A divergent *Plasmodium* NEK4 acts as a key regulator driving the early events of meiosis

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Abstract

Meiosis is a conserved yet evolutionarily varied process underpinning sexual reproduction in eukaryotes. In the malaria parasite *Plasmodium*, meiosis is unconventional: it occurs immediately after fertilisation (post-zygotic) and must be coordinated with the transformation of the zygote into a motile ookinete. The mechanisms synchronising these meiotic and morphogenetic programmes remain unknow. Here, we identify the *Plasmodium berghei* NIMA-related kinase, NEK4 as a key regulator that couples meiotic initiation with zygote morphogenesis. Using ultrastructure expansion microscopy, we show that NEK4 accumulates at the microtubule-organising centre (MTOC) and the apical polar complex (APC) shortly after fertilisation, preceding the assembly of perinuclear and cortical microtubules. We reveal that *Plasmodium* zygotes undergo a nuclear migration driven by the MTOC, analogous to the horsetail nuclear movement of fission yeast. Deletion of *nek4* results in complete developmental arrest: MTOC duplication and microtubule formation are blocked, chromatin remains uncondensed, and nuclear migration and cell polarity fail to establish. Transcriptomic and phosphoproteomic analyses reveal that NEK4 absence causes a collapse in transcriptional and phosphoregulatory networks governing meiosis and cytoskeletal organisation, leading to reduced expression and phosphorylation of important players, including HOP1, REC8, and AP2-O. These findings establish NEK4 as a key regulator driving meiotic entry and zygote maturation.

Keywords: *Plasmodium*; meiosis; NIMA-related kinase; malaria; zygote; ookinete; MTOC; microtubules; chromosome

Introduction

Meiosis is a conserved and essential mode of cell division that underpins sexual reproduction in eukaryotes. It entails a carefully choreographed sequence of events, including DNA replication, homologous recombination, synapsis and two rounds of chromosome segregation[1]. In mammals, it generates haploid gametes from diploid progenitors, following two successive nuclear divisions without intervening genome duplication[1]. In many well-studied organisms including yeast, plants, and mammals, meiotic progression is regulated by a network of conserved protein kinases and checkpoints, including cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs), Polo-like kinases (PLKs), the anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome (APC/C), ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (ATM)/ATM and Rad3-related (ATR) kinases, checkpoint kinases (CHK1/2), and members of the NIMA-related kinase (NEK) family[2, 3, 4, 5]. These regulators ensure the fidelity of chromosome segregation by integrating signals from DNA damage checkpoints, spindle dynamics, and crossover/recombination status, at the same time as maintaining synchrony with cytoskeletal changes that support cell division and differentiation.

Despite the broad conservation of its core function to facilitate obligatory chromosomal exchanges and homologous recombination between parental chromosomes, both the molecular machinery executing meiosis and its operational sequence of events display remarkable variability[6, 7]. For a wide range of unicellular eukaryotes, including parasitic protists, meiotic programmes have undergone substantial evolutionary divergence. This is evident in the malaria-causing parasite *Plasmodium*, a member of the phylum Apicomplexa[7, 8]. This haploid parasite has a complex lifecycle with proliferative asexual multiplication in the liver and blood stream of the host[9]. A subpopulation of blood-stage parasites differentiates into haploid male and female gametocytes which, following ingestion in a mosquito blood meal, start the sexual phase of the life cycle inside the gut of the vector. Gametogenesis produces haploid gametes and following fertilisation, meiosis occurs in the diploid zygote; a process known as post-zygotic meiosis. The zygote undergoes a ~24-hour developmental programme to become an elongated, motile ookinete capable of traversing the midgut epithelium[8] (Fig. 1a), where it forms an oocyst. Many haploid sporozoites then emerge from the oocyst, migrate to the mosquito salivary glands and transmit to the vertebrate host in the blood meal. *Plasmodium* infections result in over 250 million clinical cases and nearly 600,000 deaths each year, disproportionately affecting young children in sub-Saharan Africa[10]. These outcomes are driven not only by the rapid asexual proliferation in the human host, but also by the successful

sexual reproduction and transmission through the mosquito vector. Transmission is an obligate

part of the life cycle and therefore prevalence of the disease is critically reliant on the process

of meiosis[9].

Early meiotic events, for example DNA replication, chromosome pairing, and formation of

chromosome axes, are initiated within the first few hours post-fertilisation. Ultrastructural

studies have shown that *Plasmodium* zygotes progress through early prophase I stages, forming

distinct synaptonemal complexes (SC) that persists unusually until anaphase I. However, later

prophase stages and meiosis II are not observed[11, 12]. Despite two rounds of chromosome

segregation, the ookinete retains a single nucleus with four kinetochore clusters, indicating a

divergent closed meiosis without karyokinesis[13].

The cell biological divergence of meiosis is reflected at the molecular level as well.

Plasmodium species lacks orthologues of several conserved meiotic regulators, including

CDC25, CDC14, PLKs, and many APC/C components[14, 15]. They do possess a reduced,

parasite-specific set of protein kinases that appear to have acquired regulatory roles normally

fulfilled by these missing elements[15, 16]. The signalling mechanisms that control *Plasmodium*

meiosis and coordinate with cytoskeletal reorganisation and establishment of cell polarity, are

poorly defined, although cGMP signalling has been suggested to initiate ookinete gliding

motility and polarization[17]. One protein kinase family of particular interest is the NIMA-

related kinases (NEKs), which are conserved across eukaryotes and regulate centrosome

function, spindle assembly, and 3D chromatin organisaion[18, 19]. In metazoans, specific NEKs

such as NEK1, NEK2, and NEK9 function in meiosis and mitosis, often through regulation of

microtubule dynamics and DNA damage (NEK1) and spindle assembly (NEK2 and NEK9)

checkpoint control[18, 20]. The *Plasmodium* genome encodes four NEKs (NEK1–4), which have,

apart from *Plasmodium* NEK1 and human NEK2, no direct 1-to-1 human orthologs (Extended

Data Fig. 1a, b). Each *Plasmodium* NEK has a distinct expression pattern and function during

the parasite life cycle[21, 22, 23, 24], with NEK2 and NEK4 shown to be critical for zygote

development and parasite transmission[15, 21] (Extended Data Fig. 1c). Deletion of *nek4* gene

results in a failure of DNA replication in the zygote following fertilisation and a complete block

in ookinete formation at the early stage of meiosis[21] (Figure 1a), yet the underlying function

and phosphosignalling network remain undefined.

Here, we show that during early zygote development where the post-zygotic meiosis
commences, *Plasmodium berghei* (Pb) NEK4 is located at the microtubule organising centre
(MTOC) and apical polar complex (APC). Deletion of the *nek4* gene disrupts microtubule
organisation, MTOC development, and nuclear migration during meiotic S phase and prophase.
Furthermore, its absence impairs transcription and phosphorylation of key meiotic proteins,
leading to a failure in chromosome condensation and developmental arrest at the earliest stages
of meiosis. We propose that this kinase integrates the nuclear and cell differentiation events
that drive meiotic progression and ookinete development, respectively.
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Results

NEK4 moves to the nucleus, MTOC, and apical polar complex during early meiotic development

Our previous study showed that NEK4 ablation blocks zygote development[21]. To investigate
NEK4 functions during the meiotic stages of *P. berghei* development, first we determined the
spatiotemporal location of NEK4, using a transgenic parasite line expressing the protein with
a C-terminal GFP tag from the modified endogenous gene locus (PbNEK4-GFP – Extended
Data Fig. 1d-f). Live-cell imaging revealed a dynamic pattern of PbNEK4-GFP location
following female gametocyte activation, zygote differentiation and ookinete development (Fig.
1b and Extended Data Fig. 2). In non-activated female gametocytes, the GFP signal was
diffused throughout the nucleoplasm and cytoplasm (Fig. 1b). Then in the first two hours post-
activation (hpa) and shortly after fertilisation, the PbNEK4-GFP signal was concentrated in
two foci (Fig. 1b), one at the periphery of the nucleus near the nuclear envelope and the other
at the cell cortex. By two to six hpa, these foci were more pronounced, suggesting a dual
location of PbNEK4-GFP at both nuclear and apical regions of the cell during this period of
intense morphological transformation. The PbNEK4-GFP signal within the nucleoplasm
appeared stronger relative to the cytoplasm. In addition, a focal dot-like PbNEK4-GFP-positive
structure was observed moving around in the cytoplasm (Fig. 1b; yellow arrowhead), and this
was often still visible even after the cell had fully transformed into an ookinete. The
morphological transformation of the zygote into an ookinete begins at about 4 hpa and is
initiated at the site where PbNEK4-GFP is located at the cell periphery. The onset of this
transformation is accompanied by reduction of this GFP signal and the disappearance of the
nuclear PbNEK4-GFP focus, with residual PbNEK4-GFP dispersed diffusely throughout the
cytoplasm and nucleoplasm (Fig. 1b, c).

To examine in more detail the location of NEK4 within the developing zygote, we used ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM). NHS-ester staining of cells at 2 hpa revealed the nuclear MTOC and the development of the APC at the cell periphery. Immunofluorescence labelling of the U-ExM samples with an anti-GFP antibody confirmed that PbNEK4-GFP was located at both the MTOC and the APC (Fig. 1d). Furthermore, at 4 hpa, the dividing and separating MTOCs and a more developed APC were observed by NHS-ester staining. At this later time point, a distinct presence of PbNEK4-GFP at both the MTOCs and the APC was confirmed (Fig. 1d). These observations indicate that the prominent location of NEK4 during the early stages of zygote development (2 to 4 hpa), with a concentration at the MTOC and APC, alongside a diffuse distribution within the nucleoplasm (Fig. 1e).

NEK4 drives nuclear repositioning and directional microtubule formation in the zygote

In our study of NEK4 localisation in early meiotic zygotes, we observed that the nucleus shows dynamic movement during early meiosis as seen across various eukaryotes[6, 25, 26]. For example, in the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (*S. pombe*), nuclear movement during meiosis is characterised by a dramatic "horsetail" motion, where the nucleus oscillates back and forth along the cell axis during prophase I[27, 28]. This movement is driven by cytoplasmic dynein and microtubules anchored at the spindle pole body (SPB)[29, 30], and is essential for efficient homologous chromosome pairing and recombination[27]. Time-lapse imaging of PbNEK4-GFP zygotes at 2 hpa revealed that inside the zygote, PbNEK4-GFP focus localised at the nucleus and moves together with the nucleus (magenta arrowheads in Fig. 2a and Supplementary Video 1, 2). To examine MTOC and microtubule dynamics in parallel during the nuclear movement, we used a transgenic PbEB1-GFP parasite line[31], in which PbEB1-GFP marks the microtubule lattice and the MTOC[31, 32]. The PbEB1-GFP focus, representing the MTOC position, was observed moving within the zygote, leading the nucleus (magenta arrowheads in Fig. 2b). The nucleus appeared elongated, seemingly pulled by the PbEB1-GFP focus. Additionally, PbEB1-GFP signal was observed extending from the focus, likely representing microtubules extending from the MTOC (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Video 3, 4). Furthermore, the fact that the localisation of PbNEK4-GFP and PbEB1-GFP at the cell periphery remains largely stationary contrasts with the nuclear movement (cyan arrowheads in Fig. 2a and b), indicating that this nuclear movement is independent of whole-cell rotation or migration.

Quantification of the proportion of zygotes at different stages during development with motile

nuclei indicated that the movement peaked at between 2 and 4 hpa and then subsided (Fig. 2c).

These observations suggest that in *P. berghei* zygotes there is a form of nuclear movement like

that widely observed in *S. pombe* and other eukaryotes[6, 25, 26, 27, 33]. This movement appears to

be led by the MTOC, where both PbNEK4-GFP and PbEB1-GFP are located (Fig. 2d).

To investigate the microtubule structures at higher resolution during the early development

stages, we performed U-ExM using an anti-α-tubulin antibody (Fig. 2e and Extended Data Fig.

3a-c). At 2 hpa, two populations of zygotes were present: those with a single MTOC and those

with duplicated MTOCs. In cells with a single MTOC (Fig. 2e, top left panel), multiple

microtubules were visible in the perinuclear region, with one microtubule oriented as if

extending from the nuclear MTOC toward the APC. In cells with duplicated MTOCs (Fig. 2e,

top right panel), both microtubules emanating from the MTOCs and microtubule organisation

at the APC appeared more developed. Some of the microtubules running along the nuclear

periphery appeared to connect to the APC. In zygotes at 4 hpa (Fig. 2e, bottom left panel), the

two MTOCs were separating, with a microtubule structure resembling a spindle oriented

between them. Further development of microtubule structures was also evident in the

perinuclear region and at the APC. In summary, significant microtubule development occurs

at both the nuclear MTOCs and the APC, the sites of greatest PbNEK4-GFP accumulation (Fig.

2f), suggesting that NEK4 may be involved in regulating microtubule polymerisation or

dynamics. This association of NEK4 with the MTOC and APC suggests a function as a spatial

organiser of microtubule polarity in the developing zygote. The microtubules extending around

the nucleus appear analogous to the perinuclear microtubules observed in other eukaryotes

during early meiosis, which mediate nuclear and chromosome movement[27, 34].

NEK4 is essential for nuclear migration, microtubule formation, and morphological

transformation from zygote to ookinete

To assess the importance of NEK4 during zygote/meiotic development, we used an existing

nek4 gene knockout parasite line (*Pbnek4-ko*; Extended Data Fig. 4a, b)[21]. A previous study

has shown that while *Pbnek4-ko* parasites undergo fertilisation, subsequent DNA replication

and ookinete formation are blocked[21]. Live-cell imaging over the period between 2 to 24 hpa

confirms that *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes failed to elongate or transition through the retort form into

mature ookinetes, in contrast to PbNEK4-GFP control cells that completed this transformation

within 20 hours (Fig. 3a). We then investigated the nuclear movement observed in zygotes.

Although moving nuclei were observed in a few *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes between 2 and 4 hpa, the

proportion of cells with moving nuclei was significantly reduced compared to the PbNEK4-

GFP controls (Fig. 3b).

To investigate microtubules in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes, we used U-ExM. This revealed that the

distinctive formation of perinuclear and APC-associated microtubules in WT cells was almost

completely ablated in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes (Fig. 3c). Although the presence of some tubulin was

detected, the formation of the microtubule-based structures at the APC was almost completely

disrupted compared to PbNEK4-GFP controls (WT; Fig. 3c). Additionally, while the formation

of a nuclear MTOC was observed, it failed to duplicate and remained as a single MTOC over

the first four hours after fertilisation. Together, these data on the consequences of *nek4* gene

deletion demonstrate that NEK4 is essential for MTOC duplication and the organisation of

perinuclear and apical microtubule networks. These processes are prerequisites for DNA

replication, meiotic entry, and morphological transition from zygote to ookinete. In the absence

of NEK4, the microtubule-based cytoskeletal framework necessary for meiotic progression

fails to assemble, leading to developmental arrest prior to transition to retort form (Fig. 3d).

NEK4 is essential for establishing the ultrastructure necessary for meiotic chromatin

condensation and APC development

To examine the ultrastructural consequences of *Pbnek4* knockout, we used transmission

electron microscopy (TEM) to study WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa and 4 hpa (Fig. 4a).

In WT zygotes at 2 hpa, the APC structure was observed at the cell periphery, along with its

associated microtubules (Fig. 4a1-2), and perinuclear microtubules were detected around the

nucleus (Fig. 4a3-4). While *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes had also initiated APC formation with

microtubules at the cell periphery at 2 hpa, the APC was smaller and only partially formed

(Fig. 4a5-6). Perinuclear microtubules were detected in only few *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes (Fig. 4a7-

8).

At 4 hpa, WT zygotes had a developed APC with a well-organised microtubule structure (Fig.

4a9-10). At this stage, multiple thread-like structures were observed within the nucleus

(magenta arrowheads, Fig. 4a11-13). These are likely condensed leptotene chromosomes,

marking the entry into meiosis, and the ends of these chromosomes appeared to be attached to

the nuclear envelope (Fig. 4a13). In contrast, *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa had only small APC

and microtubule structures (Fig. 4a14-15) and the condensed chromosomes seen in WT zygotes
were completely absent in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes (Fig. 4a16-18).

To examine further the ultrastructural differences between WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes, we
used Serial Block-Face Scanning Electron Microscopy (SBF-SEM). In most WT zygotes at 4
hpa, a developed APC was detected (Fig. 4b, c) and multiple condensed, thread-like
chromosomes were detected within their nuclei (Fig. 4b, magenta arrowheads and inset). In
some zygotes, these chromosomes were observed pairing with linear structures between them,
indicative of likely synaptonemal complex formation (Fig. 4b, cyan arrowheads and inset). In
contrast, in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa there was impaired APC development, and no
condensed chromosomes nor synaptonemal complexes were present within the nucleus (Fig.
4b, c). Three-dimensional models constructed from the SBF-SEM datasets illustrate the
development of the APC, the formation of condensed chromosomes (with one or both ends
appearing to attach to the nuclear envelope), and the separation of MTOCs in WT zygotes at 4
hpa. All these early meiotic processes are blocked in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes (Fig. 4d). These
findings indicate that the deletion of the *Pbnek4* gene not only severely impairs the
development of the APC and its associated microtubule network in the early zygote but also
ablates the formation of condensed chromosomes (likely leptotene chromosomes), which is a
critical step for meiotic entry.

NEK4 drives meiotic entry by coordinated control of transcription, protein synthesis and
phosphorylation
To elucidate the molecular processes governed by NEK4 during early meiosis in *P. berghei*
zygote development, we performed an integrated transcriptomic, proteomic,
phosphoproteomic, and interactomic analysis. Global transcriptomics was conducted on WT
and *Pbnek4-ko* parasites at 2 hpa. and quantitative proteomics/phosphoproteomics were
conducted on non-activated and 2 hpa samples for both WT and *Pbnek4-ko* parasites. GFP-
Trap interactomics was performed using PbNEK4-GFP parasites at 2 hpa.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) showed that the expression of meiosis-related genes
(e.g., *dmc1*, *hop1*, *mnd1*, and *spo11*) was significantly downregulated in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at
2 hpa compared to WT zygotes at 2 hpa (Extended Data Fig. 5a). Transcriptomic profiling via
RNA-sequencing between WT and *Pbnek4-ko* parasites at 2 hpa revealed major transcriptional
changes in *Pbnek4-ko* parasites. At 2 hpa, 1,554 genes were significantly differentially

expressed (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, fold change ≥ 2) relative to WT parasites, comprising 717

downregulated and 837 upregulated genes (Fig. 5a; Supplementary Table 1). Gene Ontology

enrichment of downregulated transcripts highlighted key biological processes, including cell

motility, cell differentiation, meiotic nuclear division, and cytoskeletal organisation –

hallmarks of zygote maturation (Fig. 5b; Supplementary Table 2). Notably, transcripts

encoding the meiotic recombinase *dmc1* and the putative synaptonemal complex component

hop1 (PBANKA_1407900) were strongly reduced in the *Pbnek4-ko* line.

Next, we performed GFP pulldown assays using PbNEK4-GFP and WT-GFP zygotes at 2 hpa.

This analysis identified interactions of PbNEK4-GFP with putative MTOC-associate proteins,

such as a PI3K/PI4K catalytic domain-containing protein (PBANKA_0806700) and a MORN

repeat protein (PBANKA_1030400), as well as a regulator of chromosome condensation

(RCC; PBANKA_0905500). Furthermore, interactions with meiotic factors, including REC8

(PBANKA_1419300), DMC1, and HOP1, were also indicated (Fig. 5c; Supplementary Table

13). These interactions may suggest that NEK4 acts as a signalling hub, and either directly

phosphorylates or stabilises other components within an integrated meiotic complex.

To investigate the full landscape of NEK4-associated protein abundance and phosphorylation

changes during early zygote development, we performed quantitative proteomics and

phosphoproteomics analyses using non-activated (0 hpa) WT and *Pbnek4-ko* gametocytes, and

WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa. Initial analysis of phosphopeptide-enriched and flow-

through fractions from *Pbnek4-ko* and WT gametocytes at 0 hpa revealed minimal differences

in the abundance of identified proteins and phosphopeptides (Extended Data Fig. 5b and d;

Supplementary Table 5 and 12). This suggests that *Pbnek4* deletion has little impact on the

protein or phosphorylation status of gametocytes prior to activation.

In contrast, significant differences in protein and phosphopeptide abundance were observed

when comparing gametocytes at 0 hpa with zygotes at 2 hpa, and *Pbnek4-ko* with WT zygotes

at 2 hpa (Fig. 5d-g; Extended Data Fig. 5c and f; Supplementary Table 6 and 11). Proteomic

analysis of the flow-through fractions obtained during phosphopeptide enrichment revealed

marked increases in zygote- and meiosis-associated proteins following fertilisation in WT

parasites. These included the zinc-finger protein Pb103[35], the transcription factor AP2-Z[36], and

the meiotic recombinase DMC1[37] (Fig. 5d; Supplementary Table 3). In contrast, when *Pbnek4-*

ko parasites were compared to WT controls at 2 hpa, many of these same proteins were

significantly less abundant (Fig. 5e; Supplementary Table 4), suggesting that NEK4 activity is

required for their synthesis, stability, or translation during zygote development.

Phosphoproteomic profiling revealed a similar association with the presence of NEK4 for

protein phosphorylation linked to meiotic initiation. In WT parasites, fertilisation triggered

widespread phosphorylation of proteins linked to meiosis, transcription, translation, and

cytoskeletal organisation by 2 hpa. These proteins included DMC1[37], HOP1, REC8, DNA

polymerase delta subunit 3 (POLD3), AP2-Z[36, 38], AP2-O[39], Pb103[35], FD2[40], gSNF2[41], NOT1-

G[42], PI3K/PI4K, serine/threonine protein kinase putatively related to MAP/microtubule

affinity-regulating kinase 1[43] and maternal embryonic leucine zipper kinase 1[44]

(MARK/MELK), zygote-ookinete specific dynein heavy chain (DHC3)[45], and kinesin-4

(KIN4) (Fig. 5f; Supplementary Table 5). In *Pbnek4-ko* parasites phosphorylation at many sites

in these proteins was significantly lower relative to the WT control (Fig. 5g; Supplementary

Table 9), Notably, some of these proteins also showed increased overall abundance in the flow-

through fraction (e.g. DMC1, Pb103, and AP2-Z), indicating that the observed phosphorylation

changes may partly reflect higher protein levels rather than phosphorylation alone. However,

the consistent reduction of phosphorylation in *Pbnek4-ko* parasites suggests that NEK4

contribute to phosphoregulation in addition to promoting protein accumulation. Gene Ontology

(GO) analysis further confirmed that zygote activation triggers increased phosphorylation of

proteins involved in microtubule-based movement, the cytoskeleton, and reproductive

processes (Fig. 5h; Supplementary Table 8). In contrast, *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa showed

reduced phosphorylation of proteins associated with reproductive processes and meiotic

nuclear division (Fig. 5i; Supplementary Table 10). Representative proteins identified by our

proteomics and phosphoproteomic analyses, along with their abundance and putative functions,

are summarised in Figure 5j. These data support the hypothesis that NEK4 may contributes to

a phosphorylation network underpinning zygote differentiation and meiotic progression.

Collectively, these integrated transcriptomic, interactomic, proteomic, and phosphoproteomic

datasets suggest that NEK4 provides control at multiple regulatory levels. Together with the

evidence from the transcriptomic and interactomic studies, these results identify NEK4 as a

key regulator of early post-zygotic meiosis in *P. berghei*, orchestrating the integrated control

of transcription, protein abundance and phosphosignalling to drive meiotic entry and zygote

maturation.

Discussion

We identify NEK4 as a pivotal kinase coordinating meiotic initiation and zygote morphogenesis in *P. berghei* (Fig. 6). NEK4 is located at both the MTOC and the APC during the earliest stages of zygote development (post-zygotic meiosis), and orchestrates MTOC duplication, perinuclear and APC microtubule formation, and migration of the nucleus. This directed movement resembles the "horsetail" nuclear oscillations during the meiotic prophase in other eukaryotes, where cytoskeleton-driven repositioning of the nucleus promotes homologous chromosome pairing and recombination[27, 33]. In *S. pombe*, this nuclear movement occurs during prophase, where linear elements (LinEs) mediate chromosome pairing and crossover. Similarly, in *Plasmodium*, from ~4 hpa onwards —when DNA replication is complete, nuclear movement is evident, and morphological transformation into the ookinete begins —the formation of condensed chromosomes reminiscent of leptotene chromosomes and structures resembling synaptonemal complexes were observed. This suggests that entry into meiotic prophase initiates at this stage in *Plasmodium* (Fig. 6). In the absence of NEK4, the MTOC fails to duplicate, chromatin remains diffuse, and nuclear translocation is lost, leading to arrest of cell development before meiotic division and transformation to ookinete. These data suggest that NEK4 is a putative central regulator linking nuclear reorganisation and cytoskeletal polarity at the onset of meiosis. Previous studies suggest that while *Plasmodium* retains some canonical meiotic processes well-characterised in organisms like *S. pombe*, its mechanisms and molecular players are highly divergent, as evidenced by the evolutionary conservation analysis of meiotic components in *Plasmodium* and by the progression through meiosis I and II without nuclear division[8] (Fig. 6). Given this divergence, it is particularly intriguing that early meiotic nuclear movement observed in model eukaryotes is conserved in *Plasmodium*, suggesting that it may be important for homologous chromosome pairing and recombination in this parasite as well.

The dual location of NEK4 and the developmental arrest that results from knocking out its gene, place it at the intersection of nuclear and cytoskeletal organisation. Its behaviour parallels that of NEKs in other systems, which regulate centrosome duplication, spindle formation, and checkpoint transitions[18, 19]. In *S. pombe*, the NEK-like kinase Fin1 controls spindle formation, specifically the maturation and inheritance of the SPB[46, 47], while NEK2 and NEK9 act at metazoan centrosomes to coordinate spindle assembly[19]. In *Plasmodium*, which lacks canonical mitotic and meiotic regulators such as the phosphatases CDC25, CDC14, and Polo-

like kinases[14, 15], NEK4 appears to have acquired functions to integrate both signalling and
structural control within a simplified regulatory network.

Proteins identified in the PbNEK4-GFP pulldown assays, such as the PI3K/PI4K catalytic
domain-containing protein (PBANKA_0806700), MORN repeat protein
(PBANKA_1030400), and Kinesin-4 (PBANKA_1208200), may interact with NEK4 at the
MTOC to facilitate MTOC development or segregation. Additionally, the identified regulator
of chromosome condensation (RCC; PBANKA_0905500) contains an RCC1 domain and
likely functions through interaction with chromosomes or DNA. Interestingly, human NEK8
and NEK9 possess an RCC1 domain, and the RCC1 domain is implicated in the recruitment to
the centrosome[48]. This raises the possibility that the *Plasmodium* RCC identified here is
similarly recruited to the MTOC, where it may interact with NEK4 to execute MTOC-
associated functions.

Transcriptomic, proteomic and phosphoproteomic profiling revealed that fertilisation triggers
extensive reprogramming of transcript, protein abundance, and protein phosphorylation during
post-zygotic meiosis. In WT parasites, proteins likely essential for meiosis and zygote
differentiation including protein sets relating to meiosis (DMC1, HOP1 and REC8), DNA
replication (POLD3), sexual development (Pb103, AP2-Z, NOT1-G, FD2, AP2-O, gSNF2),
and MTOC/microtubules (PIK/PIK4, MARK/MELK, DHC3, KIN4) are more phosphorylated
in the zygote (Fig. 6). In *Pbnek4-ko* parasites, these proteins were hypophosphorylated,
suggesting that NEK4 plays a role in phosphorylation events required for onset of meiosis and
zygote-ookinete development. Also, the reduction both in protein abundance and
phosphorylation for some proteins (e.g. DMC1, Pb103, and AP2-Z) suggests a dual-level of
control in which NEK4 promotes both synthesis and activation of key meiotic regulators.

Such coordinated phosphoregulation is consistent with broader concepts being developed for
eukaryotic meiosis. Recent phosphoproteomic studies in yeast have shown that meiotic
progression is driven by both changes in protein abundance and dynamic, stage-specific waves
of protein phosphorylation that rewire existing signalling networks[49]. These phosphorylation
cascades, directed by cyclin-dependent and Polo-like kinases, define temporal transitions from
recombination to segregation[49]. Large-scale quantitative phosphoproteomics studies in *S.*
pombe revealed that phosphorylation of thousands of sites changes during meiotic
development, for example affecting proteins involved in microtubule organisation,

recombination and chromosome cohesion[50]. Our findings are consistent with this concept of a
meiotic "phosphorewiring": the absence of NEK4 collapses a broad phosphorylation
programme encompassing transcriptional, translational and cytoskeletal effectors, and
implying that *Plasmodium* has an analogous, temporally-ordered kinase programme despite its
highly reduced kinase signalling repertoire.

Our structural observations suggest that the APC and the microtubules extending from the
nuclear MTOC are formed in a NEK4-dependent manner. Furthermore, we observed a link
between the microtubules extending from the MTOC and APC, suggesting that this connection
is associated with nuclear movement or positioning. Comparable architectures are present in
other apicomplexans: in *Toxoplasma gondii*, the APC and conoid form an anchoring hub that
coordinates cortical microtubules and organelle positioning[51, 52]. *Eimeria tenella* and
Cryptosporidium spp. also have similar apical scaffolds[53, 54]. Genetic modification has resulted
in comparable defects in other apicomplexans, supporting a conserved requirement for precise
coordination between nuclear and cortical assembly. In *T. gondii*, conditional mutants of NEK1
and the MAP kinase, MAPK2 block centrosome duplication and segregation, causing the
nucleus to replicate without successful daughter cell budding, effectively decoupling nuclear
and cytoskeletal programmes[55, 56]. *Plasmodium* NEK1 controls spindle and kinetochore
organisation during male gametogenesis[24], while loss of the phosphatase PPKL disrupts apical
complex integrity and ookinete morphogenesis[14, 57]. A putative MARK/MELK-related
serine/threonine protein kinase (PBANKA_1305200), identified in our phosphoproteomics
analysis, may be directly or indirectly activated by NEK4 to stimulate microtubule-associated
proteins, thereby promoting or stabilising microtubule formation at the APC and MTOC in the
zygote. Together, these studies highlight a recurrent feature of Apicomplexa: kinases and
phosphatases govern centrosome and apical organisation, and their perturbation uncouples
nuclear and cortical events, resulting in developmental arrest. The function of NEK4 fits within
this broader mechanistic framework, acting as a linchpin to preserve synchrony between
meiotic and morphogenetic processes.

The perinuclear microtubules observed in early zygotes may be involved in the nuclear
movement described above and intranuclear chromosome movement (Fig. 6). In *S. pombe*,
horsetail nuclear movement is driven by SPB-derived microtubules interacting with the cell
cortex via dynein[29, 30]. We speculate that a similar mechanism generates nuclear movement in
Plasmodium, through the interaction of perinuclear microtubules with dynein (e.g, DHC3,

which was identified in our phosphoproteomics). Furthermore, in eukaryotes including mice,
nematodes, and yeast, it is well established that meiotic chromosomes interact with dynein on
perinuclear microtubules via the SUN/KASH complex on the nuclear envelop, facilitating
chromosome movement and pairing[58]. Given that SUN proteins localise to the nuclear envelope
during the zygote-to-ookinete development in *Plasmodium*[59], it is plausible that SUN proteins
mediate the interaction between chromosomes and dynein on perinuclear microtubules, thereby
driving intranuclear chromosome movement to promote homologous chromosome pairing.

In an evolutionary context, NEK4 exemplifies how *Plasmodium* has condensed but not
abandoned a central feature of meiotic control, to ensure synchrony between nuclear and
cytoskeletal events. The parasite has a compact kinome, and a limited number of four NEKs
have diversified to perform additional discrete yet complementary roles: for example, NEK1
regulates spindle formation during male gametogenesis[24], while NEK4 governs meiotic
initiation and zygote differentiation. This division of labour underscores the adaptive flexibility
of NEKs in the absence of canonical Polo-kinases and other regulators. The NEK4 regulatory
module may be a *Plasmodium*-specific version of an ancient, conserved solution to a universal
cellular problem – to use specific waves of phosphorylation to coordinate chromosomal
replication with structural reorganisation of the cell during meiosis.

In conclusion, NEK4 functions as a key regulator that co-ordinates meiotic entry in
Plasmodium, coupling microtubule organisation, MTOC duplication, nuclear migration, DNA
replication, and chromosome condensation with the establishment of apical polarity (Fig. 6).
By integrating translational and phosphoregulatory control, NEK4 ensures that nuclear and
cytoskeletal events are synchronised to drive zygote morphogenesis and meiosis. These
findings clarify the molecular requirements of meiosis in Apicomplexa, highlighting a
conserved principle – kinase-mediated coordination of nuclear and cellular processes – that
extends across the eukaryotic kingdom. Given that NEK4 is essential for the development of
transmission-stage parasites and the absence of close orthologs from the human host, this
kinase represents a promising transmission-blocking therapeutic target. NEK4 provides a
window to investigate how the minimalist signalling networks of divergent parasites sustain
their complex developmental programmes.

Methods

Ethics statement

All animal experiments were conducted in the United Kingdom in accordance with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and approved by the Home Office under Project Licence numbers PDD2D5182 and PP3589958. Protocols were reviewed and approved by the institutional Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body (AWERB) prior to implementation. Procedures were designed to minimise animal suffering and the number of animals used, in line with the 3Rs (Replacement, Reduction, Refinement) principles. Experiments were performed on female CD1 outbred mice aged 6 to 8 weeks, housed under standard conditions with environmental enrichment and monitored daily for health and welfare.

Generation of transgenic parasites

For C-terminal GFP-tagging of NEK4 (PBANKA_0616700) by single crossover homologous recombination, a 930 bp region of *nek4* downstream of the ATG start codon was amplified using primers 5'-CCCCGGTACCGATAGCGATAAGAGAGTAAGATTGTGTG-3' and 5'-CCCCGGGCCCAACATCAACAATATCCAATAATAATG-3' (Supplementary Table 8). Genotype analysis was performed using integration PCR as illustrated in Extended Data Fig. 1d. Primer 1 (intNEK4: 5'-CCAACCATATATTACACAGAGGTTAG-3') and primer 2 (ol492)[14] were used to confirm correct integration of the *gfp* sequence at the target locus. *P. berghei* ANKA line 2.34 parasites were then transfected by electroporation[60]; confirmation of the correct protein size was performed by Western blot analysis[24]. Production of the *Pbnek4-ko* parasite line has been described previously[15, 21].

Live cell imaging

To analyse PbNEK4-GFP expression during the zygote to ookinete transition, gametocytes or zygotes activated in ookinete culture medium were purified by Nycodenz gradient[15]. Hoechst 33342 was added to stain nuclear DNA. Zygote and ookinete development were tracked for up to 24 hours post-fertilisation to assess the dynamics of PbNEK4-GFP location during meiotic progression and morphogenesis. Images were captured on a Zeiss Axio Imager M2 microscope equipped with a 63× oil immersion objective and an AxioCam ICc1 digital camera (Carl Zeiss). Fluorescence signals from GFP and Hoechst were prone to bleaching, but imaging conditions were optimised to ensure sufficient resolution to follow protein dynamics across key developmental transitions. Axiovision software (Rel. 4.8) was used to enhance contrast and

512 minimise background, ensuring threshold settings remained consistent across samples.
513 Representative images from at least three independent biological replicates are presented, with
514 protein location assessed in 30–50 individual cells per time point.
515

Transmission electron microscopy
For ultrastructural analysis of NEK4-deficient and wild-type parasites, zygotes were harvested
at 2 and 4 hpa and fixed in 4% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer. Samples were
processed for transmission electron microscopy following the protocol described in the
previous study[61]. Briefly, fixed cells were post-fixed in osmium tetroxide, stained en bloc with
uranyl acetate, dehydrated through a graded ethanol series, and embedded in Spurr's epoxy
resin. Ultrathin sections (approximately 70 nm) were cut using a diamond knife, mounted on
copper grids, and stained with uranyl acetate followed by lead citrate to enhance contrast.
Sections were examined using a Tecnai G2 12 BioTwin (FEI UK, UK) or a JEOL 1200EX
transmission electron microscope (JEOL, Japan) operated at 100 kV. Representative images
were captured digitally for analysis.
527

Serial block face scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM) of zygotes at 4 hpa
Samples were processed for SBF-SEM following the protocol described previously[62].
Fractions enriched in WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa were fixed at room temperature in
4% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer. Samples were then spun and washed three times
in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, and post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in 1.5% potassium
ferrocyanide in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (for 45 min at room temperature, and in the dark). After
the first osmium step, samples were washed three times in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, incubated
in 1% tannic acid in 0.1 M phosphate buffer for 30 min at room temperature, and then subjected
to a second osmium step (2% OsO_4 in ddH_2O, for 30 min, at room temperature, and in the
dark). Samples were then incubated in 2% uranyl acetate in ddH_2O for 2 h, dehydrated in
acetone (a progressive series of acetone concentrations from 20%, 40%, 90% to 100% with
three changes in molecular-sieved ultradry acetone over 4 h) and embedded in TAAB 812 Hard
resin (TAAB, catalogue number T030). The tips of resin blocks containing samples were
trimmed and mounted onto aluminium pins using conductive epoxy glue and silver dag, and
then sputter coated with a layer (10–13 nm) of gold, in an Agar Auto Sputter Coater (Agar
Scientific). Before SBF-SEM imaging, ultrathin sections (70 nm) of the block face were
examined in a Jeol JEM 1400 Flash transmission electron microscope (JEOL), to verify sample
quality. Samples were then imaged in a Merlin VP compact high resolution scanning electron

microscope (Zeiss) equipped with a 3View stage (Gatan-Ametek), and an OnPoint back-
scattered electron detector (Gatan-Ametek), in variable pressure. The following imaging
conditions were used: 2 kV, 20 μm aperture, 30 pascal variable pressure, 2 nm pixel size, 5 μs
pixel time, 100 nm section thickness, 100% FCC.

Ultrastructure expansion microscopy
Ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM) was performed on PbNEK4-GFP non-activated
gametocytes or zygotes at 2 or 4 hpa, following previously published protocols with slight
modifications[63, 64]. Parasites were fixed in 4% formaldehyde in MTSB buffer (10 mM MES,
150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EGTA, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 5 mM glucose, pH7.0) and adhered to 10 mm
poly-D-lysine–coated round coverslips for 15 min. Coverslips were incubated overnight at 4°C
in 1.4% formaldehyde (FA)/2% acrylamide (AA). Gelation was performed in ammonium
persulphate/TEMED (10% each)/monomer solution (23% sodium acrylate; 10% AA; 0.1%
BIS-AA in PBS) on ice for 5 min and at 37°C for 30 min. Gels were denatured for 15 min at
37°C and for 90 min at 95°C in denaturation buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM
Tris, pH 9.0, in water). After denaturation, gels were incubated in distilled water overnight for
complete expansion. The next day, circular gel pieces with a diameter of ~13 mm were excised,
and the gels were washed in PBS three times for 15 min to remove excess water. The gels were
then incubated in blocking buffer (3% BSA in PBS) at room temperature for 30 min, incubated
with rabbit polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (1:250 dilution; A11122; Invitrogen) or mouse
monoclonal anti-α-tubulin antibody (1:500 dilution: T9026; Sigma-Aldrich) in blocking buffer
at 4°C overnight, and washed three times for 15 min in wash buffer (0.5% vol/vol Tween-20
in PBS). The gels were incubated with 8 μg/ml Atto 594 NHS-ester (Merck), 10 μg/ml Hoechst
33342 (Molecular Probes), and Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (A11008; Invitrogen) or
Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG (A11001; Invitrogen) in PBS (1:500 dilution) at 37°C
for 2.5 h followed by three washes of 15 min each in wash buffer (blocking and all antibody
incubation steps were performed with gentle shaking). The gels were then washed three times
for 15 min with wash buffer and expanded overnight in ultrapure water. The expanded gel was
placed in a 35-mm glass-bottom dish (MatTek) with the 14-mm glass coated with poly-D-
lysine. High-resolution images were acquired on a Zeiss Celldiscover 7 with Airyscan using
a 50×/1.2 water objective. Confocal z-stacks were acquired using line scanning and the
following settings: 55 × 55 nm pixel size, 170-nm z-step, 2.91 μs/pixel dwell time, 850 gain,
and 3.5% (405 nm), 4.5% (488 nm), and 5.0% (561 nm) laser powers. The z-stack images were
processed and analysed using Fiji (version 1.54f). Each experiment was repeated at least three

times, and protein localisation was assessed in 10 cells per condition. Full imaging details are

provided in the figure legends.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis

Total RNA was extracted from WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa (three biological replicates

per condition) using the RNA Purification Kit (Stratagene), and cDNA was synthesised using

the RNA-to-cDNA Kit (Applied Biosystems). qPCR was performed with 80 ng of RNA using

SYBR Green Fast Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) on an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast

system. Cycling conditions were: 95 °C for 20 s, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 3 s and

60 °C for 30 s. Primers were designed using Primer3 (https://primer3.ut.ee/). Each gene was

tested in three biological and technical replicates. *hsp70* (PBANKA_081890) and *arginyl-*

tRNA synthetase (PBANKA_143420) were used as reference genes. Primer sequences are

listed in Supplementary Table 14.

Transcriptome study using RNA-Sequencing

RNA samples from WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa (three biological replicates per

condition) were vacuum-concentrated by freeze drying and transported in RNA-stabilising

tubes (Biomatrica) to ensure preservation. Strand-specific mRNA libraries were prepared using

the TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit LT (Illumina). Paired-end sequencing (2 × 150

bp) was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform. Quality control of raw sequencing

reads was carried out using FASTQC

(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). Adapter trimming and removal

of low-quality sequences were performed using Trimmomatic. Cleaned reads were aligned to

the *P. berghei* ANKA reference genome (PlasmoDB release 40) using HISAT2 version 2.1.0,

applying the parameter --rna-strandness FR. Gene-level expression was quantified using

FeatureCounts. Raw read counts were converted to counts per million (CPM), and genes with

CPM <1 in all but one replicate were excluded from downstream analysis. Library sizes were

normalised using the trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) method in the EdgeR package.

Processed count data were then analysed using the voom transformation from the limma

package to model the mean–variance relationship. Differential expression analysis was

performed with DESeq2, using a false discovery rate (FDR)-adjusted p-value threshold of 0.05

(Benjamini–Hochberg correction) and a fold-change cut-off of ≥2 to define significantly

regulated genes.

Immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry

Purified gametocytes from WT-GFP and PbNEK4-GFP parasites were activated for 2 h and proteins were crosslinked using 1% formaldehyde for 10 min at room temperature. Excess aldehyde was quenched by incubating samples in 0.125 M glycine for 5 min, followed by three washes with PBS (pH 7.5). Immunoprecipitation of PbNEK4-GFP complexes was performed using the GFP-Trap_A kit (Chromotek) in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. GFP-bound protein complexes were captured on beads and processed for liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Beads were washed and incubated in ammonium bicarbonate (ABC) buffer. Reduction and alkylation were carried out using 10 mM TCEP (tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine hydrochloride) and 40 mM chloroacetamide (CAA) for 5 min at 70°C. Proteins were then digested with trypsin overnight at room temperature (1 µg trypsin per 100 µg of protein). Digestion was halted by adjusting the pH to 3–4 with 1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) before mass spectrometry analysis. Tryptic peptides were analysed via LC-MS/MS. Resulting raw data were searched using FragPipe version 21.0 (https://fragpipe.nesvilab.org/) against the PlasmoDB-66_PbergheiANKA_AnnotatedProteins database. Search parameters included trypsin digestion with up to two missed cleavages, fixed carbamidomethylation of cysteines, and variable modifications for methionine oxidation and N-terminal acetylation. Protein identification and quantification were performed using Scaffold (version 5.3.3, Proteome Software), and annotations were derived from PlasmoDB. Proteins were retained for analysis if they had ≥2 unique peptides and valid quantification in at least two replicates.

Phosphoproteomic analysis

Protein Extraction and Digestion via SDS-FASP. Zygotes of WT and *Pbnek4-ko* lines at 0 and 2 hpa were lysed in 400 µl of buffer containing 2% SDS, 25 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 2.5 mM EDTA, and 20 mM TCEP, supplemented with a protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Halt, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Samples were vortexed and heated at 95°C for 10 min with continuous mixing at 400 rpm. Genomic DNA was fragmented using four 10-second sonication pulses at 50% amplitude. Following centrifugation at 17,000 g for 30 min, supernatants were collected, and protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce 660nm Protein Assay Kit. For alkylation the volume corresponding to 1 mg of protein for each sample was adjusted to 300 µl and then incubated with 48 µl of 0.5 M iodoacetamide for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. Protein digestion was performed using the filter-aided sample preparation (FASP) method with Amicon Ultra-4 30 kDa centrifugal filter units (Millipore). Trypsin (Promega) was added at a 1:80 enzyme-to-protein ratio, and digestion proceeded

overnight at room temperature. Resulting peptides were desalted using Pierce Peptide

Desalting Spin Columns (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's

instructions and dried using a speed vacuum concentrator.

TMT-11plex Labelling. Peptide concentrations were measured using the Pierce Quantitative

Colorimetric Peptide Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For each sample, 160 µg of peptides

were labelled with 800 µg of TMT reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific), previously dissolved

in 220 µl of 36% acetonitrile and 200 mM EPPS buffer (pH 8.5). Labelling reactions were

carried out for 1 h at room temperature and quenched by adding hydroxylamine to a final

concentration of 0.3% (v/v). Labelled samples were pooled, desalted using Pierce Peptide

Desalting Spin Columns, and dried under vacuum.

Phosphopeptide Enrichment. Phosphopeptides were enriched using the High-Select Fe-NTA

Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's

protocol. Both the enriched phosphopeptide fractions and the flow-through were desalted using

Pierce Peptide Desalting Spin Columns and dried using a speed vacuum concentrator.

LC-MS/MS Analysis. Dried peptides were reconstituted in 5% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic

acid, and 2 µg of each sample was injected into a Vanquish NEO liquid chromatography system

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled to an Orbitrap Fusion Lumos Tribrid mass spectrometer

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides were first trapped on an Acclaim PepMap 100 C18 trap

column (75 µm × 20 mm, 3 µm particle size) and then separated on a homemade analytical

column (75 µm × 500 mm) packed with ReproSil-Pur C18 resin (1.9 µm, 100 Å, Dr. Maisch

GmbH). The analytical separation was run for 180 min using a gradient of H_2O/FA 99.9%/0.1%

(solvent A) and CH_3CN/H_2O/FA 80.0%/19.9%/0.1% (solvent B). The gradient was run from

5 % B to 28 % B in 160 min, then to 40% B in 20 min, then to 99% B in 10 min with a final

stay of 20 min at 99 % B. Flow rate was of 250 nL/min an total run time was of 210 min. Data-

Dependent Acquisition (DDA) was performed with MS1 full scan at a resolution of 120'000

FWHM followed by as many subsequent MS2 scans on selected precursors as possible within

3 second maximum cycle time. MS1 was performed in the Orbitrap with an AGC target of

$4x10^5$, a maximum injection time of 50 ms and a scan range from 375 to 1500 m/z. MS2 was

performed in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 50'000 FWHM using higher-energy collisional

dissociation HCD at 38% NCE. Isolation windows was at 0.7 u with an AGC target of $5x10^4$

and a maximum injection time of 86 ms. A dynamic exclusion of parent ions of 60 s. with 10

ppm mass tolerance was applied.

Data Processing and Analysis. Raw data files were processed using Proteome Discoverer

software version 2.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Spectra were searched against the *P. berghei*

ANKA protein database (PlasmoDB.org release 68), the *mus musculus* reference proteome

database (UniProt, reviewed, release 2024_06, 17'207 entries) and an in-house database of

common contaminants using the Mascot search engine (version 2.6.2, Matrix Science). Search

parameters included trypsin as the digestion enzyme with up to one missed cleavage allowed,

a precursor mass tolerance of 10 ppm, and a fragment mass tolerance of 0.02 Da.

Carbamidomethylation of cysteine (+57.021 Da) and TMT modification of peptide N-termini

and lysine residues (+229.163 Da) were set as fixed modifications, while oxidation of

methionine (+15.995 Da) and phosphorylation of serine, threonine, and tyrosine (+79.966 Da)

were set as variable modifications. Peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) and peptides were

validated using the Percolator algorithm, applying a false discovery rate (FDR) of 1%. Proteins

were inferred from the identified peptides and filtered to achieve an FDR of 1%. Quantitative

information was extracted using reporter ion intensities from TMT tags, and protein

abundances were normalized based on the total peptide amount and scaled across all samples.

Protein ratios were calculated using the summed abundances-based approach across groups,

and statistical significance was assessed using ANOVA.

Data availability

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

Consortium via the PRIDE[65] partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD070965 and

10.6019/PXD070965 (proteomics and phosphoproteomics) and PXD070161 and

10.6019/PXD070161 (GFP immunoprecipitations). RNAseq data have been deposited to the

Gene Expression Omnibus under accession number the BioProject ID PRJNA1354107. The

authors declare that all other relevant data generated or analysed during this study are included

in the article or its supplementary information. Raw data are available for each figure. Materials

are available from the corresponding authors on reasonable request.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. NEK4 is located at the MTOC, APC, and nucleus during the early meiotic phase

of zygote to ookinete development. a. A schematic diagram of ookinete development showing

formation of gametocytes, gametes, and zygote, and the involvement of NEK4 in cellular

development and meiosis. The developmental stage and nuclear ploidy (from 1N to 4N) are

indicated for each phase. Activation of gametocytes in the mosquito gut initiates sexual

development **b.** Live-cell imaging of PbNEK4-GFP location at different time points (hours

post-activation, hpa). Green arrowheads indicate the PbNEK4-GFP foci in the nucleus

(Hoechst, blue) and at the cell periphery. Insets show magnification of the cell periphery (C)

and nucleus (N). The yellow arrowhead indicates the cytoplasmic foci of PbNEK4-GFP. **c.**

Schematic summary of the location of PbNEK4-GFP shown in (b), indicating the signal

strength in the nucleoplasm, nuclear focus, and at the cell periphery focus over time. **d.**

Expansion microscopy of PbNEK4-GFP zygotes at 2 hpa and 4 hpa. The cells were labelled

with NHS-ester (gray), anti-GFP antibody (green), and Hoechst (blue). Magnified views of the

MTOC and APC regions enclosed by magenta and cyan dashed boxes, respectively, in the

whole cell images are shown below. The positions of the MTOC and APC are indicated by

magenta and cyan arrows, respectively. **e.** Model illustrating the localisation of NEK4 at the

MTOCs, APC and nucleoplasm.

Figure 2. NEK4-localised MTOC leads nuclear movement, and directional microtubule

formation occurs at both the MTOC and the APC during early meiosis. a. Time-lapse

imaging of a PbNEK4-GFP expressing zygote shows nuclear movement. The PbNEK4-GFP

foci in the nucleus and at the cell periphery are indicated by magenta and cyan arrowheads,

respectively. The lower panel ("Tracing") tracks the position of the PbNEK4-GFP focus (green

dot) and the nucleus (blue) over 540 seconds. **b.** Time-lapse imaging of a zygote expressing

the microtubule plus-end/MTOC marker PbEB1-GFP (green). The PbEB1-GFP foci in the

nucleus and at the cell periphery are indicated by magenta and cyan arrowheads, respectively.

The lower panel ("Tracing") tracks the position of the PbEB1-GFP focus (green dot) and the

nucleus (blue) over 540 seconds. **c.** Quantification of the percentage of zygotes showing

nuclear movement at 0, 2, 4, and 6 hpa. Data are mean ± SEM from three independent

experiments. Black dots show the result from each experiment. **d.** Schematic model of nuclear

movement, illustrating the association of NEK4/EB1 foci with the moving nucleus at 2-4 hpa.

e. Expansion microscopy showing microtubule organisation in developing zygotes.

Microtubules (α-tubulin, green) are shown at 2 hpa with either one or two MTOCs, and at 4

hpa with separated MTOCs. Magnified views of the MTOC and APC regions enclosed by

magenta and cyan dashed boxes, respectively, in the whole cell images are shown below. The

positions of the MTOC and APC are indicated by magenta and cyan arrows, respectively. **f.**

Model of the microtubule organisation in a developing zygote, illustrating the formation of

perinuclear and APC microtubules and the location of PbNEK4-GFP at the MTOCs, APC and

nucleoplasm.

Figure 3. NEK4 is essential for DNA replication, nuclear migration, microtubule formation, and morphological transformation from zygote to ookinete. a. Live-cell imaging of control (PbNEK4-GFP) and *Pbnek4-ko* parasites from 2 to 20 hpa. Unlike the control which develops into an elongated ookinete, *Pbnek4-ko* parasites remain round and fail to develop. **b.** Quantification of nuclear movement in control (PbNEK4-GFP, blue) and *Pbnek4-ko* (gray) zygotes at 2- and 4 hpa. Nuclear movement is significantly reduced in the *Pbnek4-ko* mutant both at 2- and 4 hpa. Data are mean ± SEM from three independent experiments. Black dots show the result from each experiment. P-values were determined by Welch's t-test. **c.** Expansion microscopy comparing microtubule organisation (α-tubulin, green) in WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 and 4 hpa. Magnified views of the MTOC and APC regions enclosed by magenta and cyan dashed boxes, respectively, in the whole cell images are shown below. The positions of the MTOC and APC are indicated by magenta and cyan arrows, respectively. *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes show a single MTOC and disrupted microtubule formation, in contrast to the well-organised perinuclear and APC microtubules in WT zygotes. **d.** Schematic model summarising the defects in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes, including the persistence of a single MTOC, disrupted microtubule formation, and reduced nuclear movement.

Figure 4. Electron microscopy shows that cytoskeletal development and condensed chromosome formation during early meiosis are blocked in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes. a. TEM images of WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa (panels 1-8) and 4 hpa (panels 9-18). N, nucleus; APC, apical polar complex; APR, Apical polar ring; A-Mt, APC microtubule; Pn-Mt, perinuclear microtubule; NM, nuclear membrane. Magenta arrowheads show condensed chromosomes. **b.** Slice images of WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa, obtained by SBF-SEM. The whole-cell view shows the development of the APC in the WT zygote. The magnified views of the nucleus show the presence of thread-like condensed chromosomes (magenta arrowheads) and the formation of potential synaptonemal complexes (cyan arrowheads), where these condensed chromosomes form pairs via a central linear structure. The insets show magnified views of a thread-like condensed chromosomes and synaptonemal complex. These developmental features were completely absent in *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes. **c.** Quantification of the percentage of cells with a developing APC and condensed chromosomes in WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa, based on three independent SBF-SEM datasets. Data are shown as mean ± SEM, with black dots representing the results from each dataset. **d.** 3D models of WT and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 4 hpa, reconstructed from SBF-SEM datasets. The WT model illustrates

the developed APC (orange) with APR (gray), the presence of condensed, thread-like chromosomes within the nucleus (blue; some of which are attached to the nuclear envelope), and the separating MTOCs (purple). In contrast, the *Pbnek4-ko* zygote model shows that none of these developmental events have occurred.

Figure 5. Global transcriptomic, proteomics and phosphoproteomic analysis reveals NEK4-dependent transcriptional and phosphorylation events during *Plasmodium* zygote activation. a. Volcano plot showing differentially expressed transcripts in *Pbnek4-ko* parasites compared to WT controls at 2 hpa (RNA-seq). The $\log_2$ fold change (FC) is plotted against -$\log_{10}$(adjusted p-value). Red and blue dots indicate significantly upregulated and downregulated genes, respectively. *NEK4* and key meiotic genes that are significantly downregulated in *Pbnek4-ko* at 2 hpa are highlighted with yellow dots and gene names. Dotted lines indicate the threshold for statistical significance (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and fold change ≥ 1.5). The underlying data are provided in Supplementary Table 1. **b.** Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of differentially expressed transcripts by RNA-seq in *Pbnek4-ko* versus WT zygotes at 2 hpa. Genes in each term are listed in Supplementary Table 2. The analysis was performed using GO slim terms in PlasmoDB. BP = Biological Process; CC = Cellular component; MF = Molecular Function. **c**. Table displaying selected proteins, corresponding gene ID and representation by the number of peptides from the proteins identified in a GFP-trap pulldown assay with precipitates of either PbNEK4-GFP or WT-GFP zygotes at 2 hpa. **d-g.** Volcano plots displaying changes in total protein and phosphopeptide abundance. The $\log_2$ fold change (derived from the average of three biological replicates each) is plotted against the -$\log_{10}$ p-value. The dotted lines indicate the threshold for statistical significance (p-value ≤ 0.05 and fold change ≥ 1.5). Significantly upregulated and downregulated proteins/phosphopeptides are shown as red and blue dots, respectively. Proteins/phosphopeptides with non-significant changes are shown as grey dots. **d.** Comparison of protein abundance between WT gametocytes at 0 hpa and WT zygotes at 2 hpa. **e.** Comparison of protein abundance between *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at 2 hpa. **f.** Comparison of phosphopeptide abundance between WT gametocytes at 0 hpa and WT zygotes at 2 hpa. **g.** Comparison of phosphopeptide abundance between *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at 2 hpa. Key phosphopeptides from proteins of interest that are significantly upregulated in WT at 2 hpa (f) and downregulated in the *Pbnek4-ko* mutant at 2 hpa (g) are highlighted with yellow dots and protein names. **h-i.** GO analysis of differentially abundant phosphopeptides in WT zygotes at 2 hpa versus 0 hpa (h) and *Pbnek4-*

ko versus WT zygotes at 2 hpa (i). Genes in each term are listed in Supplementary Table 8 and

10. The analysis was performed using GO slim terms in PlasmoDB. **e.** Summary table

displaying selected proteins with significant changes in phosphopeptide abundance from the

phosphoproteomics screen. The $\log_2$ fold change ($\log_2$FC) values of identified phosphopeptides

are represented by a colour gradient from red (decrease) to blue (increase). Significant log2FC

values (p-value ≤ 0.05) are shown in black text, while non-significant values are in gray.

Corresponding phosphopeptide sequences are also listed.

Figure 6. *Plasmodium* NEK4 acts as a key regulator driving the early events of meiosis. A

model illustrating the central function of NEK4 in coordinating key developmental processes

during the zygote-to-ookinete development. The top panel shows the canonical meiotic stages

in the model organism *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (*S. pombe*) for comparison. The middle

panel depicts the predicted steps and timing of meiosis in *Plasmodium* from zygote formation,

meiosis I to meiosis II, based on previous observations. In *Pbnek4-ko* mutants, DNA replication

is impaired, blocking progression to meiotic prophase. In *S. pombe*, active nuclear movement,

known as horsetail nuclear movement, occurs during prophase, followed by chromosome

pairing and crossover mediated by linear elements (LinEs). In contrast, our observations in

Plasmodium suggest that between 2 and 4 hpa, active nuclear movement similar to the horsetail

movement occurs concurrently with the formation of structures resembling synaptonemal

complexes between condensed chromosomes. The bottom panel proposes that NEK4 regulates

four crucial modules: (1) MTOC/Microtubule dynamics (e.g. MARK/MELK, PI3K/PI4K), (2)

Meiosis-specific proteins (e.g. Rec8, HOP1), (3) Sexual development factors (e.g., FD2, AP2-

O), (4) DNA/chromosome functions (e.g. RCC, POLD3). Through these pathways, NEK4

orchestrates MTOC separation, microtubule formation at MTOC and APC, DNA replication,

and chromosome condensation, which are all essential for successful meiosis and subsequent

ookinete development. Based on the function of perinuclear microtubules in other eukaryotes

during meiosis, the perinuclear microtubules observed in *Plasmodium* zygotes are likely

associated with nuclear movement or intranuclear chromosome movement. We predict that

effectors such as cytoplasmic dynein and Sun1 mediate these functions.

Extended Data Fig. legend

Extended Data Fig. 1. *Plasmodium* NEK phylogeny, domain structure, function, and

generation of PbNEK-GFP parasites. a. Phylogenetic tree of NIMA-related protein kinases

(NEKs) from *Plasmodium berghei* (Pb, light blue; PbNEK4, blue), *Plasmodium falciparum*

(Pf, red), *Homo sapiens* (Hs, green), including NIMA (black) from *Aspergillus nidulans*. **b.**

Domain structures of PbNEKs. **c.** Summary table of the function, expression stage, and

localisation of PbNEKs. **d.** Schematic representation of the endogenous *nek4* locus, the GFP-

tagging construct, and the recombined *nek4* locus following single homologous recombination.

Arrows indicate the position of PCR primers used to confirm successful integration of the

construct. **e.** Diagnostic PCR of *nek4* and WT-GFP parasites using the diagnostic primers to

show the correct integration. Integration of the *nek4* tagging construct gives a band of ~1400

bp. **f.** Western blot showing the expression of endogenous PbNEK4-GFP detected by anti-GFP

antibody. The positions corresponding to the molecular weights of GFP (~27 kDa) and

PbNEK4-GFP (~74 kDa) are indicated by arrows, respectively.

Extended Data Fig. 2. PbNEK4-GFP localisation dynamics during zygote-ookinete

development. Live-cell imaging of PbNEK4-GFP location at different time points (minutes or

hours post-activation, mpa or hpa). PbNEK4-GFP (green) parasites were labelled with Hoechst

(blue) and 13.1 antibody, which recognises P28 protein on the surface of zygotes and ookinetes.

Extended Data Fig. 3. Expansion microscopy comparing microtubule organisation in

non-activated WT and *Pbnek4-ko* female gametocytes and WT zygotes at 2 hpa. a, b.

NHS-ester staining (gray) revealed that the apical polar complex (APC) had not yet in both WT

(a) and *Pbnek4-ko* (b) female gametocytes before activation. A structure presumed to be the

MTOC was also visible (magenta arrowhead), although it appeared smaller compared to that

in zygotes at 2 hpa. Furthermore, anti α-tubulin antibody (green) and Hoechst (blue) staining

revealed that no microtubule formation was observed around the potential MTOC and nucleus.

c. In contrast, zygotes activated for 2 hours displayed the development of the APC and MTOCs,

along with microtubule structures extending form them.

Extended Data Fig. 4. Generation and genotypic analysis of *Pbnek4-ko* parasites. a.

Schematic representation of the endogenous *nek4* locus, the targeting knockout construct and

the recombined *nek4* locus following double homologous crossover recombination. Arrows P1

and P2 indicate PCR primers used to confirm successful integration in the *nek4* locus following

recombination, and arrows P3, 4, 5 and 6 indicate PCR primers used to show deletion of the

nek4 gene. **b.** Integration PCR of the *nek4* locus in WT and *Pbnek4-ko* parasites using the
primers, P1-6.

Extended Data Fig. 5. qRT-PCR analysis of *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at 2 hpa and
proteomic and phosphoproteomic analysis of *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at 0 hpa and
***Pbnek4-ko* gametocytes at 0 hpa and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa. c.** Expression level
validation of *nek4* and meiotic related genes using qRT-PCR in *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at
2 hpa. Shown is mean ± SEM; n = 3 independent experiments. Multiple comparisons *t* test,
with post hoc test of Holm–Sidak showed significant differences in relative expression.
*adjusted p-value < 0.05, **adjusted p-value < 0.01. **b-e.** Volcano plots displaying changes in
total protein and phosphopeptide abundance between *Pbnek4-ko* and WT zygotes at 0 hpa and
between *Pbnek4-ko* gametocytes at 0 hpa and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa. The $\log_2$ fold change
(derived from the average of three biological replicates each) is plotted against the $-\log_{10}$ p-
value. The dotted lines indicate the threshold for statistical significance (p-value ≤ 0.05 and
fold change ≥ 1.5). Significantly upregulated and downregulated proteins/phosphopeptides are
shown as red and blue dots, respectively. Proteins/phosphopeptides with non-significant
changes are shown as grey dots. **b.** Comparison of protein abundance between *Pbnek4-ko* and
WT zygotes at 0 hpa. **c.** Comparison of protein abundance between *Pbnek4-ko* gametocytes at
0 hpa and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa. **d.** Comparison of phosphopeptide abundance between
Pbnek4-ko and WT zygotes at 0 hpa. **e.** Comparison of phosphopeptide abundance between
Pbnek4-ko gametocytes at 0 hpa and *Pbnek4-ko* zygotes at 2 hpa. Key phosphopeptides from
proteins of interest that are significantly upregulated in WT at 2 hpa (f) and downregulated in
the *Pbnek4-ko* mutant at 2 hpa (g) are highlighted with yellow dots and protein names.

Supplementary Table 1: RNA-Seq data analysis of *Pbnek4-ko* vs WT parasite 2 hpa
Supplementary Table 2: Gene Ontology Analysis of RNA-Seq data
Supplementary Table 3: Quantitative proteomics of WT 2 hpa versus WT 0 hpa parasites
Supplementary Table 4: Quantitative proteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 2 hpa versus WT 2 hpa
parasites
Supplementary Table 5: Quantitative proteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 0 hpa versus WT 0 hpa
parasites
Supplementary Table 6: Quantitative proteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 2 hpa versus *Pbnek4-ko* 0
hpa parasites

Supplementary Table 7: Quantitative phosphoproteomics of WT 2 hpa versus WT 0 hpa

parasites

Supplementary Table 8: Gene Ontology Analysis of phosphoproteomic data for WT 2

hpa versus WT 0 hpa parasites

Supplementary Table 9: Quantitative phosphoproteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 2 hpa versus WT

2 hpa parasites

Supplementary Table 10: Gene Ontology Analysis of phosphoproteomic data for *Pbnek4-*

***ko* 2 hpa versus WT 2 hpa parasites**

Supplementary Table 11: Quantitative phosphoproteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 2 hpa versus

***Pbnek4-ko* 0 hpa parasites**

Supp. Table 12: Quantitative phosphoproteomics of *Pbnek4-ko* 0 hpa versus WT 0 hpa

parasites

Supplementary Table 13: GFP-Trap downs of PbNEK4-GFP parasites 2 hpa

Supplementary Table 14: Primers used in this study

Supplementary Video 1

Time-lapse video microscopy of nuclear movement in the Hoechst (blue)-stained PbNEK4-

GFP (green) zygotes at 2 hpa. Video is played back at 50× speed. Scale bar = 5 μm.

Supplementary Video 2

Time-lapse video microscopy of nuclear movement in the single zygote from Supplementary

Video 1 (blue; Hoechst, green; PbNEK4-GFP). Video is played back at 50× speed. Scale bar =

5 μm.

Supplementary Video 3

Time-lapse video microscopy of nuclear movement in the Hoechst (blue)-stained PbEB1-GFP

(green) zygotes at 2 hpa. Video is played back at 50× speed. Scale bar = 5 μm.

Supplementary Video 4

Time-lapse video microscopy of nuclear movement in the single zygote from Supplementary

Video 1 (blue; Hoechst, green; PbEB1-GFP). Video is played back at 50× speed. Scale bar = 5

μm.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

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Figure 6