1 THE ESSENTIAL KINASE TGGSK REGULATES CENTROSOME DIVISION AND ENDODYOGENY IN

2 TOXOPLASMA GONDII

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14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Intracellular replication is crucial for the success of apicomplexan parasites, including 16 Toxoplasma gondii. Therefore, essential players in parasite replication present potential 17 targets for drug development. In this study, we have characterized TgGSK, a glycogen 18 synthase kinase homolog that plays an important role in *Toxoplasma* endodyogeny. We 19 have shown that TgGSK has a dynamic localization that is concurrent with the cell cycle. 20 In non-dividing parasites, this kinase is highly concentrated in the nucleus. However, 21 during division, TgGSK displays a cytosolic localization, with concentration foci at the 22 centrosomes, a key organelle involved in parasite division, and the basal end. Conditional 23 knockdown of TgGSK determined that it is essential for the completion of the lytic cycle 24 and proper parasite division. Parasites lacking endogenous protein levels of TgGSK 25 exhibited defects in division synchronicity and the segregation of the nucleus and 26 apicoplast into forming daughter cells. These phenotypes are associated with defects in 27 centrosome duplication and fission. Global phosphoproteomic analysis determined 28 TgGSK-dependent phosphorylation of RNA-processing, basal end, and centrosome 29 proteins. Consistent with the putative regulation of RNA-processing proteins, global 30 transcriptomic analysis suggests that TgGSK is needed for proper splicing. Finally, we 31 show that TgGSK interacts with GCN5b, a well-characterized acetyltransferase with roles 32 in transcriptional control. Conversely, GCN5b chemical inhibition results in specific 33 degradation of TgGSK. Thus, these studies reveal the involvement of TgGSK in various 34 crucial processes, including endodyogeny and splicing, and identify acetylation as a 35 possible mechanism by which this essential kinase is regulated.

36

37 AUTHOR SUMMARY

38 Toxoplasma gondii infects nearly a third of the world's human population. While 39 infection is largely asymptomatic in healthy adults, in immunocompromised or 40 immunosuppressed individuals it can lead to brain lesions and even death. Similarly, 41 toxoplasmosis can result in stillbirth, birth defects, and blindness of a developing fetus in 42 the case of a congenital infection. With minimal treatments for Toxoplasmosis available, 43 it is crucial to study parasite-specific processes that could be potential drug targets for the 44 treatment of Toxoplasmosis. In this study, we investigated the protein TgGSK that is 45 essential for parasite survival and proper division. We showed that TgGSK may perform 46 its essential functions through interaction with the centrosome, an organelle that plays a 47 major role in cell division in many organisms. We also show in this study a role for TgGSK 48 in proper processing of messenger RNAs. Taken together, we have performed an in-depth 49 study of the functional role of the essential protein TgGSK in Toxoplasma gondii. 50 Importantly, TgGSK was shown to have more similarity to plant proteins than mammalian 51 proteins which may allow for the possibility of targeting of this protein for therapeutic 52 treatment of toxoplasmosis.

53 INTRODUCTION

54 Toxoplasma gondii is an obligate intracellular parasite that infects approximately a 55 third of the world's human population [1]. The parasite's ability to be highly symptomatic 56 in those immunocompromised or infected congenitally makes Toxoplasma a globally 57 relevant pathogen [2,3]. Many of the negative effects of an uncontrolled Toxoplasma 58 infection are a consequence of the lytic cycle of the highly replicative tachyzoite form, 59 which is responsible for the acute stage of the disease. Tachyzoites actively invade any 60 nucleated cell forming a parasitophorous vacuole in the process. After several rounds of 61 asexual division within this vacuole, the parasite actively exits, lysing the parasitophorous 62 vacuole and host cell in the process. Once outside the cell, the parasite quickly invades 63 neighboring cells, allowing for propagation and continuation of the acute stage of the 64 infection.

65 Intracellular division of *Toxoplasma* occurs by the divergent process of endodyogeny, 66 through which two daughter parasites gradually form within a mature mother [4,5]. The 67 assembly of daughter cells is supported by the inner membrane complex (IMC), which 68 consists of a series of flattened membrane vesicles stitched together and that, along with 69 the parasite's plasmalemma, forms the so-called pellicle. Underneath the pellicle and 70 serving a role in parasite shape and polarity are a set of 22 subpellicular microtubules. 71 Early in endodyogeny, IMCs for each of the daughter cells emanate within the mother 72 cell. Another early event in parasite division is the duplication of the centrosome, which, 73 in addition to serving conserved roles across eukaryotes in nuclear mitosis, acts as an 74 organizing center for subpellicular microtubules as well as serving as a contact site for 75 various other dividing organelles in Toxoplasma [6]. As the IMCs of the two daughter cells

grow, some organelles are made *de novo*, while the nucleus, the mitochondrion, and the plastid-like apicoplast divide between them. The IMC of the mother eventually disappears as the two nascent parasites occupy the bulk of the mother parasite. Finally, the original plasmalemma envelopes the two new cells, and a cleavage furrow extends between the daughters. The various steps that make up endodyogeny have been well described. Nonetheless, the signals and regulatory proteins controlling endodyogeny and the stepwise structural assembly of the cytoskeletal elements are not well understood.

83 Recently, we characterized the plant-like phosphatase PPKL, which regulates 84 daughter cell formation in Toxoplasma [7]. PPKL is essential for parasite propagation, and 85 lack of PPKL uncouples DNA duplication, which occurs normally in PPKL knockdown 86 parasites, from daughter cell formation [7]. Knockdown of PPKL also affects the rigidity 87 and organization of cortical microtubules, although it does not affect centrosome 88 duplication. Interestingly, the phosphorylation of the known cell cycle regulator CRK1 is 89 altered in PPKL knockdown parasites, suggesting that PPKL regulates parasite division 90 by impacting the CRK-1-dependent signaling pathway [7]. PPKL is homologous to the 91 Arabidopsis phosphatase BSU1, which is at the center of the plant brassinosteroid 92 pathway [8,9]. In the absence of brassinosteroid, the phosphorylated kinase BIN2 93 inactivates transcription factors that regulate the expression of genes involved in various 94 processes, including plant tissue growth, development, and stress responses. 95 Brassinosteroid activates a cascade that results in the activation of BSU1, which in turn 96 dephosphorylates BIN2 at a conserved tyrosine, inactivating it and leading to the 97 transcription of brassinosteroid response genes. Toxoplasma does not produce 98 brassinosteroid, and a search for other members of this well-characterized plant signaling

99 pathway did not reveal clear homologs except for TGGT1_265330, which shows strong 100 similarity to BIN2. As BIN2 from plants are members of the family of glycogen synthase 101 kinase 3 (GSK3) serine/threonine kinases, we refer to TGGT1_265330 as TgGSK. A 102 previous study, which referred to this protein as TPK3, indicated that it bears 54% 103 homology to GSKs over the catalytic domain and showed that the recombinant protein 104 has kinase activity and can autophosphorylate [10]. Nonetheless, the localization or 105 function of this *Toxoplasma* kinase was not investigated.

106 Here, we report an in-depth analysis of TgGSK. We show that TgGSK is an essential 107 kinase in *Toxoplasma* that displays a varying localization dependent on parasite division. 108 Knockdown of TgGSK causes abnormal division phenotypes, including defects in the 109 centrosome, apicoplast, and nuclear segregation. Furthermore, phosphoproteome and 110 transcriptome analyses suggest a role in splicing for TgGSK. Finally, we show that TgGSK 111 forms a complex with the acetyltransferase GCN5b and that inhibition of GCN5b 112 acetyltransferase activity leads to TgGSK degradation. In sum, our work characterizes an 113 essential kinase that regulates a variety of critical functions in the human pathogen 114 Toxoplasma gondii, uncovering a potential target for therapeutic intervention.

115 **RESULTS**

116 TOXOPLASMA GSK IS RELATED TO PLANT KINASES

117 Previously, we characterized the Kelch domain-containing protein phosphatase 118 PPKL in Toxoplasma gondii [7]. Toxoplasma PPKL is a homolog of the plant 119 phosphatase BSU1, which is central to the brassinosteroid signaling pathway [8,9]. 120 Toxoplasma does not produce brassinosteroid, and a search for other members of this 121 well-characterized plant signaling pathway did not reveal clear homologs except for 122 TGGT1 265330, which shows 53% identity to the PPKL substrate BIN2. BIN2 from 123 plants are members of the family of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3) 124 serine/threonine kinases. Thus, though this kinase had been previously referred to as 125 TPK3 (Toxoplasma Protein Kinase 3), we here rename the product of TGGT1 265330 126 as TgGSK to better reflect its evolutionary origin and putative function. This protein is 127 a 394 amino acid conventional kinase with an ATP binding site and an active site and 128 shows homology to members of the GSK family of kinases. GSKs are unique among 129 eukaryotic protein kinases (ePKs) in that they have a cluster of conserved amino acids 130 that might perform a regulatory role. In mammalian GSK3 β , these correspond to 131 residues Q89, R92, F93, K94, and N95 [11]. TgGSK contains this cluster between 132 amino acids 80 and 87. Moreover, existing phosphoproteomic data [12] shows that 133 TqGSK is phosphorylated at four serine/threonine sites (T38, S208, S210, and S270) 134 and at one tyrosine (Y211), which is conserved throughout the GSK family (Fig 1A). 135 The amino acids surrounding the conserved tyrosine site are conserved across all 136 GSKs, including in Apicomplexa, plants, and mammals (Fig 1B). A clustal omega 137 alignment of TgGSK along with GSK homologs from the malarial parasite *Plasmodium*,

humans, and *Arabidopsis*, shows that TgGSK and *Plasmodium* GSK cluster with the *Arabidopsis thaliana* BIN2 (Fig. 1C). Thus, it appears that TgGSK has greater
homology to plant BIN2 than to mammalian GSK3.

141 TGGSK HAS A DYNAMIC LOCALIZATION THAT IS CELL CYCLE DEPENDENT

142 To determine the localization of TgGSK within the parasite, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to 143 generate a strain in which the endogenous protein includes a triple hemagglutinin (3xHA) 144 epitope tag in its carboxy terminus. Western blot analysis of the resulting strain, 145 $\Delta Ku80$:TgGSK.3xHA (from here on referred to as GSK.3xHA), shows a protein of 146 approximately 44 kDa, which matches the expected molecular weight of TgGSK (Fig. 147 2A). Using this validated strain, we performed immunofluorescence assays (IFA) of 148 intracellular parasites probing for HA to observe TgGSK and for IMC3 to monitor the inner 149 membrane complex (IMC) (Fig. 2B). IMC3 is present in both mother and daughter 150 parasites, which allows us to differentiate between dividing (those with daughter parasites 151 within) and non-dividing (those without daughter parasites) parasites. Interestingly, we 152 noted that while in non-dividing parasites, TgGSK is more concentrated in the nucleus, in 153 those undergoing division TgGSK is evenly distributed throughout the entire cell (Fig. 154 **2B).** To explore this dynamic localization, we monitored TgGSK's localization in parasites 155 at various stages of division (Fig. 2C). Throughout all stages of division, we saw TgGSK 156 distributed throughout the cell, while in non-dividing parasites TgGSK consistently 157 localized to the nucleus. While the difference in GSK localization in dividing and non-158 dividing parasites is evident, we aimed to quantify this observation. For this purpose, we 159 imaged 20 non-dividing parasites and 20 parasites in the late division stage and used 160 ImageJ to quantify the fluorescent intensity of the HA signal in the cytosol and the nucleus.

As expected, this analysis determined a higher ratio of nuclear over cytosolic signal in
 non-dividing parasites (Fig. 2D).

163 To obtain a more detailed understanding of TgGSK's localization, we performed 164 ultrastructure expansion microscopy (UExM), which allows for higher-resolution analysis. 165 As with standard IFA, we detect TgGSK within the nucleus. Interestingly, we also detect 166 TgGSK in areas of tubulin concentration, which are reminiscent of centrosomes, as well 167 as in the basal end of the parasites (Fig. 2E). Given the apparent localization of TgGSK 168 to the centrosome, we co-stained for TgGSK and Centrin 1. Indeed, TgGSK and Centrin 169 1 appear to localize to the same area, confirming TgGSK's concentration around the 170 centrosomes in both non-dividing and dividing parasites (Fig. 2F). In sum, IFA and UExM 171 analyses show that TgGSK has a dynamic localization dependent on the division stage 172 and is present at the centrosomes, suggesting that TgGSK may play a role in the 173 regulation of parasite replication.

174 TgGSK IS ESSENTIAL FOR PARASITE SURVIVAL

175 In a Toxoplasma genome-wide CRISPR screen, TgGSK was assigned a fitness value 176 of -4.12 [13], which suggests that this protein is essential and, therefore, a full knockout 177 would likely not be possible. Accordingly, we used a conditional knockdown approach to 178 investigate the function of TgGSK. For this purpose, we replaced the TgGSK promoter 179 with the tetracycline regulatable promoter (TATi) [14] in the GSK.3xHA strain using 180 CRISPR/Cas9 (Fig. 3A). IFA showed that TgGSK's localization is unchanged in the 181 resulting strain (TATi-GSK.3xHA) (Fig. 3B). Importantly, western blot analysis shows that 182 TgGSK expression is significantly reduced after 42 hours of treatment with the 183 tetracycline analog aTC, with near complete lack of protein at 72 hours (Fig. 3C). To

determine if TgGSK is required for parasite propagation, we performed a plaque assay with the parental and the TATi-GSK.3xHA strains with and without aTC. Consistent with the results of the CRISPR screen, TATi-GSK.3xHA parasites grown in the presence of aTC failed to form plaques (**Fig. 3D and E**), indicating that TgGSK is essential for parasite survival and propagation.

189 KNOCKDOWN OF TgGSK CAUSES ABNORMAL DIVISION PHENOTYPES

190 To explore the impact of TgGSK's loss on cell division, we performed IFAs on the TATi-191 GSK.3xHA strain grown with and without aTC. Staining for IMC3 reveals significant 192 division defects after 42 hours of aTC treatment, at which time point there is still some 193 TqGSK present, albeit at reduced levels (Fig. 4A). The most common phenotypes 194 observed include asynchronous division, incomplete nuclear segregation, and vacuoles 195 with parasites of abnormal shape (Fig. 4A). Quantification of 100 vacuoles over three 196 experimental replicates showed that, while 76.5%±2.2% of parasites appear to divide 197 normally in the absence of aTC, only 22.9%±3.18% of parasites exhibit normal division in 198 the presence of aTC (Fig. 4B). Among the vacuoles grown with aTC that show aberrant 199 division, 51.9%±1.5% exhibit asynchronous division, 28.6%±2.4% uneven segregation, 200 and 19.4%±2.9% abnormally shaped parasites (Fig. 4C). When parasites were allowed 201 to grow in aTC for 96 hours, there was an exacerbation of all phenotypes as the parasites 202 appear to continue dividing unsuccessfully (Fig. 4D). Notably, significant defects are seen 203 in parasite structure, with acetylated tubulin not being organized adequately into individual 204 fully closed parasites, and in nuclear segregation. Interestingly, there also seems to be a 205 defect in chromatin condensation, as shown by diffuse staining for the histone marker H2

(Fig. 4D). Overall, analysis of the TgGSK knockdown strain reveals a function for thiskinase in parasite division.

208 TgGSK KNOCKDOWN CAUSES CENTROSOME ABNORMALITIES

209 Since we detected TgGSK in the centrosomes and observed nuclear segregation 210 defects in TgGSK knockdown parasites, we asked if knockdown also caused centrosome 211 abnormalities. Indeed, using IFA staining for Centrin 1 and the mitotic spindle marker EB1, 212 we detect abnormalities in centrosome morphology upon TgGSK knockdown (Fig. 5A). 213 Specifically, we observe elongated centrosomes and some that seem unable to undergo 214 fission. We quantified the distribution of EB1 and centrin per parasite nucleus from our 215 IFA images using ImageJ. In a normal parasite culture, where around 30% of parasites 216 are dividing, the average amount of centrosomes per nucleus should be around 1.25, with 217 non-dividing parasites having one centrosome and dividing parasites having two [13]. 218 EB1 recruitment to the mitotic spindle accompanies centrosome duplication and is only 219 detectable in dividing parasites. While there was no significant difference in the number 220 of nuclei displaying EB1 foci between control and TgGSK knockdown parasites, there 221 was a significant difference in the number of centrosomes associated with each parasite 222 nucleus (Fig. 5B). The aTC-treated parasites had a lower average number of 223 centrosomes per nucleus, with some vacuoles displaying only one centrosome for four 224 parasite nuclei (Fig. 5B). Importantly, UExM confirmed the various phenotypes observed 225 by IFA (e.g. abnormal parasite structure and nuclear segregation defects) and highlighted 226 the abnormally shaped centrosomes at a higher resolution (Fig. 5C). Given the 227 centrosome's key role in parasite division and organellar segregation, the various

228 division-related phenotypes observed in the TgGSK knockdown parasites might be a 229 consequence of the centrosome segregation defects present in the mutant.

230 KNOCKDOWN OF TgGSK AFFECTS APICOPLAST DIVISION

It is known that the centrosomes also coordinate the segregation of other organelles, including the apicoplast [15]. Accordingly, we monitored apicoplast division and segregation by monitoring the apicoplast marker CPN60 (**Fig. 6A**). While parasites grown in the absence of aTC averaged around one apicoplast per parasite nucleus, aTC treated parasites averaged one apicoplast for every four parasite nuclei (**Fig. 6B**). Therefore, it appears that, in addition to abnormal nuclear division and segregation, apicoplast division and segregation are also disrupted in TgGSK knockdown parasites.

238 CENTROSOMAL, BASAL END, AND SPLICING PROTEINS SHOW TGGSK-DEPENDENT 239 PHOSPHORYLATION

240 Since TgGSK has the structure of a conventional kinase and is a member of the GSK 241 family, we performed global phosphoproteome analysis to determine proteins that have 242 TgGSK-dependent phosphorylation. We found 27 proteins with peptides that had 243 decreased phosphorylation and 40 proteins with peptides that had increased 244 phosphorylation in TgGSK knockdown parasites compared to parental (Log2FC>0.5, 245 p<0.05) (Fig. 7A and supplemental dataset 1). Using ToxoDB and StringDB, we 246 identified a few enriched pathways involving some of the 67 proteins displaying TgGSK-247 dependent phosphorylation. Three of the 27 proteins that had decreased phosphorylation 248 in the knockdown were RNA-binding or known splicing proteins (Fig. 7B). Another three 249 proteins with decreased phosphorylation were members of the MyoC glideosome 250 complex in the basal end of the parasite (Fig. 7B). Interestingly, of these six proteins of interest, five of them were differentially phosphorylated at an S/TXXXS/T motif, typical of
GSK substrates [16]. In addition to splicing and basal end proteins, the protein that had
the highest increase in phosphorylation in the knockdown was Centrin 2 (Fig. 7B). In
addition, analysis of the hypothetical proteins with TgGSK-dependent phosphorylation
revealed that 18% of those could be involved in RNA metabolism (Supplemental figure
Overall, phosphoproteome analysis suggests that TgGSK might influence the
regulation of proteins related to the centrosomes, basal complex, and splicing.

258 **TgGSK** INTERACTS AND IS REGULATED BY THE **GCN5**B COMPLEX

To further understand the role of TgGSK and the phenotypes associated with its loss, we performed immunoprecipitation followed by mass spectrometry to identify putative interacting partners. Interestingly, the top nine significant TgGSK interacting proteins were all in the nucleus, with eight of them being members of the GCN5b complex (Table 1 and supplemental dataset 2). The GCN5b complex is present in the nucleus, where it acetylates histones to open chromatin for gene transcription [17].

265 While it is plausible that TgGSK regulates members of the GCN5b complex via 266 phosphorylation, we did not identify any of them as part of the TgGSK-dependent 267 phosphoproteome. Accordingly, we explored whether, alternatively, the GCN5b complex 268 might regulate TgGSK. For this purpose, we treated parasites with Garcinol, an 269 acetyltransferase inhibitor that has been shown to specifically inhibit the histone 270 acetylation activity of GCN5b in *Toxoplasma* [18]. We treated GSK.3xHA parasites with 271 0, 2, or 4μ M of Garcinol overnight and monitored TgGSK localization by IFA. Interestingly, 272 we found that while there was no difference in TqGSK localization pattern after this 273 incubation time, the overall TqGSK signal was reduced in a Garcinol dose-dependent 274 manner, with the signal being absent after treatment with 4µM of Garcinol (Fig. 8A). To 275 confirm these results, we performed western blot analysis using the same Garcinol concentrations. We saw a reduction in TgGSK protein levels after treatment with 2uM of 276 277 Garcinol and a complete absence of protein after treatment with 4µM of Garcinol (Fig. 278 **8B)**. As a control, we also stained for aldolase, which did not seem to be affected across 279 all Garcinol concentrations tested (Fig. 8B). Interestingly, previously published data 280 showed that TgGSK expression level was not changed by Garcinol treatment, further 281 suggesting that TgGSK is regulated by GCN5b at the protein level [18]. Therefore, it 282 appears that TgGSK's protein expression or stability might be regulated by GCN5b.

283 **TgGSK** KNOCKDOWN CAUSES DIFFERENTIAL TRANSCRIPTION AND SPLICING

284 As we detected TqGSK in the nucleus and determined that it is in a complex with 285 transcription factors we investigated the effect of TgGSK knockdown on global 286 transcription. For this purpose, we performed RNAseg of the TATI-GSK.3xHA strain grown 287 for 18 hours with or without aTC. We used 18 hours, at which time point there is still 288 TgGSK protein, to avoid transcript changes associated with parasite death. We found that 289 there were 405 genes downregulated and 157 genes upregulated when TgGSK was 290 knocked down (Log2FC>0.5, p<0.05) (Fig. 9A and supplemental dataset 3). The 291 differentially regulated genes were members of many different pathways, with most of 292 them being either hypothetical or not falling into any enriched pathway (Fig. 9B). 293 Comparison of the dysregulated genes with those whose promoters are known to be 294 bound by the GCN5b complex did not reveal any enrichment for GCN5b regulated genes 295 [17].

296 As we identified several RNA processing proteins that had TgGSK-dependent 297 phosphorylation, we investigated the RNAseg data for splicing variants. Interestingly, we 298 found that 131 genes had exon differences in TgGSK knockdown parasites compared to 299 parental (Fig. 9C). Since this data was taken at 18 hours of aTC treatment, we infer that 300 these splicing differences were not due to parasite death. However, as an additional 301 control, we also analyzed exon differences in the transcriptome of the TgPPKL 302 knockdown parasites, which, like TqGSK, is essential, and its disruption causes division-303 related defects [7]. We found that compared to parental, only five genes were differentially 304 spliced (Fig. 9C). In addition, since the garcinol treatment resulted in loss of TgGSK, we 305 mined previously published transcriptomic data from garcinol-treated parasites [18] to 306 assess the effects on splicing. This analysis revealed 149 differentially spliced transcripts 307 in parasites treated with 4 µM Garcinol (Fig. 9C). Interestingly, 24 of these overlapped 308 with transcripts that were differentially spliced in the TgGSK knockdown (Fig. 9C). 309 Overall, these data suggest that TgGSK plays a role in proper splicing and this effect is 310 seen after both TgGSK transcriptional knockdown and protein degradation.

311 DISCUSSION

Members of the glycogen synthase kinase (GSK) protein family are serine/threonine kinases present in many organisms, including mammals and plants [19]. Most mammalian species encode for two GSKs, GSK3 α and GSK3 β , with hundreds of substrates that play roles in cellular proliferation and migration, glucose regulation, and apoptosis [20]. By contrast, most plant species encode 10 GSKs, which fall into four major groups and are involved in plant growth, development, and stress response [21]. All GSKs have a single conserved tyrosine residue that can be phosphorylated [22]. This residue 319 has been shown to interact in the binding pocket to control kinase regulation [23]. In 320 Arabidopsis, this tyrosine is dephosphorylated by the protein phosphatase BSU1, leading 321 to its inactivation [9]. Interestingly, Toxoplasma gondii, like other parasites of the phylum 322 Apicomplexa, encode for two putative GSKs (TGGT1 265330 and TGGT1 266910). 323 which are, by and large, uncharacterized. In the current study, we investigated the 324 localization and function of TGGT1 265330, which we refer to as TgGSK. We found that 325 TgGSK localization is dependent on the cell cycle and that depletion of TgGSK impacts 326 parasite daughter formation, nuclear segregation, centrosome dynamics and fission, and 327 apicoplast dynamics. Our findings also demonstrated that TgGSK might play a role in the 328 regulation of splicing and that its stability is dependent on the GCN5b lysine 329 acetyltransferase.

330 The asexual division of *Toxoplasma* occurs by the unusual process of endodyogeny, 331 which is defined by the gradual formation of two daughter parasites within a mature one. 332 The centrosome is an essential component of this division process, with each daughter 333 parasite forming around a centrosome, which undergoes fission in early S phase [25]. 334 The centrosome has been shown to nucleate spindle microtubules during mitosis [25]. 335 Later, during cytokinesis, the centrosome organizes the scaffolding of daughter cell 336 components to allow for nuclear fission and correct organelle segregation into daughter 337 parasites [25]. One of the organelles that is associated with the centrosomes during 338 division is the apicoplast, a non-photosynthetic plastid organelle [15]. Before apicoplast 339 fission, the organelle elongates, with each end interacting with a centrosome. Therefore, 340 the centrosomes act to correctly orient the apicoplast to allow for proper fission. By UExM, 341 we were able to visualize TgGSK at the centrosomes. In addition, knockdown of TgGSK 342 led to defects in centrosome number, with not every parasite nucleus having an 343 associated centrosome. We also observed defects in centrosome duplication, with 344 centrosomes that appeared to be duplicated but unable to undergo fission. These 345 centrosome abnormalities could underlie the other division phenotypes we observe, such 346 as nuclear and apicoplast segregation defects. Interestingly, we also observed TgGSK-347 dependent phosphorylation of Centrin 2, a protein that is localized to the centrosomes 348 and has been shown to be essential for parasite division and correct centrosome 349 segregation [26]. In our study, Centrin 2 phosphorylation was increased during TgGSK 350 knockdown, suggesting that it is not a TgGSK substrate and that its regulation of Centrin 351 2 is indirect. Interestingly, Centrin 2 has also been shown to be localized to the basal body 352 [26]. As we also detect TgGSK within the basal end of the parasite, it is unclear whether 353 the functional relationship between these two proteins occurs at the centrosome or in the 354 basal body.

355 A role for GSKs in centrosome regulation is also observed in other organisms. For 356 example, inhibition of GSK3^β in human cancer cells results in centrosome dysregulation 357 and abnormal mitosis [27]. Similarly, in HeLa cells, GSK3β plays a role in the organization 358 of microtubule arrays derived from the centrosomes [28]. The knockdown of GSK3B 359 reduced the amount of centrosomally focused microtubules and caused the 360 mislocalization of various centrosomal proteins [28]. Though recruitment of the mitotic 361 spindle binding protein EB1 is not altered in the absence of TgGSK, further studies would 362 need to be done in Toxoplasma to determine if centrosomal proteins or mitotic factors are 363 negatively affected in the absence of TgGSK.

364 Intriguingly, we determined that the phosphorylation state of three RNA-binding 365 proteins (TGGT1 264610, TGGT1 275480, and TGGT1 304630) are altered in the 366 absence of TqGSK. While TGGT1 264610 and TGGT1 304630 are characterized as 367 putative RNA binding proteins in *Toxoplasma*, StringDB analysis characterized them as 368 proteins related to splicing. TGGT1 275480 is homologous to the pre-splicing factor 369 CEF1. Interestingly, all three of these proteins contain the S/TXXXS/T motif, suggesting 370 that they may be direct substrates of TgGSK [17]. As with GSKs in the centrosomes, there 371 is evidence from other organisms highlighting the potential role GSKs play in splicing. A 372 study in mouse embryonic stem cells found that inhibition of GSK3 altered the splicing of 373 188 mRNAs [29]. GSK was also shown to interact with multiple SR family splicing proteins 374 and various other RNA-binding proteins [29]. In human T-cells, phosphorylation of the 375 nuclear RNA biogenesis protein PSF by GSK3 controls the alternative splicing of CD45 376 [30]. While there is no direct evidence for a role in splicing for the plant GSK homolog 377 BIN2, mapping of the BIN2 signaling network identified 13 RNA processing proteins [31]. 378 Thus, it is plausible that *Toxoplasma* TgGSK directly or indirectly regulates the function 379 of RNA processing proteins. Consistent with this idea, we observed an increase in 380 alternatively spliced transcripts upon knockdown of TgGSK.

One of the most intriguing findings of our studies is the possible regulation of TgGSK by the lysine acetyltransferase GCN5b. We observed that TgGSK interacts with a wellcharacterized GCN5b-containing complex. *Toxoplasma* encodes for two GCN5 proteins, with GCN5b being essential for parasite viability [17]. The GCN5b complex is in the nucleus, where it performs its primary function of acetylating histones [17]. GCN5b has been shown to be present in a complex that includes the ADA2a adaptor protein and various plant-like AP2 transcription factors [32]. There appear to be two distinct stable
GCN5b-containing complexes in *Toxoplasma*, one which includes the putative
transcription factors AP2X8 and AP2IX7 and the other which includes AP2XII4 and
AP2VIIa5 [32]. Our results indicate that TgGSK interacts with the complex that includes
AP2X8 and AP2IX7 (Table 1). Interestingly, previous characterization of the *Toxoplasma*GCN5b complexes identified TgGSK as an interactor, which validates the interaction
between TgGSK and this complex [32].

394 Not only did we detect a physical interaction between TgGSK and the GCN5b 395 complex, but we also observed a specific loss of TgGSK upon GCN5b inhibition by 396 Garcinol. These results bring up the possibility that GCN5b regulates TgGSK via 397 acetylation. While acetylation of histones is canonical for histone acetyltransferases, there 398 have been many studies showing acetylation of non-histone proteins in various organisms 399 [33,34]. Non-histone protein acetylation has been found to play a broad diversity of roles, 400 including protein folding and stability [35]. Consistent with a possible role of acetylation in 401 the regulation of TgGSK, a global acetylome study in Toxoplasma identified lysine 402 acetylation on TgGSK at residue K13 in extracellular parasites. Intriguingly, a whole 403 proteome mapping of ubiquitination showed that K13 is also ubiquitinated [36]. Cross-talk 404 between acetylation and ubiguitination of the same lysine is well known and is of particular 405 importance in the context of protein stability, where lysine acetylation can block 406 proteasome-mediated degradation by lysine acetylation [37]. Thus, our data points to a 407 novel mechanism of TgGSK regulation via the competition between acetylation and 408 ubiquitination (Fig. 10). We propose that TgGSK regulation could involve its acetylation 409 within the nucleus by GCN5b at residue K13 before being trafficked to the cytosol and

centrosomes in preparation for cell division. Once division has finished, TgGSK could be
deacetylated and ubiquitinated at K13, causing its degradation (Fig. 10). Further studies
focused on whether K13 in TgGSK plays a direct role in the stability and function of the
protein are thus warranted as it would elucidate a novel mechanism of GSK regulation.

414 While phosphorylation in the activation loop is the best understood mechanism by 415 which GSKs are regulated, a role for acetylation has also been reported. For example, 416 mammalian GSK3 β is acetylated at residue K183, and this acetylation is involved in 417 kinase regulation [38]. A study of GSK3β in Alzheimer's disease found that acetylation of 418 GSK3ß at residue K15 (the equivalent of TgGSK K13) led to the over-activation of the 419 kinase, which led to the promotion of tau hyperphosphorylation and an increase in 420 disease phenotypes [39]. In plants, HDAC6 removes acetylation on the GSK homolog 421 BIN2 at residue K186 to inhibit kinase activity and enhance brassinosteroid signaling [40]. 422 That study also showed that the acetylation and phosphorylation sites are both in the 423 binding pocket and interact to regulate the kinase activity of BIN2 [40]. Interestingly, the 424 residue shown to be acetylated in plants and mammals (K186 and K183, respectively) is 425 conserved in *Toxoplasma*, but the acetylome data does not show that this residue is 426 modified [41].

Overall, the findings in this study highlight the various roles of TgGSK in *Toxoplasma*. As BIN2 and mammalian GSKs have been shown to have hundreds of substrates with many different biological functions, the broad range of possible TgGSK functions uncovered here is not surprising. While likely roles for TgGSK in the centrosome and splicing have been identified through this work, further studies are warranted to understand the mechanistic underpinning of these functions. The critical importance of

- 433 this essential kinase underscores its strong potential as a target for antiparasitic
- 434 intervention.

435

436 MATERIALS AND METHODS

437 Parasite strains and reagents

438 All parasite strains used in this study derived from the strain RH lacking HXGPRT and

- 439 Ku80 (RH $\Delta ku80\Delta hxgprt$, referred to as $\Delta ku80$) [42]. Parasites were maintained in human
- 440 foreskin fibroblasts (HFF) with standard growth medium as previously described [43].

441 **Phylogenetic analysis**

The GSKs used in the phylogenetic analysis include TgGSK (EPT27729), PfGSK
(XP_001351197), AtBIN2 (Q39011), HsGSK3α (P49840), and HsGSK3β (P49841). Full
protein sequence alignment and phylogenetic analysis were performed using Clustal
Omega.

446 **Generation of parasite lines**

447 All primers used for molecular cloning are listed in supplemental table 1. To add a 448 hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag to the endogenous TgGSK gene, we amplified the 3xHA-449 DHFR [44] amplicon from the LIC-3xHA-DHFR plasmid using primers that allowed for 450 recombination at the 5'end with sequences immediately upstream of the stop codon and 451 at the 3'end with sequences after the Cas9 cutting site. To direct these templates to the 452 correct locus, we modified the plasmid pSag1-Cas9-U6-sgUPRT [45] using Q5 Site-453 Directed Mutagenesis Kit (NEB) to replace the UPRT guide RNA sequence within the 454 plasmid to a guide RNA sequence of the target gene. The CRISPR/Cas9 plasmid and the 455 PCR amplicon were transfected into parental parasites using the Lonza Nucleofector and 456 the manufacturer's suggested protocols. Transfected parasites were selected using 457 pyrimethamine and cloned by limiting dilution as previously described [46].

458 To generate the TgGSK conditional knockdown strain, we utilized a CRISPR-Cas9 459 mediated strategy to introduce a tet-OFF cassette [47], which includes a transactivator (TATi) protein, the drug-selective marker HXGPRT, and a tet response element (TRE) 460 461 followed by the Sag1 5' UTR, immediately upstream of the TgGSK gene start codon. 462 Specifically, a guide RNA targeting the TgGSK gene locus downstream of the start codon 463 was constructed by mutating the plasmid pSag1-Cas9-pU6-sgUPRT [45] using the Q5 464 mutagenesis kit. The tet-OFF cassette was amplified from the vector pT8TATi-HXGPRT-465 tetO7S1 [47]. About 2 µg of the plasmid pSag1-Cas9-U6-sgGSK-KD and the PCR 466 amplicon from 200 µl of PCR reactions with 30 cycles were transfected into the TqGSK-467 3xHA parasites using a Lonza nucleofector. Transfected parasites were then selected 468 with 50 mg/mL mycophenolic acid (MPS) and xanthine and cloned by limiting dilution. 469 Precise integration of the tet-OFF cassette was validated by PCR. The resulting strain 470 was designated as TATi-GSK.3xHA. To induce knockdown of GSK, this strain was grown 471 in 1µM of anhydrotetracycline (aTC) from Sigma Aldrich for the described length of time.

472 Plaque assays

Standard plaque assays were performed as previously described [43]. Briefly, 500
parasites of each strain were seeded into host cell monolayers grown in 12-well plates,
and cultures were then grown for six days. Cultures were then fixed with methanol and
stained with crystal violet. Host cell plaques were quantified as previously described [43].

477 Immunofluorescence assays

Immunofluorescence assays (IFAs) were performed as previously described [43]. The
primary antibodies used include rabbit anti-HA (Cell Signaling Technologies), rat antiIMC3 (provided by Dr. Marc-Jan Gubbels, Boston College), mouse anti-centrin 1 (Cell

481 Signaling Technologies), and mouse anti-acetylated tubulin (Sigma Aldrich) at a 482 concentration of 1:1000; guinea pig anti-TgEB1 (provided by Dr. Marc-Jan Gubbels, 483 Boston College) at a concentration of 1:3000; rabbit anti-TgH2Bz (provided by Dr. Laura 484 Vanagas and Dr. Sergio Angel, INTECH-Chascomus) at a concentration of 1:500; and 485 rabbit anti-Cpn60 (provided by Dr. Erica Dos Santos Martins, UFMG) at a concentration 486 of 1:300. Secondary antibodies used include Alexa Fluor 405, 488, 594, and 647 487 (Invitrogen) as well as DAPI (Thermo Fischer), all at 1:1000 or 1:2000. For images in 488 figures 2B and C, 3B, 4A, and 9A, a Nikon Eclipse E100080i microscope with NIS 489 Elements AR 3.0 software was used for imaging, followed by image analysis in ImageJ. 490 For images in figures 4D, 5A, and 6A, a Zeiss LSM800 confocal microscope with Zeiss 491 ZEN blue v2.0 and Huygens Professional v19.10.0p2 software was used for 492 deconvolution, followed by image analysis in ImageJ.

Quantification of the GSK-HA signal in the nucleus and cytoplasm was performed by imaging 20 non-dividing vacuoles and 20 in late division using a Nikon Eclipse E100080i microscope with NIS Elements AR 3.0 software. Using ImageJ, fluorescent intensity was taken along a line in the cytosol and nucleus of a parasite in each vacuole before a ratio of nuclear to cytosolic fluorescent intensity was calculated for each vacuole. Figure 2D was made using GraphPad Prism software, and statistical analysis was performed using a student's t-test.

500 Ultrastructure expansion microscopy (UExM)

Parasites were grown on HFF monolayers on round coverslips and then fixed for 20
minutes in 4% paraformaldehyde. Coverslips were then treated with a 1.4% formaldehyde
and 2% acrylamide solution in PBS overnight. Coverslips were inverted onto a solution of

504 5 µL 10% APS, 5 µL 10% TEMED, and 35 µL monomer solution (21% sodium acrylate 505 solution, 28% acrylamide, 6% BIS, 11% 10x PBS) in a humid chamber and incubated on 506 ice for five minutes and then at 37°C for one hour. Each gel and coverslip were then put 507 in 2 mL of denaturation buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris in water, pH 9) 508 on the rocker for 15 minutes to remove the gel from the coverslip. Each gel was then 509 placed in an Eppendorf tube with 1.5 mL of denaturation buffer and incubated at 95°C for 510 90 minutes. Each gel was then incubated three times in 25 mL of ddH₂O for 30 minutes 511 before being washed two times with 20 mL of 1x PBS for 15 minutes. Each gel was then 512 blocked for 30 minutes in 3% BSA/PBS before incubation overnight with 1 mL primary 513 antibody solution in 3% BSA/PBS at room temperature on the rocker. Gels were washed 514 three times with 2 mL PBS-T for 10 minutes before incubation with 1 mL secondary 515 antibody solution in PBS for 2.5 hours. Following another three PBS-T washes, gels were 516 incubated again three times in 25 mL ddH₂O for 30 minutes. Gels were then cut using the 517 opened top of a 15 mL falcon tube and placed in 35mm Cellvis coverslip bottomed dishes 518 that had been treated with poly-D-lysine. Primary antibodies used include rabbit anti-519 Toxoplasma tubulin (provided by Dr. Michael Reese, UT Southwestern), rabbit anti-centrin 520 1, and mouse anti-HA at a concentration of 1:500. DRAQ5 (1:500) and NHS Ester (1:250) 521 were also used to visualize nuclear material and overall protein, respectively. Secondaries 522 used include Alexa Flour 488 and 594 at a concentration of 1:500. Imaging was performed 523 using a Zeiss LSM900 microscope with Zeiss ZEN Blue software before image analysis 524 using ImageJ.

525 Western blots

Western blots were performed as described previously [43]. The primary antibodies used include rabbit anti-HA (Cell Signaling), mouse anti-Sag1 (Invitrogen), and mouse anti-aldolase. The secondary antibodies utilized were HRP-labeled Anti-Mouse and Anti-Rabbit IgG. The primary antibodies were used at a dilution of 1:5,000, while the secondary antibodies were used at a dilution of 1:10,000. Imaging of the blot was performed using a ProteinSimple system.

532 Immunoprecipitation

533 Immunoprecipitation was performed as previously described with some modifications 534 [46]. For immunoprecipitation from whole-parasite lysate, intracellular parasites of the 535 GSK.3xHA and Ku80 strains were grown for 18 hours in host cells. Parasites were 536 harvested with host cells by scraping in cold PBS and centrifugation at 2000 rcf for 5 537 minutes at 4°C. Cells were lysed with 500 µL RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with 5µL 538 protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific) at 4°C for one hour. Each 539 sample was sonicated three times and centrifuged at maximum speed for 10 minutes at 540 4°C. The supernatant of each sample was incubated with mouse IgG magnetic beads for 541 one hour at 4°C for pre-cleaning. Samples were then incubated with rabbit HA magnetic 542 beads (Thermo Scientific) overnight at 4°C. After washing with RIPA lysis buffer and PBS, 543 the beads were submitted to the Indiana University School of Medicine Proteomics Core 544 facility for liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS-MS) 545 analysis.

546 Global transcriptomic analysis

547 TATI-GSK.3xHA parasites were grown for 18 hours with or without aTC in host cells. 548 Parasites were harvested with host cells by scraping in cold PBS, followed by 549 centrifugation at 2000 rcf for five minutes at 4°C. The pellet was passed through a syringe 550 in 10 mL PBS to release parasites from host cells, and the samples were centrifuged 551 again. The pellet was treated with 1 mL TRIZOL for five minutes at room temperature 552 before extracting RNA with 200 µL of chloroform and centrifuging at 12,000 rcf for 15 553 minutes at 4°C. The aqueous phase was again treated with 500 µL of chloroform and 554 centrifuged to extract as much RNA as possible. The aqueous phase was then mixed with 555 500 µL of isopropanol and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes before 556 centrifuging at 12,000 rcf for 10 minutes. The RNA was washed with 1 mL 75% ethanol 557 and again centrifuged at 7,500 rcf for five minutes. The resulting RNA pellet was dried 558 and resuspended in 50 µL of nuclease-free water. Each condition was performed in 559 triplicate. Samples were stored at -80°C before being sent to AZENTA for library 560 construction and sequencing utilizing Illumina Next Generation Sequencing technology. 561 For each sample, ~30 M 2x150 bp pair-end reads were obtained. The GALAXY online 562 platform was used to perform data analysis. Specifically, the quality of the sequencing 563 data was checked using FastQC, and adapter sequences were trimmed using Trim 564 Galore. Hisat2 and htseq-count were separately employed to map reads to the genome 565 and count the reads of each transcript. DEseq2 was used to analyze differential gene 566 expression, and DEXseq was utilized to analyze whether the knockdown of TgGSK 567 affects alternative splicing. Pathway analysis was done through a combination of ToxoDB 568 and StringDB.

569 **Global phosphoproteomics**

570 TATI-GSK.3xHA parasites were grown for 24 hours with or without aTC in host cells. 571 Parasites were harvested via scraping in cold PBS and centrifuged at 2000 rcf for five 572 minutes at 4°C. Parasites were released from host cells using a syringe with a 27-gauge 573 needle, and the samples were centrifuged again. Each condition was performed in 574 triplicate. The parasite pellets were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C 575 before being sent to the Indiana University School of Medicine Proteomics Core for global 576 phosphoproteome analysis, and they performed sample preparation and analysis as 577 described previously [6]. Protein function identification and pathway information were 578 determined using ToxoDB and StringDB.

579 Garcinol assays

580 GSK.3xHA parasites were seeded simultaneously with 2 or 4 µM Garcinol (BOC 581 Sciences) in 1% serum media for 18 hours. Immunofluorescence analysis and western 582 blots were done as described above.

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ID number	Protein annotation
TgGT1_214960	AP2X-8
TgGT1_217050	ADA2a
TgGT1_226620	Hypothetical protein
TgGT1_229640	Hypothetical protein
TgGT1_241850	Hypothetical protein
TgGT1_243440	GCN5b
TgGT1_274180	Hypothetical protein
TgGT1_280590	Hypothetical protein
TgGT1_290630	AP2IX-7

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742 Table 1. TgGSK interactors. ID number and annotation of putative interactors of TgGSK

identified in both IPs performed with a ratio of experimental over control higher than 5.

744 Members of the GCN5b complex are shown in grey.



Figure 1. TgGSK is closely related to plant BIN2. A. Graphical representation of the TgGSK protein, with the relative position of the catalytic domain (blue), ATP binding site (magenta), and active site (yellow). Conserved acetylation (K76) and phosphorylation (Y211) sites are shown. B. Alignment of regions containing the conserved lysine and tyrosine from GSKs from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Q39011), *Homo sapiens* (P49841, P49840), *Toxoplasma gondii* (EPT27729), and *Plasmodium falciparum* (XP_001351197) performed by Clustal Omega. C. Phylogenetic analysis of GSKs derived from Clustal Omega alignment.



Figure 2. TgGSK has a dynamic, cell cycle-dependent localization. A. Western blot of protein extract from parasites in which the endogenous TgGSK includes a 3xHA epitope tag. Blots were stained for HA (top) and Sag 1 (bottom). B and C. Parasites of the TgGSK.3xHA strain were grown intracellularly for 24 hours before performing IFA using antibodies against HA and IMC3, and the DNA stain DAPI. In C, parasites in the top panels are not dividing, while those in the bottom panel are undergoing division. D.

Quantification of the fluorescent intensity ratio of nucleus to cytosol in non-dividing and dividing parasites; n=20 per condition, p<0.0005. E. Expansion microscopy of a non-dividing parasite staining for *Toxoplasma* tubulin (magenta), HA (yellow), and DRAQ5 (cyan, color in overlay) to visualize parasite structure and centrosomes, TgGSK, and nuclear material, respectively. A single slice zoomed image of the centrosomes is shown to closer visualize TgGSK localization to this organelle. F. Expansion microscopy of four dividing parasites in a vacuole staining for Centrin 1 and HA to visualize TgGSK's colocalization with the centrosomes. Arrowhead shows an example of TgGSK colocalized with a centrosome.



Figure 3. TgGSK is essential for propagation in tissue culture. A. Graphical representation of the strategy used to engineer a TgGSK conditional knockdown strain using the TATi tetracycline regulatable system. B. Parasites of the TATi-GSK.3xHA strain were grown in culture for 24 hours to perform IFA with antibodies against IMC3 and HA and the DNA stain DAPI without the addition of aTC. C. Western blot of protein extract from TATi-GSK.3xHA parasites grown in no aTC (-) or in aTC for 24, 42, or 72 hours. Blots were probed for HA to monitor TgGSK or Sag1 as loading control. D. Plaque assay of parental (GSK.3xHA) and TATi-GSK.3xHA knockdown parasites incubated for 6 days with or without aTC E. Quantification of plaque assay. ****: p<0.0005, ***: p<0.005, ns: no significance, n=9 wells per condition (3 biological replicates with 3 experimental replicates each).



Figure 4. Knockdown of TgGSK causes abnormal division phenotypes. A. IFA of TgGSK knockdown parasites after 42 hours of incubation with aTC. IMC3, HA, and DAPI staining visualize mother and daughter cell IMC, TgGSK, and nuclear material, respectively. Representatives of the main phenotypes observed are shown B. Quantification of the percentage of normal vacuoles in TATi-GSK parasites with and without 42-hour incubation with aTC. N= 3, 100 total parasites over the replicates. The

error percentage shown is the standard deviation. C. Quantification of the different division phenotypes seen after 42 hours of TgGSK knockdown. D. IFA showing division phenotypes of TgGSK knockdown parasites after 96 hours of incubation with aTC. Acetylated tubulin, DAPI, and H2Bz staining visualize parasite structure, nuclear material, and histones, respectively. Arrowheads point to diffuse nuclear material and H2 histone.



Figure 5. TgGSK knockdown parasites have a centrosome duplication defect. A. IFA TATI-GSK parasites treated with aTC for 96 hours stained for centrin 1 (centrosomes) and EB1 mitotic spindles). Outlined boxes show parasites with abnormally dividing centrosomes. B. Quantification of centrin and EB1 signal in (A) measuring distribution of signal per parasite nucleus. N= 3 replicates with 100 vacuoles quantified. Statistical analysis: two-tailed t-test with Welsh's correction. *: p<0.05 ns: no significance. C.

Expansion microscopy of TATi-GSK parasites treated with aTC for 42 hours. Arrows

indicate elongated centrosomes that seem unable to undergo fission.



A. IFA of TATi-GSK parasites after 96 hours of aTC treatment stained for the apicoplast marker CPN60. IMC1 and DAPI staining are also used to visualize parasite structure and

nuclear material. B. Quantification of the number of apicoplast foci per parasite nucleus in TgGSK knockdown versus control parasites. ****: p<0.0005 n=3 experimental replicates, 100 total parasites quantified.



Figure 7. Global Phosphoproteome analysis reveals TgGSK-dependent phosphorylation events. A. Number of proteins that had increased or decreased phosphorylation after 24 hours of TgGSK knockdown. One protein had peptides with both increased and decreased phosphorylation. B. Volcano plot of all differentially phosphorylated proteins with a log2fold change >0.5 and p<0.05. Splicing, myoC glideosome, and centrosome proteins are highlighted.



Figure 8. Acetylation by GCN5b stabilizes TgGSK. A. IFA of non-dividing GSK.3xHA parasites treated with 0, 2, or 4 µM Garcinol for 18 hours. Staining was done for IMC3, HA, and DAPI to visualize IMC, TgGSK, and nuclear material, respectively. B. Western blot analysis of TgGSK protein levels after 18 hours of Garcinol treatment. The cytosolic protein aldolase was used as a control.



Figure 9. Global transcriptome analysis of TgGSK knockdown parasites. A. Volcano plot showing all differentially transcribed genes with a log2fold change >0.5 and p<0.05 after 18 hours of TgGSK knockdown. B. Biological processes with enriched transcriptome changes as identified by ToxoDB and StringDB. C. Genes that were differentially spliced after TgGSK knockdown, TgPPKL knockdown, and treatment with 4 µM Garcinol.



Figure 10. Model of the regulation and function of TgGSK. A preliminary model of TgGSK in non-dividing and dividing parasites. Image created using Biorender.

Purpose	Name	Sequence
Generate pSag1-Cas9- U6-sgGSK-TG-HXG	GSK-tg-sgRNA.For	GTCTTTTTTGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
CRSPR/Cas9 plasmid for endogeneous tagging	GSK-tg-sgRNA.Rev	CGACAGCTGCAACTTGACATCCCCATTTAC
Amplify 3xHA-DHFR cassette from the plasmid pl IC-3xHA-	GSK-TG-insert.For	ATGTATTCCGAAGCATATCGCCAGTGCAAACAACC GTGGCTTAATTAAAATTGGAAGTGGAGG
DHFR	GSK-TG-insert.Rev	AGCATAAGAGAAGCTCCCCATCCCTAGTAGGTGTA GGGAGGTTTTCCCAGTCACGACG
Generate pSag1-Cas9- U6-sgGSK-TATI-HXG	GSK-TATI- sgRNA.For	AAGAAGGGGTGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
for endogeneous tagging	GSK-TATI- sgRNA.Rev	TCCTTCGTCCAACTTGACATCCCCATTTAC
Amplify TATi cassette from the plasmd 5'COR-	GSK-TATI-insert.For	CACTCATCTTTTCCTGGCCTTTGTCGAGAAGGCAG AAGTCTCTTCTCATGTTTGCGGATCCG
tetO7S1mycNtCOR.dna	GSK-TATI- insert.Rev	CTACTCTTCTGAGCAGCTGCGGGATCGTACTGCG GGTCCGGCATTTTGATATCCCTAGGAATTCACTC

Supplemental table 1. Primers used in this work. Sequences are 5' to 3'.



Supplemental figure S1. Classification of hypothetical proteins with TgGSKdependent phosphopeptides. Hypothetical proteins with peptides differentially phosphorylated in the knockdown vs the parental were analyzed based on annotations in the *Toxoplasma* genome database or homology to proteins in other Apicomplexan species. Additionally, the protein domains were analyzed based on known conserved functions. Some of these proteins remained classified as hypothetical.