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Importance of *Angomonas deanei* KAP4 for kDNA arrangement, cell division and maintenance of the host-bacterium relationship

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32 Abstract

Angomonas deanei coevolves in a mutualistic relationship with a symbiotic bacterium 33 that divides in synchronicity with other host cell structures. Trypanosomatid 34 mitochondrial DNA is contained in the kinetoplast and is composed of thousands of 35 36 interlocked DNA circles (kDNA). The arrangement of kDNA is related the presence of 37 histone-like proteins, known as KAPs (kinetoplast-associated proteins), that neutralize 38 the negatively charged kDNA, thereby affecting the activity of mitochondrial enzymes involved in replication, transcription and repair. In this study, CRISPR-Cas9 was used to 39 40 delete both alleles of the A. deanei KAP4 gene. Gene-deficient mutants exhibited high compaction of the kDNA network and displayed atypical phenotypes, such as the 41 42 appearance of a filamentous symbionts, cells containing two nuclei and one kinetoplast, and division blocks. Treatment with cisplatin and UV showed that $\Delta kap4$ null mutants 43 were not more sensitive to DNA damage and repair than wild-type cells. Notably, lesions 44 45 caused by these genotoxic agents in the mitochondrial DNA could be repaired, suggesting that the kDNA in the kinetoplast of trypanosomatids has unique repair mechanisms. 46 Taken together, our data indicate that although KAP4 is not an essential protein, it plays 47 48 important roles in kDNA arrangement and replication, as well as in the maintenance of symbiosis. 49

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51 Key words: cell division, DNA damage and repair, genotoxic agents, Kinetoplast
52 Associated Protein (KAPs), kDNA, symbiont-bearing trypanosomatids.

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62 Introduction

63 The kinetoplast contains the mitochondrial DNA (kDNA) of trypanosomatids, 64 which is arranged in a network of several thousand minicircles categorized into different classes and several dozen maxicircles that are virtually identical. Minicircles (0.5 - 10 kb) 65 66 are physically connected to each other and also to maxicircles (20 - 40 kb) that are usually interwoven into the network periphery^{1,2}. Maxicircle sequences encode components of 67 the respiratory chain and ribosomal proteins, but first, posttranscriptional editing of the 68 generated mRNA is required. This process is mediated in part by small noncoding guide 69 RNAs (gRNAs) that are transcribed from minicircles^{3,4}. The kDNA network is linked to 70 the basal body through proteins that compose the tripartite attachment complex $(TAC)^5$. 71 72 Usually, loss of kDNA is associated with mitochondrial dysfunction, which makes this structure a potential chemotherapy target and diagnostic marker for trypanosomiasis^{6,7,8}. 73

74 In contrast to most eukaryotes, mitochondrial DNA replication in trypanosomatids is regulated during the cell cycle, initiating immediately before nuclear DNA replication 75 in S phase followed by network scission and kinetoplast division during the G2 phase. 76 The duplication cycle of the kinetoplast occurs in four steps: kDNA synthesis; scission, 77 78 when kDNA is cleaved into two networks; separation; and partitioning of kinetoplast between the daughter cells during cytokinesis⁹. The kDNA network replication is a 79 complex and unusual mechanism that involves various enzymes, such as the 80 mitochondrial topoisomerase II (mtTopo II), which detaches covalently closed 81 minicircles from the network. Minicircle replication initiates at the kinetoflagellar zone 82 (KFZ), which comprises the region between the kDNA facing the basal body and the 83 inner mitochondrial membrane. At the KFZ, the minicircles duplicate as theta structures, 84 by UMSBP, Pol 1B, and other proteins and subsequently migrate to the antipodal sites. 85 At this kinetoplast region, a primase enables the synthesis initiation of new DNA 86 fragments following kDNA replication that involves more than 100 enzymes, such as 87 universal minicircle sequence-binding protein (UMSBP) and polymerases. Next, each 88 newly replicated minicircle is reattached to the network by the mtTopoII, maintaining at 89 least one nick/gap that is filled by proteins, such as Pol β -PAK and DNA ligase k α , prior to 90 91 the network scission. Later, the duplicated network is separated by the basal body 92 distance, since the kDNA is connected to it via the TAC structure. This minicircle replication model was primarily based on findings obtained with Trypanosoma brucei 93 and *Crithidia fasciculata*⁴. 94

The kDNA arrangement varies according to species and developmental stages, 95 ranging from densely packed fibers to a looser distribution in the kinetoplast matrix^{10,11,12}. 96 97 The proteins involved in this intriguing phenomenon have not been fully characterized. Kinetoplast-associated proteins (KAPs) are homologous to small basic histone H1-like 98 proteins and nonhistone high-mobility group (HMG) box-containing proteins. KAPs have 99 100 low molecular weights, are highly basic, are rich in alanine and lysine residues and contain a cleavable nine amino acid presequence involved in protein import to the 101 kinetoplast in their amino-terminal region¹³. KAPs are involved in kDNA duplication, 102 transcription, packing and topological remodeling^{14,15,16}. KAPs can also bind to other 103 proteins, such as UMSBP; in this case, they promote kDNA unpacking and facilitate the 104 105 access of mtTopoII, which liberates minicircles from the network for replication¹⁷.

106 The first model used to study the roles played by KAPs was the monoxenic 107 Crithidia fasciculata, where the disruption of the KAP1 gene generated viable cells with 108 a phenotype of highly condensed kDNA fibers, which was similar to that observed when trypanosomatids were treated with nalidixic acid, an inhibitor of prokaryote 109 topoisomerase $II^{15,18}$. When both C. fasciculata alleles for KAP2 and KAP3 were 110 disrupted separately, no detectable phenotypes were generated, and the same lack of 111 phenotypes was observed to heterozygous cells $(kap 2/3^{+/-})$, indicating a redundant 112 function for these two encoded proteins. However, the double-knockout cells had notably 113 slow proliferation, atypical cell morphology, an increased copy number of mRNAs 114 encoding for ATPase and a significantly reduced respiration¹⁵. These first findings 115 obtained with knockout cells indicated that KAPs were involved in distinct functions, 116 117 such as kDNA arrangement and metabolism. Deletion of the KAP3 gene was also 118 performed in Trypanosoma cruzi by homologous recombination. Such null mutants did not exhibit changes in cell proliferation, differentiation, kDNA arrangement and 119 infectivity, suggesting that this KAP is not essential for this parasite¹⁹. Later, the RNAi 120 system was used to knockdown proteins associated with kDNA in Trypanosoma brucei. 121 122 Downregulation of KAP6 promoted cell growth arrest and inhibition of covalently closed minicircle release, resulting in loss, shrinkage and disorganization of kDNA²⁰. 123

124 Symbiont-harboring trypanosomatids (SHTs), such as *Angomonas deanei* 125 (previously classified as *Crithidia deanei*²¹), coevolve in a mutualist relationship with a 126 single bacterium that divides in synchronicity with other host cell structures and is usually 127 observed close to the nucleus. During the protozoan cell cycle, the bacterium is the first

DNA-containing structure to divide, followed by the kinetoplast and the nucleus^{22,23,24}. 128 The symbiont is a gram-negative of the Alcaligenaceae family that contains a reduced 129 genome, is enclosed by two membranes and has a very reduced peptidoglycan layer^{25,26,27}. 130 Such species has been used to study the kinetoplast which, in these cells, presents atypical 131 shapes and a looser kDNA arrangement, which is more susceptible to topoisomerase 132 inhibitors and DNA-binding drugs^{11,18,28,29}. Recently, phylogenetic analysis showed that 133 SHTs present an expanded repertoire of nuclear encoded KAPs and that genes for KAP4 134 and KAP7 are present in all trypanosomatid species analyzed to date¹¹. 135

136 While mitochondrial DNA is subjected to the same damage sources as nuclear DNA, the reactive oxygen species (ROS) generated by the oxidative phosphorylation 137 138 metabolism usually results in higher mutation rates in the mtDNA than does damage caused to nuclear DNA. In mammalian cells, base excision repair has been described as 139 140 a restoration mechanism in the mitochondrion with the identification of several glycosylases, such as MYH, NEIL1, NEIL2 and UNG1, that are involved in the response 141 of mtDNA to oxidative damage^{30,31,32,33}. Other proteins, such as APE1, APE2, FEN1, and 142 143 DNA2, were also detected, suggesting that all steps of this repair mechanism are present in the mitochondria of mammalians^{34,35,36,37,38}. Mismatch removal activity was also 144 identified in this organelle ³⁹, although it has not been determined which proteins are 145 involved in this process and whether the same pathway is active in the nucleus. However, 146 the most striking and unexpected feature in mammalian cells is the lack of DNA repair 147 mechanisms to address UV- and cisplatin-induced lesions on the mtDNA⁴⁰⁻⁴². 148

149 In trypanosomatids, some proteins involved in DNA repair have been described in both nuclear DNA and in kDNA metabolism. It was demonstrated that T. cruzi is able 150 151 to remove oxidative lesions from both genomes, although damage to the kDNA remains higher than that in the nucleus^{43,44,45}. This parasite contains DNA glycosylases that 152 participate in the kDNA damage response⁴³⁻⁴⁴, as well as polymerases involved in the 153 response to oxidative stress, such as Polß, Polß-PAK ^{46,47} and Polk, which are able to 154 interact with intermediates of the homologous recombination⁴⁸. Studies in *T. brucei* 155 showed that the bloodstream form is able to deal with damage caused by cisplatin, 156 157 hydrogen peroxide and methylmethanesulfonate (MMS), suggesting that DNA repair 158 pathways are present in the parasite mitochondrion and that TbRad51 might be crucial to the response to alkylation lesions⁴⁹. 159

In the present work, for the first time, we used the CRISPR-Cas9 system to 160 161 analyze the role played by KAP in a trypanosomatid protozoan. The results demonstrated 162 that A. deanei $\Delta kap4$ mutants have reduced proliferation and exhibit morphological and ultrastructural alterations. In KAP4 mutants, the kDNA network becomes highly packed 163 164 and cells have atypical phenotypes including filamentous bacterium and atypical numbers arrangement of nuclei and kinetoplasts. Considering alterations in kDNA arrangement, 165 gene deletion mutants were not more sensitive to cisplatin and UV treatment than wild-166 167 type protozoa, but these genotoxic agents interfered with cytokinesis in both cell types. 168 Notably, cisplatin and UV lesions can be repaired in mitochondrial DNA, which suggests 169 that there are unique DNA repair mechanisms in the trypanosomatid kinetoplast.

170

171 Material and Methods

172 Cell culture

The *Angomonas deanei* wild type (WT – ATCC 30255) strain was cultured in Warren's medium⁵⁰ supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. Protists were maintained by weekly passages by inoculating 10% of an established cell culture in fresh medium. WT and T7RNAPol-SpCas9 cell lines were grown at 28 °C for 24 h and cells with single or double deletions to *kap4* genes were grown for 48 h, both cases corresponded to the protozoan exponential growth phase. After this growth period, cells were used in assays or stored at 4°C.

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181 Analysis of cell growth and viability

For the growth curve, the initial cell concentration was 1×10^6 cells/mL, and counts were 182 183 made every 24 h up to 72 h. Cell density was determined by counting live protozoa in a 184 flow cytometer, where cell size was evaluated by detection of forward scatter on an SSA 185 detector in a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson Bioscience BDB, San Jose, CA, USA). The relative growth rate (μ , expressed as h-1) of the exponential phase 186 187 was estimated by an exponential function $y = Ae^{Bx}$, considering the parameters of 188 culture cell density (cells/mL) vs culture time (h) of each strain, when $B=\mu$. Such graphics only considered the cell density from 0 h to 48 h of growth, which corresponds to the 189

exponential phase, when all assays in this study were performed. Cell duplication time (DT) was calculated according to the formula $DT = \frac{ln2}{n}$.

To test cell viability, 5×10^6 cells were washed once with filtered-sterilized PBS 192 (phosphate-buffered saline) pH 7.2 and incubated for 10 min with 20 µg/mL propidium 193 iodide (PI). After this step, 10,000 events per sample were collected, and the fluorescence 194 was detected on an FL-2 filter (488/630). The percentages of viable and nonviable cells 195 196 were determined using control assays of life and death, respectively. To check cell death, 197 cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min, washed with PBS, pH 7.2 and subsequently incubated with propidium iodide (PI 1:100). To control for living cells, 198 protozoa were washed in PBS, pH 7.2, but were not incubated with PI. Cell fluorescence 199 200 was detected as previously described. In such viability assays, as well as in growth curves, 201 cells were collected on a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson Bioscience 202 BDB, San Jose, CA, USA) using the manufacturer software.

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204 Genotoxic treatment

WT and AdKAP4 mutants were compared by plating 1×10^7 cells.mL⁻¹ in the presence or 205 206 absence of genotoxic agents. For cisplatin treatment, cells were incubated with 150 and 207 300 µM of the inhibitor for 1 h, washed three times with PBS at pH7.2 and resuspended in fresh medium. UVC irradiation (254 nm) was performed with a germicidal lamp at a 208 fluence rate of 1,500 µJ/cm² (GS GeneLinker UV Chamber, Bio-Rad). For growth curves, 209 in all conditions, the number of surviving cells was determined at 0 h (immediately before 210 the treatment) and after 12 and 24 h of treatment, which corresponds to the A. deanei 211 exponential phase¹⁹. Experiments were performed in triplicate. The cell number was 212 determined in a hemocytometer chamber using the erythrosine vital stain (0.4% diluted 213 214 in 1x PBS) to differentiate living and dead cells. Only dead cells were stained, presenting 215 a red color. The survival rate was calculated by comparing treated and control cells, which 216 were employed as references (considered as 100%).

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218 Cell cycle analysis by flow cytometry

Protozoa were treated with cisplatin 150 and 300 µM for 1 h. Next, the cells were washed
twice with PBS, pH 7.2, and the culture medium was replaced as described above.

Protozoa were analyzed before treatment, as well as 1 h and 24 h after the incubation with 221 the inhibitor. Approximately 5×10^6 cells were pelleted, washed once with PBS and fixed 222 in 0.25% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 5 min. Next, the cells were 223 permeabilized in 70% ethanol, in an ice bath, for 30 min and incubated with 100 µg/mL 224 RNase and 25 µg/mL propidium iodide at 37 °C for 30 min. After this step, 10,000 events 225 226 per sample were collected, and the fluorescence was detected on an FL-2 filter (488/630) 227 on a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson Bioscience BDB, San Jose, CA, 228 USA) using the manufacturer's software. DNA histograms were analyzed with the same 229 software.

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231 CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing

232 a - Protozoa transformation

Angomonas deanei transfections were performed by electroporation using the Amaxa 2B 233 system program U-033 (Human T Cell NucleofectorTM Kit - Lonza), as previously 234 described²⁴. Cultures were immediately split into 2 populations, and recovered for 4 hours 235 236 at 26 °C before the addition of suitable antibiotics. Motile cells in both populations were 237 counted and diluted for distribution in 96-well plates (200 µL of 1 or 0.5 cells/well). Clones were recovered after 5-8 days. Angomonas deanei T7RNAPol-SpCas9 was 238 engineered using the pTB007 plasmid previously employed for Leishmania species, and 239 SpCas9 expression was confirmed by Western blotting as in Beneke et al., 2017⁵¹. 240 241 Transgenic lines were maintained in the following antibiotics and respective concentrations: G418 (250 μ g. mL⁻¹) and hygromycin (300 μ g. mL⁻¹). 242

243

244 **b - CRISPR-Cas9 DNA fragment preparation**

CRISPR-facilitated mutants were obtained by transfection of PCR fragments. The sgRNA sequence was obtained from EuPaGDT⁵², selected based on correct on-target sequence (ADEAN_000063100)⁵³ and fewer *A. deanei* genome off-target hits, as well as sgRNA predicted activity. The sgRNA forward oligonucleotide is designed by flanking it with the T7RNAPol promoter (upstream) and the first 20 nucleotides of the SpCas9 scaffold (downstream). This oligo is combined with a universal primer containing the remaining sequence of SpCas9 backbone (OL00 - Table 1). Amplification was performed

in 20 µL using 0.2 mM dNTPs, 2 µM of each primer in Q5 reaction buffer and high-252 fidelity polymerase (NEB). The PCR program was set as 30 s at 98 °C followed by 35 253 cycles of 10 s at 98 °C, 30 s at 60 °C, and 15 s at 72 °C. The repair template fragments 254 were produced using primers containing annealing sequences compatible with pPLOT 255 and pT plasmids⁵¹ and 30 nucleotide homology arms at the 5'end of the oligonucleotide, 256 both forward and reverse, for recombination upstream and downstream of the DNA 257 double strand break (DSB), respectively, at the UTR of the gene. Fragments were 258 amplified from 20 ng of pTNeo_v1⁵¹ using the same reaction buffer described above for 259 sgRNA fragments in a final volume of 40 µL. PCR program was 10 min at 98 °C followed 260 by 40 cycles of 30 s at 98 °C, 30 s at 60 °C, 2 min 15 s at 72 °C, and a final elongation 261 262 step of 10 min at 72 °C. Products were run on 2% (sgRNAs) or 1% (repair templates) agarose gels in 0.5% Tris-Borate-EDTA (TBE) to confirm fragment amplification and 263 264 expected sizes. Primer sequences are detailed in Table 1. DNA for transfection was 265 prepared by combining sgRNA and repair templates followed by precipitation in a one-266 tenth volume of 3 M NaOAc, pH 5.5 and 2.5 volumes of ice-cold absolute ethanol and washing in 70% ethanol thereafter. DNA was resuspended in 10 μ L of molecular biology 267 268 grade water and immediately transfected.

269

270 Diagnostic PCRs

271 Genomic DNA (gDNA) was purified after clone cell culture amplification and kept under antibiotic selection, using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Quiagen) following the 272 manufacturer's instructions. PCRs were set using 50 ng of gDNA using PCRBIO HS Taq 273 Mix Red (PCR Biosystems) and 0.4 µM of primers to amplify the CDS locus or the 274 275 integrated repair template containing the resistance marker gene (Neo). The oligonucleotides OL05+OL6 were used to detect KAP4 presence or absence, respectively. 276 Oligonucleotides OL05+OL07 were used to confirm integration of the repair template 277 containing the neomycin (Neo) resistance marker at KAP4 loci. The PCR program used 278 was 5 min at 95 °C followed by 25 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 55 °C, 20 s at 72 °C 279 and a final elongation step of 5 min at 72 °C. Reactions were directly run in a 0.8% 280 281 agarose gel in TBE to confirm genetic manipulation by comparing the presence or absence of WT and mutants PCR products. Primer sequences are detailed in Table 1. 282

283

284 Fluorescence microscopy

285 **a - DAPI Staining**

Protozoa were collected by centrifugation at $2000 \times g$, washed once with PBS (phosphate 286 buffered saline) pH 7.4, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in the same solution, and mounted 287 on poly-L-lysine-coated circular microscope coverslips (14 mm diameter), next, the 288 slides were washed with PBS and incubated with 10 µg/ml 4',6-diamidino- 2-289 phenylindole (DAPI, from Molecular Probes, Oregon, USA) for 10 min. After washing 290 291 with PBS, slides were mounted using ProLong Gold (Molecular Probes), and visualized 292 using a TCS SP5 confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica, Germany). Confocal images were obtained using an HCX PL APO 60x objective for light microscope oil immersion 293 294 with a numerical aperture of 1.4. Optical sections obtained from the whole cell were 295 transformed into 2D images by maximum projection in the manufacturer's software 296 (LAS-X). The cellular patterns were determined by counting DNA-containing structures as nuclei, kinetoplasts and symbionts. Symbiont division was evaluated based on its form 297 as described previously^{22,24}. Analyses were based on counts of 1,000 cells of WT and 298 KAP4 mutants. 299

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301 **b** - Immunofluorescence with anti-porin antibody

302 Protozoa were washed in PBS and fixed with freshly prepared 2% formaldehyde diluted 303 in PBS, for 1 h. After fixation, cells were adhered to poly-L-lysine-coated microscope coverslips and permeabilized with 4% Nonidet P-40 (NP-40) diluted in PBS for 45 min. 304 305 Slides were incubated in blocking solution containing 1.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA), 0.5% teleostean gelatin (Sigma Aldrich), and 0.02% Tween 20 diluted in PBS. 306 307 Next, slides were incubated for 1 h with antibody produced against the symbiont porin⁵⁴ diluted 1:10 in blocking solution. After that step, the cells were washed with PBS and 308 incubated for 45 min with Alexa488-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Molecular Probes, 309 USA) diluted 1:200 in blocking solution. Slides were mounted using the anti-fading 310 reagent ProLong Gold containing 5 μ g. mL⁻¹ of DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, 311 MolecularProbes). Serial image stacks (0.36-µm Z-increment) were collected at 64x (oil 312 313 immersion 1.4 NA) on an Elyra PS.1 microscope (Carl Zeiss) and threedimensional projections were obtained on the Zen Black program (Carl Zeiss). 314

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316 c - In situ labeling of kDNA networks

Cells were centrifuged, washed, and fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde diluted in PBS for 5 317 318 min. Next, cells were adhered to poly-L-lysine-coated slides for 10 min and washed twice 319 in PBS containing 0.1 M glycine for 5 min. After permeabilization in methanol for 1 h 320 at 20 °C, cells were rehydrated with three washes in PBS for 5 min and incubated for 60 min at room temperature in 25 µl of reaction solution containing: TdT reaction buffer 321 322 (Roche Applied Science), 2.0 mM CoCl₂, 10 µM dATP, 2.5 µM Alexa Fluor 488-dUTP (Molecular Probes) and 10 units of TdT (Roche Applied Science). The reaction was 323 stopped with three washes in 2xSSC for 5 min. Slides were mounted using the anti-fading 324 reagent ProLong Gold containing 5 μ g. mL⁻¹ DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, 325 MolecularProbes). Slides were examined on an Axiobserver microscope (Carl Zeiss), and 326 327 images were collected at 100x (oil immersion 1.4 NA). Analyses were based on counts 328 of 1,000 cells of WT and KAP4 mutants considering the kDNA replication as described by Liu and Englund $(2007)^{55}$. 329

330

331 Electron Microscopy

332 a - Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Sample processing was performed using glass coverslips precoated with 1 mg/mL poly-333 334 L-lysine. Protozoa were fixed for 1 h in 2.5% glutaraldehyde diluted in 0.1 M cacodylate 335 buffer pH 7.2. Cells were subsequently adhered to coverslips, postfixed for 1 h with 1% osmium tetroxide diluted in cacodylate buffer, and dehydrated in a graded alcohol series 336 (50%, 70%, 90%, and two exchanges of 100% ethanol for 10 min each step). Samples 337 were critical-point dried in a Leica EM CPD030 apparatus (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany). 338 Specimens were sputtered with gold in a Balzers FL9496 unit (Postfach 1000 FL-9496 339 Balzers Liechtenstein) and observed in an EVO 40 VP SEM (Zeiss, Germany). In all 340 assays performed, approximately 500 cells were observed. 341

342

343 **b** - Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Protozoa were fixed for 1 h in 2.5% type II glutaraldehyde (Sigma, Missouri, USA)
diluted in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2. The protozoa were washed twice in cacodylate
buffer and postfixed (1% osmium tetroxide, 0.8% potassium ferrocyanide, 5 mM calcium
chloride diluted in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer) for 1 h. Samples were then washed in

- cacodylate buffer, dehydrated in a graded series of acetone solutions (50%, 70%, 90%,
- and two exchanges of 100% acetone) for 10 min at each step, and embedded in Polybed
- resin. Ultrathin sections were stained with 5% uranyl acetate for 45 min and lead citrate
- for 5 min before observation in a Jeol 1200 EX TEM operating at 80 kV. In all assays
- 352 performed, approximately 500 cells were analyzed.
- 353

354 Damage quantification by long-range qPCR analysis

Parasite cultures were treated with the respective drug as reported above. After treatment, 1x10⁸ cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3,000 xg for 5 min at the time points after treatment indicated on the graph. The first time point (0 h) was collected immediately after the end of UV radiation exposure, and after the washes to remove cisplatin from the media in cisplatin treatment. DNA extraction was performed by using the QIamp® DNA Mini and Blood Mini Kit (Qiagen, cat: 51104) protocol for tissue extraction.

361 Amplification was performed using a Kappa LongRange HotStart PCR Kit (Sigma, cat: KK3501). Specific primers for the mitochondrial coding region were used and are listed 362 363 in Table 1. Amplification of the large mitochondrial fragment (approximately 10 kB) was performed by using primers qPCRMitF and qPCRMitR. Amplification of the small 364 mitochondrial fragment (250 bp) was performed by using the primers qPCRMitSmF and 365 qPCRMitR. For the nuclear fragment analyses, the amplification of the larger fragment 366 was performed using the primers qPCRNucF and qPCRNucR. The smaller fragment was 367 amplified using the primers qPCRNucSmF and qPCRNucR. 368

369 The assay consists of the comparison of the amount of amplified material of treated cells with the amount of amplified material within nontreated cells. The smaller fragment was 370 371 used to normalize the amplification of the large fragments and to avoid any bias from uneven loading of template DNA among the various PCRs. The normalized value of 372 373 treated and nontreated cells was compared, and the relative amplification was 374 subsequently calculated. These values were used to estimate the average number of 375 lesions/10 kb of the mitochondrial genome using a Poisson distribution. All the results 376 presented are the mean of two technical replicates of amplification and two different 377 biological experiments. Details of the data analysis can be found in the literature⁵⁶.

378 Results

To allow genetic manipulation in *A. deanei* facilitated by CRISPR-Cas9, we first generated an *A. deanei* mutant expressing SpCas9 and T7RNAPol by transfecting logphase cells with the pTB007, generously provided by Dr. Eva Gluenz and previously used to generate a similar mutant in *Leishmania* sp.⁵². Western blotting confirmed SpCas9 expression in the mutants generated, using *L. mexicana* T7RNAPol-SpCas9 as a control (Supplementary Material 1).

385 To verify whether the expression of SpCas9 in the AdT7RNAPol-SpCas9 strain could constitutively cut nonspecific sites, long-range qPCR quantification was performed 386 387 to determine the amount of possible accumulation of DNA damage in those cells. WT 388 protozoa were used as a controls, since they do not contain the cassette construction for 389 the SpCas9 expression. If SpCas9 generated nonspecific DNA damage, it was expected to produce a difference between the amplification ratio of the genetically modified strain 390 391 in comparison with WT cells. The amplification for both strains was approxemetly 1, 392 indicating that the expression of SpCas9 on A. deanei did not generate DNA strand breaks 393 in a nonspecific manner in either nuclear or mitochondrial genomes (Figure 1, a and b). 394 The confirmed mutant had a regular morphology, and SpCas9 expression was well 395 tolerated. To delete KAP4, A. deanei was cotransfected with a repair template containing the neomycin resistance gene and 30 nt homologous to flanking KAP4 UTRs', and 2 396 sgRNA templates were expressed in vivo by T7 RNA polymerase to insert DSBs at the 397 398 5' and 3' ends of the gene. Cells were kept under G418 pressure and mutants were 399 confirmed by diagnostic PCR to detect the resistance cassette integration and KAP4 400 deletion (Figure 1c). We were able to disrupt one or both alleles of KAP4 by integrating 401 a resistance marker (NEO), and enabling selection with neomycin (Figure 1d), thereby 402 successfully validating our system.

403 Analyses of cell proliferation showed that WT, T7RNAPol-SpCas9 and KAP4 404 mutants cultivated for 48 h, which corresponds to the peak of exponential phase, 405 presented different proliferation profiles: when compared to WT protozoa, T7RNAPol-406 SpCas9 strain had a reduction of 19% in proliferation, whereas these values were equivalent to 67% and 69% to gene-deficient cells for one or both alleles of KAP4, 407 408 respectively (Figure 1e). The duplication times of WT and T7RNAPol-SpCas9 were 409 similar and equivalent to 7.1 and 7.4 h, respectively, whereas values obtained for $\Delta kap4$ with single or double deletions were 9.3 hours and 9.5 hours, respectively (Figure 1f). 410 Although WT cells, as well as the T7RNAPol-SpCas9 background and KAP4 mutants, 411

exhibited distinct decreases in proliferation after 48 h (Figure 1e), the viability rate after
72 h of cultivation was similar to that of all cell types, that is, approximately around 98.5%
(Figure 1g).

The morphological and ultrastructural analyses in this study used cells cultivated 415 416 for 24 h, which is equivalent to the exponential growth phase of A. deanei, whose generation time is equivalent to 6 h. Transmission electron microscopy images showed 417 418 that as in other trypanosomatids, the nucleus usually occupies a central position in the cell body and contains a nucleolus surrounded by heterochromatin, which is also observed at 419 420 the nuclear periphery. The symbiont was usually observed close to the host cell nucleus 421 and delimited by two membranes (Figure 2a). A. deanei WT displays a trapezoidal 422 kinetoplast containing a looser arrangement of the kDNA fibers in the central area and a more densely packed array in the region that faces the TAC and connects the 423 424 mitochondrial DNA to the basal body (Figure 2b). This same phenotype was observed in 425 the CRISPR-Cas9 background cell line that did not have alterations in kinetoplast shape 426 or kDNA arrangement (Figure 2, d-e). Scanning electron microscopy demonstrated that 427 the WT and CRISPR-Cas9 background strains presented the typical choanomastigotes of the Angomonas genus. The smooth cell surface often exhibited gentle undulations that 428 corresponded to mitochondrial branches (Figure 2, c-f). 429

In cells with a single deletion $(kap4^{+/-})$ the kinetoplast shape was maintained; 430 431 however, kDNA fibers of the central area were broken in most cells, and the kinetoplast 432 network was determined to be more condensed as a whole than those observed in control 433 cells. In some instances, the nucleus presented matrix loss and a more condensed chromatin (Figure 2, g and i). Such protozoa showed unusually elongated symbionts, 434 435 indicating that bacterial division was impaired (Figure 2h). In KAP4 null mutants, cells with division impairment phenotype usually presented two flagella in the same flagellar 436 pocket (Figure 2m). The symbiotic bacterium was also affected in these cells, which 437 presented filamentous forms surrounded by small vacuoles (Figure 2n). The kDNA 438 packing was severely compromised in the whole network, especially in the central area 439 440 (Figure 20). Alterations in the nuclear ultrastructure were rarely observed.

441 As a next step, analysis by scanning electron microscopy was performed by 442 comparing *KAP4* mutants and WT protozoa. Cells with a single gene deletion $(kap4^{+/-})$ 443 had alterations in morphology, with many protozoa showing a round shape with a 444 shortened flagellum (Figure 2j, white arrow). Part of the culture presented body shape asymmetry during division (Figure 2j, gray arrow), which resulted in the generation of
daughter cells with different dimensions (Figure 2k). Protozoa with multiple cell bodies
and flagella were also observed, indicating cytokinesis impairment (Figure 2l). Null
mutants also presented morphological alterations, such as cell body shortening and
flagellar length reduction (Figure 2p). A high number of cells with impaired cytokinesis
was observed, thereby generating a popcorn-like phenotype (Figure 2, q-r).

451 Analyses of cellular patterns were performed in A. deanei labeled with DAPI and with an anti-porin antibody that recognizes the endosymbiont, considering the number of 452 453 nuclei, kinetoplasts and symbionts, as well as the shape of the bacterium (Figure 3). As expected, in asynchronous cultures of WT cells, approximately 30%, presented one rod-454 455 shaped symbiont, one kinetoplast and one nucleus (1S1K1N). Most cells, that is, approximately 50%, also presented 1S1K1N; however, the symbiont presented a 456 457 constricted or dividing format. The other part of the culture, approxemetly 20%, was 458 composed of cells containing two rod-shaped symbionts. Such protozoa presented one or 459 two kinetoplasts and nuclei; however, kinetoplast division was always observed before 460 the karyokinesis. In KAP4 mutants cultivated for 24 h, protozoa presented atypical 461 phenotypes as two nuclei, one kinetoplast and one filamentous symbiont (1Sf2N1K) or two nuclei, two kinetoplasts and one filamentous symbiont (1Sf2N2K), an indication of 462 kDNA division and cytokinesis blockage, respectively (Figure 3, a-d). In KAP4 mutants 463 cultivated for 24 h, filamentous symbionts were observed in 3% kap4^{+/-} cells and in 54% 464 of $kap4^{-/-}$ protozoa, exhibiting bacterium division impairment (Figure 3e). 465

466 The counting of cell patterns in KAP4 mutants showed that the percentage of filamentous symbionts was higher in cells containing one bacterium, one nucleus and one 467 468 kinetoplast (1Sf1N1K) than in cells containing two nuclei or two kinetoplasts, indicating 469 that as the cell cycle progresses, the symbiont filamentation increases, eventually leading 470 to bacterial lysis. The percentage of cells containing one filamentous symbiont, two nuclei and one kinetoplast (1Sf2N1K) was almost three times higher than in $kap4^{-1/2}$ protozoa 471 when compared to $kap4^{+/-}$ cells, indicating that in the double mutant, kinetoplast division 472 was more affected (Figure 3f). To check whether the KAP4 mutant phenotype has an 473 474 impact on kDNA replication, assays of dUTP incorporation by the deoxynucleotidyl 475 transferase terminal (TdT) were performed. The results showed that the percentage of 476 cells with the kDNA in the early replication stage was 62.5% lower in cells containing 477 deletions of both KAP4 genes than in WT protozoa. During this stage, the kinetoplast 478 exhibits strong labeling in the antipodal sites but little labeling in the kDNA network479 (Figure 3g).

480 Considering the structural results obtained in this work, we assumed that A. deanei KAP4 could participate in kDNA metabolism. To confirm this hypothesis, WT and 481 482 mutant cells were exposed to cisplatin or UV radiation to verify the cell response to DNA 483 damage. These agents cause distortions in the DNA that can impair transcription and replication, with cisplatin lesions being more effective than UV light^{48, 49, 50, 51,52}. Protozoa 484 that had one or both KAP4 genes deleted were able to grow after treatment with cisplatin 485 486 or exposure to UV, although in cisplatin treatment, the mutant cells presented a slight decrease in cell proliferation compared to the WT strain after 12 hours of treatment, 487 488 especially the single gene-deficient mutant treated with the highest inhibitor 489 concentration (Figure 4, a-d).

Considering the cellular morphology and cellular organization, microscopy 490 analyses were performed to test whether KAP4 mutants presented atypical phenotypes in 491 492 relation to WT cells after cisplatin treatment. This compound interacts with DNA and proteins and forms intrastrand or interstrand DNA crosslinks that cause distortions in the 493 494 double helix, thereby blocking duplication and transcription. Transmission electron 495 microscopy images showed that WT cells did not present nuclear or kinetoplast changes 496 after incubation with cisplatin, even when a higher drug concentration (300 µM) was used 497 (Figure 5, a-c). The same phenomenon was observed in the background T7RNAPol-SpCas9 cell line (data not shown). Similarly, KAP4 mutants did not display topological 498 499 rearrangement on the kDNA network compared to WT cells treated with cisplatin (Figure 500 5, h and m). However, other cellular structures suffered alterations in mutant protozoa. In $kap4^{+/-}$ cells, nuclear DNA unpacking was observed, as well as myelin figures in the 501 502 cytoplasm (Figure 5f, black arrow) and mitochondrial swelling. The abundance of the 503 endoplasmic reticulum was noted and also its frequent association with the symbiont, 504 which sometimes was seen surrounded by this organelle, suggested an autophagic process 505 (Figure 5f, arrowheads). The symbiont also displayed matrix loss and alterations in its DNA condensation (Figure 5g, white arrows). In null mutants treated with 300 µM 506 507 cisplatin, the primary ultrastructural alteration was observed in the symbiont that 508 presented membrane convolutions (Figure 5k, arrow), matrix loss and densely packed 509 DNA fibers (Figure 51, white arrows). It is also worthwhile to mention the presence of 510 vacuoles around the symbiont, indicating that the bacterium had lysed (Figure 5, k-l).

Analyses by SEM showed that cultures of A. deanei WT cells presented a higher 511 512 incidence of rounded protozoa with a shortening flagellum after treatment with 150 and 513 300 µM cisplatin for 24 h (Figure 5, d-e). This phenotype was also observed in mutant 514 cells after treatment with both concentrations (Figure 5, i-j, n-o, white arrowheads). Protozoa presenting a fat cell-like phenotype and lacking the flagellum (Figure 5i, white 515 516 arrow) were observed after treatment with 150 µM cisplatin for 24 h. After using 300 µM 517 of this drug, protozoa with the cytokinesis phenotype were observed more frequently 518 (Figure 5j), indicating division impairment, as well as plasma membrane blebs at the 519 posterior end of the cell body (Figure 50). Protozoa that had one allele deleted seemed to 520 have their morphology more affected than null mutant when treated with this genotoxic 521 agent.

Cells subjected to cisplatin treatment presented atypical phenotypes, as 522 523 demontrated by fluorescence microscopy analysis. When treated with the lower inhibitor 524 concentration (150 µM), WT trypanosomatids presented rounded shapes with a reduced 525 flagellum length and the fat cell phenotype. Symbionts were seen in the filamentous 526 format, presenting several nucleoids (Figure 6, a-a"). Mutants for KAP4 treated with 527 cisplatin also presented filamentous bacterium, but in this case, protozoa lacking the bacterium were also observed, as well as cells presenting two nuclei and one kinetoplast 528 (Figure 6, b-b" and c-c"). Next, we counted the number of protozoa containing a 529 530 filamentous bacterium after cisplatin treatment for 24 h. In WT A. deanei, filamentous 531 bacteria were not identified in non-treated cells, as previously demonstrated. However, 532 after incubation with 150 µM and 300 µM of cisplatin, 14% and 3% of the cells showed filamentous symbionts, respectively. In $kap4^{+/-}$ protozoa, when both concentrations of 533 534 cisplatin were used, the percentage of filamentous bacteria was similar, that is, approximately 2 %. In the null mutant $(kap4^{-l-})$, values were equivalent to 14% and 8%, 535 536 respectively (Figure 6d).

These results indicate that treatment with cisplatin induced symbiont filamentation and that a higher concentration of the inhibitor (300 μ M) augmented symbiont lysis, as also suggested by transmission electron microscopy data. Counting of cellular patterns demonstrated that after treatment with cisplatin, the highest percentage of bacterial filamentation was present in the double mutant cells containing one nucleus and one kinetoplast (1Fs1N1K). In these cells, the percentage of protozoa with a filamentous symbiont decreased in a concentration-dependent manner. The percentage of 544 protozoa with bacterial filamentation also decreased with the progression of the cell cycle, 545 as in cells containing two nuclei, reinforcing the notion of the bacterial lysis. Taken together, these data indicate that somehow genotoxic agents alter the cell division pattern 546 547 in A. deanei and that this effect is exacerbated in mutant cells (Figure 6e). Cisplatin can block replication and trigger checkpoints at the end of S phase and the beginning of G2 548 to repair lesions, thereby causing cell cycle arrest. However, when cells treated with 549 cisplatin were submitted to flow cytometry analysis, they did not show cell cycle 550 551 alterations in relation to control cells, even after treatment with 300 µM for 24 h 552 (Supplementary Figure 2).

The susceptibility of WT and mutant cells to UV radiation was also verified. Thus, 553 554 protozoa were subjected to UV-C irradiation, which affects the DNA replication and transcription and can be repaired by nucleotide excision. Ultrastructural and 555 556 morphological analyses were performed after 24 h of protozoa irradiation at 1500 μ J/m2. The results obtained by transmission electron microcopy were similar to those observed 557 558 for WT and KAP4 mutant cells treated with cisplatin: nuclear DNA and kDNA did not suffer additional topological alterations in relation to nonirradiated cells (Figure 7, a-b, f-559 g, and k), and a close association of the ER with the symbiont occurred frequently, 560 strongly indicating autophagy (Figure 7, a, f, and k, white arrowheads). Notably, after 561 562 irradiation, mutant cells presented bacteria with a higher DNA condensation (Figure 7, a, g, and k, white arrows). Furthermore, polynucleated cells were observed (Figure 71). 563

Scanning electron microscopy analyses showed that WT protozoa suffered 564 565 morphological alterations after irradiation, exhibiting wrinkled cell surfaces and irregular forms that indicated cytokinesis impairment (Figure 7, c-e). In single- and double-KAP4-566 567 deleted mutants, the morphological modifications were exacerbated: many protozoa presented multiple interconnected cell bodies, reinforcing the notion that cytokinesis was 568 569 blocked (Figure 7, h-i). Such cells also presented wrinkled surfaces, and the flagellum 570 was absent in some instances (Figure 7, h and j, white arrows), as also observed in null 571 mutants (Figure 7, m and o, white arrows). In this last case, a high number of round cells 572 were also observed (Figure 7, m-o).

573 Irradiated protozoa were also labeled with DAPI, exhibiting atypical phenotypes 574 that were compatible with asymmetric division and cytokinesis impairment, such as the 575 presence of one kinetoplast and two nuclei in cells containing two symbionts (Figure 8a) 576 and dyskinetoplastic cells. Such morphotypes were observed in WT cells, as well as in

mutant cells (Figure 8b). Protozoa with filamentous bacterium were observed more 577 578 frequently in WT cells than in *KAP4* mutants, on which symbiont division was probably 579 more strongly affected. The absence of the symbiont was observed in null mutants (Figure 580 8c), which may have been related to the possible occurrence of autophagy, in this case, a symbiophagy, that generated aposymbiotic cells, as suggested by transmission electron 581 582 microscopy. The very reduced number of WT cells presenting filamentous symbionts 583 (1.4%) and the absence of this phenotype in mutant cells reinforced this notion (Figure 8d). The percentage of irradiated protozoa presenting atypical phenotypes was low in all 584 585 cell types (Figure 8e).

To verify whether KAP4 was involved in kDNA repair, mutant and wild-type cells 586 587 of A. deanei cells were treated with cisplatin and UV radiation, as described before, and DNA repair kinetics were measured by long-range qPCR assay. After treatment with 300 588 589 µM cisplatin, WT and both mutant strains presented the same levels of DNA damage on 590 the kDNA, which was approximately 1.5 lesions/10 kB. The repair kinetics were very 591 similar for all cell types: after 3 h of treatment, levels of kDNA damage were almost 592 undetectable, reaching the slowest point after 6 h (Figure 9 a-b, Supplementary Material 3). A similar phenotype was observed for the UV radiation. The levels and DNA repair 593 kinetics of mutant cells were very similar to those observed in WT cells. After 1 h of 594 treatment, most damage had already been repaired, although it required 3 h after UV 595 596 radiation to reach the same level of repair that was observed in cisplatin-treated cells, with 597 the lowest point being observed at 6 h (Figure 9, c-d). Taken together, these results 598 demonstrate that KAP4 was not directly involved in the removal of DNA damage 599 generated by cisplatin and UV radiation but, notably, show that lesions generated by both 600 genotoxic agents could be repaired in mitochondrial DNA (Figure 9, a-d).

601

602 Discussion

In recent decades, *A. deanei* has been used as a model for endosymbiosis and the origin of organelles. Genome sequencing is available^{26,27,62}, and molecular tools for gene function studies were developed, although with limited use on studies of genes essentially and symbiosis maintenance^{24,63}. The recent application of highly efficient CRISPR-Cas9 protocols to other trypanosomatids, such as *Leishmania* and *T. cruzi*, accelerated functional studies with gene deletion^{51,63,64}. In this study, for the first time, we describe 609 gene depletion in an endosymbiont-harboring trypanosomatid. Phylogenetic proximity 610 with *Leishmania* enabled the successful application of the CRISPR-Cas9 system 611 developed by Beneke and colleagues $(2017)^{51}$ to *A. deanei*, resulting in efficient deletion 612 of *KAP4*, a kinetoplast associated protein present in all trypanosomatids so far analyzed⁹.

613 KAPs can neutralize the negative DNA charge, thus facilitating the interaction of mitochondrial proteins with kDNA, as those involved in replication and transcription. In 614 615 this work, deletion of A. deanei KAP4 generated trypanosomatids with reduced cell proliferation and generated cells with atypical phenotypes, as those presenting two nuclei 616 617 and one kinetoplast, as well as cytokinesis impairment. Cells containing aberrant numbers of nucleus and kinetoplast were also observed in null mutants of C. fasciculata for KAP2 618 and KAP3 that presented cell division block¹⁶. In T. brucei, the RNAi knockdown of a 619 kDNA associated protein, resulted in reduced growth and in the appearance of 620 dyskinetoplastic cells⁶⁴. These results reinforce the importance of KAPs to cell 621 622 proliferation and kDNA network replication in order to guarantee that each new protozoa 623 will receive one kinetoplast during trypanosomatid division.

624 The coordinated division of the symbiont with the host cell nucleus was previously 625 demonstrated in A. deanei and in Strigomonas culicis, another symbiont-harboring trypanosomatid²²⁻²⁴. In the present work, it was interesting to observe in *KAP4* mutant 626 cells that the kDNA condensation, which is associated with kinetoplast replication 627 628 impediment, resulted in symbiont filamentation. This filamentation occurred most frequently in mutant with two nuclei and one kinetoplast. Consistent with this notion, 629 630 TdT labeling showed a lower percentage of $kap4^{-/-}$ cells in the early replication phase when compared to the WT protozoa, indicating that in such cells the mitochondrial DNA 631 632 replication was delayed or even impaired. Since kDNA loss resulting in dyskinetoplastic protozoa was not observed, it can be assumed that the impediment of mitochondrion DNA 633 634 replication promoted cytokinesis blockage. Taken together, the results indicate that bacterial division is also coordinated with kinetoplast replication, but further studies are 635 636 essential to confirm this hypothesis. Cell cycle checkpoints are not well established for most trypanosomatids species, nor are the factors that coordinate the equal partitioning of 637 638 single copy organelles to daughter cells. Such questions are best studied in T. brucei, 639 especially by investigating the role of protein kinases in cell cycle progression, organelle positioning and protozoan morphology^{66,67,68,69}. Recently, it was shown that *T. brucei* 640 UMSBP2, which is involved in kDNA replication and segregation, is also localized at 641

telomeres. The RNAi system showed that this protein not only participates in nuclear
division but also plays a role in the coordinated replication of DNA-containing
organelles⁷⁰.

In A. deanei KAP4 mutants, the high level of kDNA packing was associated with a 645 646 delay in cell proliferation and a delay of kDNA replication at the early stage, when the 647 covalently closed minicircles are released from the network to initiate replication into the 648 KFZ and then migrate to antipodal sites, where this process continues⁴. Previously, it was shown that the downmodulation of T. brucei P93, a kDNA-associated protein localized 649 650 in antipodal sites, resulted in loss of gapped minicircles and consequently in the network 651 reduction⁷¹. Similarly, in TbKAP6 RNAi cells, the levels of total minicircles and 652 maxicircles decreased the total amount of nicked/gapped minicircles. In such cells, the 653 kinetoplast presented network shrinkage or elongation, but in both cases, two basal bodies 654 could be identified, indicating failures in kDNA replication and scission. Conversely, protozoa overexpressing TbKAP6 minicircle decatenation were enhanced, indicating that 655 a controlled expression of this protein is required for proper kDNA replication²⁰. 656

657 The kDNA arrangement and metabolism are the result of the coordinated activity of a set of mitochondrial proteins that serve different functions. In addition to KAPs, other 658 659 proteins are involved in the kDNA replication, such as the minicircle replication factor 660 (MiRF172), which is supposedly involved in the reattachment of replicated minicircles to the kDNA disc. Once depleted, T. brucei cells presented reduced kDNA content or 661 662 even a dyskinetoplastic phenotype⁷². Downregulation of mitochondrial heat shock 663 proteins 70 and 40 also showed impairment of minicircle replication and loss of kDNA, 664 demonstrating the importance of chaperones to the maintenance of the kinetoplast as a cellular structure⁷³. In the present work, the generation of dyskinetoplastic cells was not 665 observed among KAP4 mutants. Although the gene deletion promoted increased kDNA 666 667 compaction, the data obtained by qPCR did not indicate loss of mitochondrial DNA. In 668 UV-irradiated protozoa, a very low percentage of cells without a kinetoplasts was 669 observed.

The DNA repair kinetics showed no differences between *KAP4* mutant cells and the WT strain. In both cases, protozoa were able to efficiently repair the damage generated by cisplatin and UV radiation. In addition, differences in the long-term survival of these cells were not observed. For both genotoxic agent treatments, the kDNA accumulated the same amounts of lesions in WT or *KAP4* mutant cells, suggesting that the topological alterations observed in the kinetoplast network did not affect the susceptibility to DNA damage. It is well established that damage generated by UV radiation and cisplatin is not repaired in humans and other mammalian cells^{40,41}. Notably, in *A. deanei*, damage caused by both genotoxic agents on the kDNA was repaired, representing the first demonstration of this type of repair in mitochondrial DNA. The repair kinetics observed in this instance are not related to the kDNA loss, since the number of dyskinetoplastic cells after genotoxic treatment is negligible.

Notably, the DNA repair kinetics were very similar when cisplatin was tested in 682 683 WT and mutant cells, and the same phenomenon was observed for UV radiation. 684 However, accentuated differences were observed when comparing the two treatments: 685 DNA repair by cisplatin was very fast; thus, after 1 h, most lesions were already repaired, whereas for UV radiation damage, the kinetic is slower. Although it is described that 686 687 lesions caused by UV and cisplatin are mainly repaired by the nucleotide excision repair pathway, the kinetics observed in this work strongly suggest that lesions caused by each 688 689 genotoxic treatment activated different and specific responses in A. deanei. It is well-690 known that lesions that block transcription are repaired very quickly compared to other types of lesions. It has also been also reported that the main lesion caused by UV light 691 (thymine dimers) can be tolerated by RNA polymerase^{74,75}. In trypanosomatids that 692 present a single mitochondrion, it is possible that a DNA repair pathway associated with 693 694 transcription exists. The repair of UV lesions may also be associated with the 695 recombination process. In T. brucei, it was seen that cells deficient in the Rad51 gene are not able to adequately repair lesions caused by methyl methanesulfonate (MMS)^{49,76,77}. 696

697 Our structural analyses using microscopy techniques showed distinct atypical 698 phenotypes after treatment with cisplatin or ultraviolet radiation. This phenomenon may 699 be observed because cisplatin can cause more toxic injuries that culminate in cell death. 700 Accordingly, mutant protozoa have higher sensitivity to elevated concentrations of 701 cisplatin and lower percentages of cells containing duplicated nuclei and kinetoplasts than 702 WT or UV-irradiated cells. In mutant cells, this inhibitor promoted a decrease in 703 proliferation and in the number of filamentous symbionts, indicating bacterium lysis. 704 Notably, the cell morphology and growth of KAP4 single allele deletion mutants were 705 more affected by high doses of cisplatin than those of the null mutant cells. Since KAP4 706 is not an essential protein, it cannot be ruled out that an adaptation process has occurred 707 in cells where both copies of the genes were deleted. A similar phenomenon was observed

in null mutants of *Trypanosoma cruzi* and *Trypanosoma brucei* for the MSH2 gene, which
 encodes a central component of the eukaryotic DNA mismatch repair (MMR) pathway⁷⁸.

In this work, we demonstrated for the first time that the CRISPR-Cas9 system can 710 be used with success to delete genes in A. deanei. KAP4 is not an essential protein, but it 711 712 is involved in the kDNA compaction, leading to the appearance of cells with atypical phenotypes, such as symbiont filamentation and the appearance of two nuclei and one 713 714 kinetoplast. This protein does not seem to participate in the mitochondrial DNA repair process; however, lesions caused by cisplatin and UV radiation are repaired in the kDNA 715 716 of this protozoan. The repair kinetics are different for each genotoxic agent, indicating that different pathways are used to repair the lesions. In the case of cisplatin, repair may 717 718 be associated with transcription.

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972

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974 Conceived and designed the experiments: MCMM CRM CMCC-P. Acquisition of data:
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978

979 Figure Legends

980

Figure 1: Generation of KAP4 mutants, cell proliferation and viability. qPCR 981 982 amplification showing that there was no damage to the nuclear (a) and mitochondrial (b) 983 DNA of the T7RNAPol-SpCas9 cells compared to WT cells. (c) Diagram representing the sgRNA PCR transfection that allows for double strain breaks (DSBs) at the 5' and 3' 984 ends of the genes and repair-templates mediated recombination at the UTRs 30 nt 985 986 upstream and downstream of the CDS. Diagnostic PCR oligonucleotides were designed 987 to amplify the integrated NEO repair template, binding upstream of the open reading 988 frame (OL5) and internally to the NEO gene (OL6), and the presence (WT and +/-) or absence (-/-) of KAP4 (650 bp, OL5+OL7). (d) Diagnostic PCR showing KAP4 gene 989 990 deletion and Neo selectable marker integration in the A. deanei genome. (e) Growth curve 991 for 72 h showed that KAP4 mutants present a reduced proliferation in relation to WT and 992 T7RNAPol-SpCas9 strains. Cell number was plotted on a logarithmic scale, and the 993 presented data are the mean \pm s.d. of three independent cell cultures. After 48 h, when 994 cells reached the peak of the exponential phase, a paired T test (p < 0.05) was performed 995 to compare control and mutant cells. (f) Duplication time of WT, T7RNAPol-SpCas9 and 996 cells deleted for KAP4. (g) The cell viability was similar among the strains analyzed and maintained even after 72 h of cultivation. The presented data is a mean \pm s.d. of three 997 independent cell cultures. WT, wild-type cells, $kap4^{+/-}$, cells with deletion for one allele, 998 $kap4^{-}$, null mutant. 999

1000

Figure 2: Ultrastructure and morphology of *A. deanei*. WT (a-c), T7RNAPol-SpCas9 (df) and *KAP4* mutant cells with single (g-l) or double deletions (m-r). (a-b) Transmission

electron microscopy of WT cells showed typical characteristics of symbiont-harboring 1003 trypanosomatids, which were also observed in T7RNAPol-SpCas9 cells (**d-e**). $kap4^{+/-}$ and 1004 $kap4^{-}$ cells presented ultrastructural alterations as a high condensation of nuclear DNA 1005 (g), a densely packed kDNA (i-o), a filamentous symbiont (\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{n}), dividing cells with two 1006 flagella in the same flagellar pocket (m). Scanning electron microscopy showed the 1007 typical choanomastigote form in WT and T7RNAPol-SpCas9 cells of mutant cells (c and 1008 **f**). $kap4^{+/2}$ mutants presented ultrastructure alterations such as asymmetric division (**j**, 1009 yellow arrow), which generated cells with different dimensions (k) and protozoa with 1010 multiple cell bodies and flagella (I). $kap4^{-/2}$ cells presented cytokinesis impairment that 1011 generated a popcorn-like phenotype (q-r). In both mutant strains, cell bodies and 1012 1013 flagellum shortening were observed (\mathbf{j} and \mathbf{p} , white arrows). ht – heterochromatin, kkinetoplast, lb - lipid body, n - nucleus, nu - nucleolus, s - symbiont, f - flagellum, fs -1014 1015 filamentous symbiont, v - vacuole. Brackets show the more densely packed kDNA.

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Figure 3: Atypical phenotypes were observed in KAP4 mutant cells cultivated for 24 h 1017 after labeling with DAPI and anti-porin antibodies. WT (a-a"); kap4^{+/-} mutants containing 1018 one filamentous symbiont with multiple nucleoids (Fs - green arrowhead), one nucleus 1019 (N-white arrows) and one kinetoplast (K-white arrowhead) (**b-b**") or two nuclei and two 1020 kinetoplasts and (**c-c**"); $kap4^{-}$ cells were seen with one filamentous symbiont, two nuclei 1021 and one kinetoplast (**d-d**"). Bars 5 μ m. (e) Counting of cellular patterns showing that 1022 filamentous symbionts (Fs) are more frequent in $kap4^{-1}$. (f) Percentage of cells presenting 1023 atypical phenotypes. (g) In situ labeling showing the different stages of kDNA network 1024 replication in WT and mutant cells (according to Liu and Englund 2007)¹⁵. Green 1025 1026 arrowheads indicate the symbiont, white arrows the nucleus and white arrowheads the 1027 kinetoplast. Bars 1 µm. t test p-value < 0.005. A total of 1,000 WT and KAP4 mutant cells were counted in 3 independent experiments. 1028

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Figure 4: Cell growth and survival after cisplatin treatment or UV radiation. After 12 h, no remarkable differences were observed in cell proliferation and survival when comparing WT and mutant protozoa after treatment with 150 μ M and 300 μ M cisplatin (**a-b**) or exposure to UV radiation (**c-d**).

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Figure 5: Effects of cisplatin on the ultrastructure of mutant cells as revealed by TEM (a-1035 1036 c, f-h, k-m) and SEM (d-e, i-j, n-o). A-E: WT cells treated with cisplatin did not present ultrastructural alterations by TEM. However, SEM showed rounded cells with a 1037 shortening flagellum (d-e). (f-o) mutant cells treated with cisplatin. (f) Note DNA 1038 unpacking in the nucleus (n), the proximity between the ER (black arrowhead) and the 1039 endosymbiont, and mitochondrial branch swelling (m). (g, l) The symbiotic bacterium 1040 1041 presents alterations in the nuclear matrix and DNA condensation (white arrows). (k-l): 1042 The symbiont presented membrane convolutions (black arrow) and was surrounded by 1043 vacuoles, an indication of autophagy. (h, m) In mutant cells, the kDNA arrangement was 1044 not affected in relation to protozoa not submitted to cisplatin treatment. n - nucleus, k -1045 kinetoplast, m - mitochondrial branch, s - symbiont, v - vacuole. (d-e, i-j, n-o) WT and mutant cells of both types treated with cisplatin presented a rounded format containing a 1046 1047 shortening flagellum. Other atypical phenotypes, such as fat-cell shape (d), lack of flagellum (i and n, arrowheads) and plasma membrane blebs (o, arrows), were also 1048 1049 observed.

1050

Figure 6: DAPI-stained mutant protozoa presented different atypical phenotypes when 1051 1052 compared to WT cells after treatment with cisplatin for over 24 h (a-c). (a-a") WT cells 1053 treated with 150 µM cisplatin presented rounded shapes, and the fat cell phenotype contained a symbiont with multiple nucleoids (white square, green arrowheads). (**b-b**") 1054 Ad kap4^(+/-) cells treated with 300 μ M cisplatin lacking the symbiont. (**c-c**") Ad kap4^(-/-) 1055 1056 cells treated with 300 µM cisplatin containing one filamentous symbiont, two nuclei and one kinetoplast. (d) Counting of cellular patterns considering the presence of normal or 1057 filamentous symbionts. (e) Percentage of cells with atypical phenotypes. Bars 5 µm. Fs -1058 1059 Filamentous symbiont.; N- nucleus - white arrows; K-kinetoplast - white arrowheads. A total of 1,000 cells of WT and KAP4 mutant cells were counted in 3 independent 1060 1061 experiments.

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Figure 7: Effects of UV irradiation on the ultrastructure of WT and mutant cells as
revealed by TEM (a-b, f-g, k-l) and SEM (c-e, h-j, m-o). (a-b) WT cells submitted to
irradiation. Nuclear DNA condensation and kDNA arrangement were not modified.
However, the symbiont genome became densely packed (a, arrows). (f-g, k-l) mutant

cells submitted to UV irradiation. Nuclear DNA condensation and kDNA arrangement 1067 were not affected. (**f**, **k**, **g**) The symbiont was seen in association with the ER (white 1068 arrowheads), and its DNA suffered condensation (white arrows). (1) $kap4^{-4}$ cells 1069 containing multiple nuclei were also observed. fp - flagellar pocket, g - glycosome, k -1070 kinetoplast, m - mitochondrion, n - nucleus, s - symbiont. (a-c) WT cells subjected to 1071 irradiation presented atypical formats indicating cytokinesis impairment. (h-j) $kap4^{+/-}$ 1072 cells submitted to UV irradiation presented multiple interconnected cell bodies, indicating 1073 that in such mutants, cytokinesis impairment was exacerbated in relation to WT protozoa. 1074 (**m-o**) $kap4^{-}$ cells submitted to UV irradiation presented a round cell body, and the 1075 flagellum was short or even absent (white arrows). 1076

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Figure 8: DAPI-stained protozoa exposed to UV irradiation presented atypical 1078 phenotypes. Such morphotypes were observed in WT cells (a-a"), as well as in kap4^{+/-} 1079 (**b-b**") and kap4- (**c-c**") mutant cells. (**a-a**") Protozoa harboring two symbionts, two 1080 nuclei, and one kinetoplast. (b-b") A dyskinetoplastic protozoan, with a filamentous 1081 symbiont containing multiple nucleoids and one nucleus. (c-c'') A cured cell containing 1082 one nucleus and one kinetoplast. (d) Counting of cellular patterns considering the 1083 1084 presence of normal or filamentous symbionts, as well as cured cells (that lost the symbiont) or lysed symbionts. (e) Percentage of cells presenting atypical phenotypes. S-1085 Symbiont and Fs - Filamentous symbiont, green arrowheads indicate bacterium 1086 nucleoids; N- nucleus - white arrows; K-kinetoplast - white arrowhead. Bars 5 µm. A 1087 total of 1,000 WT and KAP4 mutant cells were counted in 3 independent experiments. 1088

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Figure 9: DNA repair kinetics of WT and mutant cells. (**a-b**) DNA repair kinetics of WT cells compared to $kap4^{+,-}$ cells (left panel) and $kap4^{-,-}$ (right panel) after treatment with 300 µM cisplatin. (**c-d**) DNA repair kinetics of WT cells in relation to $kap4^{+,-}$ cells (left panel) and $kap4^{-,-}$ (right panel) after UV damage radiation. As observed for cisplatin, no significant difference was observed in the DNA repair kinetics of all cell types.

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Table 1: List of oligonucleotides for CRISPR-Cas9 in *A. deanei*, including sgRNA,
repair template and diagnostic PCR. Sequences are written in the 5' to 3' orientation.

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Supplementary Material 1: Total protein extract of WT and T7RNAPol-SpCas9 mutant 1099 strains of A. deanei and L. mexicana, here used as a control, were probed with anti-FLAG 1100 antibody (Anti-FLAG M2, Sigma F3165; dilution 1:20,000) for detection of SpCas9 or 1101 anti-β-tubulin (Anti-β-Tubulin clone AA2, Sigma T8328; dilution 1:10,000) used as 1102 1103 loading control. 1104 1105 Supplementary Material 2: Flow cytometry analysis of A. deanei DNA content in wild type (WT) and mutant cells treated or not with cisplatin for 1 h or 24 h. 1106 1107 Supplementary Material 3: DNA repair kinetics (0.25-6 h) measured by long-range 1108 qPCR. Absorbance values for the smaller fragments of A. deanei WT, kap4^{+/-} and kap4^{-/-} 1109 1110 .

1111

Nuclear Genome

а

b

Mitochondrial genome







	Pre- replication	Early- replication	Late- replication	Post- replication	
DAPI					
TdT		•*	8	•	
WT	76%	8%	5%	11%	
kap4 +/-	74%	6%	5%	15%	
kap4 -/-	80%	3%	6%	11%	

g

Cisplatin treatment



Ultraviolet radiation











Cisplatin treatment



Ultraviolet radiation





Supplementary Material 1: Total protein extract of WT and T7RNAPol-SpCas9 mutant strains of *A. deanei* and *L. mexicana*, here used as a control, were probed with anti-FLAG antibody (Anti-FLAG M2, Sigma F3165; dilution 1:20,000) for detection of SpCas9 or anti-β-tubulin (Anti-β-Tubulin clone AA2, Sigma T8328; dilution 1:10,000) used as loading control.



Supplementary Material 2: Flow cytometry analysis of *A. deanei* DNA content in wild type (WT) and mutant cells treated or not with cisplatin for 1 h or 24 h.

Wild type	Replicate 1		Replicate 2	
Small blank	1456	1121	1205	1190
Small NT	29656	28775	29332	29011
Small 0,25h	28744	28312	31223	30774
Small 1h	28552	28331	30999	31421
Small 3h	27561	28078	30657	30212
Small 6h	27771	26987	29044	27908
Кар4+/-	Replicate 1		Replicate 2	
Small blank	1987	1999	1024	1016
Small NT	30999	31647	32886	32543
Small 0,25h	29767	29342	31888	31369
Small 1h	30145	29987	29042	29466
Small 3h	29688	28921	33112	33876
Small 6h	27556	27899	29234	30450
Кар4-/-	Replicate 1		Replicate 2	
Small blank	1113	997	1002	996
Small NT	26684	27499	29500	29122
Small 0,25h	27312	27484	28666	27521
Small 1h	25433	26421	29311	29875
Small 3h	26911	26041	26884	28333
Small 6	25987	26020	26003	27421

Supplementary Material 3: DNA repair kinetics (0.25-6 h) measured by long-range qPCR. Absorbance values for the smaller fragments of A. deanei WT, kap4+/- and kap4-/-.