The role of MICOS in organizing mitochondrial cristae 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 remains 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 initial 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 membrane regions are connected
at the crista junctions. Crista junctions have been mainly described as tubular channels that
connect the cristae membrane to the inner boundary membrane (4-6). Though, in organisms
with lamellar cristae, such as yeast, crista junctions have also been identified as more
elongated structures, also called slit-shaped crista junctions (7).
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Crista junctions are known to be organized by a multi-subunit protein complex, the
mitochondrial contact site and cristae organizing system (MICOS) (3, 8-11). 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 (12-14). 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
(14-16). Disruption of either of the two MICOS sub-complexes has been shown to lead to loss
of crista junctions and detachment of crista membranes. This generates aberrant cristae,
followed by an atypical mitochondrial morphology (10, 15, 17). MIC60 is one of the key
components of MICOS implicated in generating the negative curvature at the base of the
cristae membrane (18, 19). 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 (19-21).
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Strikingly, the mitochondrion of *Plasmodium falciparum,* the most virulent causing agent of
human malaria, departs from the yeast or human model of mitochondria (22). Asexual blood-
stage parasites (ABS) have a single acristate mitochondrion that harbours low levels of
respiratory chain complex components and ATP synthase assemblies (23, 24). During
development to the sexual, mosquito transmissible stages, also called gametocytes, the single
mitochondrion separates into a set of 4-8 mitochondria (25) in which canonical mitochondrial
processes, such as tricarboxylic acid cycle and oxidative phosphorylation gain relevance (23,
26-28). 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 (23,
25).
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Even though mutation-induced aberrations of mitochondrial cristae morphology in *P.*
falciparum have been sporadically reported (29), 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 (5), 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
(29). 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* (14). It is
noteworthy that even though sequence homology and composition of MICOS diverges
between distantly related eukaryotic clades, overall architecture is comparable to the
opisthokont models (22).
87
88 Although MICOS has been described as an organizer of crista junctions, its role during the
89 initial formation of nascent cristae has not been investigated. In this study, we used a
90 combination of experimental genetics, high-resolution fluorescence microscopy, electron
91 microscopy and electron tomography to elucidate the involvement of the parasite's MICOS in
92 cristae organization, with clear distinction from cristae formation.
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Results

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 (14), 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, the annotated open reading frame of
*Pf*MIC60 (UniProt Q8IJW5) is much larger than the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* MICOS
counterpart (UniProt A6ZZY0). The AlphaFold prediction of the full annotated open reading
frame of PfMIC60 and ScMIC60 suggests the conserved domains (mitofilin, coiled coil and
lipid binding domain) to make up the C-terminal half of PfMIC60. Even though confidence
scores within the N-terminal half of the predicted molecule are low, Topology-based
Evolutionary Domains (TED) identified a domain consisting of a stack of two parallel β-sheets
in PfMIC60. Because this domain is predicted solely from computational analysis, both its
actual existence in the native protein and its biological function remain unknown.
Since the *P. falciparum* genome lacks obvious orthologues of additional MICOS components,
we re-examined our publicly available gametocyte-derived complexome profiling datasets
(23). *Pf*MIC60 did not enter standard mass range gels but in samples separated on specialized,
high molecular mass gels with lower acrylamide percentage, we found *PfMIC60* consistently
comigrates with PF3D7_1108800 at an apparent mass of 4-5 MDa (Figure 1E, Supplementary
Information 1) (23). PF3D7_1108800 is conserved across the *Plasmodium* genus
(OG7_0323199) (30) 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 and Figure S1B, C). Each of

the two α-helices of the CHCH domain contains the conserved Cx9C motif that is characteristic

for MIC19 CHCH domains in opisthokonts (Figure 1F). Based on these similarities and the

comigration pattern, we propose to provisionally designate PF3D7_1108800 as *Pf*MIC19.

*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 undetectable in

acristate ABS but expressed in the cristate sexual blood stages (Figure 1G). As a positive

control for mitochondrial localization, we used the MitoRed line (31), 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) highlighted by our western blot analysis (Figure 1G).

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 (AFDB ID: AF-A6ZZY0-F1-v4) and PfMIC60 (AFDB ID: AF-Q8IJW5-F1-v4)(32, 33). TED consensus domain predicted mitofilin domain (red), lipid binding site (green) and coiled coil domain (blue, predicted length annotated) are highlighted (34). N- and C-terminus are annotated. (local pLDDT confidence information in Figure S1). B) AlphaFold predictions of ScMIC19 (AFDB ID: AF-P43594-F1-v4) and PfMIC19 (AFDB ID: AF-Q8IIR5-F1-v4)(32, 33). TED predicted CC-helix-CC-helix (CHCH) domain is highlighted (34). 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) Migration of PfMIC19/PfMIC60 across fractions of a 3-16% BN-PAGE gel. Corresponding apparent molecular mass of gel fractions is indicated on the x-axis. Relative abundance across fractions is indicated through a heatmap. Co-occurrence in gel fractions is indicative of a shared protein complex. F) Sequence logo derived form a MAFFT alignment of non-redundant protein sequences from MIC19 annotated entries listed on NCBI (MMseqs2 filtered at threshold 0.9, aligned sequences listed in Supplementary Information 2). Letter height indicates information content. Amino acid frequencies are

*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 red fluorescent protein (mCherry) in the *mic19⁻* 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. 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 oocyst numbers in *mic19⁻*,
mic60⁻, and *mic19/60⁻* compared to NF54 (Figure 2C and Figure 2D). The high variability
encountered in the standard membrane feeding assays, though, partially obstructs a clear
conclusion on the biological relevance of the observed reduction in oocyst numbers.
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
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.
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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). Statistical significance calculated with one-way ANOVA with Sidàk correction for full comparison between all cell lines. 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 was assessed with Wald statistics and indicated as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Oocyst count of 0 was plotted at the x-axis for visualisation purposes.*

Knockout of *PfMIC60* and *PfMIC19* 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 alpha tubulin II as a known and previously confirmed male marker (35). 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 (36, 37). MitoTracker signals 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 mitochondrial signals 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 (25). 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 S6A). In addition to the rounded-up appearance of mitochondria, we also observed a dispersion of the mitochondrial network into spatially separated clusters. Wild-type cells contain a single compact cluster of closely apposed tubular mitochondria, whereas knockout cells display multiple smaller, dispersed

mitochondrial clusters. Based on the number of individually identifiable MitoTracker signals within a cell, we determined the relative dispersion of the mitochondrial network. Even though not significant, the data indicates a trend towards increased network dispersion in all knockout lines (24%, 21%, and 23% in *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻*) (Figure S6B). The single identified mitochondrial signals were ~30% smaller (Figure S6C), more spherical (36%, 24%, and 20%) (Figure 3C), and less branched (50%, 55%, and 40%) (Figure S6D) 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 3C). Interestingly, deletion of both genes did not exacerbate the mitochondrial phenotype compared to the single knockouts. Finally, no difference was detected in MitoTracker signal intensity, possibly indicating that the membrane potential is not affected in the single nor double knockouts (Figure S6E). In conclusion, while NF54 cells contain mainly tubular mitochondria, *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻*, and *mic19/60⁻* gametocytes have more intermediate and rounded-up mitochondria.

***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 with 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. Statistical analysis using Chi-squared test with Bonferroni correction for full comparison between all cell lines; significance is indicated as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <*

*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 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 (Figure 4A and Supplementary Information 2). Length, diameter,
and area occupied by individual cristae from over 30 mitochondrial cross-sections per sample
were measured (Figure 4B-D). Note that such measurements do not indicate the true total
length or diameter of cristae, as the data is two-dimensional. The recorded values are to be
considered indicative of trends, rather than absolute dimensions of cristae. Even though
cristae of the two single knockout lines (*mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻*) appeared disorganized, significant
increase in apparent length (but not diameter) of cristae was only detected in *mic19/60⁻*
gametocytes (with a mean crista length of 155 nm compared to 96 nm for NF54) (Figure 4B-
C). Despite the lack of overall significance of these changes in the single knockouts, the spread
of recorded crista length did increase in all knockout lines, therefore indicating a trend
towards heterogeneity of crista architecture. In line with those observations, 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
*Pf*MIC19, *Pf*MIC60, or both. Even though the deletion of *Pf*MIC19 and/or *Pf*MIC60 clearly
affected crista morphology, mean cristae coverage per mitochondrial cross-section did not
significantly change in *mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻* (Figure 4E). The double knockout line (*mic19/60⁻*),
however, reached significance due to a small population of severely aberrant cristae (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. The
reason for the lack of a significant change in *mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻* 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 in NF54 to 20.3, 16.3
and 26.4 in *mic19⁻*, *mic60⁻* and *mic19/60⁻*, respectively. These effects in combination suggest
that the increased area per crista is associated with a reduced number of cristae per
mitochondrial area. Given the observed aberrations in crista 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 crista 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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282 *Figure 4. Transmission electron microscopy reveals aberrant crista structures in mature* **P.**
283 **falciparum** *mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ gametocytes. A) Representative micrographs of NF54 (WT),*
284 *mic19⁻, mic60⁻, and mic19/60⁻ gametocytes. Mitochondria within a rectangular selection are*
285 *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 crista 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 the crista 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 (Figure 5E-F). A noteworthy, yet non-significant drop of the crista junction
diameter was observed in *mic19/60⁻*, where the mean crista junction diameter dropped 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 reduced number of crista junctions and a
possible reduction in crista junction diameter in *mic19/60⁻*.

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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). For red coloured cristae, a CJ
was identified within the inspected 250 nm section of the mitochondrion. For yellow-coloured cristae
we could not identify connection to the boundary membrane within the tomogram. D) Quantification
of the relative proportions of cristae for which a crista junction (CJ) was observed within the 250 nm
section (n ≥ 56). Statistical analysis using Chi-squared test with Bonferroni correction for full
comparison between all cell lines; significance is indicated as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <
0.001, ****p < 0.0001. E) Quantification of the diameter of crista junctions at their narrowest point (n
≥ 12, from several mitochondria per sample). Statistical analysis using one-way ANOVA with Sidàk
correction for full comparison between all cell lines; significance is indicated as follows: *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, 8-10). Though
well established as the cristae organizing system in opisthokonts (the clade including animals
and fungi), MICOS has not previously been studied in apicomplexan parasites (38). The human
malaria parasite *P. falciparum*, offers a novel perspective on cristae biology, as it is one of
very few species that reportedly grow cristae *de novo* from an acristate mitochondrion (25,
39, 40). Due to its medical relevance and the central role of the mitochondria as a validated
drug target (41), *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 (14, 23). In this study, we
investigated the roles of the putative *PfMIC60* and *PfMIC19* orthologues in the formation and
organization of cristae.

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 (40, 42). The same trend was observed for *Pf*MIC19 and
*Pf*MIC60. Although transcriptomic data suggested that low-level transcripts of *PfMIC19* and
PfMIC60 might be present in ABS (43, 44), we did not detect either of the proteins in ABS by
western blot analysis. The apparent absence could indicate that transcripts are not translated
in ABS or that the proteins' expression was below detection limits of 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 are consistent with the absence of cristae
in ABS and their appearance during gametocytogenesis (25, 40). 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 apparent absence of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 in 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 (40, 42), were largely unaffected by depletion of these MICOS components, with the exception of a slight reduction in mosquito colonization. This lack of growth arrest has also been described for the knockout of some MICOS components in human cells, yeast and *Trypanosoma brucei* (16, 45-47). Though, in some cases, MICOS subunits were shown to be essential for cell survival and growth, such as the cryptic mitofilin MIC34 and MIC40 in *T. brucei* (48). In addition, disruption of some MICOS subunits has been reported to partially impair cell respiration (10, 20, 49, 50). Considering these relationships, successful propagation of mosquito stages suggests either that the growth defect is masked by the unnaturally rich environment encountered in blood culture medium (51) or that the reported impact on respiratory complexes does not occur to a relevant extent in *P. falciparum* which is supported by the absence of detectable differences in membrane potential .

Consistent with prior observations in human cells (10, 52), knockouts of *Pf*MIC19 and *Pf*MIC60 strongly altered mitochondrial morphology. In fact, both 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 MIC60 and MIC19 has also been observed in human and yeast cells and appointed as a physiological response to mitochondrial stress (10, 20). 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. 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 may reflect mitochondrial stress or even result from the high variability enclosed in the assay itself. 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 crista architecture and overall mitochondrial morphology at these stages.

The MitochondriaAnalyzer plug-in for FIJI, used here for the first time on *P. falciparum* samples, proved to be a potent tool to improve bulk quantification of fluorescence microscopy data (36). Of course, it is also important to consider that while fluorescent microscopy is a powerful technique, it cannot reliably determine the number of mitochondria in *P. falciparum* gametocytes. As shown by TEM data, mitochondria are often located in very close proximity (25, 53), 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.

The depletion of either or both *P. falciparum* MICOS genes leads to alterations in the
organization of cristae membranes while total cristae coverage remains largely unaffected,
thus suggesting that membrane invaginations still arise but are not properly arranged in these
knockout lines. 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. This may
suggest that in *P. falciparum* the depletion of just one of these proteins does not fully disrupt
MICOS function, Instead, our data indicates progressive loss of MICOS function upon the
depletion of multiple MICOS components.

While MIC60 knockout in human cells showed an almost complete loss of crista junctions (10),
cristae aberrations were more subtle in our knockout lines. Nevertheless, we did see a
decrease in crista junction abundance in all lines, and a trend that is indicative of a 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
(54-56). The change in crista junction diameter 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.

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. (10, 19).
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.
The central, tetrameric coiled coil domain of MIC60 has been suggested to define the
diameter of the crista junction (19). 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.

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. Mitochondrial cristae

are aberrant but present, with a reduction in crista junction abundance, confirming a role in
*Pf*MICOS. Although molecular mechanisms of membrane bending and anchoring are yet to
be elucidated, our study demonstrated the existence of *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. We conclude that even in the absence of *Pf*MIC60 and
*Pf*MIC19, cristae are formed *de novo* and allowing for parasite survival. Thus, our data provide
direct evidence that components of *Pf*MICOS are essential for crista junction organization and
stabilization, but not for initial cristae formation. This functional separation is likely to apply
beyond *P. falciparum*, to evolutionary distant organisms such as human and yeast (22). 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 crista biogenesis during *P. falciparum* gametocytogenesis
and beyond.
464

Material and Methods

466
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 (31). 5' and 3' homology arms (HRs) were amplified
from genomic NF54 DNA and cloned with specific restriction enzymes (Table S1).
HDR templates for *mic19⁻* and *mic60⁻* were generated from pGK backbone (57), which
contains a pBAT backbone (58) 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 (58) 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 (59) (kind gift from Till Voss) or, pRF0568, a plasmid
derived from pMLB626 (60) (kind gift from Marcus Lee) without a 3xHA tag fused to *Cas9*. 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 provided by New England
Biolabs.
486
487 ***P. falciparum* culturing and transfection.** *P. falciparum* ABS were cultured in RPMI medium
488 (with 25 mM HEPES, 100 mM hypoxanthine, and 24 mM sodium bicarbonate) completed with
489 10% AB+ human serum and 5% 0+ human Red Blood Cells (RBCs) (Sanquin, The Netherlands)
490 (61). The cultures were kept at 37° C in a low oxygen environment (3% O_2, 4% CO_2). When

needed, ring-stage parasites synchronization was achieved using sorbitol treatment (62). 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 (63). 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 μF). Parasites were left to recover for 4 h after transfection in complete medium 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 (64) 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 consecutive 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).

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 (65). 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 the culture, gametocytes were cultured in the presence of 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, bright-field microscopy. To assess mosquito infectivity, day 12 mature gametocytes (65) were added to the bloodmeal of *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes (colony maintained at Radboudumc, Nijmegen, The Netherlands), as previously described (66). Mean oocysts per midgut and statistical significance were calculated using a generalized linear mixed effect model with a random

532 experiment effect under a negative binomial distribution. The fitted model was used to obtain
533 estimated means and contrasts that were evaluated using Wald statistics. All datasets,
534 statistical analysis and p-values are reported in Supplementary Information 2.
535
Fluorescence microscopy. Mature gametocytes were incubated in 100 nM MitoTracker
(MitoTracker® Orange CMTMRos, Thermo Fisher, #M7510) diluted in RPMI 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 coated 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 (67). 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 for 1 h at RT. All 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 settings for laser power and detector sensibility and afterwards analyzed with the same
parameters to compare expression.
553
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 (36). 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.
To assess membrane potential the same samples were used to quantify MitoTracker signal.
The automatic tresholded images were used to determine background-corrected mean
fluorescence intensity in the z-stack. All datasets, statistical analysis and p-values are reported
in Supplementary Information 2.
569
570 **Ultra-Expansion Microscopy (U-ExM).** Mature gametocytes were isolated using MACS LS
571 columns (Miltenyi Biotec). Shortly, LS columns were equilibrated using incomplete RPMI
572 medium 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 medium. MACS column, magnet and incomplete RPMI medium were previously incubated at 37° C, and kept at this temperature throughout the procedure, to prevent gametocyte activation during purification. The gametocyte pellet was then incubated with 100 nM MitoTracker and fixed as described for fluorescence microscopy. 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 (68). Briefly, the gelling solution was prepared by 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 ultrapure water at RT. Gels were then 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 SYTOX™ (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 coverslips. Images were acquired with identical parameters, using an LSM900 confocal microscope with airyscan (ZEISS) with a 63X oil objective at 405, 488, 561, and 633 nm laser excitation and an Electronically Switchable Illumination and Detection Model (ESID) for transmitted light.

Electron microscopy sample preparation. Mature gametocytes were harvested using MACS LS columns as described for U-ExM. Purified gametocytes were then fixed with 4% PFA in 0.1 M PHEM and pelleted at 600 x g for 10 min. 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, 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 in acetone 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 5

min and Reynolds lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963) for 2 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 15k magnification,
1.5° tilt increment ranging from -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. All datasets, statistical analysis and p-values
are reported in Supplementary Information 2.

Thin section electron microscopy. Micrographs were collected at a JEOL1400 TEM operating
at 120 kV. Recorded images were randomized for blinded quantification of crista length,
diameter, area, and coverage. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA
tests with Sidàk correction. All datasets, statistical analysis and p-values are reported in
Supplementary Information 2.

SDS-Page gel and western blot. Saponin pellets of gametocytes and ABS cultures were
prepared by resuspending in 7X pellet volume ultrapure water 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 to 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, 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)(32, 33). Domains were used as
predicted by TED consensus domain, as integrated in the AlphaFold protein structure
database (34). Associated pLDDT prediction confidence information is shown in Figure S1.
Theoretical length of the coiled coil domain in ScMIC60 and *Pf*MIC60 was measured by atomic
distance within the predicted models.

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Data Availability Statement

All TEM tomography datasets are available in the Electron Microscopy Data Bank (EMDB) under accession codes EMD-54915 (NF54), EMD-55186 (*mic19⁻*), EMD-55149 (*mic60⁻*) and EMD-55336 (*mic19/mic60⁻*).

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