

Genome Editing of Babesia bovis Using the CRISPR/Cas9 **System**

Hassan Hakimi,^a Takahiro Ishizaki,^{a,b} Yuto Kegawa,^{a,b*} Osamu Kaneko,^{a,b} Shin-ichiro Kawazu,^c Masahito Asada^{a,b}

- ^aDepartment of Protozoology, Institute of Tropical Medicine (NEKKEN), Nagasaki University, Nagasaki, Japan
- Program for Nurturing Global Leaders in Tropical and Emerging Communicable Diseases, Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki University, Nagasaki, Japan «National Research Center for Protozoan Diseases, Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Obihiro, Hokkaido, Japan

ABSTRACT Babesia bovis, the most virulent causative agent of bovine babesiosis, is prevalent in tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Although the wholegenome sequence was released more than a decade ago, functional analysis of the genomics of this parasite is hampered by the limited breadth of genetic engineering tools. In this study, we implemented the clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeat (CRISPR)/Cas9 system for B. bovis and demonstrated its potential for genome editing. Cas9 and human dihydrofolate reductase (hDHFR) were simultaneously expressed by the B. bovis elongation factor- 1α bidirectional promoter, and a single guide RNA was expressed via the B. bovis U6 spliceosomal RNA promoter. Using a single plasmid construct, we were able to add an epitope tag to spherical body protein 3 (SBP3), introduce a point mutation into thioredoxin peroxidase 1 (tpx-1) to impair the function of the product, and replace the tpx-1 open reading frame with the other protein. Epitope tagging of SBP3 was efficient using this system, with a negligible number of remaining wild-type parasites and a pure transgenic population produced by allelic replacement of tpx-1. This advancement in genetic engineering tools for B. bovis will aid functional analysis of the genome and underpin characterization of candidate drug and vaccine targets.

IMPORTANCE Babesia bovis is the most virulent cause of bovine babesiosis worldwide. The disease consequences are death, abortion, and economical loss due to reduced milk and meat production. Available vaccines are not effective, treatment options are limited, and emergence of drug and acaricide resistance has been reported from different regions. There is an urgent need to identify new drug and vaccine targets. Greater than half of the genes in B. bovis genome, including several expanded gene families which are unique for Babesia spp., have no predicted function. The available genetic engineering tools are based on conventional homologous recombination, which is time-consuming and inefficient. In this study, we adapted the CRISPR/Cas9 system as a robust genetic engineering tool for B. bovis. This advancement will aid future functional studies of uncharacterized genes.

KEYWORDS Babesia bovis, CRISPR/Cas9, genome editing, thioredoxin peroxidase

abesia bovis is the most virulent Babesia parasite that infects cattle and produces severe clinical symptoms and occasional death in naive animals. The lack of an effective vaccine and the emergence of drug and acaricide resistance in the field are the main challenges to control of bovine babesiosis (1). Following the completion of genome sequences for B. bovis and several other Babesia spp. (2-4), classical genetic modification techniques for these parasites have been established (5-9). These methods are based on homologous recombination, which introduces plasmid DNA containing a drug marker into the target locus followed by selection of these transgenic parasites by a specific drug. However, these methods have several limitations; namely,

Citation Hakimi H, Ishizaki T, Kegawa Y, Kaneko O, Kawazu S-I, Asada M. 2019. Genome editing of Babesia bovis using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. mSphere 4:e00109-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/ mSphere.00109-19.

Editor Ira J. Blader, University at Buffalo Copyright © 2019 Hakimi et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

Address correspondence to Hassan Hakimi, hassanhakimi@nagasaki-u.ac.ip. or Masahito Asada, masahitoasada@nagasaki-u.ac.jp.

* Present address: Yuto Kegawa, Section on Integrative Biophysics, Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health. Bethesda, Maryland, USA.

Received 14 February 2019 Accepted 24 May 2019 Published 12 June 2019



the efficiency of the genome integration of the plasmid is low, drug selection process is time-consuming, and, more importantly, the insertion of the selection marker into the genome is not ideal for some phenotypic assays and also restricts the manipulation of multiple gene loci in a single parasite.

Recently, precise and site-specific genome editing technologies such as zinc finger nuclease (ZFN), transcription activator-like effector nuclease (TALEN), and CRISPR/Cas9 (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeat and Cas9 endonucleasemediated genome editing) technologies have been developed. In these methods, a nuclease produces a double-strand break (DSB) in the target region which is repaired by homologous recombination in the presence of a template DNA fragment or through nonhomologous end joining. This process can produce errors such as deletions or insertions in the DSB site. ZFN was successfully adapted for genome editing of Plasmodium falciparum and P. vivax, two agents causing human malaria (10, 11). Unlike ZFN and TALEN, for which significant effort is needed for the design and production of expensive nucleases, the CRISPR/Cas9 system needs only a specific single guide RNA (sgRNA) to direct and guide Cas9 nuclease to the target site (12). The CRISPR/Cas9 system is derived from a prokaryotic adaptive immune mechanism against invading viruses and plasmids that produce a DSB at a specific site of DNA (12). CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing has been adapted for several protozoan parasites, including Plasmodium and Toxoplasma (13-15), and has been used for functional analysis of several genes in these parasites (16).

Nonhomologous end joining machinery does not exist in *Babesia* spp.; therefore, classical genetic manipulation technologies based on homologous recombination have been used for gene functional studies in *B. bovis* during the erythrocytic and tick stages (6, 17–19). Functional studies of this parasite have been hampered by the limited breadth of available tools and inefficiency of transfection. In this study, we designed a basic plasmid expressing Cas9 and human dihydrofolate reductase (hDHFR) for *B. bovis* and evaluated its usefulness in this pathogen by examining the efficiency of epitope tagging, introduction of a point mutation, and gene replacement.

RESULTS

Addition of a myc tag epitope at the C-terminal end of B. bovis SBP3. To adapt the CRISPR/Cas9 system to B. bovis, we constructed a plasmid (BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-sbp3myc) to insert a sequence encoding a 2-myc tag epitope at the 3' end of the B. bovis sbp3 open reading frame (orf; Fig. 1A). In this plasmid, expression of Cas9 and expression of hDHFR were driven simultaneously by ef-1 α intergenic region (ef-1 α IG), which works as a bidirectional promoter. The B. bovis U6 spliceosomal RNA promoter drove the expression of the sqRNA, which contained a 20-nucleotide guide RNA that targets a region at the 3' end of B. bovis sbp3. We chose SBP3 since it is expressed in the parasite-infected red blood cell (iRBC) cytoplasm and exhibits a characteristic staining pattern (20). The iRBCs were transfected with a single circular plasmid, and parasites appeared 10 days after WR99210 selection. The sgRNA transcripts were detected initially by reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR), verifying the B. bovis U6 spliceosomal RNA promoter activity (see Fig. S1A and B in the supplemental material). An indirect immunofluorescence antibody test (IFAT) using anti-FLAG antibody confirmed the expression of FLAG-tagged Cas9 in the parasite nucleus (Fig. S1C). The correct insertion of the sequence for the myc tag was evaluated by PCR, which amplified 1.1-kb DNA fragments (Fig. 1A and B). To confirm the absence of the remaining wild-type (WT) parasites, PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism (PCR-RFLP) analysis was performed using primers out of recombination sites, which produced 2,161-bp and 2,221-bp fragments for the WT and myc-tagged parasites, respectively. The PCR products were digested with BgIII, which produced 770- and 1,391-bp DNA fragments for the WT strain and 30-, 357-, 770-, and 1,064-bp DNA fragments for myc-tagged parasites. This PCR-RFLP analysis confirmed the absence of the remaining WT parasites in the transgenic populations (Fig. 1A and B). IFAT was performed using anti-myc antibody to check if the myc tag was fused to SBP3, and patchy staining within the iRBC

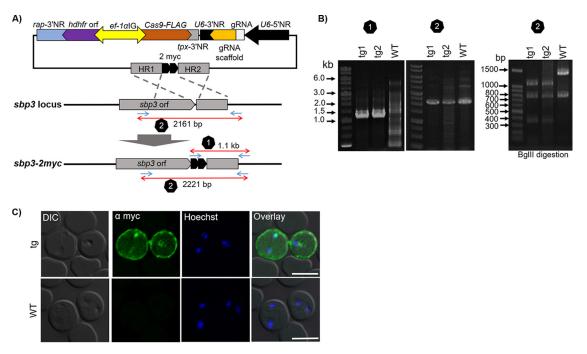


FIG 1 CRISPR/Cas9-mediated C-terminal epitope tagging of B. bovis SBP3. (A) Schematic of BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-sbp3-myc. rap-3'NR, rhoptry associated protein 3' noncoding region; hdhfr orf, human dihydrofolate reductase open reading frame; ef-1alG, elongation factor-1α intergenic region; tpx-3'NR, thioredoxin peroxidase-1 3' noncoding region; U6-3'NR, U6 spliceosomal RNA 3' noncoding region; qRNA, quide RNA; HR, homologous region. (B) Agarose gel electrophoresis separation of products following the diagnostic PCR to confirm the integration of the sequence encoding myc epitopes. (C) Indirect immunofluorescence microscopy of transgenic B. bovis having SBP3 tagged with myc epitopes and WT (α -myc, green). The smear was prepared from the parasites that appeared 10 days after drug selection. The parasite nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (Hoechst, blue). Scale bar = 5 µm. DIC, differential interference contrast.

cytoplasm and iRBC periphery was seen (Fig. 1C), in agreement with a report showing the export of SBP3 into the iRBC and its association with the iRBC membrane (20). Survey of 100 parasites revealed all to be fluorescence positive, indicating efficient tagging and negligible remaining numbers of WT parasites.

Introduction of a point mutation into B. bovis tpx-1 that impairs its function. Tpx-1 is a cytoplasmic antioxidant enzyme peroxiredoxin with an essential peroxidatic Cys at its catalytic site functioning to reduce the peroxide substrate (21–23). To evaluate the CRISPR/Cas9 system for making a point mutation in a target gene, without integrating a selectable marker, we made the BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-tpx-1-mutant plasmid with donor DNA from a tpx-1 orf containing a mutation to change the peroxidatic Cys (Cys₄₉) to Ser (Fig. 2A). The tpx-1 orf was amplified following the appearance of transgenic parasites, and sequencing confirmed the presence of the desired mutation and the protospacer-adjacent motif (PAM) sequence (Fig. 2B). Transfectants from 2 different sqRNA showed efficacies ranging from a mixture of WT and mutants to a pure mutant population with negligible remaining levels of WT locus, indicating various efficiencies of sqRNA in guiding Cas9 into the target locus (Fig. 2B).

Deletion of B. bovis tpx-1 gene locus and replacement with green fluorescent protein (GFP). To validate the CRISPR/Cas9 system for making a gene knockout (KO) in B. bovis, we targeted tpx-1, which is not essential for the erythrocytic stage (6). A single plasmid, BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-tpx-1KO-GFP, was designed to replace the tpx-1 orf with the qfp orf (Fig. 3A). The diagnostic PCR performed with primer pairs to amplify the 5' side or 3' side of the modified gene locus successfully amplified 1.2-kb DNA fragments from transgenic parasites (Fig. 3B, panels 1 and 2). The presence or absence of the tpx-1 WT locus was evaluated by PCR-3, showing 1.6-kb DNA fragments for the WT parasites and no amplified product for the transgenic parasites (Fig. 3B, panel 3), indicating a pure KO parasite population. To evaluate whether the transfected plasmid was episomally maintained or integrated into the genome, we performed Southern blot

Downloaded from http://msphere.asm.org/ on August 1, 2019 by guest



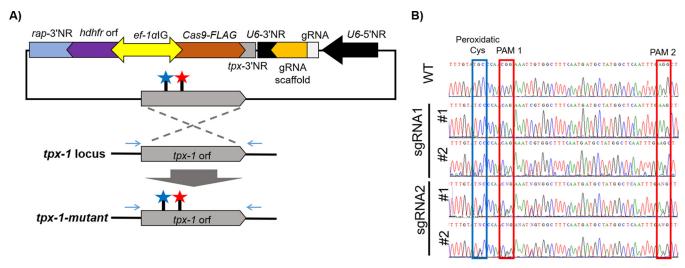


FIG 2 CRISPR/Cas9-mediated nucleotide editing of B. bovis tpx-1. (A) Diagram illustrating the plasmid design and the strategy to produce two point mutations at peroxidatic Cys and protospacer-adjacent motif (PAM) sites. The primer sites for sequencing are indicated as arrows out of the recombination site. For abbreviations, see the Fig. 1 legend. (B) Electrograms of the nucleotide sequence covering the modified sites for peroxidatic Cys and PAM in the wild-type (WT) and transfected parasite populations.

analysis (Fig. S2). A probe targeting qfp orf detected two bands, namely, a 5.8-kb band as expected from the modified tpx-1 locus and a 7.8-kb band which was similar in size to the control plasmid. To further examine whether the 7.8-kb band was derived from the episomal or from the genome-integrated plasmid, additional Southern blotting was done using Aatll, which cuts the tpx-1 locus but not CRISPR/Cas9 plasmid. The expected band size for the episomal plasmid was 4.5 kb; however, both transgenic parasites showed a higher band, suggesting integration of the plasmid into the genome. Additionally, a probe targeting cas9 orf showed a single 8.6-kb band similar to that seen with the control plasmid. Altogether, Southern blot analysis results indicated integra-

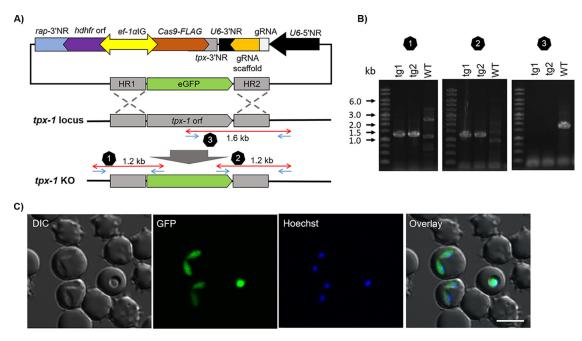


FIG 3 CRISPR/Cas9-mediated replacement of B. bovis tpx-1 with qfp. (A) Schematic showing the replacement of the B. bovis tpx-1 orf with the gfp orf. For abbreviations, see Fig. 1 legend. (B) PCR to confirm the recombination event. PCR 1 primer pair, BbTpx-1-5NR-IntegF and eGFP-R; PCR 2 primer pair, eGFP-F and BbTpx-1-3NR-IntegR; PCR3 primer pair, BbTPx1-F and BbTpx-1-3NR-IntegR. (C) Live fluorescence microscopy images of GFP-expressing parasites. The parasite nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (Hoechst, blue). Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.



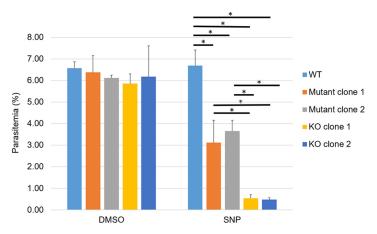


FIG 4 Sensitivity of B. bovis wild-type (WT), tpx-1 knockout (KO), and tpx-1 mutant (Mutant) parasites to sodium nitroprusside (SNP). Two clones of the B. bovis tpx-1 KO strain, two clones of a tpx-1 mutant for which the peroxidatic Cys was replaced with Ser, and the parental WT parasites were incubated with 10 μ M SNP in the culture medium for 4 days. The level of parasitemia on day 4 is plotted with means \pm standard deviations (SD) from the triplicated well cultures (*, P < 0.0001 [one-way ANOVA followed by Tukev's multiple-comparison test]).

tion of the CRISPR/Cas9 plasmid into the genome. Live fluorescence microscopy of over 100 parasites showed GFP expression from all parasites, representing good agreement with our PCR result of having a pure KO population.

B. bovis tpx-1 KO and mutant parasites are sensitive to sodium nitroprusside. To determine whether the tpx-1 KO and mutant parasite lines generated by the CRISPR/Cas9 system in this study displayed altered phenotypes, we took advantage of a report showing that B. bovis tpx-1 KO parasites were more sensitive to sodium nitroprusside (SNP) than WT parasites (17). Two KO clones and two mutant clones for which the peroxidatic Cys was changed to Ser were cultured together with WT parental parasites in the presence of 10 μ M SNP. A 4-day exposure to SNP resulted in a significant decrease in the growth rate of the tpx-1 KO and mutant clones compared to that of WT (P < 0.0001, Fig. 4). In addition, the levels of parasitemia seen with the KO clones were significantly lower than those seen with the mutant clones, indicating that the KO clones were more sensitive to SNP than the mutant lines (P < 0.0001). No significant change was seen in the growth rates of negative-control parasites cultured with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

DISCUSSION

Existing tools for genetic engineering of B. bovis are based on classical homologous recombination driven by insertion of a selection marker into the genome of the parasite. The limited availability of selection markers limits the number of genes that can be targeted in a single parasite. Genome modification using the CRISPR/Cas9 system does not require the insertion of a selection marker into the genome, thus allowing the possibility of targeting an unlimited number of genes in a single parasite. Disruption of multiple genes is important in functional studies of multigene families or genes with redundant functions. Here, we report the usage of the CRISPR/Cas9 system for B. bovis, which permitted, using a single plasmid, epitope tagging or the introduction of a point mutation and gene replacement. Two independent replacements of tpx-1 to qfp using two different sgRNAs produced pure transgenic parasite populations and no detectable WT parasites. Epitope tagging of SBP3 was also very efficient, with negligible levels of WT parasites remaining. However, introduction of a point mutation in tpx-1 using 2 different sgRNAs showed different percentages of transgenic parasites, indicating that the choice of sgRNA determined the efficacy of Cas9 targeting. These results demonstrate the utility and potential of the plasmid designed in this study. We showed that genome editing could be achieved efficiently; however, the plasmid tended to be integrated into the genome which could be removed by using a

negative-selection marker (24). It was reported previously that the CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing method using one plasmid design resulted in the integration of the plasmid into the genome in the rodent malaria parasite *Plasmodium yoelii* (25, 26). A novel ribosome-mediated CRISPR system was recently reported that allows expression of several sgRNAs, prevents integration of the plasmid into the genome, and produces a marker-free *P. yoelii* strain (26).

Tpx-1 has two conserved Cys residues; one is a peroxidatic Cys (catalysis site) and the other a resolving Cys making a disulfide bond with the peroxidatic Cys following catalysis (27). In a published study, the deletion of *B. bovis* Tpx-1 increased parasite sensitivity to nitrosative stress (17); however, the importance of the peroxidatic Cys was not assessed. In this study, we mutated the peroxidatic Cys to Ser and found that this mutation had less impact on the sensitivity to reactive nitrogen species (RNS) than the complete deletion of the *tpx-1* orf. This indicates the contribution of other factors, such as a resolving Cys, in the antioxidant activity of this enzyme. In *P. falciparum*, Tpx-1 was shown to reduce peroxinitrite, the major SNP-derived RNS, with an unidentified catalytic center (28). Here we showed that other catalytic sites in addition to peroxidatic Cys exist to react with and detoxify RNS.

This is the first demonstration of CRISPR/Cas9 in *Babesia* parasites. We showed the potential of CRISPR/Cas9 in editing 2 different genes in *B. bovis*; however, implementation of this system for diverse genetic loci as well as parallel comparisons with a conventional homologous recombination system may give more insights into the efficiency of CRISPR/Cas9 in *B. bovis*. Implementation of inducible Cas9 or Cas13 targeting RNA will further develop the capabilities of this tool kit for use in analysis of the functional genomics of *B. bovis* (19). Considering the limited number of selectable markers for *B. bovis*, the production of marker-free parasites is invaluable for performing consecutive genome manipulations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Parasite culture. *B. bovis* strain Texas was maintained *in vitro* with purified bovine RBCs (Nippon Bio-Supply Center, Tokyo, Japan) and GIT medium (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) using a microaerophilic stationary-phase culture system.

Plasmid constructs. A schematic of the Cas9-expressing plasmid is shown in Fig. S1 in the supplemental material. The primers used for construction of the plasmid are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material. A DNA fragment encoding N-terminally FLAG-tagged Cas9 was amplified from pDC2-cam-Cas9-U6-hDHFR (GenBank accession number KY574493). A DNA fragment containing hdhfr and B. bovis rhoptry associated protein 3' noncoding region (rap 3'NR) was amplified from a B. bovis GFP-expressing plasmid (6). B. bovis elongation factor- 1α intergenic region (ef- 1α IG) and thioredoxin peroxidase-1 (tpx-1) 3'NR were PCR amplified from B. bovis genomic DNA (gDNA). DNA fragments for Cas9 and ef-1 α IG were cloned into the EcoRl site of pBluescript SK using an In-Fusion HD cloning kit (TaKaRa Bio Inc., Otsu, Japan). hdhfr-rap 3'NR and tpx-1 3'NR were cloned into Smal and HindIII sites, respectively, to make the BbCas9-hDHFR plasmid. B. bovis U6 spliceosomal RNA gene was found by a homology search in PiroplasmaDB using as a query the P. falciparum U6 spliceosomal RNA (PF3D7_1341100). B. bovis U6 spliceosomal RNA gene was not annotated in PiroplasmaDB and located on chromosome 3 between BBOV_III004870 and BBOV_III004880. A total of 600 bp of the 5'NR (U6 5'NR) and 100 bp of the 3'NR (U6 3'NR) were PCR amplified from B. bovis gDNA and used as a promoter to drive sgRNA and a terminator, respectively. gRNA scaffold was amplified from pDC2-cam-Cas9-U6-hDHFR. B. bovis U6 5'NR, gRNA scaffold, and U6 3'NR were cloned into the EcoRI site of pBluescript SK to make BbU6-gRNA. The final Cas9-expressing plasmid (BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR) was constructed by inserting BbCas9-hDHFR and BbU6-gRNA into the EcoRI site of pBluescript SK. The target sgRNA was inserted into the Aarl site in BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR using T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs, Beverly, MA, USA). Insertion of homologous regions (HRs) for epitope tagging, introduction of a point mutation, and gene replacement were performed using PCR amplification with specific primers (Table S1), and the resulting sequences were inserted into BamHI site of BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR using an In-Fusion HD cloning kit. All plasmids were purified with a Qiagen Plasmid Maxi kit (Qiagen, MD, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions, and the inserted DNA sequences were confirmed by sequencing.

Transfection of parasites. The preparation and transfection of *B. bovis* were performed as previously described (6). Briefly, *B. bovis* iRBCs were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and once with cytomix buffer (120 mM KCl, 0.15 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM K₂HPO₄, 10 mM KH₂PO₄, 25 mM HEPES, 2 mM EGTA, 5 mM MgCl₂, 100 μ g/ml bovine serum albumin, 1 mM hypoxanthine; pH 7.6). A 10- μ g volume of the circular plasmid construct in 10 μ l of cytomix buffer was mixed with 90 μ l of Amaxa Nucleofector human T-cell solution and then combined with 100 μ l of washed packed iRBCs. Transfection was done using a Nucleofector device (program v-024; Amaxa Biosystems, Cologne, Germany), and iRBCs were



immediately transferred into 1 ml of culture containing 10% bovine RBCs. WR99210 (10 nM) was added 1 day after the transfection to episomally maintain the plasmid and produce a DSB.

Tagging of *B. bovis* **spherical body protein 3 (SBP3) with 2-myc epitopes.** To test the transfection efficiency with BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR, we transfected *B. bovis* iRBCs with a plasmid containing HRs and a sequence encoding a 2-myc epitope to tag the C-terminal end of *B. bovis* SBP3 (BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-sbp3-myc). After the appearance of parasites following drug selection, DNA was extracted and diagnostic PCR was done using Myc-F and BbSBP3-3rec-R primers. To differentiate WT and myc-tagged parasites, PCR-RFLP analysis was done using BbSBP3-5GI-F and BbSBP3-3GI-R primers followed by Bglll digestion. RNA was additionally extracted from transgenic and WT parasites to confirm the expression of chimeric sgRNA. Primer pairs of BbSBP3-gRNA-1F or BbSBP3-gRNA-2F and gRNA-scaffold-R-IF were used to amplify a 100-bp DNA fragment in a reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR).

Deletion of *B. bovis tpx-1* and replacement with GFP. BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-tpx-1KO-GFP was designed to replace the *tpx-1* orf with the *gfp* orf. PCR to confirm *tpx-1* KO was performed using gDNA extracted from parasites after drug selection. To examine the 5' recombination event, primers tpx-1-5NR-integF and eGFP-R were used to amplify 1.2-kb DNA fragments. To confirm the 3' recombination event, primers eGFP-F and tpx-1-3NR-integR were used to amplify 1.2-kb DNA fragments. To examine the existence of *tpx-1* orf, primers tpx-1-F and tpx-3NR-integR were used, by which 1.6-kb DNA fragments would be amplified from wild-type parasites.

Introduction of a point mutation into *B. bovis tpx-1*. The catalytic active site of *B. bovis tpx-1*, the peroxidatic Cys, was changed to Ser by transfecting parasites with the BbU6-Cas9-hDHFR-tpx-1-mutant plasmid. Transgenic parasites were cloned by limiting dilution, and the *tpx-1* orf was PCR amplified and sequenced to confirm the replacement mutation.

Indirect immunofluorescence antibody test (IFAT). Thin blood smears from cultured parasites were prepared and fixed as previously described (29). Blocking was done with 10% normal goat serum (Invitrogen)–PBS at 37°C for 30 min. To confirm the expression of Cas9, blood smears were immunostained with mouse anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody (M20008; Abmart, Shanghai, China) at 1:100 dilutions in PBS with 0.05% Tween 20 (T-PBS) and incubated at 37°C for 60 min. To evaluate myc epitope tagging of SBP3, the slides were immunostained with mouse anti-myc monoclonal antibody (9B11; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) at a 1:500 dilution. After 3 washes with T-PBS, the blood smears were incubated with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated secondary goat anti-mouse IgG antibody (Invitrogen) (1:500 dilutions) at 37°C for 30 min. The smears were washed again 3 times with T-PBS and incubated with 1 µg/ml of Hoechst 33342 solution (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan) at 37°C for 20 min. After 3 washes with T-PBS, the smears were examined under a Nikon A1R confocal laser scanning microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan).

Southern blot analysis. Genomic DNA was extracted from WT parasites and two *tpx-1* KO clones. Ten micrograms of DNA was digested overnight with 100 units of HindIII, AatII, or BamHI and Sall. The DNA was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and then transferred onto HyBond N+ membranes (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom). Two probes were used, one corresponding to the complete *gfp* orf and the other to a 0.5-kb length of the *cas9* orf, and both were labeled and hybridized by the use of an AlkPhos Direct kit (GE Healthcare). Chemiluminescent signal was developed with CDP-star detection reagent (GE Healthcare) and detected with a multipurpose charge-coupled-device (CCD) camera system (LAS-4000 mini EPUV; Fujifilm, Japan).

Evaluation of parasite sensitivity to reactive nitrogen species (RNS). *B. bovis* WT parasites or tpx-1 KO or tpx-1 mutant clones were cultured in the absence or presence of 10 μ M sodium nitroprusside (SNP; Sigma) as a NO donor (30). Parasites were cultured in triplicate in 10% hematocrit with 0.1% as the initial parasitemia level for 4 days, and the culture medium was changed daily. Parasitemia was calculated by examining at least 10,000 RBCs on thin smears prepared on day 4. The growth rate of each transgenic parasite line was compared with that of the WT parasites and other transgenic lines by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's multiple-comparison test, and growth differences were considered significant if the P value was below 0.05.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at https://doi.org/10.1128/mSphere.00109-19.

FIG S1, TIF file, 0.5 MB. **FIG S2**, TIF file, 0.3 MB.

TABLE S1, XLSX file, 0.01 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to Brendan Elsworth of the Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health for his helpful advice on CRISPR/Cas9 design for *B. bovis*. We thank Thomas Templeton of our institute for his critical reading of the manuscript. This work was conducted at the Joint Usage/Research Center on Tropical Disease, Institute of Tropical Medicine, Nagasaki University, Nagasaki, Japan, and at the National Research Center for Protozoan Diseases, Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido, Japan

H.H. is a recipient of the JSPS Postdoctoral Fellowship for foreign researchers from



the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. T.I. is a recipient of the JSPS Research Fellowship for Young Scientists (DC1) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. This study was supported partly by a grant from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science to H.H. (15K18783), M.A. (16K08021), O.K. (16F16105), and S.K. (18K19258 and 19H03120).

We declare that we have no competing interests.

REFERENCES

- 1. Vudriko P, Okwee-Acai J, Byaruhanga J, Tayebwa DS, Omara R, Muhindo JB, Lagu C, Umemiya-Shirafuji R, Xuan X, Suzuki H. 2018. Evidence-based tick acaricide resistance intervention strategy in Uganda: concept and feedback of farmers and stakeholders. Ticks Tick Borne Dis 9:254-265. https://doi.org/10.1016/i.ttbdis.2017.09.011.
- 2. Brayton KA, Lau AO, Herndon DR, Hannick L, Kappmeyer LS, Berens SJ, Bidwell SL, Brown WC, Crabtree J, Fadrosh D, Feldblum T, Forberger HA, Haas BJ, Howell JM, Khouri H, Koo H, Mann DJ, Norimine J, Paulsen IT, Radune D, Ren Q, Smith RK, Jr, Suarez CE, White O, Wortman JR, Knowles DP, McElwain TF, Nene VM. 2007. Genome sequence of Babesia bovis and comparative analysis of apicomplexan hemoprotozoa. PLoS Pathog 3:1401-1413. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.0030148
- 3. Jackson AP, Otto TD, Darby A, Ramaprasad A, Xia D, Echaide IE, Farber M, Gahlot S, Gamble J, Gupta D, Gupta Y, Jackson L, Malandrin L, Malas TB, Moussa E, Nair M, Reid AJ, Sanders M, Sharma J, Tracey A, Quail MA, Weir W, Wastling JM, Hall N, Willadsen P, Lingelbach K, Shiels B, Tait A, Berriman M, Allred DR, Pain A. 2014. The evolutionary dynamics of variant antigen genes in Babesia reveal a history of genomic innovation underlying host-parasite interaction. Nucleic Acids Res 42:7113-7131. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gku322.
- 4. Yamagishi J, Asada M, Hakimi H, Tanaka TQ, Sugimoto C, Kawazu SI. 2017. Whole-genome assembly of Babesia ovata and comparative genomics between closely related pathogens. BMC Genomics 18:832. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-017-4230-4.
- 5. Suarez CE, McElwain TF. 2009. Stable expression of a GFP-BSD fusion protein in Babesia bovis merozoites. Int J Parasitol 39:289-297. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2008.08.006.
- 6. Asada M, Tanaka M, Goto Y, Yokoyama N, Inoue N, Kawazu SI. 2012. Stable expression of green fluorescent protein and targeted disruption of thioredoxin peroxidase-1 gene in Babesia bovis with the WR99210/dhfr selection system. Mol Biochem Parasitol 181:162–170. https://doi.org/10 .1016/j.molbiopara.2011.11.001.
- 7. Hakimi H, Yamagishi J, Kegawa Y, Kaneko O, Kawazu SI, Asada M. 2016. Establishment of transient and stable transfection systems for *Babesia* ovata. Parasit Vectors 9:171. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-016-1439-z.
- 8. Liu M, Moumouni PFA, Asada M, Hakimi H, Masatani T, Vudriko P, Lee S, Kawazu SI, Yamagishi J, Xuan X. 2018. Establishment of a stable transfection system for genetic manipulation of Babesia gibsoni. Parasit Vectors 11:260. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-018-2853-1.
- 9. Silva MG, Knowles DP, Mazuz ML, Cooke BM, Suarez CE. 2018. Stable transformation of Babesia bigemina and Babesia bovis using a single transfection plasmid. Sci Rep 8:6096. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018 -23010-4
- 10. Straimer J, Lee MC, Lee AH, Zeitler B, Williams AE, Pearl JR, Zhang L, Rebar EJ, Gregory PD, Llinás M, Urnov FD, Fidock DA. 2012. Site-specific genome editing in Plasmodium falciparum using engineered zinc-finger nucleases. Nat Methods 9:993-998. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2143.
- 11. Barros RRM, Straimer J, Sa JM, Salzman RE, Melendez-Muniz VA, Mu J, Fidock DA, Wellems TE. 2015. Editing the Plasmodium vivax genome, using zinc-finger nucleases. J Infect Dis 211:125–129. https://doi.org/10 .1093/infdis/jiu423.
- 12. Sander JD, Joung JK. 2014. CRISPR-Cas systems for editing, regulating and targeting genomes. Nat Biotechnol 32:347-355. https://doi.org/10 .1038/nbt.2842.
- 13. Ghorbal M, Gorman M, Macpherson CR, Martins RM, Scherf A, Lopez-Rubio JJ. 2014. Genome editing in the human malaria parasite *Plasmo*dium falciparum using the CRISPR-Cas9 system. Nat Biotechnol 32: 819-821. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.2925.
- 14. Wagner JC, Platt RJ, Goldfless SJ, Zhang F, Niles JC. 2014. Efficient CRISPR-Cas9-mediated genome editing in Plasmodium falciparum. Nat Methods 11:915-918. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.3063.

- 15. Shen B, Brown KM, Lee TD, Sibley LD. 2014. Efficient gene disruption in diverse strains of Toxoplasma gondii using CRISPR/CAS9. mBio 5:e01114 -14. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01114-14.
- 16. de Koning-Ward TF, Gilson PR, Crabb BS. 2015. Advances in molecular genetic systems in malaria. Nat Rev Microbiol 13:373-387. https://doi .org/10.1038/nrmicro3450.
- 17. Asada M, Yahata K, Hakimi H, Yokoyama N, Igarashi I, Kaneko O, Suarez CE, Kawazu SI. 2015. Transfection of Babesia bovis by double selection with WR99210 and blasticidin-S and its application for functional analysis of thioredoxin peroxidase-1. PLoS One 10:e0125993. https://doi.org/ 10.1371/journal.pone.0125993.
- 18. Hussein HE, Bastos RG, Schneider DA, Johnson WC, Adham FK, Davis WC, Laughery JM, Herndon DR, Alzan HF, Ueti MW, Suarez CE. 2017. The Babesia bovis hap2 gene is not required for blood stage replication, but expressed upon in vitro sexual stage induction. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 11:e0005965. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0005965.
- 19. Keroack CD, Elsworth B, Duraisingh MT. 2019. To kill a piroplasm: genetic technologies to advance drug discovery and target identification in Babesia. Int J Parasitol 49:153-163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2018 .09.005
- 20. Ruef BJ, Dowling SC, Conley PG, Perryman LE, Brown WC, Jasmer DP, Rice-Ficht AC. 2000. A unique Babesia bovis spherical body protein is conserved among geographic isolates and localizes to the infected erythrocyte membrane. Mol Biochem Parasitol 105:1-12. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/S0166-6851(99)00167-X.
- 21. Tanaka M, Sakurai T, Yokoyama N, Inoue N, Kawazu SI. 2009. Cloning and characterization of peroxiredoxin in Babesia bovis. Parasitol Res 105: 1473-1477. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-009-1587-6.
- 22. Kawazu SI, Komaki-Yasuda K, Oku H, Kano S. 2008. Peroxiredoxins in malaria parasites: parasitologic aspects. Parasitol Int 57:1-7. https://doi .org/10.1016/j.parint.2007.08.001.
- 23. Hakimi H, Asada M, Angeles JMM, Kawai S, Inoue N, Kawazu SI. 2013. Plasmodium vivax and P. knowlesi: cloning, expression and functional analysis of 1-Cys peroxiredoxin. Exp Parasitol 133:101-105. https://doi .org/10.1016/j.exppara.2012.10.018.
- 24. Mogollon CM, van Pul FJ, Imai T, Ramesar J, Chevalley-Maurel S, de Roo GM, Veld SA, Kroeze H, Franke-Fayard BM, Janse CJ, Khan SM. 2016. Rapid generation of marker-free P. falciparum fluorescent reporter lines using modified CRISPR/Cas9 constructs and selection protocol. PLoS One 11:e0168362. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0168362.
- 25. Zhang C, Gao H, Yang Z, Jiang Y, Li Z, Wang X, Xiao B, Su XZ, Cui H, Yuan J. 2017. CRISPR/Cas9 mediated sequential editing of genes critical for ookinete motility in Plasmodium yoelii. Mol Biochem Parasitol 212:1-8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molbiopara.2016.12.010.
- 26. Walker MP, Lindner SE. Ribozyme-mediated, multiplex CRISPR gene editing and CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) in rodent-infectious Plasmodium yoelii. J Biol Chem, in press.
- 27. Wood ZA, Schröder E, Robin Harris J, Poole LB. 2003. Structure, mechanism and regulation of peroxiredoxins. Trends Biochem Sci 28:32-40. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0968-0004(02)00003-8.
- 28. Nickel C, Trujillo M, Rahlfs S, Deponte M, Radi R, Becker K. 2005. Plasmodium falciparum 2-Cys peroxiredoxin reacts with plasmoredoxin and peroxynitrite. Biol Chem 386:1229-1236. https://doi.org/10.1515/BC .2005.129.
- 29. Hakimi H, Asada M, Angeles JMM, Inoue N, Kawazu SI. 2012. Cloning and characterization of Plasmodium vivax thioredoxin peroxidase-1. Parasitol Res 111:525-529. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-012-2864-3.
- 30. Komaki-Yasuda K. Kawazu Sl. Kano S. 2003. Disruption of the *Plasmo*dium falciparum 2-Cys peroxiredoxin gene renders parasites hypersensitive to reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. FEBS Lett 547:140-144. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-5793(03)00694-X.