1 **Ancestral mitochondrial apparatus derived from the bacterial type II secretion**
2 **system**
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Abstract
The type 2 secretion system (T2SS) is present in some Gram-negative eubacteria and
used to secrete proteins across the outer membrane. Here we report that certain
representative heteroloboseans, jakobids, malawimonads and hemimastigotes
unexpectedly possess homologues of core T2SS components. We show that at least some
of them are present in mitochondria, and their behaviour in biochemical assays is
consistent with the presence of a mitochondrial T2SS-derived system (miT2SS). We
additionally identified 23 protein families co-occurring with miT2SS in eukaryotes.
Seven of these proteins could be directly linked to the core miT2SS by functional data
and/or sequence features, whereas others may represent different parts of a broader
functional pathway, possibly also involving the peroxisome. Its distribution in eukaryotes
and phylogenetic evidence together indicate that the miT2SS-centred pathway is an
ancestral eukaryotic trait. Our findings thus have direct implications for the functional
properties of the early mitochondrion.

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Introduction
Mitochondria of all eukaryotes arose from the same Alphaproteobacteria-related
endosymbiotic bacterium[1,2]. New functions have been incorporated into the bacterial
blueprint during mitochondrial evolution, while many ancestral traits have been lost.
Importantly, in some cases, these losses occurred independently in different lineages of
eukaryotes, resulting in a patchy distribution of the respective ancestral mitochondrial
traits in extant eukaryotes. Examples are the ancestral mitochondrial division apparatus
(including homologues of bacterial Min proteins), the aerobic-type rubrerythrin system,
or the tmRNA-SmpB complex, each retained in different subsets of distantly related
protist lineages[3–5]. It is likely that additional pieces of the ancestral bacterial cell
physiology will be discovered in mitochondria of poorly studied eukaryotes.
An apparent significant difference between the mitochondrion and bacteria
(including those living as endosymbionts of eukaryotes) lies in the directionality of
protein transport across their envelope. All bacteria export specific proteins from the cell
via the plasma membrane using the Sec or Tat machineries[6], and many diderm (Gram-
negative) bacteria exhibit specialized systems mediating further protein translocation
across the outer membrane (OM)[7]. In contrast, the mitochondrion depends on a newly
evolved protein import system spanning both envelope membranes and enabling import
of proteins encoded by the nuclear genome[8]. The capacity of mitochondria to secrete
proteins seems to be limited. Mitochondrial homologues of Tat translocase subunits occur
in some eukaryotic taxa, but their role in protein secretion has not been established[9,10]. A
mitochondrial homologue of the SecY protein (a Sec translocase subunit) has been
described only in jakobids[11,12] and its function remains elusive[13]. No dedicated machinery
for protein export from the mitochondrion across the outer mitochondrial membrane has
been described.
One of the best characterized bacterial protein translocation machineries is the so-
called type 2 secretion system (T2SS)[14,15]. The T2SS belongs to a large bacterial
superfamily of type 4 pili (T4P)-related molecular machines, most of which secrete long
extracellular filaments (pili) for motility, adhesion, or DNA uptake[16–18]. The T2SS
constitutes a specialized secretion apparatus, whose filament (pseudopilus) remains in the

periplasm[14,15]. It is composed of 12-15 conserved components, commonly referred to as
general secretion pathway (Gsp) proteins, which assemble into four main subcomplexes
(Fig. 1A). The OM pore is formed by an oligomer of 15-16 molecules of the GspD
protein[19,20]. The subcomplex in the inner membrane (IM) is called the assembly platform
and consists of the central polytopic membrane protein GspF surrounded by single-pass
membrane proteins GspC, GspL, and GspM[21]. GspC links the assembly platform to the
OM pore by interacting with the periplasmic N-terminal domain of GspD[22,23]. The third
subcomplex, called the pseudopilus, is a helical filament formed mainly of GspG
subunits, with minor pseudopilins (GspH, GspI, GspJ and GspK) assembled at its tip[24].
Pseudopilus assembly from its inner membrane base is believed to push the periplasmic
T2SS substrate through the OM pore. The energy for pseudopilus assembly is provided
by the fourth subcomplex, the hexameric ATPase GspE, interacting with the assembly
platform from the cytoplasmic side[25,26]. Substrates for T2SS-mediated secretion are first
transported by the Tat (as folded proteins) or the Sec (in an unfolded form) system across
the IM into the periplasm, where they undergo maturation and/or folding. The folded
substrates are finally loaded onto the pseudopilus for the release outside the cell via the
OM pore. The known T2SS substrates differ among taxa and share no common sequence
or structural features. Proteins transported by the T2SS in different species include
catabolic enzymes (such as lipases, proteases or phosphatases) and, in the case of
bacterial pathogens, toxins[14]. A recent survey of bacterial genomes showed that the T2SS
is mainly present in Proteobacteria[18]. Crucially, neither the T2SS nor other systems of the
T4P superfamily have been reported from eukaryotes[7,14,18].
Here we show that certain distantly related eukaryotes unexpectedly contain
homologues of key T2SS subunits representing all four functional T2SS subcomplexes.
We provide evidence for mitochondrial localization of some of these eukaryotic Gsp
protein homologues and describe experimental results supporting the idea that they
constitute a system similar to the bacterial T2SS. Furthermore, we point to the existence
of 23 proteins with a perfect taxonomic co-occurrence with the eukaryotic Gsp
homologues. Some of these co-occurring proteins seem to be additional components of
the mitochondrial T2SS-related machinery, whereas others are candidates for components
of a broader functional pathway linking the mitochondrion with other parts of the cell.
Given its phylogenetic distribution, we propose that the newly discovered pathway was
ancestrally present in eukaryotes. Its further characterization may provide fundamental
new insights into the evolutionary conversion of the protomitochondrion into the
mitochondrial organelle.
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Results
Certain protist lineages code for a conserved set of homologues of T2SS core
components
While searching the genome of the heterolobosean *Naegleria gruberi* for proteins of
bacterial origin with a possible mitochondrial role, we surprisingly discovered
homologues of four core subunits of the bacterial T2SS, specifically GspD, GspE, GspF,
and GspG (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Table 1). Using genomic and transcriptomic data
from public repositories and our on-going sequencing projects for several protist species
of key evolutionary interest (see Methods), we mapped the distribution of these four
components in eukaryotes. All four genes were found in the following characteristic set

of taxa (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Table 1): three additional heteroloboseans (*Naegleria*
fowleri, *Neovahlkampfia damariscottae*, *Pharyngomonas kirbyi*), two jakobids (*R.*
americana and *Andalucia godoyi*), and two malawimonads (*Malawimonas jakobiformis*
and *Gefionella okellyi*). In addition, single-cell transcriptomes from two species of
Hemimastigophora (hemimastigotes[27]) revealed the presence of homologues of GspD and
GspG (*Hemimastix kukwesjijk*) and GspG only (*Spironema* cf. *mulitciliatum*), possibly
reflecting incompleteness of the data. Finally, three separate representatives of the
heterolobosean genus *Percolomonas* (Supplementary Fig. 1) each exhibited a homologue
of GspD, but not of the remaining Gsp proteins, in the available transcriptomic data. In
contrast, all four genes were missing in sequence data from all other eukaryotes
investigated, including the genome and transcriptome of another malawimonad
("*Malawimonas californiana*") and deeply-sequenced transcriptomes of a third jakobid
(*Stygiella incarcerata*) and four additional heteroloboseans (*Creneis carolina*,
Dactylomonas venusta, *Harpagon schusteri*, and the undescribed strain Heterolobosea sp.
BB2).
Probing *N. gruberi* nuclei with fluorescence *in situ* hybridization ruled out an
unidentified bacterial endosymbiont as the source of the *Gsp* genes (Supplementary Fig.
2). Moreover, the eukaryotic *Gsp* genes usually have introns and constitute robustly
supported monophyletic groups well separated from bacterial homologues (Fig. 2;
Supplementary Fig. 3), ruling out bacterial contamination in all cases. In an attempt to
illuminate the origin of the eukaryotic Gsp proteins we carried out systematic
phylogenetic analyses based on progressively expanded datasets of prokaryotic
homologues and for each tree inferred the taxonomic identity of the bacterial ancestor of
the eukaryotic branch (see Methods for details on the procedure). The results,
summarized in Supplementary Fig. 3, showed that the inference is highly unstable
depending on the dataset analysed, and no specific bacterial group can be identified as an
obvious donor of the eukaryotic Gsp genes. This result probably stems from a
combination of factors, including the long branches separating the eukaryotic and
bacterial Gsp sequences, the length of Gsp proteins restricting the amount of the
phylogenetic signal retained, and perhaps also rampant horizontal gene transfer (HGT) of
the T2SS system genes between bacterial taxa. The eukaryotic Gsp genes are in fact so
divergent that some of them could not be unambiguously classified as specific
homologues of T2SS components (rather than the related machineries of the T4P
superfamily) when analysed using models developed for the bacterial genomes[18]
(Supplementary Fig. 3).
Heteroloboseans, jakobids and malawimonads have been classified in the
supergroup Excavata[28]. However, recent phylogenomic analyses indicate that excavates
are non-monophyletic and even suggest that malawimonads are separated from
heteroloboseans and jakobids by the root of the eukaryote phylogeny[29–32]. Together with
the presence of at least some Gsp proteins in hemimastigotes, which constitute an
independent eukaryotic supergroup[27], it is likely that the T2SS-related proteins were
present in the last eukaryotic common ancestor (LECA) but lost in most eukaryote
lineages (Fig. 1B). Heteroloboseans and malawimonads have two GspG paralogues, but
the phylogenetic analyses did not resolve whether this is due to multiple independent
GspG gene duplications or one ancestral eukaryotic duplication followed by loss of one
of the paralogues in jakobids (Fig. 2; Supplementary Fig. 3D; Supplementary Table 1).

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The eukaryotic Gsp proteins localize to the mitochondrion
We hypothesized that the eukaryotic homologues of the four Gsp proteins are parts of a
functional T2SS-related system localized to the mitochondrion. This notion was
supported by the presence of predicted N-terminal mitochondrial targeting sequences
(MTSs) in some of the eukaryotic Gsp proteins (Supplementary Table 1). The prediction
algorithms identified putative N-terminal MTSs for proteins from jakobids and
malawimonads but failed to recognize them in the orthologues from heteroloboseans,
which, however, carry the longest N-terminal extensions (Supplementary Fig. 4).
In order to test if Gsp proteins carry functional mitochondrial targeting
information, we expressed *GspD*, *GspE* and *GspG1* genes from *N. gruberi* (*Ng*) and *G.*
okellyi (*Go*) in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*; no expression of *GspF* was achieved. All
proteins were specifically localised in mitochondria, as confirmed by their co-localisation
with Mitotracker red CMX Ros (Fig. 3A). Additionally, we attempted to express these
genes in *Trypanosoma brucei*, which represents the evolutionarily closest experimental
model to the eukaryotes carrying the *Gsp* genes. Of all the proteins tested, only *Go*GspD
and *Go*GspG2 were detected (Fig. 3B), in addition to a weak signal for *Ng*GspG1
(Supplementary Fig. 5A). While both GspG proteins could be found specifically in the
mitochondrion of *T. brucei*, *Go*GspD was found in a different membrane compartment,
perhaps due to mistargeting. Finally, we tested if the atypically long N-terminal extension
of *Ng*GspG1 targets the protein to the *T. brucei* mitochondrion. Indeed, the 160 N-
terminal amino acid residues of *Ng*GspG1 were able to deliver the marker (mNeonGreen)
into the organelle (Supplementary Fig. 5B). As a complementary approach, we raised
specific polyclonal antibodies against *Ng*GspG1 and probed *N. gruberi* cellular fractions
(Fig. 3C; Supplementary Fig. 6). *Ng*GspG1 and *Ng*GspEN2A co-fractionated with the
mitochondrial markers including alternative oxidase (AOX) and TatC[9], but not with the
cytosolic protein hemerythrin[33]. Immunofluorescence microscopy of *N. gruberi* with the
anti-*Ng*GspG1 antibody provided further evidence that *Ng*GspG1 is targeted to
mitochondria (Fig. 3D, Supplementary Fig. 7).
In order to further confirm the mitochondrial localization of the Gsp proteins in *N.*
gruberi, we analysed the mitochondrial proteome of this organism by partial purification
of the organelle and identification of resident proteins by mass spectrometry. A
mitochondria-enriched fraction was obtained from a cellular lysate by several steps of
differential centrifugation and OptiPrep gradient centrifugation. Three sub-fractions of
different densities, named accordingly as Opt1015, Opt1520, Opt2030, were collected
(Supplementary Fig. 8A, see Methods for more details), with the densest one being most
enriched in mitochondria. The sub-fractions were subjected to proteomic analysis. The
relative amount of each protein in each sub-fraction was determined by label-free
quantification and the proteins were grouped by a multicomponent analysis (for details
see Methods) according to their distributions across the gradient (Fig. 3E). A set of
marker proteins (homologues of well-characterized typical mitochondrial proteins from
other species) was used to identify a cluster of mitochondrial proteins. Due to the partial
co-purification of peroxisomes with mitochondria, a peroxisome-specific cluster was
defined analogously. As a result, 946 putative mitochondrial and 78 putative peroxisomal
proteins were identified among the total of 4,198 proteins detected in all three sub-
fractions combined. Encouragingly, the putative mitochondrial proteome of *N. gruberi* is

dominated by proteins expected to be mitochondrial or whose mitochondrial localization
is not unlikely (Supplementary Fig. 8B, Supplementary Table 2A). On the other hand, the
putative peroxisomal proteome seems to be contaminated by mitochondrial proteins
(owing to the presence of several mitochondrial ribosomal proteins; Supplementary Table
2B). Importantly, all five Gsp proteins (including both GspG paralogues) were identified
in the putative mitochondrial but not peroxisomal proteome of *N. gruberi*.
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The properties of the eukaryotic Gsp proteins support the existence of a mitochondrial
T2SS-related machinery
The foregoing experiments support the idea that all four eukaryotic Gsp homologues
localize to and function in the mitochondrion. However, direct *in vivo* demonstration of
the existence of a functional mitochondrial T2SS-related machinery is currently not
feasible, because none of the Gsp homologue-carrying eukaryotes represents a tractable
genetic system. We thus used *in vitro* approaches and heterologous expression systems to
test the key properties of the eukaryotic Gsp proteins.
Crucial for the T2SS function is the formation of the OM pore, which is a β-barrel
formed by the oligomerization of the C-domain of the GspD protein[34]. The actual
assembly of the bacterial pore requires GspD targeting to the outer membrane through
interaction of its very C-terminal domain (S-domain) with the outer membrane
lipoprotein GspS[35]. GspD forms a pre-pore multimer, whose OM membrane insertion is
independent on the β☐barrel assembly machinery (BAM) complex[36,37]. In addition, the
bacterial GspD carries four short N-terminal domains exposed to the periplasm, called N0
to N3, of which N1 to N3 share a similar fold[38] (Fig. 4A). While the N3 domain is
required for the pore assembly[39], N0 interacts with GspC of the assembly platform[22,40].
Sequence analysis of the mitochondrial GspD homologue revealed that it corresponds to
a C-terminal part of the bacterial GspD C-domain, whereas the N-terminal domains N0 to
N3, the N-terminal part of the C-domain, and the S-domain are missing (Fig. 4A;
Supplementary Fig. 4A).
According to our hypothesis, the mitochondrial GspD should be present in the
outer mitochondrial membrane. In order to test this localization, *N. gruberi* GspD
(*Ng*GspD) was *in vitro* imported into yeast mitochondria. The import reaction was also
performed with the widely used synthetic substrate Su9-DHFR destined to mitochondrial
matrix, which is composed of 69 amino acid residues of F_o-ATPase subunit 9 from
Neurospora crassa fused to the mouse DHFR[41]. Both proteins accumulated in the
mitochondria in a time-dependent manner, but only the import of Su9-DHFR could be
inhibited by the addition of ionophores, which dissipate membrane potential (ΔΨ) (Fig.
4B). This result showed that the import of GspD is independent of ΔΨ, which is a typical
feature of mitochondrial outer membrane proteins. The key question was if the
mitochondrial GspD homologue has retained the ability to assemble into an oligomeric
pore-forming complex. This possibility was supported by homology modelling of GspD
from *G. okellyi* (*Go*GspD) using *Vibrio cholerae* GspD[42] as a template, which indicated
that the protein has the same predicted fold as the typical secretin C-domain. Remarkably,
the two transmembrane β-strands of *Go*GspD are separated by the highly conserved
amphipathic helical loop (AHL) (Fig. 4C) essential for secretin membrane insertion,
suggesting its capability to form a pentadecameric pore complex. Indeed, radioactively
labelled *Go*GspD assembled into a high-molecular-weight complex of around 200 kDa in

an *in vitro* bacterial translation system in the presence of lecithin liposomes (Fig. 4D).
The complex was resistant to 2M urea treatment, which would remove nonspecific
protein aggregates, and was still pelleted with the liposomes, suggesting that it was
inserted into the liposomes. These results showed that the mitochondrial GspD, despite
being significantly truncated when compared to its bacterial homologues, has retained the
major characteristics of bacterial secretins[43], including the capacity to form oligomers and
insert into membranes.
To test if the mitochondrial GspD forms *bona fide* pores in the membrane, we
aimed to produce His-tagged *Ng*GspD in *E. coli* and purify the membrane complexes for
the electrophysiology analysis. Inducing the production of this protein in the bacterial
cytoplasm was highly toxic (Fig. 5A). A similar phenomenon has been reported for
bacterial secretins, which form pores in the inner bacterial membrane[43]. While this
hampered protein production and purification, directing the GspD export to the periplasm
by fusing it to the N-terminal signal peptide of *E. coli* DsbA protein alleviated the
toxicity upon autoinduction. The His-*Ng*GspD variant was affinity-purified on a Ni-
column followed by size exclusion chromatography, during which two peaks of about
230 kDa and 125 kDa could be observed (Fig. 5B). The pore-forming activity of His-
*Ng*GspD purified from both protein peaks was demonstrated by conductivity
measurements in black lipid membranes composed of an *E. coli* polar lipid extract. The
channel recordings illustrated a very high stability of the inserted membrane pores (Fig.
5C). The amplitude histograms (Fig. 5D) suggested that the mitochondrial GspD can
form variable arrangements resulting in stable membrane pores of different sizes.
The secretion mechanism of the T2SS relies on the assembly of pseudopilus made
up of GspG subunits[44]. Comparison of the mitochondrial GspG with bacterial
homologues revealed important similarities as well as differences. These proteins share a
complete pseudopilin domain preceded by a transmembrane domain, but the
mitochondrial proteins are substantially longer due to extensions at both N- and C-termini
(Fig. 6A). The N-terminal extension likely serves as a MTS, but the origin and function
of the C-terminal extension (amounting to ~100 amino acid residues) is unclear, as it is
well conserved among the mitochondrial GspG but lacks discernible homologues even
when analysed by highly sensitive homology-detection methods (HMM-HMM
comparisons with HHpred[45] and protein modelling using the Phyre2 server[46]). Structural
modelling of the pseudopilin domain into the recently obtained cryo-EM reconstruction
of the PulG (=GspG) complex from *Klebsiella oxytoca*[47] revealed the presence of key
structural features in the mitochondrial GspG from *G. okellyi* (*Go*GspG1), supporting
possible formation of a pseudopilus (Fig. 6B).
To test this directly, we purified a recombinant pseudopilin domain of *Ng*GspG1
under native conditions, which showed a uniform size of 25 kDa corresponding to the
monomer (Fig. 7A). Possible protein-protein interaction of the purified pseudopilin
domain was tested by thermophoresis of an NT-647-labelled protein. The measurements
revealed specific self-interaction and plotting of the change in thermophoresis yielded a
K_d of 216 (±15.1) nM (Fig. 7B). Additionally, the interaction properties of GspG were
followed by the bacterial two-hybrid assay (BACTH). When produced in bacteria, the
mitochondrial *Go*GspG1 showed specific oligomerisation, typical of bacterial major
pseudopilins[48], supporting its *in vivo* propensity to form a pseudopilus (Fig. 7C). An
analogous BACTH assay of *N. gruberi* Gsp proteins also showed GspG1 self-interaction

(data not shown). In addition, *Go*GspG1 showed positive interaction with *Go*GspF,
consistent with the analogous interaction of bacterial GspG with the IM-embedded
GspF[48]. Moreover, the mitochondrial *Go*GspF and *Go*GspE each formed dimers in the
BACTH assay (Fig. 7C). These interactions are consistent with the hypothesized role of
both proteins as mitochondrial T2SS components, as GspF forms dimers within the IM
complex and GspE assembles into an active hexameric ATPase in the bacterial T2SS
system. Indeed, bacterial GspG and GspF also interact in the BACTH assay[48]. Tests of all
other possible interactions of *G. okellyi* Gsp proteins were negative.
The *in silico* analyses and experiments described above are consistent with the
hypothesized existence of a functional mitochondrial secretion machinery derived from
the bacterial T2SS. However, the mitochondrial subunits identified would assemble only
a minimalist version of the secretion system, reduced to the functional core of the four
subcomplexes of the bacterial T2SS, i.e. the luminal ATPase (GspE), the IM pseudopilus
assembly platform (GspF), the intermembrane space pseudopilus (GspG), and the OM
pore (truncated GspD). Despite using sensitive HMM-based searches, we did not detect
homologues of other conserved T2SS subunits in any of the eukaryotes possessing GspD
to GspG proteins. One of the missing subunits is GspC, which connects the assembly
platform with the N0 domain of GspD pore[22,23]. Thus, the absence of GspC in eukaryotes
correlates with the lack of the N0 domain in the eukaryotic GspD. Analogously, the
absence of the C-terminal S-domain in the mitochondrial GspD (Fig. 4A), known to be
missing also from some bacterial GspD proteins, rationalizes the lack of a eukaryotic
homologue of the bacterial OM component GspS that binds to GspD via the S-domain
during the pore assembly[35]. The apparent lack of a eukaryotic homologue of GspL, which
interacts via its cytosolic domain with the N1E domain of the bacterial GspE [49], may
similarly be explained by the fact that the eukaryotic GspE protein seems to be
homologous only to the C-terminal (CTE) domain of its bacterial counterpart and lacks
an equivalent of the N1E domain (Supplementary Fig. 4E). The mitochondrial system
also apparently lacks a homologue of GspO, a bifunctional enzyme that is essential for
GspG maturation. Despite this absence, eukaryotic GspG homologues have conserved all
the characteristic sequence features required for GspG maturation (the polar anchor and
the trans-membrane domain with a conserved glutamate residue at position +5 relative to
the processing site) (Fig. 6A, Supplementary Fig. 4J). Notably, all the *Ng*GspG1 and
*Ng*GspG2-derived peptides detected in our proteomic analysis come from the region of
the protein downstream of the conserved processing site (Fig. 6C), suggesting that
analogous maturation of the pseudopilin also occurs in mitochondria.
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New putative components of the mitochondrial T2SS-based functional pathway
identified by phylogenetic profiling
Since none of the eukaryotes with the Gsp homologues is currently amenable to
functional studies, we tried to further illuminate the role of the mitochondrial T2SS
system using a comparative genomic approach. Specifically, we reasoned that possible
additional components of the machinery, as well as its actual substrate(s), might show the
same phylogenetic distribution as the originally identified four subunits. Using a
combination of an automated identification of candidate protein families and subsequent
manual scrutiny by exhaustive searches of available eukaryote sequence data (for details
of the procedure see Methods), we identified 23 proteins (more precisely, groups of

orthologues) that proved to exhibit the same phylogenetic distribution in eukaryotes as
the four core T2SS components. Specifically, all 23 proteins were represented in each of
the heterolobosean, jakobid, and malawimonad species possessing all four core Gsp
proteins, whereas only 17 proteins were identified in the incomplete transcriptomic data
of hemimastigotes and seven of them were found in the transcriptomic data from the
Percolomonas lineage that possesses only GspD (Fig. 1B; Supplementary Table 1).
Except for two presumably Gsp-positive jakobids represented by incomplete EST surveys
and a case of a likely contamination (Supplementary Table 3), no orthologues of any of
these proteins were found in any other eukaryote (including the Gsp-lacking members of
heteroloboseans, jakobids and malawimonads). The sequences of these 23 proteins were
analysed by various *in silico* approaches, including HHpred and Phyre2 to assess their
possible function (Fig. 8A).
These analyses revealed that seven of the families have a direct link to the T2SS
suggested by discerned homology to known T2SS components. One of them represents
an additional, more divergent homologue of the C-terminal part of the bacterial GspD.
Hence, the protein has been marked as GspDL (GspD-like). Three other families, referred
to as GspDN1 to GspDN3, proved to be homologous to the Secretin_N domain (Pfam
family PF03958), present in the bacterial GspD protein as domains N1, N2 and N3 (Fig.
4A). The N1-N3 array protrudes into the periplasm, where it oligomerizes to form three
stacked rings[20]. As mentioned above, the initially identified eukaryotic GspD homologues
lack the N-terminal region, suggesting that the gene was split into multiple parts in
eukaryotes. While GspDN1 corresponds to a full single N-domain, GspDN2 and GspDN3
relate only to its C-terminal and N-terminal halves, respectively (Fig. 4A; Supplementary
Fig. 4B-D). Unfortunately, high sequence divergence makes it impossible to identify
potential specific correspondence between the N1 to N3 domains of the bacterial GspD
and the eukaryotic GspDN1 to GspDN3 proteins. Importantly, a Y2H assay indicated that
the two separate polypeptides GspD and GspDN1 of *N. gruberi* may interact *in vivo* (Fig.
4E), perhaps forming a larger mitochondrial complex. In addition, we identified most of
the newly discovered GspD-related proteins (GspDL/N) in the *N. gruberi* mitochondrial
proteome (the exception being GspDN1, which was not detected in a sufficient number of
replicates to be included in the downstream analysis; Supplementary Table 2A).
The final three proteins linked to the T2SS based on their sequence features seem
to be evolutionarily derived from GspE. One, denoted GspEL (GspE-like) represents a
divergent homologue of the C1E (i.e. nucleotide-binding) domain of GspE, although with
some of the characteristic motifs (Walker A, Asp box, Walker B) abrogated
(Supplementary Fig. 4F), indicating the loss of the ATPase function. The other two
proteins, which we denote GspEN2A and GspEN2B, are suggested by HHpred to be
related to just the N2E domain of the bacterial GspE (Supplementary Fig.4G and 4H).
GspEN2A and GspEN2B were identified among *N. gruberi* mitochondrial proteins in the
proteomic analysis, whereas GspEL was found in the cluster of putative peroxisomal
proteins. Importantly, a polyclonal antibody raised against *Ng*GspEN2A confirmed the
mitochondrial localization of the protein (Fig. 3C, D; Supplementary Fig. 6, 7).
The remaining sixteen proteins co-occurring with the core eukaryotic T2SS
subunits, hereafter referred to as Gcp (Gsp-co-occurring proteins), were divided into three
categories. The first comprises four proteins that constitute novel paralogues within
broader common eukaryotic (super)families. Three of them (Gcp1 to Gcp3) belong to the

WD40 superfamily and seem to be most closely related to the peroxisomal protein import
co-receptor Pex7 (Supplementary Fig. 9). None of these proteins has any putative N-
terminal targeting sequence, but interestingly, the peroxisomal targeting signal 1 (PTS1)
could be predicted on most Gcp1 and some Gcp2 proteins (Supplementary Table 1).
However, these predictions are not fully consistent with the results of our proteomic
analysis: *Ng*Gcp1 was found among the mitochondrial proteins and *Ng*Gcp2 in the cluster
of putative peroxisomal proteins (Supplementary Table 2), but PTS1 is predicted to be
present in the *Ng*Gcp1 protein (Supplementary Table 1). The fourth Gcp protein (Gcp4)
is a novel paralogue of the ubiquitin-like superfamily, distinctly different from the
previously characterized members including ubiquitin, SUMO, NEDD8 and others
(Supplementary Fig. 10).
The second Gcp category comprises eleven proteins (Gcp5 to Gcp15) well
conserved at the sequence level among the Gsp-containing eukaryotes, yet lacking any
discernible homologues in other eukaryotes or in prokaryotes. Two of these proteins
(Gcp8, Gcp15) were not identified in the proteomic analysis of *N. gruberi*
(Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). Of those identified, several (Gcp5, Gcp6, Gcp13) were
found among the mitochondrial proteins, whereas some others (Gcp9, Gcp10, Gcp11)
clustered with peroxisomal markers. Specific localization of the three remaining proteins
(Gcp7, Gcp12, and Gcp14) could not be determined due to their presence at the
boundaries of the mitochondrial or peroxisomal clusters. No homology to other proteins
or domains could be discerned for the Gsp5 to Gsp15 proteins even when sensitive
homology-detection algorithms were employed. However, four of them are predicted as
single-pass membrane proteins, with the transmembrane segment in the N- (Gcp7,
Gcp11, Gcp15) or C-terminal (Gcp5) regions (Fig. 8A; Supplementary Fig. 11).
Interestingly, Gcp6 and Gcp12 proteins contain multiple absolutely conserved cysteine or
histidine residues (Fig. 8A, B; Supplementary Fig. 12). We were not able to determine
their localization in *N. gruberi* by microscopy, but we tested the localization of *Go*Gcp12
upon expression in *T. brucei*, where it co-localized with the mitochondrial tubules (Fig.
8C).
Gcp16 constitutes a category of its own, as it typifies a novel protein family
present also in bacteria of the PVC superphylum (Supplementary Fig. 13). Phylogenetic
analysis confirmed that the eukaryotic members of the family are of the same origin
(Supplementary Fig. 14). Gcp16 proteins are predicted to harbour two transmembrane
domains (Supplementary Fig. 13). Furthermore, HHpred searches suggested possible
homology of a region of the Gcp16 protein (upstream of the transmembrane domains) to
various metallopeptidases, although with inconclusive statistical support. However,
inspection of the HHpred alignments revealed that Gcp16 shares with these hits an
absolutely conserved motif HEXXH (Supplementary Fig. 13), which is the catalytic,
metal-binding motif of the zincin tribe of metallopeptidases[50]. Interestingly, close to the
HEXXH motif, Gcp16 possesses an absolutely conserved EXXA motif, which is
diagnostic of a zincin subgroup called gluzincins[50], further supporting the notion that
Gcp16 may function as a membrane-embedded peptidase. Most eukaryotic Gcp16
proteins exhibit an N-terminal extension compared to the bacterial homologues
(Supplementary Fig. 13), but only some of these extensions are recognized as putative
MTSs and the *N. gruberi* Gcp16 was not identified either in putative mitochondrial or
peroxisomal proteome.

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Discussion
Our analyses revealed that a subset of species belonging to four eukaryotic lineages share
a set of at least 27 proteins (or families of orthologues) absent from other eukaryotes for
which genomic or transcriptomic data are currently available (Fig. 1B). At least eleven of
these proteins (the Gsp proteins) are evolutionarily related to components of the bacterial
T2SS, although seven of them are so divergent that their evolutionary connection to the
T2SS could be recognized only retrospectively after their identification based on their
characteristic phylogenetic profile. For the sixteen remaining proteins (Gcp1 to Gcp16)
no other obvious evolutionary or functional link to the T2SS is evident apart from the
same phyletic pattern as exhibited by the T2SS subunit homologues. Nevertheless,
similar phylogenetic profiles are generally a strong indication for proteins being parts of
the same functional system or pathway, and have enabled identification of new
components of different cellular structures or pathways (e.g. refs [51,52]). Is it, therefore,
possible that the 27 Gsp/Gcp proteins similarly belong to a single functional pathway?
The phylogenetic profile shared by the eukaryotic Gsp and Gcp proteins is not
trivial, as it implies independent gene losses in a specific set of multiple eukaryotic
branches (Fig. 1B). The likelihood of a chance emergence of the same taxonomic
distribution of these proteins is thus low. Nevertheless, false positives cannot be
completely excluded among the Gcp proteins and their list may be revised when a more
comprehensive sampling of eukaryote genomes or transcriptomes becomes available. It is
also possible that the currently inferred phylogenetic profile of some of the Gsp/Gcp
proteins is incomplete due to limited sampling of the actual gene repertoire of species
represented by transcriptome assemblies only. The inherently incomplete nature of
single-cell transcriptome assemblies available for hemimastigotes potentially explains our
failure to identify homologues of some Gsp and Gcp proteins in this group (Fig. 1B;
Supplementary Table 1). An incomplete set is evident also in the heterolobosean
Percolomonas lineage, as transcriptomic data from three different members revealed only
the presence of GspD, GspDL, the three GspDN proteins, and four Gcp proteins (Fig. 1B,
Supplementary Table 1). The relatively coherent pattern of Gsp/Gcp protein occurrence
in the three independently sequenced transcriptomes and the fact that in other Gsp/Gcp-
containing eukaryotes (except for hemimastigotes) all 27 families are always represented
in the respective transcriptome assembly (Supplementary Table 1) suggest that the
Percolomonas lineage has indeed preserved only a subset of Gsp/Gcp families. Genome
sequencing is required to test this possibility.
All uncertainties notwithstanding, our data favour the idea that a hitherto
unrecognized complex functional pathway exists in some eukaryotic cells, underpinned
by most, if not all, of the 27 Gsp/Gcp proteins and possibly others yet to be discovered.
Direct biochemical and cell biological investigations are required for testing its existence
and the actual cellular role. Nevertheless, we have integrated the experimental data
gathered so far with the insights from bioinformatic analyses to propose a hypothetical
working model (Fig. 9).
Our main proposition is that the eukaryotic homologues of the bacterial Gsp
proteins assemble a functional transport system, here denoted miT2SS, that spans the
mitochondrial OM and mediates the export of specific substrate proteins from the
mitochondrion. Although the actual architecture of the miT2SS needs to be determined,

the available data suggest that it departs in detail from the canonical bacterial T2SS
organization, as homologues of some of the important bacterial T2SS components are
apparently missing. Most notable is the absence of GspC, presumably related to the
modified structure of its interacting partner GspD, which in eukaryotes is split into
multiple polypeptides and seems to completely lack the N0 domain involved in GspC
binding. It thus remains unclear whether and how the IM assembly platform and the OM
pore interact in mitochondria. One possible explanation is that GspC has been replaced
by an unrelated protein. It is notable that three Gcp proteins (Gcp7, Gcp11, and Gcp15)
have the same general architecture as GspC: they possess a transmembrane segment at
the N-terminus and a (predicted) globular domain at the C-terminus (Fig. 9A,
Supplementary Fig. 11). Testing possible interactions between these proteins and T2SS
core subunits (particularly GspG, GspF and GspDN) using BACTH or Y2H assays will
be of future interest.
Further investigations also must address the question of whether the
mitochondrial GspG is processed analogously to the bacterial homologues and how such
processing occurs in the absence of discernible homologues of GspO. The mitochondrial
GspG is presumably inserted into the IM by the Tim22 or Tim23 complex, resulting in a
GspG precursor with the N-terminus, including the MTS, protruding into the matrix. It is
possible that N-terminal cleavage by matrix processing peptidase serves not only to
remove the transit peptide, but at the same time to generate the mature N-terminus of the
processed GspG form, ready for recruitment into the pseudopilus. A different hypothesis
is offered by the discovery of the Gcp16 protein with sequence features suggesting that it
is a membrane-embedded metallopeptidase (certainly non-homologous to GspO, which is
an aspartic acid peptidase[53]). Although the subcellular localization of Gcp16 needs to be
established, we speculate that it might be a mitochondrial IM protein serving as an
alternative prepilin peptidase.
In parallel with its apparent simplification, the miT2SS may have been
specifically elaborated compared to the ancestral bacterial machinery. This possibility is
suggested by the existence of two pairs of proteins corresponding to different parts of the
bacterial GspE subunit. We propose that the eukaryotic GspE makes a heterodimer with
the GspEN2A to reconstitute a unit equivalent to most of the bacterial GspE protein
(lacking the GspL-interacting N1E domain), whereas GspEN2B, which is much more
divergent from the standard N2E domain than GspEN2A, may pair specifically with
GspEL to make an enzymatically inactive GspE-like version. We can only speculate as to
the function of these proteins, but the fact that the bacterial GspE assembles into a
homohexamer raises the possibility that in eukaryotes catalytically active and inactive
versions of GspE are mixed together in a manner analogous to the presence of
catalytically active and inactive paralogous subunits in some well-known protein
complexes, such as the proton-pumping ATPase (e.g. refs [54,55]). The co-occurrence of two
different paralogues of the GspD C-domain, one (GspDL) being particularly divergent,
suggests a eukaryote-specific elaboration of the putative pore in the mitochondrial OM.
Moreover, the electrophysiology measurements of the pores built of mitochondrial GspD
indicated stable complexes of variable sizes; a property not observed for bacterial
proteins. Finally, the C-terminal extension of the mitochondrial GspG representing a
novel conserved domain without discernible homology to other proteins suggests a
eukaryote-specific modification of the pseudopilus functioning.

An unanswered key question is what is the actual substrate (or substrates)
possibly exported from the mitochondrion by the miT2SS. No bioinformatic tool for
T2SS substrate prediction is available due to the enigmatic nature of the mechanism of
substrate recognition by the pathway[14], so at the moment we can only speculate. It is
notable that no protein encoded by the mitochondrial genomes of jakobids,
heteroloboseans and malawimonads stands out as an obvious candidate for the miT2SS
substrate, since they either have well-established roles in the mitochondrion or are
hypothetical proteins with a restricted (genus-specific) distribution. Therefore, we
hypothesize that the substrate could be encoded by the nuclear genome and imported into
the mitochondrion to undergo a specific processing/maturation step. This may include
addition of a prosthetic group – a scenario modelled on the process of cytochrome *c* or
Rieske protein maturation[56,57]. Interestingly, the proteins Gcp6 and Gcp12, each
exhibiting an array of absolutely conserved cysteine and histidine residues
(Supplementary Fig. 12), are good candidates for proteins to which a specific prosthetic
group might be attached, so any of them could be the sought-after miT2SS substrate.
Some of the other Gcp proteins may then represent components of the hypothetical
machinery responsible for the substrate modification. The putative functionalization step
may occur either in the mitochondrial matrix or in the intermembrane space (IMS), but
we note that the former localization would necessitate a mechanism of protein
translocation across the mitochondrial IM in the matrix-to-IMS direction, which has not
been demonstrated yet. Regardless, the T2SS system would eventually translocate the
modified protein across the mitochondrial OM to the cytoplasm.
However, this may not be the end of the journey, since there are hints of a link
between the miT2SS-associated pathway and peroxisomes. First, three Gcp proteins,
namely Gcp1 to Gcp3, are specifically related to Pex7, a protein mediating import of
peroxisomal proteins characterized by the peroxisomal targeting signal 2 (PTS2)[58].
Second, some of the Gcp proteins (especially Gcp1 and Gcp13) have at the C-terminus a
predicted PTS1 signal (at least in some species; Supplementary Table 1). Third, several
Gcp proteins (Gcp2, Gcp9, Gcp10, and Gcp11) and GspEL were assigned to the putative
peroxisomal proteome in our proteomic analysis (Supplementary Table 2B). We note the
discrepancy between the PTS1 signal predictions and the actual set of experimentally
defined peroxisomal proteins, which might be due to an incomplete separation of
peroxisome and mitochondria by our purification procedure, but may also reflect protein
shuttling between the two organelles. We thus hypothesize that upon its export from the
mitochondrion, the miT2SS substrate might be eventually delivered to the peroxisome.
This is possibly mediated by the Gcp1/2/3 trio, but other Gcp proteins might participate
as well. One such protein might be the ubiquitin-related protein Gcp4. Ubiquitination and
deubiquitination of several components of the peroxisome protein import machinery are a
critical part of the import mechanism[58] and Gcp4 might serve as an analogous peptide
modifier in the hypothetical novel peroxisome import pathway functionally linked to the
miT2SS.
Altogether, our data suggest the existence of a novel elaborate functional
pathway combining components of bacterial origin with newly evolved eukaryote-
specific proteins. The extant phylogenetic distribution of the pathway is sparse, but our
current understanding of eukaryote phylogeny suggests that it was ancestrally present in
eukaryotes and for some reason dispensed with multiple times during evolution.

Although we could not define a specific bacterial group as the actual source of the
eukaryotic Gsp genes, it is tempting to speculate that the T2SS was introduced into
eukaryotes by the bacterial progenitor of mitochondria and that it was involved in
delivering specific proteins from the endosymbiont into the host cell, as is known in the
case of current intracellular bacteria[59]. Elucidating the actual role of this communication
route in establishing the endosymbiont as a fully integrated organelle requires
understanding the cellular function of the modern miT2SS-associated pathways, which is
a challenge for future research.
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Methods
Sequence data and homology searches
Homologues of relevant genes/proteins were searched in sequence databases accessible
via the National Center for Biotechnology Information BLAST server
(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi), including the nucleotide and protein non-
redundant (nr) databases, whole-genome shotgun assemblies (WGAs), expressed
sequence tags (ESTs), and transcriptome shotgun assemblies (TSAs). Additional public
databases searched included the data provided by the Marine Microbial Eukaryote
Transcriptome Sequencing Project (MMETSP[60]) comprising TSAs from hundreds of
diverse protists (https://www.imicrobe.us/#/projects/104), the OneKP project[61]
(https://sites.google.com/a/ualberta.ca/onekp/) comprising TSAs from hundreds of plants
and algae, and individual WGAs and TSAs deposited at various on-line repositories
(Supplementary Table 4). To further improve the sampling, draft genome assemblies
were generated in this study for the heterolobosean *Neovahlkampfia damariscottae* and
the malawimonad informally called "*Malawimonas californiana*". Details on the
sequencing and assembly are provided in Supplementary Methods. Finally, the analyses
also included sequence data from genome and/or transcriptome projects for several
protists that are underway in our laboratories and will be published in full elsewhere upon
completion (Supplementary Table 4). Relevant sequences were extracted from these
unpublished datasets and either deposited in GenBank or included in Supplementary
Table 1.
Similarity searches were done using BLAST[62] (blastp or tblastn, depending on the
database queried) and HMMER[63] using profile HMMs built from sequence alignments of
proteins of interest. Hits were evaluated by BLAST (blastp or blastx) searches against the
nr protein dataset at NCBI to distinguish orthologues of Gsp and Gcp proteins from
paralogous proteins or non-specific matches. This was facilitated by a high degree of
conservation of individual eukaryotic Gsp/Gcp proteins among different species (see also
Supplementary Figs 4 and 11-13) and in most cases by the lack of other close
homologues in eukaryotic genomes (the exceptions being members of broader protein
families, including the ATPase GspE, the WD40 superfamily proteins Gcp1 to Gcp3, and
the ubiquitin-related protein Gcp4). All identified eukaryotic Gsp and Gcp sequences
were carefully manually curated to ensure maximal accuracy and completeness of the
data, which included correction of existing gene models, extension of truncated
sequences by manual analysis of raw sequencing reads, and correction of assembly errors
(for details see Supplementary Methods). All newly predicted or curated Gsp and Gcp
sequences are provided in Supplementary Table 1; additional Gsp and Gcp sequences
from non-target species are listed in Supplementary Table 4. The nomenclature of the

Gsp and Gcp genes proposed in this study was also reflected in the annotation of the *A.*
godoyi genome, recently published as part of a separate study[5].

Phylogenetic profiling
In order to identify genes with the same phylogenetic distribution as the eukaryotic
homologues of the four core T2SS components, we carried out two partially overlapping
analyses based on defining groups of putative orthologous genes in select Gsp-positive
species and phylogenetically diverse Gsp-negative eukaryotic species. The list of taxa
included is provided in Supplementary Table 5. The first analysis was based on 18
species, including three Gsp-positive ones (*N. gruberi*, *A. godoyi* and *M. jakobiformis*),
for the second analysis the set was expanded by adding one additional Gsp-positive
species (*G. okellyi*) and one Gsp-negative species (*Monocercomonoides exilis*). Briefly,
the protein sequences of a given species were compared to those of all other species using
blastp followed by fast phylogenetic analyses, and orthologous relationships between
proteins were then inferred from this set of phylogenetic trees using a reference-species-
tree-independent approach. This procedure was repeated for each species and all resulting
sets of orthologous relationships, also known as phylomes[64], were combined in a dense
network of orthologous relationships. This network was finally trimmed in several
successive steps to remove weak or spurious connections and to account for (genuine or
artificial) gene fusions, with the first analysis being less restrictive than the second.
Details of this pipeline are provided in Supplementary Methods. For each of the two
analyses, the final set of defined groups of orthologs (orthogroups) was parsed to identify
those comprising genes from at least two Gsp-positive species yet lacking genes from any
Gsp-negative species. The orthogroups passing this criterion were further analysed
manually by blastp and tblastn searches against various public and private sequence
repositories (see the section "Sequence data and homology searches") to exclude those
orthogroups with obvious orthologs in Gsp-negative species. *Percolomonas* lineage
exhibiting only GspD and jakobids represented by incomplete EST surveys (these species
likely possess the miT2SS system) were not considered Gsp-negative. The orthogroups
that remained were then evaluated for their conservation in Gsp-positive species and
those that proved to have a representative in all these species (*N. gruberi*, *N. fowleri*, *N.*
damariscottae, *P. kirbyi*, *A. godoyi*, *R. americana*, *M. jakobiformis*, *G. okellyi*) were
considered as bona fide Gcp (Gsp-co-occurring protein) candidates. It is of note that
some of these proteins are short and were missed by the automated annotation of some of
the genomes, so using relaxed criteria for the initial consideration of candidate
orthogroups (i.e. allowing for their absence from some of the Gsp-positive species)
proved critical for decreasing the number of false-negative identifications.

Sequence analyses and phylogenetic inference
Subcellular targeting of Gsp and Gcp proteins was evaluated using TargetP-1.1 (ref. [65];
http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP-1.1/index.php), TargetP-2.0 (ref. [66];
http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/), Mitoprot II (ref. [67];
https://ihg.gsf.de/ihg/mitoprot.html), MitoFates[68] (http://mitf.cbrc.jp/MitoFates/cgi-
bin/top.cgi)[68], WoLF PSORT (https://wolfpsort.hgc.jp/), and PTS1 predictor[69]
(http://mendel.imp.ac.at/pts1/). Transmembrane domains were predicted using
TMHMM[70] (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/). Homology of Gsp and Gcp

protein families to other proteins was evaluated by searches against Pfam v. 31 (ref. [71];

http://pfam.xfam.org/) and Superfamily 1.75 database[72]

(http://supfam.org/SUPERFAMILY/index.html), and by using HHpred[45]

(https://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/#/tools/hhpred) and the Phyre2 server[46]

(http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/phyre2/html/page.cgi?id=index). The relative position of the

Gcp4 family among ubiquitin-like proteins was analysed by a cluster analysis using

CLANS[73] (https://www.eb.tuebingen.mpg.de/protein-evolution/software/clans/); for the

analysis the Gcp4 family was combined with all 59 defined families included in the clan

Ubiquitin (CL0072) as defined in the Pfam database (each family was represented by

sequences from the respective seed alignments stored in the Pfam database). For further

details on the procedure see the legend of Supplementary Fig. 10A. Multiple sequence

alignments used for presentation of the conservation and specific sequence features of

Gsp and Gcp families were built using MUSCLE[74] and shaded using BioEdit

(http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit.html).

In order to obtain datasets for the phylogenetic analyses of eukaryotic GspD to

GspG proteins, the protein sequences were aligned using MAFFT[75] and trimmed

manually. Profile hidden Markov models (HMMs) built on the basis of the respective

alignments were used as queries to search the UniProt database using HMMER. All

recovered sequences were assigned to components of the T4P superfamily machineries

using HMMER searches against a collection of profile HMMs reported by Abby et al.

(ref. [76]). For each GspD to GspG proteins, a series of alignments was built by

progressively expanding the sequence set by including more distant homologues (as

retrieved by the HMMER searches). Specifically, the different sets of sequences were

defined by the HMMER score based on the formula $score_{cutoff} = c*score_{best\ prokaryotic\ hit}$,

with the coefficient c decreasing from 0.99 to 0.70 incrementally by 0.01. The sequences

were then aligned using MAFFT, trimmed with BMGE[77] and the phylogenies were

computed with IQ-TREE[78] using the best-fit model (selected by the program from

standard protein evolution models and the mixture models[79] offered). The topologies

were tested using 10,000 ultra-fast bootstraps. The resulting trees were systematically

analyzed for support of the monophyly of eukaryotic sequences and for the taxonomic

assignment of the parental prokaryotic node of the eukaryotic subtree. The assignment

was done using the following procedure. The tree was artificially rooted between the

eukaryotic and prokaryotic sequences. From sub-leaf nodes to the deepest node of the

prokaryotic subtree, the taxonomic affiliation of each node was assigned by

proportionally considering the known or inferred taxonomic affiliations (at the phylum or

class level) of the descending nodes. See the legend to Supplementary Fig. 3 for further

details.

The phylogenetic analysis of the WD40 superfamily including Gcp1 to Gcp3

proteins was performed as follows. The starting dataset was prepared by a combination of

two different approaches: 1) each identified sequence of Gcp1 to Gcp3 proteins was used

as a query in a blastp search against the non-redundant (nr) NCBI protein database and

the 500 best hits for each sequence were kept; 2) protein sequences of each the Gcp1 to

Gcp3 family were aligned using MAFFT and the multiple alignment was used as a query

in a HMMER3 search (https://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/#/tools/hmmer) against the

UniProt database. Best hits (E-value cutoff 1e-50) from the two searches were pooled and

de-duplicated, and the resulting sequence set (including Gcp1 to Gcp3 sequences) was

aligned using MAFFT and trimmed manually to remove poorly conserved regions.
Because WD40 proteins are extremely diversified, sequences that were too divergent
were eliminated from the starting dataset during three subsequent rounds of sequence
removal, based on a manual inspection of the alignment and phylogenetic trees computed
by IQ-TREE (using the best-fit model as described above). The final dataset was enriched
by adding PEX7 and WDR24 orthologues from eukaryotes known to possess miT2SS
components. The final phylogenetic tree was computed using IQ-TEE as described in the
legend to Supplementary Fig. 9. IQ-TREE was used also for inferring trees of the
heterolobosean 18S rRNA gene sequences (Supplementary Fig. 1), ubiquitin-related
proteins (Supplementary Fig. 10B) and the Gcp16 family (Supplementary Fig. 14);
details on the analyses are provided in legends to the respective figures.
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Structural homology modelling
The PDB database was searched by the SWISS-MODEL server[80] for structural
homologues of *Go*GspD and *Go*GspG1. *V. cholerae* GspD[20] (PDB entry 5WQ9) and *K.*
oxytoca PulG[47] pseudopilus (PDB entry 5WDA) were selected as the top matches,
respectively. Models were built based on the target-template alignment using ProMod3
(ref. [80]). Coordinates that were conserved between the target and the template were
copied from the template to the model. Insertions and deletions were remodelled using a
fragment library, followed by rebuilding side chains. Finally, the geometry of the
resulting model was regularized by using a force field. In the case of loop modelling with
ProMod3 fails, an alternative model was built with PROMOD-II (ref. [81]). The quaternary
structure annotation of the template was used to model the target sequence in its
oligomeric form[82].
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Cultivation and fractionation of *N. gruberi* and proteomic analysis
Naegleria gruberi str. NEG-M was axenically cultured in M7 medium with PenStrep
(100 U/mL of penicillin and 100 μg/mL of streptomycin) at 27°C in vented tissue culture
flasks. Mitochondria of *N. gruberi* were isolated in seven independent experiments and
were analyzed individually (see below). Each time ~1×10^9 *N. gruberi* cells were
resuspended in 2 mL of SM buffer (250 mM sucrose, 20 mM MOPS, pH 7.4)
supplemented with DNase I (40 μg/mL) and Roche cOmplete™ EDTA-free Protease
Inhibitor Cocktail and homogenized by eight passages through a 33-gauge hypodermic
needle (Sigma Aldrich). The resulting cell homogenate was then cleaned of cellular
debris using differential centrifugation and separated by a 2-hr centrifugation in a
discontinuous density OptiPrep gradient (10%, 15%, 20%, 30% and 50%) as described
previously[83]. Three visually identifiable fractions corresponding to 10-15% (OPT-1015),
15-20% (OPT-1520) and 20-30% (OPT-2023) OptiPrep densities were collected (each in
five biological replicates) and washed with SM buffer.
Proteins extracted from these samples were then digested with trypsin and
peptides were separated by nanoflow liquid chromatography and analyzed by tandem
mass spectrometry (nLC-MS2) on a Thermo Orbitrap Fusion (q-OT-IT) instrument as
described elsewhere[84]. The quantification of mass spectrometry data in the MaxQuant
software[85] provided normalized intensity values for 4,198 proteins in all samples and all
three fractions. These values were further processed using the Perseus software[86]. Data
were filtered and only proteins with at least two valid values in one fraction were kept.

Imputation of missing values, which represent low-abundance measurements, was
performed with random distribution around the value of instrument sensitivity using
default settings of Perseus software[86].
The data were analyzed by principle component analysis (PCA). The first two
loadings of the PCA were used to plot a two-dimensional graph. Based on a set of marker
proteins (376 mitochondrial and 26 peroxisomal, Supplementary Table 2), clusters of
proteins co-fractionating with mitochondria and peroxisomes were defined and the
proteins within the clusters were further analyzed. This workflow was set up on the basis
of the LOPIT protocol[87]. As a result, out of the 4,198 proteins detected, 946 putative
mitochondrial and 78 putative peroxisomal proteins were defined. All proteins were
subjected to *in silico* predictions concerning their function (BLAST, HHpred[45]) and
subcellular localization (Psort II, https://psort.hgc.jp/form2.html; TargetP,
http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/; MultiLoc2, https://abi.inf.uni-
tuebingen.de/Services/MultiLoc2).
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Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH)
The PCR products of the *NgGspE* and *NgGspF* genes were labelled by alkali-stable
digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche) using DecaLabel DNA Labeling Kit (Thermo Scientific).
Labelled probes were purified on columns of QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen,
28704) in a final volume of 50 µL. Labelling efficiencies were tested by dot blotting with
anti-digoxigenin alkaline phosphatase conjugate and CSPD chemiluminescence substrate
for alkaline phosphatase from DIG High Prime DNA Labelling and Detection Starter Kit
II (Roche) according to the manufacturer`s protocol. FISH with digoxigenin-labelled
probes was performed essentially according to the procedure described in Zubacova at
al.[88] with some modifications. *N. gruberi* cells were pelleted by centrifugation for 10 min
at $2,000 \times g$ at 4°C. Cells were placed in hypotonic solution, fixed twice with a freshly
prepared mixture of methanol and acetic acid (3:1) and dropped on superfrost microscope
slides (ThermoScientific). Preparations for hybridizations were treated with RNase A, 20
µg in 100 µL $2 \times SSC$, for 1 hr at 37°C, washed twice in $2 \times SSC$ for 5 min, dehydrated
in a methanol series and air-dried. Slides were treated with 50% acetic acid followed by
pepsin treatment and postfixation with 2% paraformaldehyde. Endogenous peroxidase
activity of the cell remnants (undesirable for tyramide signal amplification) was
inactivated by incubation in 1% hydrogen peroxide, followed by dehydration in a graded
methanol series. All slides were denatured together with 2 µL (25 ng) of the probe in 50
µL of hybridization mixture containing 50% deionised formamide (Sigma) in $2 \times SSC$ for
5 min at 82°C. Hybridizations were carried out overnight. Slides were incubated with
tyramide reagent for 7 min. Preparations were counterstained with DAPI in VectaShield
and observed under an Olympus IX81 microscope equipped with a Hamamatsu Orca-AG
digital camera using the Cell^R imaging software.
822
Heterologous gene expression, preparation of antibodies
The selected Gsp genes from *G. okellyi* and *N. gruberi* were amplified from
commercially synthesized templates (Genscript; for primers used for PCR amplification
of the coding sequences see Supplementary Table 6) and cloned into the pUG35 vector.
The constructs were introduced into *S. cerevisiae* strain YPH499 by the lithium
acetate/PEG method. The positive colonies grown on SD-URA plates were incubated

with MitoTracker Red CMXRos (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and observed for GFP and
MitoTracker fluorescence (using the same equipment as used for FISH, see above). For
the expression in *T. brucei,* sequences encoding full-length *Go*GspD, *Go*GspG2,
*Ng*GspG1 as well as the first 160 amino acid residues from *Ng*GspG1 were amplified
from the commercially synthesized templates and cloned into the pT7 plasmid, encoding
either three C-terminal V5 tags (full-length genes) or C-terminal mNeonGreen followed
by three V5 tags (*Ng*GspG1 targeting sequence). *T. brucei* cell line SMOX 927 (ref. [89])
were grown in SDM79 media[90] supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco).
*Not*I-linearized plasmids (50 µg) were nucleofected into procyclic *T. brucei* cells using an
Amaxa nucleofector (Lonza) as described before[91]. Expression of the genes was induced
by an overnight incubation with doxycycline (1 µg/ml). For bacterial expression, genes
encoding *Ng*GspG1 and *Ng*GspEN2A were amplified from commercially synthesized
templates and cloned into the pET42b vector (for primers used for PCR amplification of
the coding sequences, see Supplementary Table 6). The constructs were introduced into
the chemically-competent *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) and their expression induced by 1
mM IPTG. The recombinant proteins were purified under denaturing conditions on Ni-
NTA agarose (Qiagen). The purified proteins were used for rat immunization in an in-
house animal facility at the Charles University.
847
Immunofluorescence microscopy
Yeast, procyclic *T. brucei* or *N. gruberi* cells were pre-treated by incubation with
MitoTracker CMX Ros (1:000 dilution) for 20 min to stain mitochondria, washed twice
in PBS and placed on coverslips. After a 5-min incubation, the cells were fixed with 4%
PFA in PBS for 15 min. The solution was replaced by 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS and the
slides were incubated for 15 min. The slides were then treated with blocking buffer (1%
BSA and 0.033% Triton X-100 in PBS) for 1 hr at room temperature. After blocking, the
samples were stained overnight at 4°C with a blocking solution supplemented with the
primary antibody (in-house-produced rat anti-*Ng*GspG1 and anti-*Ng*GspEN2A
antibodies, dilutions 1:100, rat anti-V5 antibody Abcam, dilution 1:1000 dilution). The
slides were washed three times for 10 min with 0.033% Triton X-100 and incubated with
an anti-rat antibody conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 488 (1:1000 dilution, Thermo Fisher
Scientific) in blocking buffer for 1 hr at room temperature. Slides were washed twice in
PBS supplemented with 0.033% Triton X-100 for 10 min followed by a single 10-min
wash with PBS only. The slides were mounted in Vectashield containing DAPI (Vector
laboratories). Static images were acquired on a Leica SP8 FLIM inverted confocal
microscope equipped with 405 nm and white light (470-670 nm) lasers and a FOV SP8
scanner using an HC PL APO CS2 63x/1.4 NA oil-immersion objective. Laser
wavelengths and intensities were controlled by a combination of AOTF and AOBS
separately for each channel. Emitting fluorescence was captured by internal spectrally-
tunable HyD detectors. Imaging was controlled by the Leica LAS-X software. Images
were deconvolved using the SVI Huygens Professional software (Scientific Volume
Imaging) with the CMLE algorithm. Maximum intensity projections and
brightness/contrast corrections were performed in the FIJI ImageJ software.
872
Purification of native *Ng*GspD and *Ng*GspG

His-tagged *Ng*GspD carrying the signal peptide of *E. coli* DsbA was produced in the *E.*
coli strain BL21 (DE3) in auto-induction media (50 mM Na_2HPO_4, 50 mM KH_2PO_4, 2%
Tryptone, 0.5% Yeast extract, 85 mM NaCl, 0.5% glycerol, 0.05% glucose and 0.2%
lactose) as described in ref. [92]. The cells were grown at 37°C for 16 hr, centrifuged at
$6,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4°C and resuspended in 20 mM Tris pH 8, 5 mM EDTA. Bacteria
were incubated for 30 min on ice in the presence of lysozyme (1 mg/ml) and DNAse, and
lysed in a French press. The cell lysate was centrifuged at $6,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4°C to
pellet cell debris. The cleared lysate was then centrifuged at $100,000 \times g$ for 2 h at 4°C
and membrane pellet was washed twice in 20 mM Tris pH 8, with 1-hr centrifugation
steps ($100,000 \times g$ at 4°C). The membranes were resuspended to the final protein
concentration of 1 mg/ml in 50 mM Tris pH 8, 250 mM NaCl, 1% Zwittergent 3-14, and
solubilized for 2 hr at 4°C. The sample was then centrifuged at $100,000 \times g$ for 1 hr at
4°C. His-tagged proteins from the supernatant were incubated overnight with Ni-NTA
agarose (Qiagen) at 4°C. The next day, the agarose was collected on a column and
washed with 50 ml of 50 mM Tris pH 8, 250 mM NaCl, 20 mM Imidazole, 0.5%
Zwittergent 3-14. Bound proteins were eluted by 5×0.5 ml of 50 mM Tris pH 8, 250
mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, Zwittergent 3-14. Collected fractions were analyzed by
SDS PAGE and western blotting. Selected samples were then pooled together, re-
buffered into 50 mM Tris pH 8, 250 mM NaCl, 0.5% Zwittergent 3-14, and analyzed by
size exclusion chromatography.
For *Ng*GspG1, the BL21 cells expressing the pseudopilin domain lacking the N-
terminal hydrophobic part were collected after 4 hr of IPTG induction at 37°C. The cells
were collected, washed with PBS, and then resuspended in 35 ml of 50 mM Tris, 100
mM NaCl, pH 8 with added inhibitors (cOMPLETE[TM] tablets, EDTA-free, Roche),
DNAse (1 mg/ml), 5 mM $MgCl_2$ and lysozyme (1 mg/ml). The suspension was incubated
on ice for 30 min. After lysis via French press the resulting suspension was spun down
for 20 min at $100,000 \times g$, 4 °C. Ni-NTA agarose beads (1 ml; Qiagen), washed and
resuspended in loading buffer (50 mM Tris, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, pH 8),
were added to the supernatant. The supernatant was incubated with the beads for 1 hr on a
tube rotator at 4°C. The suspension was then applied to a column. The beads on the
column were then washed with 8 ml of wash buffer (50mM Tris, 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM
imidazole, pH 8). The protein was eluted by 4 ml elution buffer I (50 mM Tris, 100 mM
NaCl, 100 mM imidazole, pH 8) and 4 ml of elution buffer II (50 mM Tris, 100 mM
NaCl, 150 mM imidazole, pH 8). All elutions were then rebuffered to 50 mM Tris pH 8,
100 mM NaCl, using Amicon Ultra-4 10k centrifugal filter tubes. The protein binding
was measured by the microscale thermophoresis technique on a Monolith NT.115
instrument (Nanotemper). Protein (10 nM) in 50 mM HEPES buffer with 50 mM NaCl
was labelled with Red-NHS dye NT-647. Maximum concentration of titrated protein was
50 μM.
913
Black lipid membrane measurements
Planar lipid membrane experiments were performed as described previously[93]. The
electrolyte solution contained 1 M KCl and 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4). 5 μl of purified
protein (80 ng/ml) was mixed with 1500 μl KCl and was added to the *cis* compartment
with a positive electrode, whereas the *trans* compartment was grounded. Planar lipid
membrane was formed across a 0.5-mm aperture by painting the *E. coli* polar lipids

extract (3% wt/vol, Avanti Polar Lipids, Alabaster, USA) dissolved in *n*-decan and
butanol (9:1). The membrane current was registered using Ag/AgCl electrodes with salt
bridges connected to an LCA-200-10G amplifier (Femto, Germany) and digitized with a
KPCI-3108 16-Bit A/D card (Keithley Instruments, USA) with a 1-kHz sampling rate.
Single-pore recordings were processed in the program QuB[94]. The histogram of single-
pore conductance (n=100) was constructed by kernel density estimation (with the
Gaussian kernel of 100-pS width) to overcome bin edge effects.
927
***In vitro* protein translation and mitochondrial protein import**
The *Go*GspD and *Ng*GspD genes were amplified from commercially synthesized
templates (for primers used for PCR amplification of the coding sequences, see
Supplementary Table 6) and cloned into pDHFR vector provided in the PURExpress *In*
Vitro Protein Synthesis Kit (NEB). The translation into liposomes was done as described
previously[95] and the output was analyzed by Blue Native PAGE using 2% digitonin and
NativePAGE Novex 4-16% Bis-Tris Protein Gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For the *in*
vitro mitochondrial protein import, the mitochondria were isolated from *S. cerevisiae*
YPH499 according to the method described in ref. [96]. The *in vitro*-translated *Ng*GspD and
Su9-DHFR chimeric construct[41] were incubated with mitochondria as described in ref. [97].
The import reactions were incubated with 50 μg/ml of trypsin for 30 min on ice to
remove unimported protein precursor.
940
Testing protein interactions using two-hybrid systems
Bacterial two-hybrid system (BACTH) analysis was performed as described before[98].
Gsp genes were amplified with specific primers (listed in Supplementary Table 6) and
cloned into pKT25 and pUT18c plasmids. *E. coli* strain DHT1 competent cells were co-
transformed with two plasmids with different combinations of Gsp genes. Co-
transformants were selected on LB plates with ampicillin (Ap) (100 μg/mL) and
kanamycin (Km) (25 μg/mL). Colonies were grown at 30°C for 48 to 96 hr. From each
plate three colonies were picked, transferred to 1 mL of LB medium with Ap and Km,
and grown overnight at 30°C with shaking. Next day, precultures (0.25 mL) were
inoculated to 5 mL of LB medium with Ap, Km and 1 mM IPTG. Cultures were grown
with shaking at 30°C to OD_{600} of about 1-1.5. Bacteria (0.5 mL) were mixed with 0.5 mL
of Z buffer and β-galactosidase activity was measured[99].
The yeast two-hybrid system (Y2H) was employed as described in ref. [100]. Cells
of *S. cerevisiae* strain AH109 were co-transformed with two plasmids (pGADT7,
pGBKT7) with different combinations of Gsp genes. Co-transformants were selected on
double-dropout SD-Leu/-Trp and triple-dropout SD-Leu/-Trp/-His plates. The colonies
were grown for a few days. Positive colonies from the triple dropout were grown
overnight at 30°C with shaking and then the serial dilution test was performed on double-
and triple-dropout plates.
960
961 **Data availability**
962 All sequences of Gsp and Gcp proteins analysed in the study are provided in
963 Supplementary Table 1. Gsp and Gcp genes extracted from an unpublished *Malawimonas*
964 *jakobiformis* genome assembly have been deposited at GenBank with accession numbers
965 MT460910-MT460938. Raw genome sequencing reads from "*Malawimonas*

californiana" and *Neovahlkampfia damariscottae* are available from NCBI under the
BioProject PRJNA549687. The genome assembly of *N. damariscottae* has been
deposited at GenBank with the accession number JABLTG000000000. The transcriptome
assembly of *Gefionella okellyi*, the genome assembly and predicted proteins of
"*Malawimonas californiana*", and partial genome assemblies of *Reclinomonas americana*
are available from https://megasun.bch.umontreal.ca/papers/T2SS-2020/. The mass
spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited in the ProteomeXchange Consortium
via the PRIDE[101] partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD007764. Other
relevant data (e.g. multiple sequence alignments used for phylogenetic analyses) are
available from the authors upon request.

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carried out comparative genomic analyses, J.P. planned and carried out the experiments
on *N. gruberi* mitochondrial proteome and analysed the data, A.M. carried out the
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Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Some eukaryotes harbour homologues of core components of the bacterial
T2SS machinery. (A) Schematic representation of the complete bacterial T2SS; subunits
having identified eukaryotic homologues are highlighted in colour. For simplicity,
GspDN represents in the figure three different eukaryotic proteins (GspDN1 to GspDN3),
together corresponding to two versions of a conserved domain present as a triplicate in
the N-terminal region of the bacterial GspD protein. (B) Phylogenetic distribution of
eukaryotic homologues of bacterial T2SS subunits (Gsp proteins) and co-occurring
proteins (Gcp). Core T2SS components (cyan), eukaryote-specific T2SS components
(dark blue), Gcp proteins carrying protein domains found in eukaryotes (magenta), and
Gcp proteins without discernible homologues or with homologues only in prokaryotes
(pink). Coloured sections indicate proteins found to be present in genome or
transcriptome data; white sections, proteins absent from complete genome data; grey
sections, proteins absent from transcriptome data. The asterisk indicates the presence of
the particular protein in at least two of the three *Percolomonas* or at least one of the two
Hemimastigophora species analyzed. The species name in parentheses has not yet been
formally published. Sequence IDs and additional details on the eukaryotic Gsp and Gcp
proteins are provided in Supplementary Table 1. The tree topology and taxon names
reflect most recent phylogenomic studies of eukaryotes[32,102,103]; the root (LECA) is placed
according to ref. [29].
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Fig. 2 Eukaryotic Gsp homologues are monophyletic. Maximum likelihood (ML)
phylogenetic tree of eukaryotic and selected bacterial GspG proteins demonstrating the
monophyletic origin of the eukaryotic GspG proteins and their separation from bacterial
homologues by a long branch (the tree inferred using IQ-TREE). Branch support
(bootstrap) was assessed by ML ultrafast bootstrapping and is shown only for branches
where support is > 50.
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Fig. 3 Eukaryotic T2SS components are localized in mitochondria. (A) *S. cerevisiae*
expressing *G. okellyi* and *N. gruberi* Gsp proteins as C-terminal GFP fusions stained with
MitoTracker red CMX ROS to visualize mitochondria. (B) Expression of *G. okellyi*
GspD and GspG2 with the C-terminal V5 Tag in *T. brucei* visualized by
immunofluorescence; the cells are co-stained with MitoTracker red. (C) Cellular fractions
of *N. gruberi* labelled by specific polyclonal antibodies raised against GspG1, GspEN2A
and mitochondrial (alternative oxidase – AOX, TatC,) cytosolic (hemerythrin) marker
proteins. (D) Immunofluorescence microscopy of *N. gruberi* labelled with specific
polyclonal antibodies raised against GspG1 and GspEN2A, and co-stained with
MitoTracker red. Scale bar (parts A-D), 10 μm. (E) PCA analysis of 4,198 proteins
identified in the proteomic analysis of *N. gruberi* subcellular fractions differentially
enriched in mitochondria. The cluster of mitochondrial proteins was defined on the basis
of 376 mitochondrial markers. The boundaries of the cluster of co-purified peroxisomal
proteins were defined by 26 peroxisomal markers.
1374
Fig. 4 Mitochondrial GspD oligomerizes towards the formation of membrane pores.
(A) Domain architecture of the canonical bacterial GspD and the eukaryotic proteins
homologous to its different parts (short N-terminal region of mitochondrial GspD of
unidentified homology shown in grey). Below, protein sequence alignment of the secretin

C-domain of bacterial and mitochondrial orthologues (mitochondrial GspD or GspDL
and the respective molecular complex of bacterial secretins is depicted in grey, the
numbers on the right depict the position of the amino acid in the particular sequence). (B)
In vitro import of *Ng*GspD into isolated yeast mitochondria over a period of 16 min.
Dissipation of the membrane potential (ΔΨ) by AVO mix abolished the import of matrix
reporter protein (Su9-DHFR) bud did not affect the mitochondrial GspD; p – precursor of
Su9-DHFR, m – mature form of the protein upon cleavage of the mitochondrial targeting
sequence. (C) Structural model of *Go*GspD built by ProMod3 on the *Vibrio cholerae*
GspD template. Top and side view of a cartoon and a transparent surface representation
of the *Go*GspD pentadecamer model is shown in blue. The amphipathic helical loop
(AHL), a signature of the secretin family, is highlighted and coloured according to the
secondary structure with strands in magenta, helices in cyan and loops in light brown.
The C-terminal GpsD residues are highlighted as spheres. The detailed view of the AHL
region shows the essential residues V162 and F166 pointing towards the membrane
surface. (D) *In vitro* translation and assembly of mitochondrial *Go*GspD into a high-
molecular-weight complex; lipo – liposomes added, urea – liposome fraction after 2M
urea treatment. (E) Y2H assay suggests the self- and mutual interaction of *Ng*GspD and
*Ng*GspDN1.
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Fig. 5 Membrane pore formation of mitochondrial GspD. (A) Expression of
mitochondrial *Ng*GspD in bacteria quickly causes cell death upon induction. (B) Size
exclusion chromatography of *Ng*GspD shows two peaks of putative GspD complexes
(bottom) and SDS-PAGE of the corresponding fractions (top). (C) Single channel
recording of the *Ng*GspD complex. The applied membrane potential was 15 mV. (D)
Histogram of different recorded amplitudes during channel opening indicates multiple
types of *Ng*GspD-formed pores in the membrane.
1405
Fig. 6 Structure and maturation of mitochondrial GspG. (A) Domain architecture of
the bacterial and the mitochondrial pseudopilin GspG (top). The arrow indicates the
processing site of the bacterial GspG during protein maturation. MTS – mitochondria
targeting sequence, + – polar anchor, TMD – transmembrane domain, ND – novel
domain. (Bottom) Protein sequence alignment of the pseudopilin domains of
mitochondrial and bacterial GspG proteins (in case two paralogues are present, only
GspG1 is shown) (B) Homology modelling of *Go*GspG1. Top: pairwise alignment of
protein sequences of *Go*GspG1 and *Klebisella oxytoca* PulG (the template used in model
building). Regions of high sequence similarity are highlighted, including the hydrophobic
segment (cyan), the α-β loop (magenta) and GspG signature loop with conserved Pro
residues (green). Bottom: side and top views of the cartoon and transparent surface
representation of *Go*GspG pilus model based on the pseudopilus cryo-EM
reconstruction[47]. Proteins are coloured based on the secondary structure, with helix
regions in cyan and loops in light brown. The regions of GspG1 sharing high similarity
with PulG are highlighted with the same colour code as in the sequence alignment, with
side chains shown in magenta and green. Inset: Detail of the structurally conserved loop
regions. The novel domain (ND) specific to mitochondrial GspG proteins was omitted
from the modelling. (C) Peptides specific to *Ng*GspG1 retrieved from the proteomic

analysis of *N. gruberi* mitochondria. The Leu residue highlighted in blue indicates
residue +1 following the processing site of bacterial GspG proteins.
1426
Fig. 7 The protein interactions of mitochondrial GspG. (A) The soluble part of the
pseudopilin domain was purified to homogeneity on and ran through a gel filtration
column, which demonstrated the stable monomeric state of the protein. (B)
Thermophoresis of NT-647-labelled protein showed specific self-interaction of the
domain (top); plotting of the change in thermophoresis yielded a K_d of 216 ± 15.1 nm,
concentration of the labelled GspG was 10 nM (bottom). (C) Positive interaction between
the mitochondrial GspG protein and other mitochondrial T2SS subunits as determined by
the BACTH assay. The error bars depict standard error of mean.
1435
Fig. 8 Proteins with the same phylogenetic profile as the originally identified
mitochondrial Gsp homologues. (A) Schematic domain representation of 23 proteins
occurring in heteroloboseans, jakobids and malawimonads with the core T2SS subunits
but not in other eukaryotes analyzed. Proteins with a functional link to the T2SS
suggested by sequence homology are shown in blue, proteins representing novel
paralogues within broader (super)families are shown in violet, and proteins without
discernible homologues or with homologues only in prokaryotes are shown in pink. The
presence of conserved protein domains or characteristic structural motifs is shown if
detected in the given protein. Grey block – predicted transmembrane domain (see also
Supplementary Fig. 11); "C H C H" – the presence of absolutely conserved cysteine and
histidine residues (see also Supplementary Fig. 12) that may mediate binding of a
prosthetic group; "HEXXH" and "EXXA" in Gcp16 indicate absolutely conserved motifs
suggesting that the protein is a metallopeptidase of the gluzincin group (see text). The
length of the rectangles corresponds to the relative size of the proteins. (B) Protein
sequence alignment of Gcp12 proteins with highlighted conserved cysteine (black circles)
and histidine (red circles) residues. (C) The expression of *Go*Gcp12 in *T. brucei* with the
C-terminal V5 tag (green) showed partial co-localization with the mitochondrion (red).
1453
Fig. 9 The mitochondrial T2SS (miT2SS) as part of a hypothetical eukaryotic
functional pathway connecting the mitochondrion and the peroxisome. The scheme
presents the most reasonable interpretation of the findings reported in this study, but
further work is needed to test details of the working model. According to the model, a
nucleus-encoded protein (green), possibly one of the newly identified Gcp proteins, is
imported via the TOM complex into the mitochondrial inner membrane space, where it is
modified by addition of a specific prosthetic group. After folding it becomes a substrate
of the miT2SS machinery, is exported from the mitochondrion and finally reaches the
peroxisome. The loading of the prosthetic group, the delivery to the peroxisome and
possibly also the actual function of the protein in the peroxisome is assisted by specific
subsets of other Gcp proteins. The hypothetical presence of Gcp proteins in specific
(sub)compartments is depicted as a group of orange ovals. OMM – outer mitochondrial
membrane, IMS – intermembrane space, IMM – inner mitochondrial membrane, MM –
mitochondrial matrix
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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

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Figure 9