

1 **Crystalloids: fascinating parasite organelles essential for malaria transmission**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Crystalloids are malaria parasite organelles exclusive to the ookinete and young oocyst life

18 stages that infect the mosquito. The organelles have key roles in sporozoite development and

19 infectivity, but the way this is facilitated on a molecular level remains poorly understood.

20 Recent discoveries have shed new light on these processes.

21

22 **Malaria and transmission**

23 Malaria remains a serious global health problem that affects millions and kills over 400,000
24 people annually. The disease is caused by infection with apicomplexan parasites of the genus
25 *Plasmodium*, with *P. falciparum* the deadliest among several human malaria parasite species.
26 Malaria parasites are spread by mosquitoes and a large part of the *Plasmodium* life cycle takes
27 place in the insect. This begins with the uptake of male and female gametocytes with the
28 blood meal of an anopheline mosquito, and ends several weeks later with the injection of
29 sporozoites by mosquito bite to initiate new infections in the human host (**Figure 1A**). The
30 main developmental steps that take place in between are: (i) gametogenesis and fertilisation
31 in the midgut lumen (hour 1); (ii) transformation of the zygotes into elongated motile forms
32 termed ookinetes (day 1); (iii) crossing of the midgut epithelium by the ookinetes, followed
33 by their transformation into young oocysts (day 2); (iv) growth and division of the oocysts,
34 known as sporogony, to generate thousands of sporozoites (weeks 1-2); (v) sporozoite egress
35 from the oocyst and colonisation of the insect's salivary glands (weeks 2-3) (**Figure 1A**). Use
36 of insecticides continues to be a key intervention to limit malaria transmission and disease,
37 but this vector control approach is under threat from increasing insecticide resistance and
38 alternative transmission control measures are needed. These include interventions based on
39 blocking parasite development in the insect with antimalarial drugs or vaccines that are
40 administered to humans and taken up by the mosquito with its *Plasmodium*-infected blood
41 meal [1].

42

43 **Sporogony and crystalloids**

44 Malaria parasites suffer severe population losses in the mosquito midgut and for this reason
45 sporogony constitutes a vital parasite multiplication step to ensure successful transmission

46 from the insect back to the vertebrate. Sporogony remains a poorly studied part of the
47 *Plasmodium* life cycle, but an important advance came with the discovery that an enigmatic
48 parasite organelle called the crystalloid, which forms in ookinetes within hours of parasite
49 uptake by the mosquito, is critically involved (reviewed in [2]) (**Figure 1B**). This finding raised
50 new interest in the crystalloids from a parasite cell biology perspective, but also as a potential
51 route to targeting sporogony at a more accessible, early stage of transmission when the
52 parasite resides in the midgut lumen.

53 First described in 1962, crystalloids are parasite subcellular structures that have long been
54 implicated in malaria transmission by virtue of their exclusive presence in ookinetes and early
55 oocysts [2]. Electron microscopy shows that crystalloids are clusters of tightly packed small
56 spherical units (**Figure 2A**), but experimental evidence regarding their origins and functions
57 remained elusive until studies in the mouse malaria parasite *P. berghei* provided proof of a
58 spatial, temporal and functional link with a group of *Plasmodium* proteins that are essential
59 for sporogony [2]. The six proteins in question, named LCCL lectin adhesive proteins (LAPs),
60 are highly conserved and possess a unique modular architecture of domains implicated in
61 protein, lipid and carbohydrate binding, including the LCCL domain (pfam03815, named after
62 its founding proteins *Limulus* clotting factor C, Coch-5b2, Lgl1) [2]. Using *P. berghei* parasites
63 that stably express LAPs fused to a green fluorescent protein (GFP) tag, it was shown that
64 LAPs 1-3 co-localise with an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) marker in female gametocytes and
65 re-localise during ookinete development to the crystalloids [2, 3] (**Figure 2B**). LAPs 4-6 also
66 localise in crystalloids, but translational repression in female gametocytes results in their
67 protein not being expressed until the early zygote stage when translational silencing is lifted
68 [4]. Knockout of any of the six LAPs in *P. berghei*, either individually or in pairs, gives rise to a
69 similar loss-of-function phenotype characterized by a failure of the oocyst to complete

70 differentiation and produce sporozoites [2, 3] (**Figure 2C**). The shared loss-of-function
71 phenotypes and crystalloid localisations of the LAPs, as well as their conformational co-
72 dependence [5], indicated that these molecules operate in concert as a protein complex,
73 which was indeed experimentally demonstrated in a later study [6].

74 Several studies of LAP mutants demonstrated a role in crystalloid biogenesis. First, it was
75 shown that knockout of LAP1 or LAP3 in *P. berghei* abolished crystalloid formation altogether
76 [2, 3] (**Figure 1B, Figure 2D**). Second, a mutant parasite line expressing LAP3 lacking its LCCL
77 domain exhibited a marked delay in crystalloid formation in ookinetes, which helped reveal
78 that organelle formation occurs through microtubule-dependent transport and assembly of
79 ER-derived vesicles [3]. Third, carboxy-terminal GFP tagging of LAP4, but not the other LAPs,
80 unexpectedly produced a mutant phenotype with regards to crystalloid biogenesis giving rise
81 to abnormally formed crystalloids [7]. These crystalloid defects affect sporogony in different
82 ways: whilst LAP null mutants without crystalloids give rise to oocysts that fail to sporulate
83 and reach a larger than normal size, the LAP4::GFP-expressing mutant with abnormal
84 crystalloids produced smaller oocysts that sporulated earlier than normal giving rise to non-
85 infectious sporozoites [7]. On a cellular level, oocyst growth and mitosis in LAP mutants is
86 indistinguishable from wildtype oocysts during the first week of oocyst development leading
87 up to cytokinesis [3, 7]. By contrast, on a molecular level LAP null mutant oocysts display
88 markedly lower expression levels of sporozoite genes and their transcription factors that is
89 already apparent before cytokinesis would normally occur, indicating that events leading up
90 to the sporulation defect could happen early in, or even upstream of sporogony [8].

91

92 **Other crystalloid proteins**

93 More noteworthy advances in our understanding of crystalloid molecular biology came with
94 recent discoveries of two enzymes that are localised in *P. berghei* crystalloids. The first of
95 these is a palmitoyl-S-acyl transferase (PAT), named DHHC10, that like the LAPs was shown
96 to be required for crystalloid biogenesis and sporozoite development [9]. PATs catalyse S-
97 palmitoylation, a widespread post-translational lipid modification of proteins. PATs have a
98 highly conserved Asp-His-His-Cys (DHHC) motif within a cysteine-rich domain, as well as four
99 membrane-spanning domains that direct their localization to a variety of cellular membranes
100 and compartments. The identification of DHHC10 as an essential crystalloid protein suggests
101 that S-palmitoylation plays a key role in the biogenesis and/or function of the organelle, and
102 that the crystalloid accommodates substrates of this enzyme that require palmitoylation to
103 facilitate successful sporogony.

104 More recently, a second crystalloid-resident enzyme was identified and characterised in *P.*
105 *berghei*: NAD(P) transhydrogenase (NTH), a multi-pass transmembrane protein that
106 generates NADPH [10]. The study showed that NTH null mutant parasites are unable to form
107 crystalloids and do not support sporozoite formation in the oocyst, like null mutants of LAPs
108 and DHHC10. Parasites expressing structurally intact NTH that was rendered enzymatically
109 inactive through a point mutation were able to form crystalloids, but again did not support
110 sporozoite formation [10], demonstrating that NTH has a structural role in crystalloid
111 biogenesis and an enzymatic role in sporogony. The apparent functional dependence of the
112 crystalloids on NADPH produced by NTH forms the basis for the hypothesis that the organelle
113 harbours NADPH-dependent enzymatic activity. NTH null mutants are not impeded in their
114 ability to form ookinetes and oocysts [10], and thus it seems unlikely that this source of
115 NADPH is required for neutralising oxidative stress encountered by the parasites in the

116 mosquito midgut. Instead, NADPH production by NTH more likely reflects the presence of
117 anabolic processes in the organelle.

118 Most recently, using GFP affinity purification and mass spectrometry, it was shown that
119 the LAP complex is part of an extended protein interaction network that is enriched in known
120 and novel crystalloid proteins [11]. These include members of a family containing 'CPW-WPC'
121 domains (pfam09717) [12]; a novel family of proteins with pleckstrin homology-like domains
122 [11, 13]; and a membrane protein with a TPM domain (pfam04536, named after its founding
123 proteins TLP18.3, Psb32, MOLO-1), of which a structural paralogue was previously reported
124 to reside in the organelle [14]. These results point to a diverse and intricate organelle
125 contents, and indicate that proteins destined for the crystalloid interact in the ER creating a
126 'crystalloid protein complex' that enables both crystalloid targeting and formation. This model
127 supports the reported structural role of NTH in crystalloid biogenesis [10] and, by analogy,
128 explains how structurally and functionally diverse crystalloid proteins such as the LAPs,
129 DHHC10 and NTH can generate similar loss-of-function phenotypes.

130

131 **Future perspectives**

132 Given the structure of the crystalloid organelle it is tempting to speculate that it constitutes
133 a specialized adaptation of the vesicular transport system of the cell, transporting critical
134 cargo from the ER to other cell compartments, or the extracellular environment, during
135 sporogonic development. Many questions remain about its specific modes of action, but
136 recent advances in our understanding of its formation and molecular composition, in
137 particular the identification of two essential membrane-bound enzymes and the suggestion
138 of additional NADPH-dependent enzymatic activity in the organelle [10], are fascinating and
139 form a useful basis for further studies. It also increases the likelihood that specific inhibitors

140 of crystalloid biogenesis or function can be developed to target sporogony and sporozoite
141 transmission. Antimalarial compounds were recently shown to be effectively absorbed into
142 the mosquito after short exposure to a treated surface [15]. This important discovery has
143 opened new paths for drug delivery to malaria vectors, making the search for compounds
144 that impede development of the mosquito stages of the parasite, including the sporogonic
145 stages, more imperative. This adds greater value and urgency to our collective efforts to
146 uncover the molecular processes that underlie *Plasmodium* biology in the mosquito.

147

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152

153 **Declaration of Interests**

154 The authors declare no competing interests.

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189 **Figure 1. Development of malaria parasites in the mosquito vector.** (A) Wildtype parasites.
190 Gametocytes entering the midgut lumen during blood feeding undergo rapid gametogenesis
191 followed by fertilization. The resulting zygotes transform into motile ookinetes that possess
192 crystalloids (red spots). Ookinetes cross the midgut epithelium (epi) and transform into
193 oocysts on the haemocoel side. Oocyst grow and divide to produce sporozoites that colonise
194 the salivary glands and are transmitted back to the vertebrate host via mosquito bite.
195 Parasites are depicted blue, mosquito tissues grey. (B) Parasites carrying mutations that
196 abolish crystalloid biogenesis. In the absence of crystalloids, oocysts undergo growth and
197 mitosis, but fail to produce sporozoites.

198

199 **Figure 2. Crystalloids have an essential role in sporogony.** (A) Ultrastructure of crystalloids
200 in a *P. berghei* ookinete section. The crystalloids appear as clusters of tightly packed small
201 spherical units. Scale bar = 500nm. (B) Live fluorescence images of early zygotes, an ookinete
202 and a young oocyst of a *P. berghei* line expressing the crystalloid protein LAP3 fused to green
203 fluorescent protein (LAP3::GFP). LAP3 resides in the endoplasmic reticulum in early zygotes
204 and relocates to the crystalloids during ookinete development. Ookinetes typically have two
205 crystalloids that merge during oocyst transition. Scale bar = 5 μ m. (C) LAP3::GFP expressing
206 oocysts develop normally and produce hundreds of sporozoites (containing narrow elongated
207 nuclei in blue), while oocysts of a *P. berghei* LAP3 knockout line (LAP3-KO) undergo growth
208 and mitosis, but fail to produce sporozoites. DNA is stained blue. Scale bar = 10 μ m. (D)
209 Knockout of LAP3 prevents crystalloid biogenesis: Crystalloids are absent in *P. berghei* LAP3-
210 KO ookinetes, while LAP3::GFP-expressing ookinetes possess normal crystalloids (arrows).
211 Scale bar = 1 μ m. Images adapted from [3].

212

213 Figure 1



