Identification of a novel and ancestral machinery involved in

mitochondrial membrane branching in *Trypanosoma brucei*

Short title: Mitochondrial dynamics in trypanosomes

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ABSTRACT

African trypanosomes are eukaryotic parasites that exist in two main replicative forms; the procyclic form in the midgut of the insect vector, the tsetse fly Glossina spp. and the bloodstream form responsible for diseases in humans and cattle. Unlike most other eukaryotes, where mitochondria continuously fuse and divide, trypanosome mitochondria form a single and continuously interconnected network that only divides during cytokinesis. The machineries governing mitochondrial remodeling and interconnection, however, remain largely unknown. We characterize a dynamin-related protein (DRP) from *T. brucei* (*Tb*DBF, previously called *Tb*MfnL) that depicts sequence similarities with Opa1 and Mfn, mammalian DRPs involved mitochondrial fusion. We showed that *Tb*DBF has closely related homologues in several organisms that are devoid of Mfn and Opa1, such as eukaryotes from different phyla, prokaryotes and archaea. *Tb*DBF is the first member of this new protein family to be functionally characterized. It localizes to the mitochondrial periphery and, upon overexpression, induces a strong increase in the interconnection and branching of mitochondrial filaments in a GTPase dependent manner. Its overexpression also promotes a major increase in cellular and mitochondrial volume and an increased consumption of the two major carbon sources used by the parasite (glucose and proline), as well as ethanolamine, a precursor of phosphatidyl-ethanolamine involved in membrane biogenesis and shaping. We propose that mitochondrial *Tb*DBF is a component of an ancestral membrane remodeling machinery that contributes to the formation of intermitochondrial connections.

INTRODUCTION

Trypanosoma brucei is a parasite responsible for African sleeping sickness as well as the related cattle disease Nagana, affecting sub-Saharan Africa. *T. brucei* is transmitted to mammals, its final host, by an insect vector: the tsetse fly. During the trypanosome life cycle, the parasite exists in at least two replicative forms; the procyclic form (PCF), transmitted by the tsetse fly Glossina spp., and the bloodstream form (BSF) responsible for diseases in vertebrates. The pathogenic trypanosomes have a single mitochondrion, unlike most other eukaryotes that contain numerous ones (1). Trypanosome's mitochondrion is highly elongated and reticulated and its genome (mitochondrial DNA) is restricted to a specific structure at the basis of the flagellum known as kinetoplast (kDNA). During the trypanosome life cycle and its adaptation to different hosts and environments, the shape of its mitochondrial compartment undergoes spectacular changes that reflect its functional plasticity. Indeed, the mitochondrion of this parasite exists in at least two major forms: (i) the fully active and developed one characteristic for the PCF that harbors the oxidative phosphorylation complexes (OXPHOS) for energy production (2, 3) and (ii) the functionally less active and morphologically reduced form found in the bloodstream, with energy produced exclusively through glycolysis since OXPHOS is repressed (4). These modifications correlate with the adaptation of the parasite to the glucose-rich blood of a mammalian host and the proline-rich hemolymph and tissue fluids of the blood-feeding tsetse fly (5). Studies in mammals and in yeast having unraveled tight links between mitochondrial bioenergetics, morphology and dynamics (6-8), it is tempting to assume that such close relationships not only regulate mitochondrial function and energy metabolism, but also the life cycle and pathogenic potential of trypanosomes. However, in contrast to fungi and metazoa, where mitochondrial morphology and fusion/fission dynamics have been thoroughly characterized (9, 10), little is known about the morphology and dynamics of mitochondria in trypanosomes.

In most eukaryotes, mitochondria are very dynamic, alternating between two major events; fusion and fission. Mitochondrial dynamics allows to maintain mitochondrial

morphology, distribution and size (7). The main proteins involved in these events are

large GTPase belonging to the dynamin family. The main GTPase responsible for

mitochondrial fission in yeast and mammalian cells is Dnm1/Drp1, a soluble protein

which is recruited to mitochondrial and peroxisomal membranes to exert its function (11,

12). Mammalian mitochondrial fusion requires fusion of outer mitochondrial membrane

(OMM) followed by fusion of inner mitochondrial membrane (IMM) which is carried out by

mitofusins 1 and 2 (Mfn1 and Mfn2) and optic atrophy 1 (Opa1), respectively (13, 14).

Alteration in one of these processes and of the equilibrium between them provokes

mitochondrial fragmentation or hyperfusion (11, 15) and is linked to diseases, notably

neuropathies (16).

Mitochondrial fusion and fission in trypanosomes have been poorly investigated to

date. Unlike mammalian and yeast cells, fusion has not been directly observed (17, 18),

but indirect evidence for mitochondrial fusion came 25 years ago from *in vivo* genetic

exchange of mtDNA (19). Another indication of fusion stems from the observation that

the mitochondrial fragmentation provoked by the overexpression of mammalian Bax in

trypanosomes is reversible (20) and from the observation that, in BSF, the mitochondrial

network mostly grows from two areas where loops and branches eventually merge to

build a complex network (17). Available evidence indicates that mitochondrial fission is

not an endogenous/spontaneous process (17, 18) but it has to be artificially induced to

be observed (20, 21) and appears restricted to parasite division (18, 21). More recently,

expression, in the mitochondrial matrix of trypanosome, of a putative dynamin from

giant viruses has shown remodeling of the mitochondrion into a simple tubular structure,

supporting that mitochondrial fission occurs in this parasite (22). The absence of

spontaneous, ongoing or continuous fission could explain the unique tubular and

reticulated structure of the parasite mitochondrion, resembling that observed in yeast or

mammalian mutants devoid of fission (23, 24). Finally, a recent study of the

mitochondrial structure in another trypanosomatid (*Crithidia fasciculata*), revealed slow

and discrete fission and fusion events during the cell cycle, suggesting that fusion/fission

machineries must exist in trypanosomatids (25).

Two decades of research have revealed that numerous mitochondrial fusion and
fission factors appear conserved in fungi and mammals with non-neglectable differences
(7). In plants, mitochondria fuse and divide, but factors directly involved in fusion have
not been clearly identified until now, suggesting the existence of a different fusion
machineries (26, 27). So far, only one dynamin-related protein (DRP), *Tb*Dlp, has been
described and studied in *T. brucei*: its ablation impairs mitochondrial division and
endocytosis and leads to cytokinesis arrest (21, 28). *Tb*Dlp thus appears to be the
functional homolog of Drp1/Dnm1 in mammals and yeast, but its fission activity seems
restricted to the cytokinesis (21). Another putative DRP displaying some similarity to
mitofusins (*Tb*MFNL, Tb927.7.2410) has been reported to influence the mitochondrial
shape (29). Its down-regulation led to a highly fenestrated mitochondrial network,
suggesting that, despite its name, it plays a role in mitochondrial fission (29). To date,
no protein has been involved in mitochondrial fusion in trypanosomes.

In this study, we characterized the trypanosome DRP named *Tb*MFNL (29). We
show that this DRP shows a strong similarity with a family of eukaryotic, prokaryotic and
archaeal proteins that is absent from all organisms expressing Mfn or Opa1 homologues
(fungi and mammals) and from plants, suggesting that it belongs to an ancestral
membrane remodeling machinery. We show that it localizes to mitochondrial membranes
and is able to modulate mitochondrial branching and shape. Its deletion does not alter
mitochondrial morphology or distribution but its overexpression increases the size and
branching of its mitochondrial compartment in a GTP-dependent manner. Taken
together, our findings reveal that mitochondrial branching in trypanosomes is modulated
by a member of a novel and ancestral membrane remodeling machinery that we have
named *Tb*DBF for *Trypanosoma brucei* Dynamin-related Branching Factor.

RESULTS

1 - Identification and sequence analysis of TbDBF

To identify potential fusion players, we started our search by careful re-examination

of trypanosome genomic and proteomic databases for proteins showing sequence

homology to known fusion factors (Opa1/Mfn1/2). We were only able to identify the

previously reported dynamin-related protein *Tb*MFNL (Tb927.7.2410) (29), that displays

some similarities with both mammalian fusion factors of the inner (Opa1) or outer

membrane (Mfn2) with 21 and 23 % of sequence identity, respectively (**Figure 1, S1**

and Table S1). Analysis of its sequence identified several motifs and domains found in

other mitochondrial DRPs. Indeed, its N-terminal sequence displays a potential

mitochondrial targeting signal (MTS) with potential cleavage sites (**Figure S1**), followed

by a GTPase domain with conserved G1 to G4 motifs and, in its C-terminal region, two

consecutive transmembrane domains (TM) (**Figure 1 and S1**). Interestingly, the MTS

points to inner membrane targeting (such as the inner membrane fusion factor Opa1

localizing to the intermembrane space). In contrast to Opa1, that carries an N-proximal

TM domain mediating inner membrane anchoring, no transmembrane domain was

identified following the MTS, suggesting that it is not an Opa1 counterpart. The overall

structure and domain organization of the protein displays more similarity to human Mfn

(**Figure 1**) with two C-proximal transmembrane domains (TMs) that are reminiscent of

the targeting to the outer mitochondrial membrane of Mfn. However, the presence of a

N-terminal MTS makes it unlikely to be located in the outer membrane like Mfn in

mammals. Altogether, these data suggest that the protein named *Tb*MFNL (29) is not a

homolog of fusion factors Opa1 or Mfn.

We therefore investigated whether this DRP could be conserved in other organisms.

As expected, it is well conserved throughout the *kinetoplastida* order (**Figure S2 and**

Table S1 for some examples) but, surprisingly, we identify homologous proteins, with

high similarity over the whole sequence, in many eukaryote lineages (mainly in the SAR

clade *Stramenopiles* and *Alveolata*) (**Figure 2A, S3 and Table S1**) but never in

Opisthokonta (clade including fungi and mammals) or in plants. Unexpectedly, we also

identified many similar sequences in bacteria, mainly in the PVC group and in

proteobacteria (**Figure 2A**). Finally, a sequence was also identified in *Archaea*, revealing

that, unlike Opa1 and Mfn proteins, the proteins of this family are conserved in all the

three domains of life (**Figure 2A, S3 and Table S1**). Remarkably, we could not identify

sequences corresponding to Opa1 and Mfn in any of these organisms, the only sequences

identified being restricted, as anticipated, to the well-conserved GTPase domain.

Phylogenetic analysis was carried out using the amino acid sequences of the proteins and

a comprehensive tree based on sequence alignment is shown in **Figure 2B**. Structural

analysis of several of these identified proteins, show again a very conserved structural

organization on the whole sequence (**Figure 2C and S3**). Indeed, apart from the

obvious absence of the MTS in prokaryotes, the general structure and domain

organization are extremely well preserved (**Figure 2C**). Altogether, our analysis shows

that these proteins form a phylogenetic group that is clearly separated from the well-

known fusion and fission dynamins of fungi and mammals and of *Np*BDLP, its closest

bacterial homologue (**Figure 2B**). As these DRPs are conserved throughout the living

world, but not in fungi, mammals, and plants, it is tempting to speculate that they

represent a component of a novel and ancestral machinery involved in membrane

dynamics. Their belonging to a protein family different from that of mitofusins and the

functional characterization described below led us to rename this DRP *Tb*DBF (for

Trypanosoma brucei Dynamin-related Branching Factor).

2 - TbDBF is localized in the mitochondrion

Interrogation of the TrypTag database (cellular localization of trypanosome proteins

(30)) with the *Tb*DBF sequence (Tb927.07.2410) reveals mitochondrial localization for a

C-terminal GFP-tagged version and a cytoplasmic, flagellar and nuclear lumen

localization for an N-terminal GFP tagged construct. One potential explanation for this

apparent discrepancy is that adding an N-terminal GFP sequence in front of a

mitochondrial targeting sequence (MTS) is expected to perturb its addressing and

therefore does not allow to conclude on its localization. To confirm the subcellular

localization of *Tb*DBF in *T. brucei*, we added a C-terminal 10xHA tag (to avoid disruption

of mitochondrial targeting) to endogenous *Tb*DBF (*Tb*DBF::10HA) in both PCF and BSF

using the pPOTV7 vector series (31) (**Figure 3A**) and verified that the tag has no impact

on cell growth (**Figure S4**). It should be noted that the slight variation in growth

observed between the wild-type and the tagged strain could be due to the difference

between a non-clonal (wild-type) and clonal (*Tb*DBF::10HA) population. Expression of

*Tb*DBF::10HA was confirmed by western-blot with anti-HA antibody in PCF and BSF (**Figure**

3B). The protein is about 2-fold more expressed in PCF than BSF which is in agreement

with the data obtained by SILAC analysis for this protein (32). The localization of the

*Tb*DBF protein was studied in PCF by immunofluorescence using threonine

dehydrogenase (Tdh, (33)) as a mitochondrial matrix marker (**Figure 3C**). *Tb*DBF::10HA

and Tdh clearly colocalized in the mitochondrial compartment, but *Tb*DBF depicted a less

homogeneous mitochondrial distribution (**Figure 3C, Anti-HA/Merge**). We also

addressed, by immunofluorescence, *Tb*DBF subcellular localization in BSF. For technical

reasons (Tdh antibody do not react in bloodstream and the lack of primary antibody of

non-murine origin), we could not perform a colocalization of the *Tb*DBF::10HA protein with

a mitochondrial protein. However, we performed a parallel labeling of the mitochondria,

with an antibody directed against the mitochondrial Hsp60 or against the HA-tag. Under

these conditions, we observe a tubular structure characteristic of the BSF mitochondrion

both for *Tb*DBF and Hsp60 (**Figure 3D**). The overall modular organization of *Tb*DBF

previously described and its subcellular localization confirm that *Tb*DBF is a mitochondrial

protein.

3 – Inactivation and silencing of TbDBF does not alter mitochondrial shape

Live microscopy of yeasts and cultured mammalian cells has revealed that

mitochondrial morphology is continuously remodeled by antagonizing fission and fusion

reactions (15, 34). Under normal conditions, the fusion/fission balance is established in

favor of fusion and the mitochondria appear filamentous. Inhibition of fusion leads to

mitochondrial fragmentation by ongoing fission (15) and reversely enhancing fusion leads

to hyperfused mitochondria with increased branching and interconnection (11). In contrast, trypanosomes show a single permanently branched and interconnected mitochondrion, with very few mitochondrial fission events reported, which appear to be restricted to cell division and especially cytokinesis (18, 21).

To investigate the role of TbDBF, we first inactivated the gene encoding TbDBF by CRISPR/Cas9 (35) with an optimized protocol (see Materials and Methods). Both TbDBF alleles were inactivated by integration of a puromycin resistance marker cassette into both PCF and BSF cells (**Figure 4A**). Cloned parasites were analyzed by PCR to select cell lines carrying PAC insertions in both TbDBF alleles (TbDBF$^{-/-}$) (**Figure 4B**). No significant impact on cell growth was observed in these PCF and BSF null-mutants over a period of 7 days compared to wild-type cells. We infer that the slight variation in growth observed between the wild-type and the inactivated strain reflects the difference between a non-clonal (wild-type) and clonal (TbDBF$^{-/-}$) population (**Figure S4**). To investigate potential impact of TbDBF$^{-/-}$ on mitochondrial shape, we labeled PCF mitochondria with rhodamine-123 staining and analyzed mitochondrial shape in living cells. Since BSF were too mobile to obtain focused images with rhodamine 123, we stained mitochondria in fixed cells by immunofluorescence with mitochondrial Hsp60 antibodies. In both PCF and BSF, no significant difference in the structure of the TbDBF$^{-/-}$ mitochondrion was observed (**Figure 4C and 4E**). To confirm that this strategy leads to TbBDF inactivation, we repeated this process in a strain endotagged with a C-terminal 3xTy1 tag in order to follow the expression of the protein by western-blot (**Figure S5/A-D**). Two separate inactivations were performed, one by inserting the puromycin resistance gene as before (**Figure S5E-G**) and the other one by deleting part of the gene (**Figure S5H-J**). In both cases, the protein was not detected in the inactivated clones and no modification of the mitochondrial structure was observed (**Figure S5G/J**).

In order to detect and quantify discrete modifications of the mitochondrial shape that may escape detection upon qualitative visual analysis, we developed an ImageJ macro (**Supplemental MMS1**) for the automatic analysis of the obtained images, which allows quantification of mitochondrial junctions (**Figure 4D**). This allowed us to establish

that the number of mitochondrial junctions is equivalent in *Tb*DBF^{-/-} and wild-type PCF

cells (8.5±4.9 vs 9.4±4.3) confirming the qualitative analysis of the microscopy images

(**Figure 4C**). These findings regarding the consequences of *Tb*DBF inactivation in PCF

and BSF are not in line with a previous report describing a highly fenestrated

mitochondrial network consecutive to a partial but significant inhibition (70%) of *Tb*DBF

(*Tb*MFNL) expression by RNAi in BSF (29). To exclude that the divergence arose from the

different inactivation and silencing strategies, we conditionally down-regulated

expression of *Tb*DBF using a stem-loop RNAi construct. This approach led to a significant

reduction (~70%) of the expression of endogenously tagged *Tb*DBF$_{::10HA}$ in PCF (as

observed in BSF (29)), but this was not paralleled by a modification of mitochondrial

shape (**Figure S6A-C**). Since mitochondrial fenestration upon *Tb*MFNL/*Tb*DBF silencing

was observed in BSF (29) we decided to repeat the experiment using the same strain (*T.*

brucei 427 BSF), the same RNAi system (p2T7-177) and the same sequence used for

down-regulation (29). As previously reported (29), we observed a significant reduction of

*Tb*DBF expression (~80% after 4 days) of the endogenously tagged *Tb*DBF$_{::3HA}$ in BSF

(**Figure S6D-F**) that was not accompanied by mitochondrial shape modifications (**Figure**

S6G). In our hands, neither inactivation nor silencing of *Tb*MFNL/*Tb*DBF alters

mitochondrial morphology or induces a fenestration phenotype. At present, we ignore the

reasons for the discrepancy with the results reported by Vanwalleghem et *al*. (29).

4 - TbDBF overexpression increases mitochondrial branching in a GTP-

dependant manner

We also investigated the possible role of *Tb*DBF by conditionally expressing a C-

terminally-tagged (3xTy1) *Tb*DBF ([oe]*Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$) in PCF (**Figure 5A**). Expression was

confirmed by western-blot analysis after 3 to 5 days of tetracycline induction (**Figure**

5B). Rhodamine-123 staining showed that wild-type and non-induced [oe]*Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells

harbor the expected reticulated mitochondrial structure, while the mitochondrion appears

significantly more reticulated and branched in induced [oe]*Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells (**Figure 5C and**

Figure S7). For a more precise and quantitative description of the branching phenotype,

we used our ImageJ macro allowing quantification of mitochondrial junctions. After 5 days of induction, the average number of mitochondrial junctions appeared more than 2-times higher in induced ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 cells compared to non-induced or wild type cells (**Figure 5G**). In order to estimate the level of *Tb*DBF overexpression achieved in *T. brucei* PCF, we repeated this experiment with cells expressing endogenously 3Ty1-tagged *Tb*DBF (*Tb*DBF::3Ty1, clone 2A11; **Figure S5A-D**). Western-blot analysis revealed that upon induction, exogenous *Tb*DBF::3Ty1 protein is well overexpressed relative to its endogenous expression and induces alterations of mitochondrial shape (**Figure S8A/B**). It is also noteworthy that the expression of *Tb*DBF without the C-terminal 3Ty1 tag induces the same phenotype as the tagged *Tb*DBF, confirming that the phenotype is not due to the use of a C-terminal tag (**Figure S8A/B**). These data clearly demonstrate that overexpression of *Tb*DBF stimulates intermitochondrial connections.

All Dynamin-like proteins possess a GTP-binding domain that binds and hydrolyzes GTP and mutations in the highly conserved domains interacting with GTP provoke dynamin-dysfunction by lowering GTP-binding and hydrolysis efficiency. To determine whether *Tb*DBF requires a functional GTPase domain to function, the key lysine 141 in the highly conserved G1 motif was converted to alanine, a mutation (K141A) significantly reducing GTP-binding of dynamins in other organisms (36-38). The K141A mutation was introduced into the sequence of *Tb*DBF tagged with a C-terminal 3Ty1 (ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBFK141A::3Ty1, **Figure 5D**). Expression was confirmed by western-blot analysis after 3 to 5 days of tetracycline induction (**Figure 5E**) and overexpression of *Tb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 was also confirmed as the wild-type *Tb*DBF::3Ty1 (**Figure S8A**). The mutated protein localized to the mitochondria (**Figure 6D**), as expected, but did not alter mitochondrial shape (**Figure 5F, Figure S7**) nor the number of mitochondrial junctions (**Figure 5G**). This clearly demonstrates that *Tb*DBF is a dynamin related protein that relies on a functional GTPase domain to modulate mitochondrial branching in trypanosomes.

5 - Submitochondrial localization of TbDBF

The localization of overexpressed *Tb*DBF was also analyzed by immunofluorescence.

The overexpressed *Tb*DBF::3Ty1 co-localized with Tdh in mitochondria (**Figure 6A-d5.i**),

as previously described for the endogenous protein (**Figure 3C**). Analysis of

mitochondrial shape by immunofluorescence confirmed that overexpression of *Tb*DBF is

linked to the appearance of hyper-reticulated mitochondrion (**Figure 6A-d5 .i**), as

previously observed in living, rhodamine-123 labeled cells (**Figure 5C**). For more precise

*Tb*DBF localization, we performed Ultrastructure Expansion Microscopy (U-ExM), which

increases the size of a sample while preserving its ultrastructure (39, 40). By this

approach, we show that both ^{oe}*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 (**Figure 6B**) and the endogenous *Tb*DBF::10HA

(**Figure 6C**) have a different distribution from the matrix marker (Tdh) and localizes to

the mitochondrial periphery. In addition, as already noticed with standard

immunofluorescence microscopy (**Figure 3C**), *Tb*DBF depicts a non-continuous, punctate

distribution within the membrane as compared to the matrix protein Tdh. These findings

suggest an association of the *Tb*DBF protein with mitochondrial membranes. We then

investigated the effect of *Tb*DBF expression in the BSF form, where the mitochondrial

compartment is smaller and composed of shorter and less interconnected mitochondria.

Overexpression of ^{oe}*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 was monitored by western-blot (**Figure 6E**), but unlike

PCF, the mitochondrial structure (labeled here with mitochondrial Hsp60) was not at all

altered, remaining tubular and slightly reticulated like in wild-type cells (**Figure 6F**).

Induction over a longer period (up to 21 days) did not show mitochondrial alterations.

The localization of the wild-type *Tb*DBF and mutant *Tb*DBF (K141A) was also

investigated by electron microscopy (EM) and immunogold-labeling using an anti-Ty1

antibody. After induction and immunogold-labeling, both proteins are clearly localized in

the mitochondrion (**Figure S9A3/B3**) as compared to controls with non-induced cells

(**Figure S9A1/B1**), which is also confirmed by gold-particles quantification (**Figure

S9D**).

6 - Mitochondrial targeting and membrane anchoring of TbDBF

To investigate the mechanisms ensuring mitochondrial targeting of *Tb*DBF, we first

addressed the two domains that may determine *Tb*DBF localization: (i) the N-terminal

MTS that could mediate inner membrane targeting and intermembrane space localization

(as the MTS of Opa1), and (ii) the C-proximal/terminal TMs that could mediate outer

membrane anchoring (as the TMs of Mfn). To investigate their capacity to target proteins

to mitochondria, we fused the MTS domain, or the two transmembrane domains of

*Tb*DBF, to GFP (**Figure 7A**). Fusion of the MTS at the N-terminus of GFP (MTS::GFP) fully

addressed GFP to the mitochondria (**Figure 7A**). Interestingly, the size of MTS::GFP

revealed by Western-blot is identical to that of cytosolic GFP without MTS (**Figure 7B**),

indicating that the predicted MTS maturated by Matrix Processing Peptidase (MPP)

(**Figure S1**) was cleaved upon import of MTS::GFP across the inner membrane. It is to

note that ^{oe}*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 and ^{oe}*Tb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 showed the same apparent size as

^{oe}*Tb*DBFΔMTS::3Ty1 by western-blot analyses, indicating that the MTS is also cleaved in its

natural context (**Figure 7C**) and thus, at least the N-terminus of *Tb*DBF is imported into

the matrix. We then investigated the addition of the 2 C-proximal transmembrane

domains at the C-terminal extremity of GFP (GFP::TM). As expected, a size shift

corresponding to the addition of transmembrane domains is observed by western-blot

(**Figure 7B**). However, in contrast to MTS::GFP, the GFP::TM was not targeted to

mitochondria, but to unknown distinct structures, possibly membrane or ER as well as

the flagellum which is different from a cytosolic labeling (see GFP alone) or from a

mitochondrion labeling (here revealed with the anti-Tdh antibody) (**Figure 7A and**

Figure S10). Their inability to mediate mitochondrial targeting shows that the TMs of

*Tb*DBF do not represent mitochondrial targeting determinants like those targeting

mitofusins to the mitochondrial outer membrane. Their capacity to target GFP from the

cytosol to other organelles, suggests that they have the capacity to mediate membrane

anchoring. It is probable that this membrane-anchoring function is exerted within

mitochondria, upon MTS-mediated targeting of *Tb*DBF.

In order to further characterize the role and relevance of these domains on *Tb*DBF

localization and function, we expressed tagged *Tb*DBF-mutants without MTS

(^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$) or TMs (^{oe}TbDBFLΔTM$_{::3Ty1}$) in PCF using tetracycline-induction

(**Figure 7D and 7G**). Conditional overexpression of both recombinant TbDBF was

confirmed by western blot, after 3 days to 5 days of induction (**Figure 7E/7H/S8**). In

contrast to ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$, a significant proportion of ^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ doesn't colocalize

with Tdh revealing that the N-terminal MTS is indeed required for proper mitochondrial

targeting of TbDBF (**Figure 7F, Figure S10**). Interestingly, the labeling observed for

^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ is somewhat similar to the labeling of GFP$_{::TM}$ (**Figure 7A/F/S10**),

suggesting unspecific membrane anchoring by C-proximal TMs. The fact that part of

^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ still remained close to Tdh signal may show that the ΔMTS mutant is

also anchored to mitochondrial membranes. To analyze the localization of

^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ with more precision, we performed electron microscopy analysis with

anti-Ty1 antibody. We observed a dual localization of ^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$, and gold-

particles quantification revealed that 60% of ^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ is located outside of the

mitochondrion and 40% inside or close to the mitochondrion membranes (**Figure**

S9C/D). MTS is therefore important for the correct localization of TbDBF, but without it,

the protein is partially able to localize to membranes. We further observed that

overexpression of ^{oe}TbDBFΔMTS$_{::3Ty1}$ does not alter mitochondrial structure, indicating

that its proper, MTS-mediated, mitochondrial localization is essential for TbDBF-function

(**Figure 7F/Anti-Tdh and Figure S8**). We then investigated the relevance of the C-

proximal TMs of TbDBF by overexpressing a version truncated for the TM

(^{oe}TbDBFΔTM$_{::3Ty1}$, **Figure 7G**) and analyzed the mitochondrial shape and their

localization by immunofluorescence (**Figure 7I**). ^{oe}TbDBFΔTM$_{::3Ty1}$ is also well over-

expressed (**Figure 7H and Figure S8**) and perfectly colocalizes with the mitochondrial

marker, like $_{MTS::}$GFP. This confirms that the N-terminal MTS sequence is sufficient for

mitochondrial targeting of TbDBF. However, no modification of the mitochondrial shape

was observed (**Figure 7E3 and Figure S8**) demonstrating that the transmembrane

domains are required for proper function. Altogether, our data show that TbDBF is

targeted to mitochondria by an N-terminal MTS and that C-proximal TMs are required for

proper function. We infer that TMs probably mediate membrane anchoring and the

establishment of proper membrane topology.

7 – Impact of TbDBF overexpression on parasite morphology/biology

We then decided to characterize *Tb*DBF activity and intermitochondrial branching

with higher resolution. To this end, we used as serial block face scanning electron

microscopy (SBF-SEM), an approach allowing to characterize the overall structure of

membranes and organelles within the entire cell volume (18). With this technique,

hundreds of images are collected to perform a 3D reconstruction of the whole cell, as

well as spatial organization of the individual organelles within the cell. Four to five wild-

type and ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 PCF cells were reconstructed in 3D, with a particular emphasis on

the mitochondrion, the nucleus, the flagellar pocket and the cell outline. We have not

been able to correctly identify the kinetoplast DNA on the electron microscopy images,

thus preventing its 3D reconstruction. However, since kDNA is in close contact with the

flagellar pocket, it is easy to position it. Other organelles (glycosomes, acidocalcisomes,

golgi, flagellum, etc.) are not represented either in order to not overload the 3D

representation. As expected, wild-type PCF cells showed a reticulated mitochondrion

along the whole cell (**Figure 8A/C**), a rather central nucleus and the flagellar pocket on

the posterior side. The length of the wild-type and ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 cells, varies between

20.4±3.3 and 23±4.7 µm, respectively. As observed by fluorescence microscopy,

ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 mitochondrion showed more areas with stronger reticulation (**Figure 8B/D,**

indicated by arrows). Unexpectedly, in some cells this reticulation is even more

prominent at the edges of the flagellar pocket, where the kDNA is located, as illustrated

in **Figure 8B/D**, an observation that we had not identified by immunofluorescence

microscopy approaches. This hyper-reticulated structure (leaving a few gaps in the

mitochondrion) forms a globular structure and probably encapsulates the kDNA (**Figure**

8D, indicated by small arrows). This structure has been already described in BSF and

called kDNA pocket (17), but this structure is even more prominent in the ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1

cells. It should be noted that the 3D reconstruction of ᵒᵉ*Tb*DBF::3Ty1 cells required the

analysis of more slices in order to have a whole cell, suggesting a larger volume of the cell with a width at the nucleus of ~3.96 ± 1.19 μm for ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ and ~2.51 ± 0.28 μm for wild-type cells, but no modification in the length of the parasite was observed. Wild-type cells exhibit a cell volume around 53.5 ± 6.6 μm^3, which are quite similar to the volume measured in the different stages of the BSF cell cycle (cell 31-61 μm^3, (18) **Figure 8E**). As anticipated, PCF mitochondrial volume is nearly doubled (4.9 ± 1 μm^3) compared to the mitochondrial volume of BSF (1.1-3 μm^3) (17, 18). As expected, mitochondrial volume in cells overexpressing TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ is almost doubled by comparison to wild-type cells (**Figure 8E**) and surprisingly the whole cell volumes was also increased ~1.7-fold in ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells (**Figure 8E**).

On the other hand, and as presented in the introduction, the shape of the mitochondrion undergoes spectacular changes during the life cycle of the parasite, reflecting adaptation to different environments. These adaptations are also accompanied by a profound change in their metabolism. We therefore investigated whether and how an alteration of the mitochondrial structure affects the metabolism of the parasite. To address this, we screened for the use of 119 different carbon and nitrogen sources in parasites overexpressing or not TbDBF. Two carbon sources, D-glucose and L-proline (**Figure 9 and Figure S11,** n°14/114), are significantly more consumed/used in ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells compared to non-induced cells, suggesting that modifications of the mitochondrial structure require increased energy consumption or to the opposite, that mitochondrial shape restructuring impacts metabolism. Interestingly, ethanolamine is also significantly more consumed/used in ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells (**Figure 9 and Figure S11,** n°61). This molecule is a precursor of phosphatidylethanolamine, an important component of mitochondrial membranes (41), which in line with the observed increase in mitochondrial complexity. Altogether these data suggest that ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells need more energy and metabolic precursors, from increased catabolism of carbon sources, to fuel the increased membrane biosynthesis.

DISCUSSION

We have identified a novel and ancestral DRP family whose first representative, *Tb*DBF, has been characterized in the protozoan parasite *T. brucei*. We have demonstrated that *Tb*DBF localizes to the mitochondrial periphery and is able to increase mitochondrial interconnectivity in a GTPase-dependent manner. Its overexpression also induces modifications in energy metabolism in the parasite, as well as membrane biogenesis and shaping. We propose that mitochondrial *Tb*DBF may mediate and/or enhance fusion.

Membrane fusion and fission are often controlled by proteins of the dynamin superfamily (DRP) (42, 43). These proteins consistently have a GTPase domain and contain domains required for membrane binding and oligomerization. In trypanosomes, only DRPs involved in fission have been characterized, and no fusion proteins similar to those of yeasts and mammals have been identified so far. This may suggest that trypanosome mitochondria fuse via a machinery that differs from that characterized in yeasts and mammals. Of note, the situation is similar in plants, where no fusion protein similar to known fusion factors has been identified until now. Indeed, the search for homologous sequences to *Tb*DBF allowed us to identify close DRP homologs in several eukaryotic phyla lacking Mfn and Opa1, the fusion factors of metazoan and fungi. Unlike Mfn and Opa1, that have few homologues in some prokaryotes (cyanobacterial BDLP), homologues of *Tb*DBF were also identified in numerous bacterial phyla and even in archaea. These data point to the existence in these organisms of a novel machinery involved in membrane fusion, shaping and/or remodeling that is not present in *Opisthokonta* and *Plantae* but still present in numerous prokaryotes. While studies of yeast and mammalian DRPs provide information about their functions and structures, little is known about bacterial DRPs, especially their cellular role. Indeed, some bacterial DRPs have been associated with a variety of processes involving membranes *in vivo*, such as a surveillance mechanism for membrane punctures caused by antibiotics and bacteriophages (44, 45), membrane vesicle formation (46) or cytokinesis by promoting membrane curvature at the septum (47, 48). In addition, studies of the *Bacillus subtilis*

DRP DynA have shown that this protein can promote membrane fusion *in vitro* (49). The

mechanism by which the fusion operates is not yet known, but bacterial DRPs are

probably recruited to the sites where membrane fusion is needed (48, 50). Interestingly,

structural analysis of *Campylobacter jejuni* DLP1/DLP2 proteins allowed to propose a

mechanism explaining how these proteins attach and bind distant and opposing

membranes (51). Unfortunately, the cellular function of *C. jejuni* DLP1/DLP2 is currently

unknown. DRPs identified in this study have not yet been characterized and no

information on their localization and function is available. However, among the identified

organisms, we found, with the second-best score (E-Value 2e-80, **Table S1**), the

bacteria of the phylum Planctomycetes which are somewhat particular organisms.

Indeed, these bacteria contain a compartmentalized cytosol, separated by an

intracytoplasmic membrane (52), in some cases surrounding the nucleus (53) or forming

an anammoxosome, a pseudo-mitochondrion that is responsible for the production of

energy (54, 55). It is then conceivable that the identified protein in Planctomycetes

(*Pb*DBF, **Figure 2 and S3**) is involved in membrane structuring.

The role of *Tb*DBF in mitochondrial shaping was then confirmed by its

overexpression in PCF. Indeed, overexpressed *Tb*DBF modifies the structure of the

mitochondrion, with a very strong increase in connections. Moreover, the inactivation of

its GTPase domain (K141A mutation) also confirms its belonging to the large family of

dynamins. Interestingly, a similar link between hyperconnection of a branching network

and increased fusion processes has been reported in filamentous fungi, which grow as

interconnected branching networks (56). It is therefore tempting to speculate that, in

trypanosomes, excess *Tb*DBF increases the interconnectivity of mitochondrial networks

by enhanced fusion. The absence of fragmentation observed upon partial or total

inactivation of *Tb*DBF expression was rather expected and suggests that trypanosomes

differ from mammalian and yeast cells by the absence or a very low level of

regular/permanent mitochondrial fission. This is in agreement with previous studies

suggesting that fission only occurs during cell division (21, 28). It should also be kept in

mind that other proteins could be involved in the structuring of mitochondria as shown

by studies on mitochondrial outer membrane proteome in *T. brucei* (57, 58) and the

presence of mitochondrial complexes such as recently characterized MICOS (59). It

should be noted that *Tb*DBF seems to be part of a new fusion mechanism, so its

inactivation may not have the same effects as for Mfn or Opa1. It is also possible that

subtle changes in mitochondrial structure are present, but that we were not able to

reveal with our approaches. Another intriguing point is the absence of phenotype in

response to overexpression of *Tb*DBF in the BSF, which seems to reflect the relatively low

dynamics of the mitochondrial structuration in these parasitic forms. It is possible that

*Tb*DBF interacts with other partners, in a possible branching complex, that might only be

expressed in the PCF. However, one cannot exclude that overexpression of *Tb*DBF is not

high enough to initiate an increase in interconnectivity.

Using several microscopy approaches, we have shown that *Tb*DBF is localized in the

mitochondrion and more precisely in the mitochondrial membranes. *Tb*DBF contains two

domains involved in its accurate mitochondrial addressing, an N-terminal sequence

(MTS) and two C-terminal transmembrane domains. Proteins with an N-terminal MTS

are mainly fully imported into the mitochondrial matrix, however, some of them, such as

Opa1 and Apoptosis-inducing factor (AIF) face the inner membrane (60). Indeed, Opa1

and AIF localize mainly to the IMS due to its TM domain located in close proximity to the

MTS, interrupting transport across the inner membrane, which is not the case for *Tb*DBF.

Moreover, *Tb*DBF has a functional MTS, which is cleaved in the mitochondrial matrix and

its absence impacts the activity of the protein, suggesting that at least part of the protein

crosses OMM and IMM. However, with an MTS-less construct, the protein is still partially

associated to the mitochondrion and other membranes through its two C-terminal

transmembrane domains. It should be noted that the targeting specificity of C-terminal

TM domains is often determined by the amino acids flanking the TMs (61, 62) which

could explain the remaining *Tb*DBF protein in mitochondrion when the MTS was deleted.

*Tb*DBF TM domains should therefore be considered as membrane-anchoring domains.

Interestingly, the structure prediction of *Tb*DBF by Alphafold (63) suggests that the two

TM domains form a loop that may allow anchoring in the inner membrane with a possible

orientation of the remaining protein on the matrix side (**Figure 10**). This orientation is

also probably similar to the prokaryotic DBFs which could also be anchored in the plasma

membrane and facing the cytosol. Recently, Sheik *et al.* (22) clearly demonstrated that

expression of a potential DRP from giant virus in *T. brucei* PCF strongly affects

mitochondrial morphology within the matrix, with a close association with the inner

membrane. This contrasts with the mode of action of human or yeast mitofusins, which

are involved in the remodeling of mitochondrial outer and inner membranes, but never

via the matrix side. All of these results point to a complex or even unique targeting and

membrane topology of *Tb*DBF, different from those observed for mammalian and fungi

OM and IM fusion factors.

In many eukaryotes, mitochondria display a dynamic behaviour of constant fission

and fusion, with the size, appearance and organization of mitochondrial membranes

varying between species, tissues and physiological conditions (7). Although there is

considerable convincing evidence that mitochondrial dynamics and bioenergetics are

linked, the precise relationship between the two is still not known (6-8). It is therefore

tempting to assume that such tight connections regulate not only mitochondrial function

and energy metabolism, but also the life cycle and pathogenic potential of trypanosomes.

In order to identify possible metabolic variations induced by *Tb*DBF overexpression, we

screened 119 molecules that could be used by parasites as carbon and energy sources.

Only 3 molecules appeared to be more used/consumed in cells with altered mitochondria,

i.e., glucose, proline and ethanolamine. Glucose and proline are the two main carbon

sources that trypanosomes use in the mammalian host and the insect vector,

respectively. This suggests a greater energy demand, required either to change the

mitochondrial structure and/or to increase the mitochondrial content. The third molecule,

ethanolamine, is probably not a carbon source *per se*, but reflects a change in

phospholipid metabolism and more specifically in phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), which

together with phosphatidylcholine (PC), are the main constituents of eukaryotic cell

membranes. PE is preferentially distributed in the inner leaflet of mitochondrial

membranes and plays an essential role in mitochondrial functions (64, 65) by

maintaining the mitochondrial morphology (66-68). Indeed, PE is a fusogenic phospholipid that confers negative curvature to the mitochondrial membrane (69) and has been proposed to play important roles in membrane fusion involving the mitofusin Mfn (70). In PCF *T. brucei*, PE and PC are synthesized exclusively through the Kennedy pathway (71). Mutations in lipid composition result in alterations in mitochondrial morphology and inhibition of respiration (72) (73). Remarkably, RNAi-mediated down-regulation of ethanolamine phosphate cytidylyltransferase expression, the second enzyme in the Kennedy pathway, has been shown to disrupt mitochondrial morphology and ultrastructure in *T. brucei*. The most immediate effect was a change in mitochondrial morphology and disruption of the inner mitochondrial membrane topology (74). Since PE is essential for mitochondrial morphology, the increased ethanolamine utilization/consumption in *Tb*DBF-overexpressing parasites likely reflects increased membrane lipid biogenesis to support the alterations in mitochondrial structure. SBF-SEM analysis and 3D reconstruction of parasites expressing *Tb*DBFL showed a significant increase in mitochondrial membrane biogenesis with an almost doubling of the mitochondrial volume. This increased membrane biogenesis is particularly evident in the vicinity of the kDNA, which is completely enveloped by a hyper-reticulated globular mitochondrial structure. More work is needed to determine whether this part of the mitochondrion is a preferential place for membrane biogenesis. It is therefore likely that the increase in membrane biogenesis is not limited to the mitochondrial membranes, but also affects the other cell membranes which may explain the significant increase of the cell volume observed and thus the cellular surface. However, this increase in volume does not affect the parasite's growth rate, implying that the increase in volume is disconnected from mechanisms regulating cell division. More work is now required to understand how *Tb*DBF induces these structural and metabolic changes, as well as its mode of action.

In conclusion, all these results clearly revealed the presence of a novel and ancestral machinery involved in mitochondrial branching in trypanosomes. In addition,

579   the wide conservation of these DRPs in many eukaryotic, bacterial and archaeal genomes

580   suggests an important role in the biology of these organisms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Trypanosomes and cell cultures

The PCF of *T. brucei* EATRO1125.T7T (TetR-HYG-T7RNAPOL-NEO, where TetR stands for tetracycline resistance, HYG for hygromycin, T7RNAPOL for RNA polymerase T7, and NEO for neomycin) was cultured at 27°C with 5% CO_2 in SDM79 medium containing 10% (vol/vol) heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, 5 µg/ml hemin, 25 µg/ml hygromycin and 10 µg/mL neomycin. The bloodstream form of *T. brucei* 427 90-13 (TetR-HYG-T7RNAPOL-NEO) was cultured at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in Iscove's modified Dulbecco's medium (IMDM) supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS), 0.2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 36 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM hypoxanthine, 0.16 mM thymidine, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 0.05 mM bathocuproine, 1.5 mM L-cysteine (75), 5 µg/ml hygromycin and 2,5 µg/mL neomycin. Overexpression cell lines were induced with tetracycline (10 µg/mL for BSF and 1 µg/mL for PCF). Growth was monitored by daily cell counting with the cytometer Guava® Muse® and Guava® easyCyte™.

Endogenous tagging and overexpression of TbDBF

For endogenous gene tagging, primers were designed as described in (31) and PCR was performed using pPOTv7 vector as template. The pPOT used here was pPOTv7 for C-terminus 10xHA tagging (blasticidin resistance). For overexpression, DBF gene (Tb427.07.2410) was inserted in both pLew100 (phleomycine resistance) (76) and pHD1336 (blasticidin resistance) (77) expression vectors. Fragments were amplified and cloned into *Hin*dIII and *Xba*I restrictions sites of the pLew100 and into *Hin*dIII and *Bam*HI restrictions sites of the pHD1336 expression vectors. In addition, a 3xTy1 tag was added at the C-terminus of the protein in the pLew100-*Tb*DBF, using the *Xba*I and *Bam*HI restrictions sites. The truncated version of *Tb*DBF without the first 41 amino acids (*Tb*DBFΔMTS) and without the two trans-membranes domain (*Tb*DBFΔTM) were amplified and cloned in the pLew100 with a 3xTy1 tag as previously described. Catalytic mutant K141 was replaced by an alanine, using PCR approach (78) and PCR product cloned in the pLew100 with a 3xTy1 tag. EATRO1125.T7T PCF was transfected using Amaxa

Nucleofector®II, program X-001 and selected in SDM79 containing 25 µg/ml hygromycin

10 µg/mL neomycin and 5 µg/mL phleomycin. 427 90-13 BSF was transfected using the

same conditions and selected in IMDM containing 5 µg/ml hygromycin, 2,5 µg/mL

neomycin and 5 µg/mL blasticidin. Primers used for the constructions are presented in

supplemental **Table S2**.

Endogenous tagging and inactivation of TbDBF by CRISPR-Cas9

Endogenous tagging and inactivation of *Tb*DBF was achieved by CRISPR Cas9 technology

according Soares Medeiros et *al.* (35) but using *Sp*Cas9 instead of *Sa*Cas9 (more detailed

description of optimized and adapted protocols will be published separately). Briefly,

inactivation of the *Tb*DBF was achieved by inserting the resistant marker puromycin

(Pac) or a small sequence encoding for a *Bam*HI restriction site plus 6 successive stop

codons, flanked by 50 bp homologous to the 5' and 3' *Tb*DBF sequences from the Cas9

cutting site. Similar approaches have been performed for endogenous tagging with the

insertion of a sequence encoding 3xTy1 or 3xHA. The EATRO1125.T7T PCF and the 427

90.13 BSF (1x10^6 cells) were respectively transfected, using Amaxa nucleofectorII, with

1 µg of purified cassette (puromycin resistance marker, Stop*Bam*H1Stop, 3xTy1 or

3xHA), 30 µg Cas9 protein from IDT and pre-annealing TracrRNA (0.4 µmol) and gRNA

(0.4 µmol). Cells were transfected using program X-001 and selected or not with

puromycin (SDM79, 1 µg/mL, or IMDM 0.1 µg)/mL). Cells were cloned by using a cell

sorter (TBM Core facility), and selection of double inactivated *Tb*DBF gene (*Tb*DBF$^{-/-}$) or

endogenously tagged clones was done by DNA extraction, with NucleoSpin Blood

(Macherey-Nagel) and PCR amplification, see supplemental **Table S2**. Guide RNA were

designed using EuPaGDT, from http://tritrypdb.org. Primers and guide RNA used are

synthetized by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) and listed in supplemental **Table S2**.

Down-regulation of TbDBF gene expression

Down-regulation of DBF expression by RNAi in PCF was achieved by expression of stem-

loop "sense/antisense" RNA molecules targeting a 400-bp fragment of the DBF gene

introduced into the pLew100 tetracycline-inducible expression vector. A PCR-amplified 450-bp fragment, containing the antisense DBF sequence was inserted between *Xho*I and *Bam*HI restriction sites of the pLew100 plasmid. Then, the separate 400-bp PCR-amplified fragment containing the sense DBF sequence was inserted upstream of the antisense sequence, using *Hin*dIII and *Xho*I restriction sites. The resulting plasmid, pLew100-DBF-SAS, contains a sense and antisense version of the DBF fragment separated by a 50-bp fragment. The EATRO1125 PCF was transfected with the pLew100-DBF-SAS and cells were selected in SDM79 medium containing 25 µg/ml hygromycin, 10 µg/mL neomycin and 5 µg/mL phleomycin. Expression of the RNAi was induced by tetracycline (1 µg/mL).

Down-regulation of DBF expression by RNAi in BSF was achieved exactly as described (29) with a 280-bp fragment derived from the *Tb*DBF open reading frame inserted into the p2T7-177 plasmid (79). Linearized plasmid was transfected in *T. brucei* 427 90-13 (TetR-HYG-T7RNAPOL-NEO) BSF cells. Expression of the RNAi was induced by tetracycline (10 µg/mL). Primers used for the constructions are presented in supplemental **Table S2**.

Mitochondria staining on living cells

Rhodamine-123 (30 µg/mL) was added on cell culture ($5x10^6$ - $1x10^7$ cells per mL) for 15 min at room temperature, then cells were washed twice with PBS and spread on slides. Images were acquired with MetaMorph software on Axioplan 2 microscope and processed with ImageJ.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were washed twice with PBS, then fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 10 min at room temperature and 0.1mM Glycine was added 10 min to stop the reaction. The cells were spread on slides and permeabilized with 0.05% triton X-100. After incubation in PBS containing 4% bovine serum albumin (BSA) 20 min, cells were incubated for 1 hour with primary antibodies diluted in PBS-BSA 4%, washed 4 times with PBS and

668   incubated for 45 min with secondary antibodies diluted in PBS-BSA 4% followed by three

669   washes. Then, kinetoplasts and nuclei were labelled with DAPI (10 µg/mL) for 5 min.

670   Slides were washed 3 times with PBS and mounted with SlowFade Gold (Molecular

671   probes). Images were acquired with MetaMorph software on Zeiss Imager Z1 or Axioplan

672   2 microscope and processed with ImageJ.

Ultrastructure Expansion Microscopy (UExM)

675   The protocol of UExM realized exactly as described by Casas et *al.* 2022

676   (dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.bvwqn7dw). An expansion factor was determined

677   using the ratio between the size of the coverslip (12mm) and the size of the gels after

678   the first expansion. Images were acquired on a confocal Leica SP5-MP (Bordeaux

679   Imaging Center) using a 63X oil objective and processed with ImageJ.

Immunoelectron microscopy

Harvested cells were placed on the surface of formvar-coated copper grids (400 mesh).

Each loop was quickly submersed in liquid propane ($-180°C$) and transferred into a

precooled solution of 0.1% uranyl acetate in dry acetone for 3 days at -82°C. Samples

were rinsed with acetone at -20°C, and embedded progressively at -20°C in LR Gold

resin (EMS, USA). Resin polymerization was carried out at -20°C for 7 days under UV

illumination. Ultrathin LR Gold sections were collected on nickel grids coated with

formvar. Sections were first incubated for 15 min with NH_4Cl 500mM in Tris-buffered

saline (TBS) pH7.8, blocked 2x10 min with 2% BSA in TBS pH 7.8. The grids were

incubated 1 hour at room temperature with anti Ty1 antibody diluted to 1:200 in TBS

containing 2% BSA rinsed with TBS containing 2% BSA and with TBS containing 1% BSA.

The samples were then incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with anti-mouse IgG

diluted to 1:20 conjugated to 10 nm gold particles (BioCell). The sections were rinsed

with TBS containing 1% BSA, and fix with 1% glutaraldehyde in TBS. After rinsing with

TBS, grids were contrasted through a 5 min incubation with 2% uranyl acetate in water,

followed by 1 min incubation with 1% lead citrate. Observations were performed on a

HITACHI 7650 electron microscope operated at 80 KV with a Gatan-11 MPx camera (PIE

Bordeaux Imaging Center).

SBF-SEM

Cells were prepared as described by Blancard and Salin (80) except for freeze-

substitution medium (0.1% potassium permanganate for 24 h followed by 0.1% tannic

acid for 24 h, and 2% osmium tetroxide with 1% uranyl acetate for 3 days). Resin-

embedded samples were trimmed, mounted onto stubs and placed into a Zeiss

GeminiSEM300 with a fitted Gatan 3View2XP system (Gatan, Abingdon, UK). Serial

images of the block face were recorded at an accelerating voltage of 1.2 kV. All images

were taken with the following scanning settings: Pixel size 10 nm, pixel time 5 µs, slice

thickness 50 nm (Z-slice), image size 5000x5000. Between 700 and 900 images were

collected for each run. Images were collected from Back scattered electron with a specific

BSE Detector (On point - Gatan Inc., Pleasanton, CA, USA) using the software Digital

Micrograph (Gatan). Images were combined to form a single stack. Data processing and

statistical analysis: Segmentation was conducted using AMIRA (versions 5.2.0

Thermofisher Scientific). Manual segmentation of cells and organelles were conducted

using the brush tool and was based on ultrastructural characteristics specific to each

organelle. Each organelle was segmented using the organelle membrane as the outer

edge. Surface models were produced for each segmented organelle. Volumes of

organelles were automatically generated from the surface renderings of segmented data.

Western-blot

Total protein extracts ($5x10^6$ cells) were separated by SDS-PAGE (10%) and

immunoblotted on TransBlot Turbo Midi-size PVDF Membranes (Bio-Rad).

Immunodetection was performed using the primary antibodies, diluted in PBS-Tween-

Milk (0.05% Tween20, 5% skimmed milk powder), summarized in supplemental **Table**

S3. Revelation was performed using a second antibody coupled to the HRP and the

Clarity Western enhanced-chemiluminescence (ECL) substrate as describes by the

manufacturer (Bio-Rad). Images were acquired and analyzed with the ImageQuant Las

4000 luminescent image analyzer.

Biolog

Biolog Phenotype MicroArrays™ provide an easy-to-use technology for scanning and

measuring the energy metabolism pathways present in a wide range of *in vitro* cultured

cell types. The metabolic pathway activities are assayed with a simple colorimetric

reagent that measures redox energy produced when a cell oxidizes a chemical

(Tetrazolium reduction). Standard protocol described by the manufacturer (Biolog) has

been used with the following modifications: cells were resuspended in Biolog IF-M1 buffer

at $1x10^7$ cells per mL and 50 µL of this cell suspension were pre-incubated in each well of

the PM-M1 or PM-M2 plates for 1 hours at 27°C with 5% CO_2. Then, 10 µL of Biolog Dye

Mix (Mix MB) was added to all plate wells and load into the Omnilog® for kinetic reading

for 18 hours at 27°C or endpoint measurement at 590 nm with a microplate reader after

18 hours.

Quantification of Mitochondrial junctions - ImageJ macro

To quantify number of mitochondrial junctions, an ImageJ macro was developed with the

help of the Bordeaux Imaging Center (BIC). The script is presented in supplemental

Materials and Methods data **MMS1**.

Statistical analysis

Experiments were performed at least in triplicates. Statistical analyses were performed

using Prism (GraphPad) software. The results are presented as mean ± S.D. Where

indicated the results were subjected to two-sided student's t-test to determine statistical

differences against the indicated group (Confidence interval 95% - P-value style: 0.1234

(ns); 0.0332 (*); 0.0021 (**); 0.0002 (***); <0.0001 (****)).

Structural prediction software and sequence analysis

Structure predictions were performed using PSIPRED

("http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/") (81) and prediction of mitochondrial targeting

sequences by various algorythms (MitoprotII, MitoFates and iPSORT) (82). Phylogeny

analysis was performed with Geneious software using default parameters and the

neighbor-joining method was used for tree calculation.

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Supplemental material

Figure S1 shows alignment between human and trypanosome mitochondrial dynamin-

related proteins.

Figure S2 shows alignment of various kineoplastids DBF proteins.

Figure S3 shows alignment between *Tb*DBF and various eukaryotes and prokaryotes.

Figure S4 shows growth curves of parental, over-expressing and mutant cells.

Figure S5 shows the inactivation of *Tb*DBF expression by CRISPR/Cas9 system.

Figure S6 shows the down-regulation of *Tb*DBF expression by RNAi.

Figure S7 shows results of the ImageJ plugin on rhodamine-stained cells.

Figure S8 shows the level of overexpression of different *Tb*DBF variants.

Figure S9 shows mitochondrial localization of *Tb*DBF by EM.

Figure S10 shows similar localization of GFP$_{::TM}$ and ^{oe}*Tb*DBFΔMTS.

Figure S11 shows carbon, energy and nitrogen sources used in cells overexpressing

*Tb*DBF.

Table S1 shows results from BLASTp analysis of several identified organisms.

Table S2 shows all the primers and guide RNA used in this study.

Table S3 shows all the antibodies used in this study.

Materials and Methods: MMS1 described the ImageJ macro.

Figure 1 - Structure comparison between mitochondrial dynamin-related proteins (DRPs): Human mitofusin 1 or 2 (*Hs*Mfn1/2), *T. brucei Tb*DBF, and human Opa1 (*Hs*Opa1). MTS, predicted mitochondrial targeting sequence; CC, coiled-coil region; green box, GTPase domain with the four GTP-binding motifs in yellow; TM, transmembrane span; Middle, dynamin middle domain; PH, pleckstrin homology domain; GED, GTPase effector domain. Structure predictions were performed using PSIPRED (Jones, 1999). More details and sequences alignment are shown in Figure S1.

Figure 2 – Homologous sequences to *Tb*DBF, phylogenetic analysis and domain organization of the proteins. (A) Schematic view of the results of the database analysis. The black circles indicate the number of different organisms identified. Bold and underlined characters indicate taxon where homologous sequences were identified. **(B)** Phylogeny of the homologous *Tb*DBF sequences. Trypanosome sequences are highlighted in brown, mammals in blue, yeast in red, other eukaryotes in orange, prokaryote in green and Archaea in black. Mammal, yeast and trypanosome mitochondrial fission and fusion factors were also included as well as the mammals Clathrin-mediated endocytosis dynamins (CME, *Hs*Dyn1 and *Hs*Dyn2). Phylogeny analysis was performed using Geneious software with default parameters (unrooted and scaled). **(C)** Domain organization of several identified proteins from various organisms. MTS, predicted mitochondrial targeting sequence; CC, coiled-coil region; green box, GTPase domain with the four GTP-binding motifs in yellow; TM, transmembrane span; Structure predictions were performed using PSIPRED. More details and sequences alignment are shown in Figure S3. *Tb*DBF, *Trypanosoma brucei* DBF (ID: Tb927.7.2410); *Ah*DBF, *Achlya hypogyna* (ID: OQR970001); *Pg*DBF, *Polarella glacialis* (ID: CAE8737761.1); *Ct*DBF, *Chaetoceros tenuissimus* (ID: GFH50037.1); *Hf*DBF, *Hondaea fermentalgiana* (ID: GBG23909.1); *Bs*DBF, *Bactrachochytrium salamandrivorans* (ID: KAH9255760.1); *Cht*DBF, *Chrysochromulina tobinii* (ID: KOO35358.1); *Pb*DBF, *Planctomycetaceae bacterium* (ID: MBV8881356.1); *Ps*DBF, *Pedosphaera sp.* (ID: MCH2381658.1); *Rc*DBF, *Rubrimonas cliftonensis* (ID: WP_093253540.1); *Gp*DBF, *Gammaproteobacteria bacterium* (ID: RTZ59088.1); *Ld*DBF, *Lentisphaerae bacterium* (ID: NLB69313.1); *Kb*DBF, *Kiritimatiellae bacterium* (MBO7223041.1); *Mb*DBF, *Myxococcota bacterium* (MBU0550280.1). *Arc*DBF, *Archaeon* (ID: RYH26728.1); *Tb*Dlp1, *Trypanosoma brucei* Dlp1 (ID: Tb927.3.4720); *Hs*Dnm1, *Homo sapiens* Dnm1 (ID: AAH50279); *Sc*Dnm1, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Dnm1 (ID: AJV55509); *Hs*Dyn1 and *Hs*Dyn2, *homo sapiens* Clathrin-mediated endocytosis dynamins 1 and 2 (ID: KAI2554107.1 and ID: NP_001005360 respectively); *Hs*Opa1, *Homo sapiens* Opa1 (ID: NP_056375); *Sc*Mgm1, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Mgm1 (ID: NP_014854); *Np*BDLP, *Nostoc punctiforme* (ID: WP_012412711); *Hs*Mfn1 and *Hs*Mfn2, *Homo sapiens* Mfn1 and 2 (ID: NP_284941 and ID: NP_001121132 respectively); *Sc*Fzo1, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Fzo1 (ID: NP_009738).

Figure 3 - Subcellular localization of _Tb_DBF. (A) Schematic representation of _Tb_DBF endogenously tagged its at C-terminus extremity with 10xHA. Only one of the two alleles is tagged. **(B)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts (5x10^6 cells) of _T. brucei_ PCF or BSF wild-type cells and PCF or BSF expressing _Tb_DBF$_{::10HA}$ cells revealed with an anti-HA antibody. It should be noted that Enolase used as a loading control is about 3 to 4 times more expressed in BSF than PCF according to Hannaert _et al._ (82). **(C)** Subcellular localization of _Tb_DBF$_{::10HA}$ in PCF. Colocalization of _Tb_DBF$_{::10HA}$ (anti-HA antibody) with matrix mitochondrial threonine dehydrogenase (Anti-Tdh antibody) analyzed by standard immunofluorescence. **(D)** Subcellular localization of _Tb_DBF$_{::10HA}$ in BSF. Matrix mitochondrial Heat shock protein 60 (Anti-Hsp60 antibody) was used to labelled the mitochondrial compartment in wild-type and _Tb_DBF$_{::10HA}$ cells.

Figure 4 - Inactivation of the _Tb_DBF gene. (A) Schematic representation of _Tb_DBF inactivation by insertion of the puromycine resistant marker (PAC). **(B)** PCR confirmation of _Tb_DBF gene inactivation on both alleles in BSF and PCF. **(C)** The mitochondrial shape of living WT and _Tb_DBF$^{-/-}$ PCF cells (right panel) was designed by an ImageJ macro (MJ, Mitochondrial Junctions) from rhodamine 123 staining (left panel). **(D)** Corresponding mitochondrial junctions quantification. **(E)** Antibody directed against Hsp60 was used to label and visualized mitochondrial shape in BSF cells. Top panel : BSF WT cell; bottom panel : BSF _Tb_DBF$^{-/-}$ cell. Statistic : t test - Confidence interval 95% - P-value style : 0.1234 (ns); 0.0332 (*); 0.0021 (**); 0.0002 (***); <0.0001 (****).

Figure 5 - Overexpression of *Tb*DBF and GTPase mutant. (A) Schematic representation of overexpressing *Tb*DBF protein tagged with 3Ty1 peptide at C-terminus of the protein (*oeTb*DBF::3Ty1). **(B)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts of *T. brucei* PCF overexpressing *Tb*DBF::3Ty1 cells. Non-induced (ni) and induced (i) cells after 3 to 5 days (d3 and d5) were revealed with an anti-Ty1 antibody. Antibody directed against Enolase protein (Eno) was used as loading control. **(C)** Mitochondrial structure analysis using rhodamine 123 staining on living cells; mitochondrial structure of PCF WT and PCF *oeTb*DBF::3Ty1 cells before (ni) and 5 days after (i) tetracycline induction. **(D)** Schematic representation of overexpressing *Tb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 mutant protein tagged with 3Ty1 peptide at the C-terminus of the protein (*oeTb*DBFK141A::3Ty1). **(E)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts of *T. brucei* PCF overexpressing *Tb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 cells; (ni) non-induced and (i) induced cells for 3 or 5 days (d3 and d5). Antibody directed against glycosomal Fumarate reductase protein (Frdg) was used as loading control. **(F)** Mitochondrial structure analysis using rhodamine 123 staining on living cells; mitochondrial structure of PCF WT and PCF *oeTb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 cells before (ni) and 5 days after (i) tetracycline induction. **(G)** quantification of mitochondrial junctions number using Rhodamine 123 microscopy images. Mitochondrial junctions number: WT, 9.4 ± 4.3; .ni *oeTb*DBF::3Ty1 8.7 ± 3.6; .i *oeTb*DBF::3Ty1 20.4 ± 8.9; .ni *oeTb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 8.6 ± 4.8 and .i *oeTb*DBFK141A::3Ty1 10 ± 5.2. Statistic : t test - Confidence interval 95% - P-value style : 0.1234 (ns); 0.0332 (*); 0.0021 (**); 0.0002 (***); <0.0001 (****).

Figure 6 - Overexpression of *Tb*DBF and GTPase mutant. Subcellular localization of ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ in PCF by immunofluorescence and Ultra Expansion Microscopy (UExM); Colocalization of ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ (anti-Ty1 antibody) with matrix mitochondrial Threonine dehydrogenase (Anti-Tdh antibody) was analyzed by standard immunofluorescence **(A)** and by UExM with an expansion factor of ~4.4 **(B)**, after 5 days induction (d5.i). **(C)** Subcellular localization of *Tb*DBF$_{::10HA}$ in PCF analyzed by UExM. **(D)** Subcellular localization of ^{oe}TbDBFK141A$_{::3Ty1}$ in PCF analyzed by standard immunofluorescence. **(E)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts of *T. brucei* BSF overexpressing *Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$ cells. Non-induced (ni) and induced (i) cells after 3 to 7 days (d3, d5 and d7) were revealed with an anti-Ty1 antibody. Antibody directed against Enolase protein (Eno) was used as loading control. **(F)** Subcellular localization of ^{oe}TbDBF$_{::3Ty1}$ in BSF by immunofluorescence. Antibody directed against Hsp60 was used to label and visualized mitochondrial shape in wild type and *Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$ overexpressing cells.

Figure 7 - Role of *Tb*DBF domains. (A) Localization of the GFP according to the different tags fused. Colocalization by standard immunofluorescence of GFP with matrix mitochondrial Threonine dehydrogenase (Anti-Tdh antibody) after 5 days induction. MTS, mitochondrial targeting signal; TM, transmembrane domains. **(B)** Western-blot analysis of GFP expression. cGFP, constitutive and cytosolic GFP. Non-induced (ni) and induced (i) cells after 5 days. **(C)** *Tb*DBF size analysis by western-blot using anti-Ty1 antibody. **(D)** Schematic representation of N-terminus truncated *Tb*DBF protein (first 41 amino acids) tagged with 3Ty1 peptide at the C-terminus of the protein (*oeTb*DBFΔMTS::3Ty1). **(E)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts of *T. brucei* PCF overexpressing *Tb*DBFΔMTS::3Ty1 cells; (ni) non-induced and (i) induced cells for 3 or 5 days (d3 and d5). **(F)** Subcellular localization of *oeTb*DBFΔMTS::3Ty1 in PCF after 5 days induction. Colocalization of *oeTb*DBFΔMTS::3Ty1 (anti-Ty1 antibody) with matrix mitochondrial Threonine dehydrogenase (Anti-Tdh antibody) analyzed by standard immunofluorescence. **(G)** Schematic representation of truncated transmembrane domains of *Tb*DBF protein (45 amino acids) tagged with 3Ty1 peptide at the C-terminus of the protein (*oeTb*DBFΔTM::3Ty1). **(H)** Western blotting of whole-cell extracts of *T. brucei* PCF overexpressing *Tb*DBFΔTM::3Ty1 cells; (ni) non-induced and (i) induced cells for 3 days. **(I)** Subcellular localization of *oeTb*DBFΔTM::3Ty1 in PCF after 5 days induction, analyzed by standard immunofluorescence.

Figure 8 - Surface rendering of segmented PCF and determination of cell, nucleus and mitochondrion volumes using SBF-SEM. (A/B) Surface rendering of a segmented PCF (WT and ^{oe}TbDBF) showing the cell body (transparency), nucleus (blue), mitochondrion (green), and flagellar pocket (red). **(C/D)** Magnified view of the region boxed in A and B. Small arrows indicate mitochondria-free spaces in the mitochondrial network. The scale bar represents 5 μm. **(E)** Changes in the mean volumes of the cell and mitochondria. The n values are indicated on the right side of the legend. Volume in μm3, cell: WT 53.4±6.6, ^{oe}TbDBF 88.6±17.5; mitochondrion: WT 4.9±1, ^{oe}TbDBF 8.3±1.9. Statistic : t test - Confidence interval 95% - P-value style : 0.1234 (ns); 0.0332 (*); 0.0021 (**); 0.0002 (***); <0.0001 (****).

Figure 9 - Carbon sources used in cells overexpressing
^{oe}*Tb*DBF$_{::3Ty1}$**.** The metabolic pathway activities are assayed
using a colorimetric reagent that measures redox production
when a cell oxidizes a substrate (Biolog Phenotype MicroAr-
rays™). Non-induced (black) and induced (grey) cells were
incubated for 18 hours at 27°C with various substrates and
redox production was measured by an endpoint absorbance at
590 nm. Only the 3 carbon sources showing significant varia-
tion are presented among the 119 molecules used. All the
molecules (carbon and nitrogen sources) are show in Figure
S11. The negative control corresponds to an absence of
carbon sources. Statistic : Two way ANOVA - Confidence inter-
val 95% - P-value style : 0.1234 (ns); 0.0332 (*); 0.0021 (**);
0.0002 (***); <0.0001 (****), n=3.

Figure 10 – Proposed submitochondrial localization and membrane topology of *Tb*DBF. Predicted structure of *Tb*DBF, from AlphaFold protein structure database. *Tb*DBF was embedded in mitochondrial inner membrane (IMM). The color coding correspond to the predicted secondary structure depicted on the top of the figure. The N-terminus MTS was not displayed as it is cleaved. The AlphaFold model score of *Tb*DBF is between confident to very high for most of the structured regions (https://alpha-fold.ebi.ac.uk/entry/Q57XN3).