soldati T, et al. Dual targeting of antioxidant
990   and metabolic enzymes to the mitochondrion and the apicoplast of Toxoplasma gondii. PLoS
991   Pathog. 2007;3: e115. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.0030115

992   45.   Ollagnier-de-Choudens S, Lascoux D, Loiseau L, Barras F, Forest E, Fontecave M. Mechanistic
993   studies of the SufS-SufE cysteine desulfurase: evidence for sulfur transfer from SufS to SufE.
994   FEBS Lett. 2003;555: 263–267. doi:10.1016/s0014-5793(03)01244-4

995   46.   Narayana Murthy, UM, Ollagnier-de-Choudens S, Sanakis Y, Abdel-Ghany SE, Rousset C, Ye H,
996   et al. Characterization of Arabidopsis thaliana SufE2 and SufE3: functions in chloroplast iron-
997   sulfur cluster assembly and NAD synthesis. J Biol Chem. 2007;282: 18254–18264.
998   doi:10.1074/jbc.M701428200

47.   Meissner M, Brecht S, Bujard H, Soldati D. Modulation of myosin A expression by a newly
established tetracycline repressor-based inducible system in Toxoplasma gondii. Nucleic Acids
Res. 2001;29: E115.

48.   Jelenska J, Crawford MJ, Harb OS, Zuther E, Haselkorn R, Roos DS, et al. Subcellular localization
of acetyl-CoA carboxylase in the apicomplexan parasite Toxoplasma gondii. Proceedings of the
National Academy of Sciences. 2001;98: 2723–2728. doi:10.1073/pnas.051629998

49.   Pfefferkorn ER, Nothnagel RF, Borotz SE. Parasiticidal effect of clindamycin on Toxoplasma
gondii grown in cultured cells and selection of a drug-resistant mutant. Antimicrob Agents
Chemother. 1992;36: 1091–1096.

50.   He CY, Shaw MK, Pletcher CH, Striepen B, Tilney LG, Roos DS. A plastid segregation defect in
the protozoan parasite Toxoplasma gondii. EMBO J. 2001;20: 330–339.
doi:10.1093/emboj/20.3.330

51.   Blader IJ, Coleman BI, Chen C-T, Gubbels M-J. Lytic cycle of Toxoplasma gondii: 15 years later.
Annu Rev Microbiol. 2015;69: 463–485. doi:10.1146/annurev-micro-091014-104100

52.   Dubey JP, Lindsay DS, Speer CA. Structures of Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoites, bradyzoites, and
sporozoites and biology and development of tissue cysts. Clin Microbiol Rev. 1998;11: 267–
299.

53.   Cerutti A, Blanchard N, Besteiro S. The bradyzoite: a key developmental stage for the
persistence and pathogenesis of toxoplasmosis. Pathogens. 2020;9.
doi:10.3390/pathogens9030234

54.   Sibley LD, Boothroyd JC. Virulent strains of Toxoplasma gondii comprise a single clonal lineage.
Nature. 1992;359: 82–85. doi:10.1038/359082a0

55.   Valasatava Y, Rosato A, Banci L, Andreini C. MetalPredator: a web server to predict iron-sulfur
cluster binding proteomes. Bioinformatics. 2016;32: 2850–2852.
doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btw238

56.   Fuss JO, Tsai C-L, Ishida JP, Tainer JA. Emerging critical roles of Fe–S clusters in DNA replication
and repair. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Cell Research. 2015;1853: 1253–
1271. doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2015.01.018

57.   Thomsen-Zieger N, Schachtner J, Seeber F. Apicomplexan parasites contain a single lipoic acid
synthase located in the plastid. FEBS Lett. 2003;547: 80–86. doi:10.1016/s0014-
5793(03)00673-2

58.   Pierrel F, Douki T, Fontecave M, Atta M. MiaB protein is a bifunctional radical-S-
adenosylmethionine enzyme involved in thiolation and methylation of tRNA. J Biol Chem.
2004;279: 47555–47563. doi:10.1074/jbc.M408562200

59.   Imlay L, Odom AR. Isoprenoid metabolism in apicomplexan parasites. Curr Clin Microbiol Rep.
2014;1: 37–50. doi:10.1007/s40588-014-0006-7

60.   Seidi A, Muellner-Wong LS, Rajendran E, Tjhin ET, Dagley LF, Aw VY, et al. Elucidating the
mitochondrial proteome of Toxoplasma gondii reveals the presence of a divergent
cytochrome c oxidase. Elife. 2018;7. doi:10.7554/eLife.38131

61.   Hayward JA, Rajendran E, Zwahlen SM, Faou P, van Dooren GG. Divergent features of the
coenzyme Q:cytochrome c oxidoreductase complex in Toxoplasma gondii parasites. PLoS
Pathog. 2021;17: e1009211. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1009211

62.   Maclean AE, Bridges HR, Silva MF, Ding S, Ovciarikova J, Hirst J, et al. Complexome profile of
Toxoplasma gondii mitochondria identifies divergent subunits of respiratory chain complexes
including new subunits of cytochrome bc1 complex. PLoS Pathog. 2021;17: e1009301.
doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1009301

63.   Lanz ND, Booker SJ. Auxiliary iron–sulfur cofactors in radical SAM enzymes. Biochimica et
Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Cell Research. 2015;1853: 1316–1334.
doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2015.01.002

64.   Pittman KJ, Aliota MT, Knoll LJ. Dual transcriptional profiling of mice and Toxoplasma gondii
during acute and chronic infection. BMC Genomics. 2014;15: 806. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-15-
806

65.   Hehl AB, Basso WU, Lippuner C, Ramakrishnan C, Okoniewski M, Walker RA, et al. Asexual
expansion of Toxoplasma gondii merozoites is distinct from tachyzoites and entails expression
of non-overlapping gene families to attach, invade, and replicate within feline enterocytes.
BMC Genomics. 2015;16: 66. doi:10.1186/s12864-015-1225-x

| 1055 | 66. | Jung C, Lee CY-F, Grigg ME. The SRS superfamily of Toxoplasma surface proteins. International |
| 1056 | | Journal for Parasitology. 2004;34: 285–296. doi:10.1016/j.ijpara.2003.12.004 |

1057	67.	Li L, Brunk BP, Kissinger JC, Pape D, Tang K, Cole RH, et al. Gene discovery in the apicomplexa
1058		as revealed by EST sequencing and assembly of a comparative gene database. Genome Res.
1059		2003;13: 443–454. doi:10.1101/gr.693203

1060	68.	Tomita T, Bzik DJ, Ma YF, Fox BA, Markillie LM, Taylor RC, et al. The Toxoplasma gondii cyst
1061		wall protein CST1 is critical for cyst wall integrity and promotes bradyzoite persistence. PLoS
1062		Pathog. 2013;9: e1003823. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003823

1063	69.	Yang J, Zhang L, Diao H, Xia N, Zhou Y, Zhao J, et al. ANK1 and DnaK-TPR, two tetratricopeptide
1064		repeat-containing proteins primarily expressed in Toxoplasma bradyzoites, do not contribute
1065		to bradyzoite differentiation. Front Microbiol. 2017;8: 2210. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2017.02210

1066	70.	Nadipuram SM, Thind AC, Rayatpisheh S, Wohlschlegel JA, Bradley PJ. Proximity biotinylation
1067		reveals novel secreted dense granule proteins of Toxoplasma gondii bradyzoites. PLoS One.
1068		2020;15: e0232552. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0232552

| 1069 | 71. | Huet D, Rajendran E, van Dooren GG, Lourido S. Identification of cryptic subunits from an |
| 1070 | | apicomplexan ATP synthase. eLife. 2018;7: e38097. doi:10.7554/eLife.38097 |

1071	72.	Bohne W, Heesemann J, Gross U. Reduced replication of Toxoplasma gondii is necessary for
1072		induction of bradyzoite-specific antigens: a possible role for nitric oxide in triggering stage
1073		conversion. Infect Immun. 1994;62: 1761–1767.

1074	73.	Crack JC, Green J, Thomson AJ, Le Brun NE. Iron-sulfur clusters as biological sensors: the
1075		chemistry of reactions with molecular oxygen and nitric oxide. Acc Chem Res. 2014;47: 3196–
1076		3205. doi:10.1021/ar5002507

1077	74.	Soete M, Fortier B, Camus D, Dubremetz JF. Toxoplasma gondii: kinetics of bradyzoite-
1078		tachyzoite interconversion in vitro. Exp Parasitol. 1993;76: 259–264.
1079		doi:10.1006/expr.1993.1031

1080	75.	Lacombe A, Maclean AE, Ovciarikova J, Tottey J, Mühleip A, Fernandes P, et al. Identification
1081		of the Toxoplasma gondii mitochondrial ribosome, and characterisation of a protein essential
1082		for mitochondrial translation. Mol Microbiol. 2019;112: 1235–1252. doi:10.1111/mmi.14357

1083	76.	Tomavo S, Boothroyd JC. Interconnection between organellar functions, development and
1084		drug resistance in the protozoan parasite, Toxoplasma gondii. International Journal for
1085		Parasitology. 1995;25: 1293–1299. doi:10.1016/0020-7519(95)00066-B

| 1086 | 77. | Biddau M, Sheiner L. Targeting the apicoplast in malaria. Biochem Soc Trans. 2019;47: 973– |
| 1087 | | 983. doi:10.1042/BST20170563 |

| 1088 | 78. | Mather MW, Henry KW, Vaidya AB. Mitochondrial drug targets in apicomplexan parasites. |
| 1089 | | Curr Drug Targets. 2007;8: 49–60. doi:10.2174/138945007779315632 |

1090	79.	Dunay IR, Gajurel K, Dhakal R, Liesenfeld O, Montoya JG. Treatment of toxoplasmosis:
1091		historical perspective, animal models, and current clinical practice. Clin Microbiol Reviews.
1092		2018;31: e00057-17, /cmr/31/4/e00057-17.atom. doi:10.1128/CMR.00057-17

80.   Goodman CD, Pasaje CFA, Kennedy K, McFadden GI, Ralph SA. Targeting protein translation in
organelles of the Apicomplexa. Trends in Parasitology. 2016;32: 953–965.
doi:10.1016/j.pt.2016.09.011

81.   Baggish AL, Hill DR. Antiparasitic agent atovaquone. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2002;46:
1163–1173. doi:10.1128/aac.46.5.1163-1173.2002

82.   Gross U, Pohl F. Influence of antimicrobial agents on replication and stage conversion of
Toxoplasma gondii. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol. 1996;219: 235–245. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-
51014-4_21

83.   Kennedy K, Crisafulli EM, Ralph SA. Delayed death by plastid inhibition in apicomplexan
parasites. Trends in Parasitology. 2019;35: 747–759. doi:10.1016/j.pt.2019.07.010

84.   Kawamukai M. Biosynthesis of coenzyme Q in eukaryotes. Bioscience, Biotechnology, and
Biochemistry. 2016;80: 23–33. doi:10.1080/09168451.2015.1065172

85.   Liang X, Cui J, Yang X, Xia N, Li Y, Zhao J, et al. Acquisition of exogenous fatty acids renders
apicoplast-based biosynthesis dispensable in tachyzoites of Toxoplasma. J Biol Chem.
2020;295: 7743–7752. doi:10.1074/jbc.RA120.013004

86.   Amiar S, MacRae JI, Callahan DL, Dubois D, van Dooren GG, Shears MJ, et al. Apicoplast-
localized lysophosphatidic acid precursor assembly is required for bulk phospholipid synthesis
in Toxoplasma gondii and relies on an algal/plant-like glycerol 3-phosphate acyltransferase.
PLOS Pathogens. 2016;12: e1005765. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1005765

87.   Amiar S, Katris NJ, Berry L, Dass S, Duley S, Arnold C-S, et al. Division and adaptation to host
environment of apicomplexan parasites depend on apicoplast lipid metabolic plasticity and
host organelle remodeling. Cell Reports. 2020;30: 3778-3792.e9.
doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2020.02.072

88.   Martins-Duarte ÉS, Carias M, Vommaro R, Surolia N, de Souza W. Apicoplast fatty acid
synthesis is essential for pellicle formation at the end of cytokinesis in Toxoplasma gondii. J
Cell Sci. 2016;129: 3320–3331. doi:10.1242/jcs.185223

89.   Ramakrishnan S, Docampo MD, Macrae JI, Pujol FM, Brooks CF, van Dooren GG, et al.
Apicoplast and endoplasmic reticulum cooperate in fatty acid biosynthesis in apicomplexan
parasite Toxoplasma gondii. J Biol Chem. 2012;287: 4957–4971.
doi:10.1074/jbc.M111.310144

90.   Dubois D, Fernandes S, Amiar S, Dass S, Katris NJ, Botté CY, et al. Toxoplasma gondii acetyl-
CoA synthetase is involved in fatty acid elongation (of long fatty acid chains) during tachyzoite
life stages. J Lipid Res. 2018;59: 994–1004. doi:10.1194/jlr.M082891

91.   MacRae JI, Sheiner L, Nahid A, Tonkin C, Striepen B, McConville MJ. Mitochondrial metabolism
of glucose and glutamine is required for intracellular growth of Toxoplasma gondii. Cell Host
Microbe. 2012;12: 682–692. doi:10.1016/j.chom.2012.09.013

92.   Shukla A, Olszewski KL, Llinás M, Rommereim LM, Fox BA, Bzik DJ, et al. Glycolysis is important
for optimal asexual growth and formation of mature tissue cysts by Toxoplasma gondii.
International Journal for Parasitology. 2018;48: 955–968. doi:10.1016/j.ijpara.2018.05.013

93. Denton H, Roberts CW, Alexander J, Thong KW, Coombs GH. Enzymes of energy metabolism in
the bradyzoites and tachyzoites of Toxoplasma gondii. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 1996;137: 103–
108. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6968.1996.tb08090.x

94. Dzierszinski F, Nishi M, Ouko L, Roos DS. Dynamics of Toxoplasma gondii differentiation.
Eukaryotic Cell. 2004;3: 992–1003. doi:10.1128/EC.3.4.992-1003.2004

95. Watts E, Zhao Y, Dhara A, Eller B, Patwardhan A, Sinai AP. Novel Approaches Reveal that
Toxoplasma gondii Bradyzoites within Tissue Cysts Are Dynamic and Replicating Entities In
Vivo. MBio. 2015;6: e01155-01115. doi:10.1128/mBio.01155-15

96. McHugh TD, Holliman RE, Butcher PD. The in vitro model of tissue cyst formation in
Toxoplasma gondii. Parasitology Today. 1994;10: 281–285. doi:10.1016/0169-4758(94)90148-
1

97. Chandel NS. Evolution of mitochondria as signaling organelles. Cell Metab. 2015;22: 204–206.
doi:10.1016/j.cmet.2015.05.013

98. Martínez-Reyes I, Diebold LP, Kong H, Schieber M, Huang H, Hensley CT, et al. TCA cycle and
mitochondrial membrane potential are necessary for diverse biological functions. Mol Cell.
2016;61: 199–209. doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2015.12.002

99. Sagot I, Laporte D. The cell biology of quiescent yeast – a diversity of individual scenarios. J
Cell Sci. 2019;132: jcs213025. doi:10.1242/jcs.213025

100. Yalamanchili N, Kriete A, Alfego D, Danowski KM, Kari C, Rodeck U. Distinct cell stress
responses induced by ATP restriction in quiescent human fibroblasts. Front Genet. 2016;7:
171. doi:10.3389/fgene.2016.00171

101. Waldman BS, Schwarz D, Wadsworth MH, Saeij JP, Shalek AK, Lourido S. Identification of a
master regulator of differentiation in Toxoplasma. Cell. 2020; S0092867419313753.
doi:10.1016/j.cell.2019.12.013

102. Hassan MA, Vasquez JJ, Guo-Liang C, Meissner M, Nicolai Siegel T. Comparative ribosome
profiling uncovers a dominant role for translational control in Toxoplasma gondii. BMC
Genomics. 2017;18: 961. doi:10.1186/s12864-017-4362-6

103. Holmes MJ, Augusto L da S, Zhang M, Wek RC, Sullivan WJ. Translational control in the latency
of apicomplexan parasites. Trends in Parasitology. 2017;33: 947–960.
doi:10.1016/j.pt.2017.08.006

104. Harvey R, Dezi V, Pizzinga M, Willis AE. Post-transcriptional control of gene expression
following stress: the role of RNA-binding proteins. Biochem Soc Trans. 2017;45: 1007–1014.
doi:10.1042/BST20160364

105. Lirussi D, Matrajt M. RNA granules present only in extracellular Toxoplasma gondii increase
parasite viability. Int J Biol Sci. 2011;7: 960–967. doi:10.7150/ijbs.7.960

106. Liu M, Miao J, Liu T, Sullivan WJ, Cui L, Chen X. Characterization of TgPuf1, a member of the
Puf family RNA-binding proteins from Toxoplasma gondii. Parasit Vectors. 2014;7: 141.
doi:10.1186/1756-3305-7-141

107.　Gissot M, Walker R, Delhaye S, Alayi TD, Huot L, Hot D, et al. Toxoplasma gondii Alba proteins
are involved in translational control of gene expression. J Mol Biol. 2013;425: 1287–1301.
doi:10.1016/j.jmb.2013.01.039

108.　Gastens MH, Fischer H-G. Toxoplasma gondii eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4A
associated with tachyzoite virulence is down-regulated in the bradyzoite stage. Int J Parasitol.
2002;32: 1225–1234. doi:10.1016/s0020-7519(02)00096-6

109.　Balk J, Pilon M. Ancient and essential: the assembly of iron–sulfur clusters in plants. Trends in
Plant Science. 2011;16: 218–226. doi:10.1016/j.tplants.2010.12.006

110.　Shanmugasundram A, Gonzalez-Galarza FF, Wastling JM, Vasieva O, Jones AR. Library of
Apicomplexan Metabolic Pathways: a manually curated database for metabolic pathways of
apicomplexan parasites. Nucleic Acids Research. 2013;41: D706–D713.
doi:10.1093/nar/gks1139

111.　Morlon-Guyot J, Berry L, Chen C-T, Gubbels M-J, Lebrun M, Daher W. The Toxoplasma gondii
calcium-dependent protein kinase 7 is involved in early steps of parasite division and is crucial
for parasite survival. Cell Microbiol. 2014;16: 95–114. doi:10.1111/cmi.12186

112.　Couvreur G, Sadak A, Fortier B, Dubremetz JF. Surface antigens of Toxoplasma gondii.
Parasitology. 1988;97 (Pt 1): 1–10.

113.　Agrawal S, van Dooren GG, Beatty WL, Striepen B. Genetic evidence that an endosymbiont-
derived endoplasmic reticulum-associated protein degradation (ERAD) system functions in
import of apicoplast proteins. J Biol Chem. 2009;284: 33683–33691.
doi:10.1074/jbc.M109.044024

114.　Herm-Gotz A. Toxoplasma gondii myosin A and its light chain: a fast, single-headed, plus-end-
directed motor. The EMBO Journal. 2002;21: 2149–2158. doi:10.1093/emboj/21.9.2149

115.　Bermudes D, Dubremetz J-F, Achbarou A, Joiner KA. Cloning of a cDNA encoding the dense
granule protein GRA3 from Toxoplasma gondii. Molecular and Biochemical Parasitology.
1994;68: 247–257. doi:10.1016/0166-6851(94)90169-4

116.　de Miguel N, Echeverria PC, Angel SO. Differential subcellular localization of members of the
Toxoplasma gondii small heat shock protein family. Eukaryot Cell. 2005;4: 1990–1997.
doi:10.1128/EC.4.12.1990-1997.2005

117.　Plattner F, Yarovinsky F, Romero S, Didry D, Carlier M-F, Sher A, et al. Toxoplasma profilin is
essential for host cell invasion and TLR11-dependent induction of an interleukin-12 response.
Cell Host Microbe. 2008;3: 77–87. doi:10.1016/j.chom.2008.01.001

118.　Tomavo S, Fortier B, Soete M, Ansel C, Camus D, Dubremetz JF. Characterization of
bradyzoite-specific antigens of Toxoplasma gondii. Infect Immun. 1991;59: 3750–3753.
doi:10.1128/IAI.59.10.3750-3753.1991

119.　Jia Y, Marq J-B, Bisio H, Jacot D, Mueller C, Yu L, et al. Crosstalk between PKA and PKG controls
pH-dependent host cell egress of Toxoplasma gondii. EMBO J. 2017;36: 3250–3267.
doi:10.15252/embj.201796794

120.　Berger N, Vignols F, Przybyla-Toscano J, Roland M, Rofidal V, Touraine B, et al. Identification of
client iron–sulfur proteins of the chloroplastic NFU2 transfer protein in Arabidopsis thaliana.

Takahashi H, editor. Journal of Experimental Botany. 2020;71: 4171–4187.
doi:10.1093/jxb/eraa166

121.   Cox J, Mann M. MaxQuant enables high peptide identification rates, individualized p.p.b.-
range mass accuracies and proteome-wide protein quantification. Nat Biotechnol. 2008;26:
1367–1372. doi:10.1038/nbt.1511

Figure legends
1216
Figure 1. TgNFS2 and TgISU1 are functional homologs of components of 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 'wild-
type' (WT) *E. coli* K12 parental strain, 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.
1225
1226
Figure 2. TgNFS2 and TgISU1 localize to the apicoplast and the mitochondrion, respectively.
Detection by immunoblot of C-terminally HA-tagged TgNFS2 (A) and TgISU1 (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 TgNFS2 co-localizes with
apicoplast marker TgCPN60 (C) and TgISU1 co-localizes with mitochondrial marker F1 β ATPase (D).
Scale bar represents 5 μm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.
1233
Figure 3. Efficient down-regulation of TgNFS2 and TgISU1 expression with anhydrotetracyclin (ATc).
A) Immunoblot analysis with anti-HA antibody shows efficient down-regulation of TgNFS2 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 TgISU1 after 24h of incubation with ATc.
Anti-SAG1 antibody was used as a loading control. C) and D) Immunofluorescence assays show
TgNFS2 and TgISU1 are not detectable anymore after 48h of incubation with ATc. Scale bar
represents 5 μm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.
1241
Figure 4. Depletion of TgNFS2 or TgISU1 affects in vitro growth of the tachyzoites. Plaque assays
were carried out by infecting HFF monolayers with the TATi ΔKu80 cell line, the cKD TgNFS2-HA (A) or
the cKD TgISU1-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 TgNFS2 (A) or TgISU1 (B)
were depleted. Values are means of n=3 experiments ± SEM. Mean value of TATi ΔKu80 control was
set to 100% as a reference. **** denotes $p \leq 0.0001$, Student's t-test. Scale bars= 1mm. TgNFS2 (C)
and TgISU1 (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 TgNFS2 and TgISU1
mutants were performed as described in A) and B), but ATc was washed out after 7 days (7 days+ 7
days-) or not (14 days+), and parasites were left to grow for an extra 7 days. Plaque area was
measured. Data are means ± SEM from three independent experiments. *** $p \leq 0.001$, Student's
t-test. Arrowheads show plaques forming in the TgISU1 upon ATc removal. Scale bar= 1mm.

1258

Figure 5. Impact of TgNFS2 and TgISU1 depletion on intracellular tachyzoites.

A) Depletion of TgNFS2 impacts the apicoplast. cKD TgNFS2-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 TgNFS2-HA parasites after 72 to 120 hours of incubation with ATc. Data are
mean values from n=3 independent experiments ±SEM. ** $p ≤ 0.01$, **** $p ≤ 0.0001$, Student's t-test.
C) Depletion of TgISU1 does not impact mitochondrial and overall parasite morphologies, but affects
parasite growth. cKD TgISU1-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 TgISU1depletion. 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 TgISU1-HA parasites kept in the presence of ATc or not. Mean values ± SEM from n=3
independent biological experiments are represented.

1278

Figure 6. Change in protein expression induced by TgNFS2 and TgISU1 depletion. Volcano plots
showing the protein expression difference based on label-free quantitative proteomic data from
TgNFS2 (A) and TgISU1 (B) 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. Selected variant protein
categories are highlighted in color. C) Venn diagram representation of the shared and unique
proteins whose expression is affected by the depletion of TgNFS2 and TgISU1. D) and E): mapping of
less or more abundant candidates in the TgNFS2 and TgISU1 mutants, respectively, on the spatial
proteome map representation of the hyperLOPIT data highlighting clusters denoting putative
subcellular localization. Full details available at: https://proteome.shinyapps.io/toxolopittzex/.

1289

Figure 7. TgNFS2 depletion impacts apicoplast-related pathways and has deleterious effects on
parasite replication. A) A decrease in the lipoylation of the E2 subunit of pyruvate dehydrogenase
(TgPDH-E2), which depends on the Fe-S-containing lipoyl synthase called LipA in the apicoplast, was
observed by immunoblot using an anti-lipoic acid antibody on cell extracts from cKD TgNFS2-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. Decrease of lipoylated TgPDH-E2 was
quantified by band densitometry and normalized with the internal loading control. Data represented
are mean ±SEM of n=3 independent experiments. ** $p ≤ 0.01$, *** $p ≤ 0.001$ ANOVA comparison. B)
cKD TgNFS2-HA parasites that were grown in the presence of ATc for 5 days were co-stained with
anti-TgIMC3 (to outline parasites and internal buds) and anti-CPN60 (an apicoplast marker), which
highlighted abnormal membrane structures and organelle segregation problems. Scale bar
represents 5 μm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential interference contrast.
1302

Figure 8. TgISU1 depletion impacts the mitochondrial respiratory chain. A) Schematic
representation of the *T. gondii* mitochondrial respiratory chain; listed are the subunits of the
different complexes that were found less abundant upon TgISU1 depletion; Fe-S proteins are
highlighted in green. SDH: succinate dehydrogenase; CoQ: coenzyme Q B) Immunofluorescence
analysis of cKD TgISU1 parasites expressing HA-tagged TgSDHB (top) or TgApiCox13 (bottom)

showing a decrease in expression in the HA-tagged candidates after 3 days of incubation with ATc.
Images were taken with the same exposure time for similar channels. TgHSP29 was used as a
mitochondrial marker. Scale bar represents 10 μm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. C) Immunoblot
analysis of TgSDHB (top) and TgApiCox13 (bottom) levels upon depletion of TgISU1 after 3 days of
incubation with ATc. TgACT1 was used as a loading control. Protein levels were quantified by band
densitometry and normalized with the internal loading control. Data represented are mean ±SEM of
n=5 independent experiments. ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, ANOVA comparison. D) Impact of TgISU1
depletion on the parasite mitochondrial membrane potential was measured by JC-1 labelling. cKD
TgISU1-HA parasites were grown or not 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 (inset, DNA is labelled with DAPI and
shown in blue, scale=1μm). Parasites were then analysed by flow cytometry. Unlabelled parasites (no
JC-1) was used as a control for gating. Numbers represent the percentage of cells in each of the
subpopulations (P1, P2, P3). One representative experiment out of n=3 biological replicates is shown.
1323
Figure 9. Depletion of TgISU1 triggers parasite differentiation.
A) cKD TgISU1-HA parasites were grown in the presence of ATc and labelled with anti-TgIMC3 (to
outline parasites) and a lectin of *Dolicos biflorus* (DBL) to specifically outline nascent 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 TgISU1-HA
and cKD TgNFS2-HA mutants in the presence or absence 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. * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$,
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 TgISU1 depletion. D) The cKD TgISU1-HA
mutant was grown for up to 14 days in the presence of ATc and labelled for tachyzoite marker SAG1,
or intermediate (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 TgISU1-HA mutant for 7 and 14 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 three independent biological replicates is shown. **** denotes $p \leq$
0.0001, Student's t-test.
1341
Figure 10. Other mitochondrial mutants remain viable and initiate stage conversion. A) Plaque
assays for the TgQCR11 and TgmS35 mutants were performed by infecting HFF monolayers with cKD
cell lines and letting them grow in absence (7 days -) or presence of ATc (7 days +), after 7 days ATc
was washed out (7 days+ 7days-) or not (14 days+), and parasites were left to grow for an extra 7
days. Plaque area was measured. Data are means ± SEM from three independent experiments. * $p \leq$
0.05, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$, Student's t-test. Arrowheads show small plaques.
Scale bar= 1mm. B) Tati ΔKu80 parasites were grown in the presence of atovaquone and cKD
TgQCR11 and TgmS35 parasites were grown in the presence of ATc for up to two days. They were
labelled with anti-TgIMC3 (to outline parasites) and *Dolicos biflorus lectin* (DBL) to specifically outline
nascent cyst walls. Scale bar represents 10 μm. DNA was labelled with DAPI. DIC: differential
interference contrast. C) Quantification of DBL-positive vacuoles after 24 hours or 48 hours of culture
of 1) the cKD TgQCR11 and cKD TgmS35 mutants in the presence or absence of ATc 2) the Tati ΔKu80
cell line in the presence or not of 1μM atovaquone. Data are from n=3 independent experiments.
Values are mean ±SEM. ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, Student's t-test. D) The cKD TgQCR11 and cKD
TgmS35 mutants were grown for up to 14 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.
1359

 Supplemental table legends

1361

1362 **Table S1. Predicted Toxoplasma homologues of the iron-sulfur cluster synthesis machinery.**
1363 Homology searches were conducted in ToxoBD.org using *Arabidopsis thaliana* proteins as a query.
1364 Putative subcellular localization was obtained from the hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, or
1365 by manual annotation. CRISPR fitness score data was obtained from ToxoDB.org.

1366

1367 **Table S2. Predicted Toxoplasma iron-sulfur proteome.** The Toxoplasma predicted whole proteome
1368 was obtained from the ToxoDB.org database and searched for putative iron-sulfur-containing
1369 proteins with the MetalPredator web server (http://metalweb.cerm.unifi.it/tools/metalpredator/).
1370 Putative subcellular localization was obtained from the hyperLOPIT data available on ToxoDB.org, or
1371 by manual annotation. CRISPR fitness score data was obtained from ToxoDB.org.

1372

Table S3. Proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgNFS2 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 TgISU1 ('Mito') and TgNFS2 ('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.

1380

1381 **Table S4. Proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgISU1 as found by label-free**
1382 **quantitative proteomics**. See legend of Table S3. Candidates from the Fe-S proteome (Table S2) that
1383 were found to have a lower expression upon TgISU1 depletion are highlighted in red.

1384

1385 **Table S5. Common proteins with lower or higher expression upon depletion of TgNFS2 or TgISU1,**
1386 **as found by label-free quantitative proteomics.** See legend of Table S3.

1387

1388 **Table S6. Oligonucleotides used in this study.**

A cKD TgNFS2-HA

reinvasion →

Merge: Apico Mito DAPI DIC

24h · 72h · 96h · 120h

B

Vacuoles
- no apicoplast loss
- with apicoplast loss

** ** ****

cKD TgNFS2-HA ATc − +   − +   − +
72h   96h   120h

C cKD TgISU1-HA   continuous culture →

Merge: Apico Mito DAPI DIC

24h · 72h · 96h · 120h

D

GAP45 GRA3 DAPI

egressed

non-egressed

Vacuoles
- egressed
- non-egressed

cKD TgISU1-HA no ATc 40h   cKD TgISU1-HA + ATc 120h

A

kDa

	TATi ΔKu80	cKD TgNFS2-HA					days on ATc
	4	0	1	2	3	4	

100 — Lipoylated TgPDH-E2

70 — TgCPN60
55 —

25 — TgSAG1

B

DIC

Apico IMC3 DAPI

A DBL IMC3 DAPI

24h 48h 72h 96h 120h

B

Percentage of DBL-positive vacuoles

* **
35%
30%
25%
20%
15%
10%
5%
0%

24h 48h

TATi ΔKu80+ATc | TATi ΔKu80+100μM NO | cKD TgISU1-HA-ATc | cKD TgISU1-HA+ATc | cKD TgNFS2-HA-ATc | cKD TgNFS2-HA+ATc

C

log₂-transformed fold change

-3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

Bz/Tz | TgISU1/Ctrl | TgNFS2/Ctrl

TGME49_320230 SRS15C
TGME49_320190 SRS16B
TGME49_273110 SRS30D
TGME49_207140 SRS49B
TGME49_222370 SRS13
TGME49_264660 SRS44
TGME49_320180 SRS16C
TGME49_315410 SRS53F
TGME49_292280 SRS36D
TGME49_320170 SRS16E
TGME49_221480 SRS12E
TGME49_226860 SRS67
TGME49_301180 SRS19F
TGME49_315320 SRS92A
TGME49_273130 SRS30A
TGME49_208850 SRS11
TGME49_267140 SRS38B
TGME49_271050 SRS34A
TGME49_315740 SRS54
TGME49_233480 SRS29C
TGME49_233460 SRS29B
TGME49_233450 SRS29A

Bz-enriched
Tz-enriched

D SAG1/DBL/DAPI | P18/DBL/DAPI | P21/DBL/DAPI

No ATc

+ATc 7 days

+ATc 14 days

E

Cyst area (μm²)

****

1500

1000

+ATc 7 days | +ATc 14 days