Building without the architect: the dispensable role of MICOS in *de novo* cristae formation in malaria parasites

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Summary

The malaria parasite mitochondria represent the only tractable, naturally occurring system in which cristae, the characteristic invaginations of the inner mitochondrial membrane, are known to be formed *de novo*. In traditional model organisms, the central complex involved in cristae organization is the mitochondrial contact site and cristae organizing system (MICOS). However, whether MICOS has an active role in the initial formation of cristae remained unclear. We identified two putative *Plasmodium falciparum* MICOS components, *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 and show that both genes are dispensable in asexual blood stages, gametocytes, and mosquito stages, albeit with a mild reduction in oocyst numbers. Immunofluorescence microscopy and electron tomography of gametocytes lacking either or both MICOS orthologues showed aberrant mitochondrial morphology and abnormal cristae, with a marked reduction of crista junctions. Thus, by utilizing the unique properties of *P. falciparum*, we confirmed the involvement of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 in the organization of crista junctions, while providing evidence that MICOS is not required for the formation of cristae.

Keywords: *Plasmodium falciparum*, malaria, mitochondria, cristae, MICOS, MIC60, MIC19

Introduction

The mitochondrion is a double membrane-bound organelle found in most eukaryotes. Its primary function is to generate ATP through oxidative phosphorylation. The mitochondrion bears an outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM), which is a selectively permeable barrier to the cytoplasm, and an inner mitochondrial membrane (IMM), which separates the mitochondrial matrix from the intermembrane space. The IMM is divided into two distinct domains: the cristae membrane and the inner boundary membrane. The cristae membrane is highly convoluted and rich in ATP synthase and the electron transport chain complexes thus

forming a specialized area responsible for oxidative phosphorylation. The inner boundary
membrane hosts proteins and protein complexes responsible for exchange of metabolites,
protein translocation, and mitochondrial fusion (1-3). Both membranes are connected at the
crista junctions. Crista junctions are known to be organized by a multi-subunit protein
complex, the mitochondrial contact site and cristae organizing system (MICOS) (3-6).
Together with proteins of the OMM, MICOS is also part of the mitochondrial intermembrane
space bridging complex that mediates contacts between the IMM and OMM (7-9). In humans,
MICOS is organized into two protein sub-complexes integrated in the cristae membrane, the
MIC10 and MIC60 sub-complexes, consisting of four and three different components,
respectively (9-11). MIC60 is one of the key components of MICOS implicated in generating
the negative curvature at the base of the cristae membrane (12, 13). MIC60 consists of an N-
terminal transmembrane domain, responsible for anchoring it to the IMM, a coiled-coil
domain and a mitofilin domain at the C-terminal end of the protein. These two C-terminal
domains are essential to form and stabilize crista junctions through the tetramerization of
MIC60 (13-15).
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Strikingly, the mitochondrion of *Plasmodium falciparum,* the most virulent causing agent of
human malaria, departs from the canonical model of mitochondria. Asexual blood-stage
parasites (ABS) have a single acristate mitochondrion that harbours very little respiratory
chain complex components (16). During development to the sexual, mosquito transmissible
stages, also called gametocytes, the single mitochondrion separates into a set of 4-8
mitochondria (17) in which canonical mitochondrial processes, such as tricarboxylic acid cycle
and oxidative phosphorylation gain relevance (16, 18-20). This is accompanied by a large
increase in expression of ATP synthase and all relevant electron transport chain complexes
but also by the *de novo* emergence of bulbous cristae in the mitochondria (16, 17).
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Even though mutation-induced aberrations of mitochondrial cristae morphology in *P.*
falciparum have been sporadically reported (21), details on the molecular underpinnings of
the bulbous shape and *de novo* biogenesis of cristae in *P. falciparum* gametocytes remain
largely unknown. While a recent study in a related apicomplexan parasite, *Toxoplasma gondii*,
has shown that the bulbous morphology is associated with highly divergent and large ATP
synthase assemblies (22), the mechanisms involved in forming and maintaining stable crista
junctions have yet to be investigated. Very little is known about any MICOS-like complex
components or their potential roles in governing membrane architecture at the crista junction
(21). Prior research has suggested PF3D7_1007800 as a putative orthologue of *MIC60* in *P.*
falciparum (*PfMIC60*) based on sequence homology to the characteristic mitofilin domain, but
until now, no other subunits of MICOS have been identified in *P. falciparum* despite a high
degree of conservation in other cristate eukaryotes (9, 23). It is noteworthy that even though
sequence homology and composition of MICOS diverges between clades, overall architecture
is comparable to the opisthokont models. Irrespective of the shape of an organism's cristae,

the crista junctions have been described as tubular channels that connect the cristae
membrane to the inner boundary membrane (22, 24).
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82   Although MICOS has mainly been described as an organizer of crista junctions, conclusive
83   evidence about its involvement in the initial formation of cristae is still lacking. In this study,
84   we used a combination of experimental genetics, high-resolution fluorescence microscopy,
85   electron microscopy and electron tomography to elucidate the involvement of the parasite's
86   MICOS in cristae organization, with clear distinction from cristae formation.
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88 Results

89 Identification of putative *Pf*MICOS components

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To further investigate previously reported sequence homology of the MIC60 mitofilin domain
to the *Pf*MIC60 candidate PF3D7_1007800 (9), we compared publicly available AlphaFold
predictions of the protein sequence of the canonical MIC60 and our candidate sequence
(Figure 1A, C and Figure S1A, C). In addition to the putative mitofilin domain in *Pf*MIC60, we
identified a putative lipid binding domain and a coiled coil domain of similar length as
described for opisthokonts MIC60. Interestingly, *Pf*MIC60 is much larger than the human
MICOS counterpart, with a large, poorly predicted N-terminal extension. The only domain
detected in this region of the predicted molecule is an antiparallel array of ten β-sheets of
unknown function. Since the *P. falciparum* genome lacks obvious orthologues of additional
MICOS components, we re-examined our publicly available gametocyte-derived complexome
profiling datasets (16). *Pf*MIC60 did not enter standard mass range gels (16) but in samples
separated on specialized, high molecular mass gels, we found *Pf*MIC60 consistently
comigrates with PF3D7_1108800 at an apparent mass of 4-5 MDa (Figure 1E, Supp.
Information 1). PF3D7_1108800 is conserved across the *Plasmodium* genus (OG7_0323199)
(25) and, while it lacks clear sequence homology outside of that, the AlphaFold prediction
features a conserved CC-helix-CC-helix (CHCH) domain also found in MIC19, a known
interactor of MIC60 in opisthokonts (Figure 1B, D). Based on this structural similarity and
comigration pattern, we propose to provisionally designate PF3D7_1108800 as *Pf*MIC19.
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110 *Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19 are expressed during gametocyte stages.

To study the function of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 as possible MICOS components, we analysed
their expression profile and localization in ABS and gametocytes. Therefore, we generated
two transgenic parasite lines, *mic19-HA* and *mic60-HA* in which we introduced a *3xHA-GlmS*
tag at the 3' end of the respective genes. The transgenic lines also contain a mitochondrially
targeted mScarlet for visualization of the organelle and protein co-localization (Figure S2A).
Correct integration and absence of wild-type (WT) parasites was confirmed through
diagnostic PCR (Figure S2B). Western blot analysis of mixed ABS and mature gametocyte
samples revealed that *Pf*MIC19 (19.7 kDa) and *Pf*MIC60 (120 kDa) are absent in acristate ABS

but expressed in the cristate sexual blood stages (Figure 1F). As a positive control for
mitochondrial localization, we used the previously published MitoRed line (26), which
expresses the mitochondrially targeted mScarlet from a silent intergenic locus. Unfortunately,
attempts to localise *Pf*MIC19-HA and *Pf*MIC60-HA using conventional immunofluorescence
microscopy and ultra-expansion microscopy were unsuccessful, likely due to their naturally
low abundance (Figure S2C-D) highlight by our western blot analysis (Figure 1F).

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Figure 1. Identification of PfMICOS candidates based on predictive structural similarities,
complexome profiling and the characteristic expression patterns expected for cristae modulators. A)
AlphaFold predictions of ScMIC60 (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) and PfMIC60 (27, 28). TED consensus
domain predicted mitofilin domain (red), lipid binding site (green) and coiled coil domain (blue,
theoretical length annotated) are highlighted (29). N- and C-terminus are annotated. (local pLDDT
confidence information in Figure S1). B) AlphaFold predictions of ScMIC19 and PfMIC19 (27, 28). TED
predicted CC-helix-CC-helix (CHCH) domain is highlighted (29). N- and C-terminus are annotated. (local
pLDDT confidence information in Figure S1). C) Schematic overview of the TED predicted domain
architecture of ScMIC60 and PfMIC60. The additional domain annotated for PfMIC60 consists of ten

antiparallel β-sheets of unknown function. D) Schematic overview of the TED predicted domain architecture of ScMIC19 and PfMIC19. E) Heat maps showing co-migration of PfMIC19 with PfMIC60. F) Western blot analysis of ABS and mature gametocytes of MIC19-HA and MIC60-HA. Tagged proteins were detected with rat anti-HA (PfMIC19 and PfMIC60, top) and rabbit anti-HSP70 was used as a loading control (bottom).

*Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 are not essential for *P. falciparum in vitro* life-cycle progression

To investigate the essentiality of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 during the *P. falciparum* life cycle, we generated the knockout parasite lines *mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻* in which the respective genes were replaced by a cytoplasmic green fluorescent protein (GFP) (Figure S2A). In addition, we generated the *mic19/60⁻* double-knockout line in which *PfMIC60* was replaced by a cytoplasmic mCherry in the *mic19⁻* genetic background (Figure S3A). Diagnostic PCR confirmed proper integration and absence of WT parasites in all the generated lines (Figure S2B and Figure S3B). To assess parasite viability, we performed a standard growth assay on ABS parasites. Parasite replication was followed for two replication cycles, revealing that ABS of *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻* grow at a comparable rate to parental parasites (NF54) (Figure 2A). Interestingly, *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻* also produced mature gametocytes with no apparent delay. To verify their viability, we performed exflagellation assays that revealed no difference in maturation compared to the NF54 parental control (Figure 2B). In addition, gametocytes were fed to mosquitoes through standard membrane feeding assays. All lines infected mosquitoes and we observed a reduction in infection rate as well as oocyst numbers in *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻* compared to NF54, with the transmission reduction of 77% (95% CI: 69, 83) for *mic19⁻*, 52% (95% CI: 39, 62) for *mic60⁻*, and 47% (95% CI: 30, 59) for *mic19/60⁻*. (Figure 2C and Figure 2D). Nevertheless, sporozoite production was confirmed for all generated knockout lines, indicating that *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 are not essential for the parasites to complete the mosquito stage development (Figure S5). In summary, under *in vitro* culture conditions, *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 are dispensable for survival and development of ABS and gametocytes. Absence of these MICOS components is also compatible with progression through mosquito stage development albeit at a reduced rate.

Exp n°	NF54		mic19⁻		mic60⁻		mic19/60⁻	
	% inf mosq.	mean	% inf mosq.	mean	% inf mosq.	mean	% inf mosq.	mean
Exp1	100% (20/20)	120,3	100% (20/20)	8,9				
Exp2	100% (20/20)	16,1	95% (19/20)	13,2				
Exp3	100% (20/20)	27,3	85% (17/20)	5,8	95% (19/20)	13,2	95% (19/20)	25,2
Exp4	100% (10/10)	63,9			90% (9/10)	37,6		
Exp5	95% (19/20)	5,7			80% (16/20)	2,25	60% (12/20)	2,2
Exp6	100% (10/10)	68					100% (10/10)	18

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Figure 2. Consequences of deletion of *Pf**MIC60** **and*** *Pf**MIC19** **on differentiation and survival of*** P.
falciparum. *A) Growth curve of NF54, mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ ABS over time (in days). (n =3 for*
NF54, mic19⁻, mic60⁻ and n=2 for mic19/60⁻). B) Exflagellation assay of NF54, mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and
mic19/60⁻. (n >=6). C) Infection of A. stephensi mosquitoes with NF54, mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻
in 6 independent experiments indicated in different colours. Means (black line): NF54 = 43, mic19⁻ =
7.0, mic60⁻ = 15.0 and mic19/60⁻ = 17.1. Statistical significance is indicated as follows: ns ≥ 0.05, *p <
0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001 D). Summary of infected mosquitoes and mean oocyst
count per midgut in every independent experiment displayed in C.

Knockout of *Pf**MIC60** **and*** *Pf**MIC19** **impairs mitochondrial morphology in gametocytes**
Next, we investigated the impact of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 absence on mitochondrial
morphology. Due to the lack of detectable protein expression in ABS, we focused on mature
gametocytes, where cristae are abundant and protein expression was detected in western
blot. We stained mitochondria of parental NF54 line, single and double knockout line mature
gametocytes with MitoTracker and used tubulin as a male marker (30). To analyse the
variability of normal mitochondrial morphology in the NF54 background, we quantified the
imaging data using the Mitochondria-Analyzer plug-in for Fiji (31, 32). Mitochondria were
classified into three categories: (1) tubular, when only one/two elongated and highly
branched mitochondrial signals were identified per cell body; (2) intermediate, when multiple
partially branched mitochondrial signals were observed; and (3) rounded-up, when
mitochondria appeared smaller, more spherical, and dispersed (Figure 3A). Note that light
microscopy does not resolve individual mitochondria if they are in close contact with each

other (17). Nevertheless, the analysis revealed that mitochondrial morphology of both male
and female gametocytes was partially altered in all knockout lines, characterized by a
predominance of rounded-up and intermediate mitochondria, and a marked reduction of
tubular networks. (Figure 3B, Figure S6). The number of individually identifiable mitochondrial
intensities was 24%, 21%, and 23% higher in *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻*, respectively,
possibly indicating an increased dispersion of mitochondria throughout the cell body (Figure
3C). These single mitochondrial intensities were ~30% smaller (Figure 3D), more spherical
(36%, 24%, and 20%) (Figure 3E), and less branched (50%, 55%, and 40%) (Figure 3F) compared
to the parental NF54 line. In addition, total mitochondrial volume per cell was reduced in all
knockout lines with 15%, 17%, and 13%, respectively (Figure 3G). Interestingly, deletion of
both genes did not exacerbate the mitochondrial phenotype compared to the single
knockouts. In conclusion, while NF54 cells contain mainly tubular mitochondria, *mic19⁻*,
mic60⁻, and *mic19/60⁻* gametocytes have more intermediate and rounded-up mitochondria.
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Figure 3. Fluorescence microscopy reveals aberrant mitochondrial morphology in mature **P.**
falciparum *mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ gametocytes. A) Representative fluorescent microscopy*
images of mature NF54 gametocytes possessing tubular, intermediate, or rounded-up mitochondria.
Samples were stained with MitoTracker. Images are maximum intensity projections of Z-stack confocal
Airyscan images. Scale bars: 2 μm. B) Analysis of mitochondrial shape based on mean branch length
per cell. Rounded-up = branch length < 2 μm, intermediate = branch length between 2 μm and 10 μm,
tubular = branch length > 10 μm. C- G) Quantification of (C) n° of detected mitochondrial intensities
per cell, (D) volume per mitochondria (log), (E) branches per mitochondrion (log), (F) sphericity of
mitochondria (log), (G) mitochondrial volume per cell (log). In all cases n > 3 with total number of
*cells >= 75. G) Statistical significance is indicated as follows: ns ≥ 0.05, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <*
*0.001, ****p < 0.0001.*

*Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19 are involved in shaping mitochondrial cristae

To assess the role of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 in cristae morphology, we performed transmission
electron microscopy (TEM) on mature gametocyte samples of *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, *mic19/60⁻*, and
the parental NF54. Two-dimensional analysis of thin sections revealed cristae deformations
in all knockout lines (Figure 4A). We did not observe differences in cristae morphology
between male and female parasites. Length, width, and area occupied by individual cristae
from over 30 mitochondrial cross-sections per sample were measured (Figure 4B-D). Cristae
in *mic19⁻* gametocytes appeared wider, whereas the cristae in *mic60⁻* and *mic19/60⁻*
gametocytes were longer, but not wider, when compared to the parental NF54. The
measured effect on crista length was particularly pronounced in *mic19/60⁻* with a mean crista
length of 155 nm compared to 96 nm for NF54 (Figure 4B). As a consequence of the increased
measured crista length and width in the knockout lines, crista area increased in all knockout
lines (Figure 4D). We expect this effect to translate into the third dimension and thus conclude
that the mean crista volume increases with the loss of either *PfMIC19*, *PfMIC60*, or both. Even
though the deletion of *PfMIC19* and/or *PfMIC60* clearly affected cristae morphology, mean
cristae coverage per mitochondrial cross-section remained stable across all cell lines (Figure
4E). The reason for the lack of a significant change in cristae coverage despite the increased
area per crista can be calculated from the same datapoints and shows that the mean number
of crista cross-sections per μm^2 of mitochondrial cross-section drops from 33.8 crista-sections
per μm^2 in NF54 to 20.3, 16.3 and 26.4 in *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻* and *mic19/60⁻*, respectively. The
increased variability in cristae coverage in *mic19/60⁻* is a result of the extreme phenotypes
observed in some severely affected mitochondria (Figure 4F and Figure S7). We observed
instances of extremely long cristae, as well as mitochondria with large single- or double-
membraned circles within the mitochondrial cross-section. Given the observed aberrations in
cristae morphology in knockout lines, we conclude that membrane invaginations can still form,
even in the absence of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60, suggesting that these proteins are not essential
for initiating cristae formation. Nevertheless, *Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19 both play an essential
role in shaping nascent cristae. Furthermore, our data indicates the effect size increases with
simultaneous ablation of both proteins.

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247 **Figure 4. Transmission electron microscopy reveals aberrant cristae structures in mature** P.
248 **falciparum** *mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ gametocytes.* *A) Representative micrographs of NF54 (WT),*
249 *mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ gametocytes. Mitochondria within a rectangular selection are*
250 *highlighted in pink. Zoom-ins on these selections are shown on the right side of each micrograph. For*

*Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19 are important for proper crista junction formation

To delve deeper into the effects of *PfMIC19* and *PfMIC60* deletions, we performed dual-tilt
TEM tomography on 250 nm sections of the same samples used in Figure 4. The phenotypes
matched our observations from two-dimensional acquisitions. We found cristae morphology
to be altered in all knockout lines, with most severe aberrations found in *mic19/60⁻* (Figure
5A-B). We manually segmented one representative mitochondrion per parasite line to
visualize the observed effects (Figure 5C and Movies 1-4). We observed that in all knockout
parasites, we rarely identified connections between cristae membranes and the boundary
membrane. To quantify the observed loss of membrane connectivity, we analysed the
connectivity of all cristae within mitochondrial volumes from different gametocytes (Figure
5E-F). We thoroughly searched for crista junctions of each crista found within the
mitochondrial segments. Note that these mitochondrial volumes are not full mitochondria,
but large segments thereof. As a result of the incompleteness of the mitochondria within the
section, and the tomography specific artefact of the missing wedge, we were unable to
confirm whether cristae were in fact fully detached from the boundary membrane, or just too
long to fit within the observable z-range. Instead, we quantified the fraction of cristae for
which we identified a crista junction (Figure 5E). While we identified crista junctions for 55%
of the cristae seen in NF54 gametocytes, we could only confirm crista junction presence 9%
of the cristae traced in *mic19⁻* and 23% of the cristae in the *mic60⁻* sample. Similarly,
connectivity also dropped in the double knockout, with 21% of confirmed crista junctions.
Note that for *mic19/60⁻* we chose to measure connectivity in mitochondria that we
considered representative for the population average rather than the extreme cases shown
in (Figure 4F and Figure S7). For each parasite line, we measured the diameter of at least 12
crista junctions and found that this value does not change significantly in the single knockout
parasites (Figure 5E-F). Only in *mic19/60⁻* the mean crista junction diameter dropped
significantly, from 25 nm in the NF54 control to 20 nm in *mic19/60⁻*. Collectively, these results
demonstrate that the deletion of *PfMIC19* and/or *PfMIC60* leads to a reduction of crista
junctions

Figure 5. Transmission electron tomography reveals a drop in crista junction prevalence in mature
P. falciparum *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻* gametocytes. *A) Representative snapshots through TEM*
tomograms of mature NF54 (WT), mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/mic60⁻ gametocytes. Scale bars: 500 nm.
B) Zoom-ins of individual mitochondria from the tomograms shown in A. Crista junctions highlighted

with red arrow heads. Scale bars: 200 nm. C) 3D model of 250 nm mitochondrial sections of the mitochondria shown in B. Each model is shown from two angles 180° to each other. Scale bars: 500 nm (full tomograms and mitochondrial segmentations in Movies 1-4). D) Quantification of the relative proportions of cristae for which a crista junction (CJ) was observed within the 250 nm section (n ≥ 56). E) Quantification of the diameter of crista junctions at their narrowest point (n ≥ 12, from several mitochondria per sample). Statistical significance is indicated as follows: ns ≥ 0.05, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. F) Three representative crista junctions from mature NF54, mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/mic60⁻ gametocytes. Scale bars: 100 nm. 2D segmentation of the outer mitochondrial membrane (blue) and the inner mitochondrial membrane (violet) shown in the bottom row.

Discussion

MICOS is a protein complex of the inner mitochondrial membrane that is involved in the organization of mitochondrial cristae and stabilization of crista junctions (3-6). Though well established as the cristae organizing system, the role of MICOS in initial formation of cristae remains hidden in model organisms that constitutively display cristae. Currently, *P. falciparum,* the parasite responsible for human malaria, and *Amoebophrya ceratii,* a parasite infecting free-living dinoflagellates, are the only species that reportedly grow cristae *de novo*, from a fully acristate mitochondrion (17, 33). Due to its medical relevance, and the central role of the mitochondria as a validated drug target (34, 35), *P. falciparum* is an invaluable model to study the role of MICOS in cristae organization and formation. Recent bioinformatic data revealed a putative *Pf*MIC60, thus priming the investigation of other components of the complex (9, 16). In this study, we investigated the roles of the putative *PfMIC60* and *PfMIC19* orthologues in cristae formation and organization.

The *P. falciparum* mitochondrial proteome intensely varies between different life cycle stages. In fact, almost all proteins involved in oxidative phosphorylation are dramatically increased in gametocyte stages compared to ABS (36, 37). The same trend was observed for *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60*.* Although transcriptomic data suggested that low-level transcripts of *PfMIC19* and *PfMIC60* are present in ABS (38), we did not detect either of the proteins in ABS by western blot analysis. In contrast, both proteins were detectable, albeit in low abundance, in mature gametocytes. The expression patterns of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 is consistent with the absence of cristae in ABS and their appearance during gametocytogenesis (17, 37). The low abundance of *Pf*MICOS components even in mature gametocytes likely contributed to our difficulties confirming mitochondrial localization of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 using fluorescence microscopy.

The absence of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 during ABS also explains the lack of a growth defect in this part of the life cycle. Surprisingly though, gametocytes and mosquito stages, that are believed to strongly rely on oxidative phosphorylation for their survival (36, 37), were largely unaffected by depletion of these MICOS components, with the exception of a slight reduction in infectivity and oocyst formation. This lack of growth arrest has also been described for the

knockout of single MICOS components in human cells, yeast and *Trypanosoma brucei* (11, 39-
41). On the other hand, MICOS has been reported to partially impair cell respiration due to
mitochondrial disorganization and destabilization of respiratory complexes including ATP
synthase (6, 14, 42, 43). Considering these relationships, successful propagation suggests that
either the growth defect is masked by the unnaturally rich environment that the parasites
encounter in blood culture medium (38), or that the reported impact on respiratory
complexes does not occur to a relevant extent in *P. falciparum*.

Consistent with prior observations in human cells (6, 44), knockouts of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60
strongly altered mitochondrial morphology. In fact, both the single and the double knockout
parasite lines exhibited mitochondria that were more rounded-up and spherical. The
presence of rounded-up mitochondria upon knockout of MICOS components in human cells
has been appointed to a secondary defect in mitochondrial fission and increase of reactive
oxygen species and hence general mitochondrial stress (45). Given this background and the
extreme variability in mitochondrial shape we assume mitochondrial rounding-up in *P.*
falciparum is also a consequence of mitochondrial stress, due to the loss of *Pf*MIC19 and
*Pf*MIC60, rather than a direct involvement of these proteins in mitochondrial shape or fission.
Our observation of this mitochondrial rounding-up in the NF54 parental control, could
indicate a baseline level of mitochondrial stress in culture conditions. Similarly, we cannot
clearly appoint the reduction in oocyst number to a direct response to the loss of *Pf*MIC19
and/or *Pf*MIC60, as it could just reflect mitochondrial stress. Still, it is striking that, despite
the pronounced morphological phenotype, and the possibly high mitochondrial stress levels,
the parasites appeared mostly unaffected in life cycle propagation, raising questions about
the functional relevance of mitochondria at these stages.

The MitochondriaAnalyzer plug-in for ImageJ, used here for the first time on *P. falciparum*
samples, proved to be a potent tool to improve bulk quantification of fluorescence
microscopy data (31). Of course, it is also important to consider that while fluorescent
microscopy is a powerful technique, it cannot reliably determine the number of mitochondria.
As shown by TEM data, mitochondria are often located in very close proximity (17, 46), thus
the fluorescence-based mitochondrial counts reflect more on whether mitochondria are
sufficiently dispersed to be recognized as separate, rather than providing an absolute count.
This measurement is interesting nevertheless, as it demonstrates a dispersion of a natively
condensed network of tubular mitochondria.

While the extent of cristae disruptions in *mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻* gametocytes was comparable
(as shown in thin section TEM and TEM tomography), the double knockout parasites showed
stronger morphological defects compared to the single knockouts. In particular, *mic19/60⁻*
presented some cases of extremely disrupted mitochondria with the presence of single- or
double-membraned circles within the mitochondrial cross-section. Based on this observation,
we envision that an excessive elongation of cristae may result in the formation of double-

membrane circle. This indicates that in *P. falciparum* the depletion of just one of these proteins does not fully disrupt MICOS function, whereas the absence of both components has a more extensive destabilising effect. Notably, this is different compared to what was observed in human and yeast, where ablation of just MIC60 is sufficient to deplete functionality of the entire MICOS (11, 15), suggesting that *Pf*MIC60 has a less central role in maintaining overall complex integrity. Nevertheless, our results indicate that *Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19 are both involved in the crista junction stabilization, just like their human and yeast counterparts. The depletion of either or both *P. falciparum* proteins leads to alterations in the organization of cristae membranes but not in the total cristae coverage, thus suggesting that membrane invaginations still arise, but are not properly arranged in these knockout lines. This suggests that MICOS either isn't fully depleted, with yet unidentified components guiding cristae formation, or that the function of MICOS, at least in *P. falciparum*, is restricted to cristae organization, rather than initial cristae formation.

While MIC60 knockout in human cells showed an almost complete loss of crista junctions (6), none of our knockout lines showed a complete loss of crista junctions. Nevertheless, we did see a decrease in crista junction abundance in all lines, and a significant reduction of crista junction diameter in the double knockout. Interestingly, in both human and yeast cells, crista junctions exhibit diameters ranging from 12 to 40 nm, with an average of 28 nm, which is consistent and comparable with our observation in the parental NF54 gametocytes (47-49). The change in crista junction structure suggests that, at least in *mic19/60⁻*, the remaining crista junctions are affected by the loss of *Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19. It remains uncertain, though possible, that protein-mediated stabilization is entirely absent in the double knockout. Even without a stabilizing protein component at crista junctions, residual contact sites between the boundary membrane and the cristae membrane are expected, representing remnants of incomplete vesicularization of nascent, yet unstabilized cristae, possibly driven by the membrane bending activity of the ATP synthase. A loss of the entire stabilization machinery at the crista junction would also explain the increased variability of the measurements and the extreme phenotypes observed in this parasite line. Alternatively, remaining cristae junctions could still be maintained through partially redundant, yet undiscovered MICOS proteins. Though not identified in complexomic analysis, it is tempting to speculate about the presence of a cryptic MIC10 sub complex, not recognized due to high divergence, or a hidden apicomplexan-specific subunit, like the ones recently discovered in *T. brucei* (40, 50). Due to low abundance of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60, however, the identification of potential candidates is challenging.

It is important to note that effects on crista junction structure upon destabilization of the MIC60 subcomplex is a phenomenon described also in yeast and human cells. (6, 13). Previous studies showed that depletion of MIC60 in HeLa cells led to an increase in crista junction diameter, while the depletion of MIC19 did not affect this parameter (11). In contrast to that, destabilization of the MIC60 tetramer in yeast led to a decrease in crista junction

diameter (19). Interestingly, our findings do not suggest effects on crista junction diameter
for either one of the single knockouts, while the double knockout resulted in a 20% reduction,
thus pointing towards, once again, an increasingly unstable complex. The central, tetrameric
coiled coil domain of MIC60 has been suggested to define the diameter of the crista junction
(13). While not experimentally proven, MICOS induced stabilization of crista junction
diameter is a plausible mechanism also for *P. falciparum*. In fact, the mean diameter of *P.*
falciparum crista junctions aligns well with the theoretical length of the coiled coil domain
predicted by AlphaFold. How this assembly aligns with the phenotypes indicative for partial
redundancy with MIC19, however, remains to be investigated.
423
Collectively, we have demonstrated that *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 are putative mitochondrial
proteins expressed in gametocytes. Their deletion does not affect ABS nor sexual blood stages
in standard culture conditions. While oocyst counts were modestly reduced, sporozoite
production did not appear to be affected, indicating that the proteins are not essential at any
point of the parasite life cycle investigated in this study. Still, knockout of *Pf*MIC19 and
*Pf*MIC60 strongly altered mitochondrial morphology in gametocytes, and mitochondrial
cristae are aberrant but present, with a reduction in crista junction abundance, confirming a
role of these proteins in the *Pf*MICOS. Although molecular mechanisms of membrane bending
and anchoring are yet to be elucidated, our study demonstrated the existence of the *Pf*MICOS.
In contrast to other systems where MICOS has been described, *P. falciparum* further allows
us to clearly decipher cause-effect relationships in this context, as we can conclude that even
in the absence of *Pf*MIC60 and *Pf*MIC19, cristae are formed *de novo*, and they allow for
parasite survival. Thus, our data provide direct evidence that components of the *Pf*MICOS are
essential for crista junction organization and stabilization, but not for initial cristae formation.
This functional separation is likely to generalize beyond *P. falciparum*, to evolutionary distant
organisms such as human and yeast. Our results highlight the unique utility that the two-state
mitochondrial architecture in *P. falciparum* provides to the field of mitochondrial biology and
lays the groundwork for future studies on the causal dissection of cristae biogenesis in *P.*
falciparum gametocytes and beyond.
443

444   ## Material and Methods
445
Plasmid generation.
To generate the *mic19-HA* and *mic60-HA* homology-direct repair (HDR) plasmids, the pRF0139
empty tagging plasmid was used, containing 3xHA-GlmS, PBANKA_142660 bidirectional 3'UTR,
and the mitochondrial-mScarlet marker (26). 5' and 3' homology arms (HRs) were amplified
from genomic NF54 DNA and cloned specific restriction enzymes (Table S1).
HDR templated for *mic19*⁻ and *mic60*⁻ were generated from pGK backbone (51), which
contains a pBAT backbone (52) with H2B promotor, GFP and PBANKA_142660 bidirectional

3'UTR. The 5' and 3' HRs, amplified from NF54 gDNA, were cloned into pGK using specific
restriction sites (Table S1).

To generate the HDR template for the *mic19/60⁻*, 5' and 3' HR were inserted into pCK2a, which
contains a pBAT backbone (52) with H2B promotor, mCherry and PBANKA_142660
bidirectional 3'UTR.

Cas9 guide plasmids were generated inserting a pair of annealed complementary, guide
encoding, oligonucleotides into pBF-gC (53) or, a derived plasmid from MLB626 (54) (kind gift
from Marcus Lee) that does not present an 3xHA tag in the Cas9 gene. BsaI and BbsI,
respectively, restriction enzymes were used to insert the oligonucleotides and generate the
final guide plasmids (Table S1). All PCR reactions were performed using Primestar GXL DNA
polymerase (Takara Bio), and all cloning enzymes were obtained via New England Biolabs.

***P. falciparum* culturing and transfection.** *P. falciparum* asexual blood-stage parasites were
cultured in complete RPMI medium (with 25 mM HEPES, 100 mM hypoxanthine, and 24 mM
sodium bicarbonate) supplemented with 10% AB+ human serum and 5% 0+ human Red Blood
Cells (RBCs) (Sanquin, The Netherlands) (55). The cultures were kept at 37° C in a low oxygen
environment (3% O_2, 4% CO_2). When needed, ring parasites synchronization was achieved
using sorbitol treatment (56). Culture parasitaemia, was monitored with Giemsa-stained
blood smears using a 100X oil objective.

For transfections 60 μg of each Cas9 guides and linearized repair plasmids were ethanol
precipitated and transfected on a ring-stage synchronized culture, as previously described
(57). Briefly, the plasmids were dissolved and mixed with cytomix (0.895% KCl, 0.0017% $CaCl_2$,
0.076% EGTA, 0.102% $MgCl_2$, 0.0871% K_2HPO_4, 0.068% KH_2PO_4, 0.708% HEPES) for a total
volume of 300 μl. The DNA was then added to 0.4 ml of packed ring-stage infected RBCs and
the solution was electroporated (0.31 kV and 950 uF). Parasites were left to recover for 4 h
after transfection in complete media and after that treated in 2.5 nM WR99210 (Jacobus
Pharmaceuticals) or 40 μg/ml blasticidin (Gibco #R210-01) for 5 days. To obtain an isogenic
population, parasites were isolated using flow cytometry (58) based on GFP (*mic19⁻* and
mic60⁻), mCherry (*mic19/60⁻*) or mScarlet (*mic19-HA* and *mic60-HA*) expression, using a
CytoFLEX SRT benchtop Cell Sorter (Beckman Coulter). Transfected parasites were cultured
until recovered and integration was confirmed by diagnostic PCR (Table S1).

Growth assay. Parasite cultures were tightly synchronized through a double sorbitol
synchronisation performed at 0 h and 16 h. Ring-stage parasites were determined through
flow cytometry and cultures were diluted to have a 0.5% final parasitaemia. Cultures were set
up at 0.5% parasitaemia and samples were harvested for 4 days. Samples for flow cytometry
were taken directly after set-up, on day 1, 2 before and after dilution, 3 and 4. On day 2 all
cultures were diluted with the same dilution factor (1/20). When harvested, samples were
fixed in 0.25% glutaraldehyde (ITW Reagents, CA0589.100) in PBS and, before flow cytometry

(Cytoflex - 13-color, Beckman Coulter), stained with SYBR™ green (ThermoFisher, 7563)
1:10.000 for 30 min at 37° C. Data was analysed using FlowJo software (version 10.10).
495
Gametocyte culture conditions and standard membrane feeding assay. Sexual conversion in
parasites was induced in a trophozoite-stage culture, adding Albumax- containing medium for
36 h and changed every 12 h (59). Gametocytes were then cultured with normal culture
medium until maturation. During the entire procedure gametocytes were kept at 37° C in low
oxygen conditions. To remove ABS from culture, gametocytes were cultured with heparin (20
U/ml) for 4 days. To quantify exflagellation, cultures were mixed 1:1 with 50 µM xanthurenic
acid in complete RPMI medium. The solution, kept at room temperature for 15 min, was then
transferred to a Neubauer chamber where the exflagellation centres were counted with a 40X
objective by bright-field microscopy. To assess mosquito infectivity, day 12 mature
gametocytes (59) were added to the bloodmeal of *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes (colony
maintained at Radboudumc, Nijmegen, The Netherlands), as previously described (60). Mean
oocysts per midgut and statistical significance were calculated using a generalized linear
mixed effect model with a random experiment effect under a negative binomial distribution.
509
Fluorescence microscopy. Mature gametocytes were incubated in 100 nM MitoTracker
(MitoTracker® Orange CMTMRos, Thermo Fisher, #M7510) diluted in incomplete medium for
exactly 30 min at 37° C and afterwards washed and diluted 1:10 in incomplete medium. The
samples were allowed to settle on poly-L-Lysin coverslips (Corning, #354085) for 30 min at 37°
C before being fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Thermo Fisher, #28906) and 0.0075%
glutaraldehyde (Panreac, #A0589,0010) in PBS for 20 min (61). The samples were then
washed with 1X PBS and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 min. Cells were
blocked with 3% BSA for 1 h at RT. The coverslips were incubated with primary antibodies
diluted in PBS with 3% BSA (Table S2) for 1 h at RT, washed three times and then incubated
with the secondary antibodies again for 1 h at RT. All the samples were additionally stained
with 300 nM DAPI (Thermo Fisher, #62248) for 1 h before being mounted onto microscope
slides with Fluoromount G (Thermo Fisher, # 00-4958-02). Images were acquired using an
LSM900 confocal microscope with airyscan (ZEISS) using a 63x oil objective with 405, 488, 561,
and 633 nm laser excitation and an Electronically Switchable Illumination and Detection
Model (ESID) for transmitted light. Images belonging to the same experiment were acquired
with equal setting for laser power and detector sensibility and afterwards analyzed with the
same parameters to compare expression.
527
Mitochondria quantification in fluorescence microscopy. Mature gametocytes prepared as
previously explained, were randomly selected based on DIC or DAPI signal to avoid bias.
Mitochondria were quantified using the Fiji plug-in MitochondriaAnalyser (31). Briefly, 3D
image stacks were pre-processed using the following commands: subtract background
(radius = 1.25 µm); sigma filter plus (radius = 2.0 µm); enhance local contrast (slope = 1.40
µm); and gamma correction (value = 0.9 µm). For thresholding, block size was set to 0.85 µm

with a C value of 7. Thresholded images were then postprocessed using the functions
despeckle and remove outliers with radius = 3 pixels. Statistical significance was determined
using one-way ANOVA test with Sidàk correction. Mitochondria were divided in tubular,
intermediate and round up based on average branch length (total branch length / number of
mitochondria intensities) and statistical significance was determined using a chi-squared test.
539
Ultra-Expansion Microscopy (U-ExM). Mature gametocytes were isolated using MACS LS
columns. Shortly, LS columns were equilibrated using incomplete media and mature
gametocyte cultures were flushed in the LS columns attached to a magnet using a 23G needle
to regulate the flow. To elute gametocytes, columns were removed from the magnet and
washed with incomplete media. MACS column, magnet and incomplete media were
previously incubated at 37° C, and kept in temperature for all procedure, to prevent
gametocytes activation during purification. The gametocytes pellet was then incubated with
100 nM MitoTracker and fixed as previously explained. The coverslips were then incubated
with 0.5% acrylamide (AA) (Sigma, #A4058) and 0.38% formaldehyde (FA) (Sigma, #F8775) in
PBS overnight at 37° C. Gelation was performed as previously described (62). Briefly the
gelling solution was prepared adding tetramethylethylenediamine (TMED, final concentration
0.5%) (Sigma, #T7024) and ammonium persulfate (APS, final concentration 0.5%) (Sigma,
#A3678) to U-ExM monomer solution (MS) (23% w/v sodium acrylate (AK Scientific, #R624),
10% w/v AA, N,N'-methylenbisacrylamide (BIS) (Sigma, #M1533) 0.1% w/v in PBS). The
solution was then added to the coverslips and incubated at 37° C for 1 h. Gels were incubated
with denaturation buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris in water, pH 9) under strong
agitation until complete detachment from the coverslips and transferred into a 1.5 ml
Eppendorf tube filled with denaturation buffer and incubated 90 minutes at 95° C. Gels were
expanded overnight in MQ at RT. Following, gels were incubated with primary antibodies
(Table S2) for 3 h at 37° C while shaking, followed by secondary antibodies, NHS-ester (8 μg/ml)
(DyLightTM 405 NHS-ester, ThermoScientific, #46400) and SYTOXTM (Thermo Fisher, #S11381)
for 2.5 h at 37° C, shaking. For imaging, gels were cut into pieces and positioned on a poly-D
lysine (Gibco, #A38904-01) coated coverslip. Images were acquired with identical parameters,
using an LSM900 confocal microscope with airyscan (ZEISS) using a 63X oil objective with 405,
488, 561, and 633 nm laser excitation and an Electronically Switchable Illumination and
Detection Model (ESID) for transmitted light.
566
Electron microscopy sample preparation. Mature gametocytes were harvested using MACS
LS columns as previously explained. Purified gametocytes were then fixed with 4% PFA in 0.1
M PHEM and pelleted at 600 x g for 10 min. The pellets were vitrified using the Leica EMPACT
high pressure freezer with membrane carrier assembly. Water removal and staining was
achieved by freeze substitution in 1% osmium tetroxide, 0.2% uranyl acetate and 1% water in
acetone. Stepwise freeze substitution consisted of a 48 h incubation at -90° C, temperature
sloped increase to -60° C within 12 h, 10 h incubation at -60° C, sloped increase to -60° C
within 12 h, incubation at -30° C for 8 h and removal of uranyl acetate by washing in 1%

osmium tetroxide in acetone at -30° C. The samples were then transferred to ice, osmium tetroxide was replaced with pure acetone, and the samples were further stained with 1% tannic acid in acetone for 1 h and with 1% osmium tetroxide for 1 h. Then the samples were embedded in Epon (46% HY 964 Araldite, 39.6% Epoxy Embedding Medium, 13% MNA, 1.4% DMP-30) in a stepwise increase of the Epon to acetone ratio. Fully infiltrated samples were hardened at 70° C for 5 days. Thin sections of 65 nm or semi-thin sections of 250 nm were collected on copper grids with formvar/carbon coating. Thin sections were post stained with 2% uranyl acetate for 2 min and Reynolds lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963) for 5 min. Semi-thin sections were labelled with 15 nm gold fiducials for tilt-series alignment.

Transmission electron tomography. All tomograms were recorded at a JEOL2100 TEM operating at 200 kV. Tomograms were recorded as dual-axis tilt series at 1.5° increment at a range of -60° to 60° (pixel size 1.52 nm, defocus −1.1 μm). Reconstruction, segmentation and quantifications were performed manually, in IMOD. The statistical significance of the deviations in crista junction diameter was determined using one-way ANOVA test with Sidàk correction. Significance of the difference in crista junction prevalence was tested using a Chi-squared test.

Thin section electron microscopy. Micrographs were collected at a JEOL1400 TEM operating at 120 kV. Recorded images were randomized for blinded quantification of cristae length, diameter, area, and coverage. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA tests with Sidàk correction.

SDS-Page gel and western blot. Saponin pellet of gametocytes and asexual blood-stage cultures were prepared by resuspending in 7X pellet volume MQ and 2X pellet volume reductive loading buffer (1% β-mercaptoethanol, 0.004% bromophenol blue, 6% glycerol, 2% SDS 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8). Samples were heated at 70° C for 10 min, quickly vortexed and spun down to precipitate insoluble debris and DNA. The supernatant was loaded on a SurePAGE, 8% Bis-Tris SDS-PAGE (GenScript, #M00677). A standard protein ladder (Precision Plus Protein in Dual Colour Standard, Bio-Rad) was included in every run. Proteins were transferred, with the semi-wet transfer method, to a nitrocellulose membrane soaked in transfer buffer (20% methanol with 10% Tris-Glycine (10X)) in a Trans-Blot Turbo machine (Bio-Rad) at 25V for 30 min. The membrane was then blocked in 1% milk powder in PBS with 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST) overnight at 4° C. Primary and secondary antibodies (Table S2) were diluted in 1% milk powder in PBST and incubated for 1 h at RT. The blot was then imaged with Odyssey CLx (ImageQuant).

Structural comparisons and domain predictions. All AlphaFold models were retrieved from the AlphaFold protein structure database (ScMIC60: AF-P36112-F1-v4, *Pf*MIC60: AF-. Q8IJW5-F1-v4, ScMIC19: AF-P43594-F1-v4, *Pf*MIC19: AF-Q8IIR5-F1-v4)(27, 28). Domains were used as predicted by TED consensus domain, retrieved from the AlphaFold protein structure database

616 (29). Associated pLDDT prediction confidence information is shown in Figure S1. Theoretical
617 length of the coiled coil domain in ScMIC60 and *Pf*MIC60 was measured by atomic distance
618 within the predicted models.
619

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808