The exported chaperone PfHsp70x is dispensable for the *Plasmodium falciparum* intraerythrocytic lifecycle.

David W. Cobb*[1], Anat Florentin*[1,2], Michelle Krakowiak[1], Vasant Muralidharan[#,1,2]

[1] Department of Cell Biology

[2] Center for Tropical and Emerging Global Diseases

University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, United States of America

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

[#] Corresponding author: vasant@uga.edu

Abstract

Export of parasite proteins into the host erythrocyte is essential for survival of

Plasmodium falciparum during its asexual lifecycle. While several studies described key

factors within the parasite that are involved in protein export, the mechanisms employed

to traffic exported proteins within the host cell are currently unknown. Members of the

Hsp70 family of chaperones, together with their Hsp40 co-chaperones, facilitate protein

trafficking in other organisms, and are thus likely used by *P. falciparum* in the trafficking

of its exported proteins. A large group of Hsp40 proteins is encoded by the parasite and

exported to the host cell, but only one Hsp70, PfHsp70x, is exported with them.

PfHsp70x is absent from most *Plasmodium* species and is found only in *P. falciparum*

and closely-related species that infect Apes. Herein, we have utilized CRISPR/Cas9

genome editing in *P. falciparum* to investigate the essentiality of PfHsp70x. We show

that parasitic growth was unaffected by knockdown of PfHsp70x using both the DHFR-

based Destabilization Domain and the *glmS* ribozyme system. Similarly, a complete

gene knockout of PfHsp70x did not affect the ability of *P. falciparum* to proceed through

its intraerythrocytic lifecycle. The effect of PfHsp70x knockout on the export of proteins

to the host RBC was tested and we found that this process was unaffected. These data

show that although PfHsp70x is the sole exported Hsp70, it is not essential for the

asexual development of *P. falciparum*.

Importance

Half of the world's population lives at risk for malaria. The intraerythrocytic lifecycle of

Plasmodium spp. is directly responsible for clinical manifestations of malaria; therefore,

detailed knowledge of the parasite's ability to survive within the red blood cell is needed

to combat the deadliest agent of malaria, *P. falciparum*. An outstanding question in the

field is how *P. falciparum* undertakes the essential process of trafficking its proteins

within the host. In most organisms, chaperones such as Hsp70 are employed in protein

trafficking. The chaperone PfHsp70x is unique to *P. falciparum,* and it is the only

parasite protein of its kind exported to the host. This has placed PfHsp70x as an ideal

target to inhibit protein trafficking and kill the parasite. Here we show that, despite

earlier notion, PfHsp70x is not required for export of parasite effectors to the host nor is

it essential for parasite survival inside of the RBC.

Introduction

Malaria is a profound killer worldwide. In 2015, 214 million cases of malaria resulted in

438,000 deaths, largely in Africa and Asia (1). Within malaria endemic countries, the

disease targets the most vulnerable of the population, including children under five and

pregnant women (1). The disease is caused by infection with eukaryotic parasites from

the genus *Plasmodium*, but it is one species—*P. falciparum*—that is responsible for

most of the malaria associated mortality. The clinical manifestations of malaria range

from fever, headache, and muscle pains, to severe anemia, coma, and respiratory

distress (2). All of these symptoms are direct consequences of asexual replication of the

parasite within the human red blood cell (RBC)(3). During this cycle of replication, *P.*

falciparum invades the RBC and dramatically transforms its morphology and physiology.

Alterations to the RBC include increased permeability, loss of cell deformability, and

introduction of virulence-associated knobs at the RBC membrane (4, 5).

Remodeling of the RBC requires export of hundreds of parasite proteins into the host

cell, a feat involving protein trafficking through multiple compartments before arriving at

their final destinations in the host. The first phase of the journey begins in the parasite

endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Many exported proteins contain an N-terminal signal motif

termed the Host Targeting Signal or *Plasmodium* Export Element (PEXEL) (6, 7). A key

step in the export of PEXEL-containing proteins is cleavage of the motif by the ER-

resident aspartyl protease Plasmepsin V (8–10). A sub-group of exported proteins

called PEXEL-Negative Exported Proteins (PNEPs) lack the motif, but their N-terminus

is similarily necessary for export (11, 12). Aside from Plasmepsin V processing of

PEXEL, mechanisms underlying the selection of host-destined proteins for exit from the

ER remain unclear. Nonetheless, PEXEL-proteins and PNEPs continue their journey

through the parasite's secretory pathway and are delivered to the parasitophorous

vacuole (PV), a membranous structure within which the parasite resides. Previous

studies have shown that proteins cross the parasitophorous vacuole membrane (PVM)

through the *Plasmodium* Translocon of Exported Proteins (PTEX) (13–15) . Once they

are on the other side of the PVM, all classes of proteins need to refold and find their

specific subcellular localization, whether it is in the host cytoplasm, the host membrane,

or parasite-induced structures such as knobs or Maurer's clefts. It is completely

unknown how hundreds of proteins, within a short time period, cross through PTEX,

refold to regain structure and function, and find their final destination in the host.

The process of protein export is essential for *P. falciparum* survival in the RBC, as

blockage of protein export—whether at the parasite ER or at the PVM—results in

parasite death. In the ER, overexpression of catalytically dead PMV results in impaired

parasite growth, and inhibition of PMV with a PEXEL-mimetic impairs protein export and

kills parasites during the transition to the trophozoite stage (9, 16, 17). Similarly, *P.*

falciparum parasites are sensitive to interference of trafficking across the PVM.

Conditional knockdown of PTEX components blocks protein export and kills the

parasites (18, 19). As the parasites are susceptible to inhibition of trafficking in the ER

and PV, interference in the trafficking process within the host may similarly impair

parasite growth. The mechanisms of protein trafficking inside of the host cell remain

unknown, but identification of essential components of this process will provide valuable

targets for drug discovery programs.

Molecular chaperones are likely candidates in the search for key export and trafficking

components. Indeed, PfHsp101 is an essential component of PTEX, and its inhibition

results in accumulation of exported proteins within the PV (18). Furthermore, several

parasite Hsp40s are exported to the RBC, but their function there is unknown (20). In

other organisms Hsp40s serve as co-chaperones for Hsp70s , but in contrast to the

large number of exported Hsp40s, PfHsp70x (PF3D7_0831700) is the only parasite-

encoded Hsp70 that is exported to host cell (21, 22). This chaperone is found only in *P.*

falciparum and not in other *Plasmodium* species that infect humans, such as *P. vivax* or

P. knowlesi (21). Within the *P. falciparum* infected RBC, PfHsp70x is localized to the PV

and the host, where it associates with PfHsp40s in mobile structures termed J-dots (21).

Given its status as sole exported Hsp70, we hypothesized that PfHsp70x is central to

protein trafficking in the host cell, and thus essential to parasite viability. Indeed, studies

focused on PTEX interactions have found PfHsp70x associated with the translocon, and

it has been shown to co-localize with the critical virulence protein PfEMP1 during its

trafficking (21, 23, 24).

In this study, we took advantage of various genetic tecniques to show that PfHsp70x is

non-essential for protein export and parasite growth. We have used the DHFR-based

destabilizing domain that has previously been used to inhibit chaperone function (18,

25). In addition, we have used the *glmS*-ribozyme system that inhibits translation via

mRNA degradation (26). Both methods were succesful in either reducing protein levels

or function but had no impact on protein export or parasite growth. To confirm that the

lack of a phenotype was not due to incomplete knockdown, we used CRISPR/Cas9

technology to generate a complete knockout of the PfHsp70x gene and found no

defects in parasite proliferation. Our data demonstrate that PfHsp70x is not required for

protein export to the host RBC and not essential for the intraerythrocytic lifecycle of *P.*

falciparum.

Results and Discussion

Conditional inhibition of PfHsp70x activity using the DHFR-based Destabilization

Domain. Previous work has shown that chaperones fused to a DHFR-based

destabilization domain (DDD) are auto-inhibited when the DDD is in its unfolded state

(18, 25)*,* unlike other proteins which are degraded when fused to the DDD (27–29). In

the presence of the stabilizing ligand trimethoprim (TMP), the DDD is folded and the

chaperone functions normally. However, upon TMP removal the DDD is unfolded and

binds to its attached chaperone intramolecularly, thereby blocking interactions with the

chaperone's client proteins and inhibiting normal chaperone function (**Fig. 1A**). Relying

on a single-crossover homologous recombination, the *pfhsp70x* gene was modified with

a triple-HA tag and the DDD, and integration at the *pfhsp70x* locus was confirmed via

Southern blot analysis (**Fig. 1A, B**). Consistent with the auto-inhibitory model of

chaperone-DDD action, western blot analysis of parasite lysates following TMP removal

showed that PfHsp70x protein levels remain consistent over time (**Fig. 1C**). Isolation of

the host cell cytoplasm using saponin lysis revealed that PfHsp70x-DDD is exported to

the host cell. Moreover, the persistence of PfHsp70x in the supernatant following TMP

removal indicated that PfHsp70x is exported to the host cell even in its putative inhibited

form. To assess the role of PfHsp70x in parasite proliferation, we removed TMP and

measured asexual growth over a course of several days and at least two replication

cycles. We found that the absence of TMP had no effect on parasite proliferation (**Fig.**

2A). It was previously reported that PfHsp70x , together with several other exported

chaperones, localizes to specific punctate structures in the host cell termed J-dots. To

test the effect of DDD-based inhibition on PfHsp70x localization, we performed

immunofluorescence assays and found that PfHsp70x-DDD is trafficked to the expected

punctate structures within the host cell, regardless of TMP presence (**Fig. 2B**). These

data suggest that inhibition of PfHsp70x activity using the DDD system does not affect

the asexual life cycle of the parasite. Nevertheless, we could not assess the degree of

inhibition and therefore could not exclude the possibility that the chaperone activity was

unaffected by the DDD fusion, leading to the lack of a growth phenotype. We therefore

utilized alternative methods to reduce PfHsp70x protein levels in the parasite.

Conditional Knockdown of PfHsp70x Using the *glmS* Ribozyme. Next, we sought to

conditionally knockdown PfHsp70x at the mRNA level using the *glmS* ribozyme (26). In

this system, the *glmS* ribozyme sequence is inserted into the 3' end of the genomic

locus of a gene and is transcribed with the gene as one mRNA. Addition of the small

molecule glucosamine (GlcN) activates the *glmS* ribozyme, which cleaves itself from the

mRNA, disconnecting the transcript form its polyA tail and leading to its degradation

(**Fig. 3A**). Using CRISPR/Cas9 genome engineering, we appended a triple HA tag to

the C-terminus of PfHsp70x followed by the *glmS* ribozyme (**Fig. 3A**) (30). A second cell

line was generated in which the *pfhsp70x* locus was tagged with a mutant version of the

ribozyme—termed *M9*—which is unresponsive to GlcN and serves as a control during

GlcN treatment. Following transfection and drug selection, PfHsp70x-*glmS* and

PfHsp70x-*M9* clones were isolated via limiting dilution. PCR analysis revealed the

correct integration of the tag and ribozyme into the *pfhsp70x* gene in all clonal parasite

lines (**Fig. 3B**). Additionally, immunofluorescence assays confirmed that PfHsp70x-

glmS is exported to the host cytoplasm, where it is found, as before, in punctate

structures that are distinct from Maurer's clefts, suggestive of J-dot localization (**Fig.

3C**).

Next, we tested the effect of reducing PfHsp70x levels on intraerythrocytic growth. To

ensure that insertion of the ribozyme itself does not interfere with normal asexual

growth, PfHsp70x-*glmS*, PfHsp70x-*M9*, and the parental line (3D7) were grown in the

absence of GlcN. Indeed, we found that in the absence of GlcN, growth of both the

glmS and *M9* cell lines was comparable to 3D7 (**Fig. 4A**). Next, PfHsp70x-*glmS* and

PfHsp70x-*M9* were cultured with GlcN and parasitemia was measured via flow

cytometry. The growth of PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9* was unaffected by

treatment with 5 mM and 10 mM GlcN (**Fig. 4B**). To confirm that PfHsp70x protein level

is reduced in response to GlcN, schizont-stage parasites from the *glmS* and *M9* cell

lines were Percoll-purified and whole parasite lysates were used for western blotting.

Using anti-HA antibody we found that treatment with GlcN reduced protein levels in

PfHsp70x-*glmS* but did not affect protein levels in PfHsp70x-*M9* (**Fig. 4C**). Together,

these data show that we can efficiently reduce PfHsp70x levels using the *glmS*

ribozyme but this has no affect on the asexual growth of the parasite within the RBC.

Knockout of *pfhsp70x* does not affect parasite growth. We successfully utilized two

different conditional knockdown approaches to modify PfHsp70x activity and

expression, but these knockdowns were insufficient to produce a growth defect in the

parasites. Therefore, we sought to definitively test the essentiality of PfHsp70x via

complete genomic knockout (termed PfHsp70x-KO). To this end, we employed

CRISPR/Cas9 to interrupt the PfHsp70x ORF by inserting a human dihydrofolate

reductase (*hdhfr*) drug resistance cassette (**Fig. 5A**). Following transfection and

selection with WR99210, PfHsp70x-KO parasites were cloned via limiting dilution.

Southern blot analysis of genomic DNA isolated from the parental line and independent

clones showed that the *hdhfr* cassette was inserted into the *pfhsp70x* gene via

homology directed repair (**Fig. 5B**). To verify that the null mutants do not express

PfHsp70x, schizont-stage parasites from two independent knockout clones and the

parental line were Percoll-purified, and whole parasite lysates were used for western

blotting. Probing with anti-PfHsp70x shows that the knockout clones do not express

PfHsp70x (**Fig. 5C**). Finally, intraerythrocytic growth of the PfHsp70x-KO clones was

monitored over two replication cycles. In agreement with the lack of any growth

phenotype in the conditional knockdown parasite lines, the PfHsp70x-KO parasites

displayed *wild-type* level of proliferation in erythrocytes (**Fig. 5D**). The normal growth in

the complete absence of PfHsp70x expression conclusively demonstrates that

PfHsp70x activity is not essential for the asexual growth of the parasite within the RBC.

Protein export is unimpaired in PfHsp70x-KO parasites. Although PfHsp70x is

dispensible for the intraerythrocytic lifecycle in culture, we reasoned that it could

nonetheless play a role in export of proteins to the host cell. In particular, we

hypothesized that PfHsp70x is needed for the export of proteins known to mediate

virulence of *P. falciparum* infection, as trafficking defects of these proteins would not

manifest as arrest of the asexual lifecycle (20). Using immunofluorescence, we

examined localization of specific virulence-associated proteins in 3D7 and PfHsp70x-

KO. First, the localization of the PEXEL-containing PfFIKK4.2, an exported kinase

associated with knob formation and infected RBC rigidity (31), is unchanged in

PfHsp70x-KO parasites **(Fig. 6A)**. Next, we examined the localization of the PEXEL-

containing protein KAHRP, which is essential for the formation of knobs on the surface

of infected RBCs (32). Export of this protein was not inhibited in PfHsp70x-KO parasites

(Fig. 6B). Finally, we determined the localization of the PNEP MAHRP1, which has

been implicated in PfEMP1 presentation at the RBC surface (33), and found that its

export is not impaired by the absence of PfHsp70x **(Fig. 6C)**. These data show that the

loss of PfHsp70x does not impede the parasite's ability to export virulence-associated

proteins to the host cell.

Even though PfHsp70x is the only parasite-encoded Hsp70 that is exported to the RBC,

our results demonstrate that it is not required for intraerythrocytic growth. However,

PfHsp70x is not the only Hsp70 found in infected RBCs. Human Hsp70 is present in the

erythrocyte cytoplasm (34). Thus, the role played by PfHsp70x in the parasite's biology

could be redundant with the human Hsp70 that is already present in the host cell. In

fact, infection with *P. falciparum* affects the normal localization of the human Hsp70, as

the protein is soluble in non-parasitized RBCs but is found in detergent-resistant

fractions following infection (35). The methods used here to investigate the function of

PfHsp70x, knockdown and complete genomic knockout, are more challenging to use for

human Hsp70. The mature RBC cannot be genetically manipulated, and knockdown of

human Hsp70 in hematopoietic stem cells abrogates RBC formation (36). Furthermore,

detailed analysis of the *pfhsp70x* locus in strains isolated from the field may be

informative about the essentiality of PfHsp70x in human infections. Overall, our data

demonstrate that PfHsp70x is not required for export of *P. falciparum* effector proteins

to the host and is dispensable for asexual growth within human RBCs.

Materials and Methods

Plasmid construction. Genomic DNA was isolated from *P. falciparum* using the

QIAamp DNA blood kit (QIAGEN). Constructs utilized in this study were confirmed by

sequencing. PCR products were inserted into the respective plasmids using the In-

Fusion cloning system (Clonetech) or using the SLIC method. Briefly, insert and cut

vector were mixed with a T4 DNA polymerase and incubated for 2.5 minutes at room

temperature, followed by 10 minutes incubation on ice and then transformed into

bacteria. For generation of plasmid PfHsp70x-HADB, a 1-kb homologous sequence

from the 3'-end of the *pfhsp70x* gene (not including the stop codon) was amplified by

PCR using primers 5'-

CACTATAGAACTCGAGGTGAAAAAGCTAAACGTGTATTATCATCATCCGCACAAGC-

3' and 5'-

CGTATGGGTACCTAGGATTTACTTCTTCAACGGTTGGTCCATTATTTTGTGC-3' and

was inserted into pHADB (18) using restriction sites XhoI and AvrII (New England

Biolabs).

For the generation of the *glmS* conditional mutants three plasmids were used; 1) pUF1-

Cas9 (from J. J. Lopez-Rubio) was used to drive cas9 expression (30). 2) pMK-U6 was

used to drive expression of the RNA guide. For this purpose, pL6 plasmid (from J. J.

Lopez-Rubio, (30)) was digested with NotI and NcoI (New England Biolabs) and the

fragment that contained the U6 RNA expression cassette was blunted and re-ligated to

form the pMK-U6 plasmid. The guideRNA, oligos 5'-

TAAGTATATAATATTTGCATTATTGTTGTATATTTGTTTTAGAGCTAGAA-3' and 5'-

TTCTAGCTCTAAACAAATATCAACAATAATGCAAATATTATATACTTA-3' were

annealed and cloned into the RNA module in MK-U6 as previously described (30).

Briefly, pMK-U6 was digested with BtgZI (New England Biolabs) and annealed oligos

were inserted using In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Clontech). 3) pHA-glmS and pHA-M9

were used as donor DNA templates consisting of two homology regions flanking the HA

tag and the *glmS* (or the *M9*) sequences. To generate the pHA-glmS and pHA-M9

plasmids, primers 5'-

GAGCTCGCTAGCAAGCTTGCCGGCAAGATCATGTGATTTCTCTTTGTTCAAGGAGT

C-3' and 5'-

TCCGCGGAGCGCTACTAGTTACCCATACGATGTTCCAGATTACGCTTACCCATACG

ATGTTCCAGATTACGCTTACCCATACGATGTTCCAGATTACGCTTAAATGTCCAGAC

CTGCAGTAATTATCCCGCCCGAACTAAGCGC-3' were used to amplify the *glmS* and

M9 sequences from pGFP-glmS and pGFP-M9, respectively (from P.Shaw, (26)). PCR

constructs were then inserted into a TOPO cloning vector (ThermoFisher). To allow

efficient genomic integration of the pHA-glmS and pHA-M9 donor plasmids, 800bp

sequences were used for each homology region. The C-terminus of the *pfhsp70x*

coding region was PCR amplified form genomic DNA using primers 5'-

AATTCGCCCTTCCGCGGGCTGTACAAGCAGCCATCTTATCAGGTGATCAATCATC-

3' and 5'-

ATCGTATGGGTAAGCGCTATTTACTTCTTCAACGGTTGGTCCATTATTTTGTGCTTC-

3' and was inserted into pHA-glmS and pHA-M9 using restriction sites SacII and AfeI

(New England Biolabs). The 3'UTR of *pfhsp70x* was pcr amplified from genomic DNA

using primers 5'-

ATGATCTTGCCGGCAAGCTTACGAAAATATACAACAATAATGCATAAAATAATAATA

ATT-3' and 5'-

CCTTGAGCTCGCTAGCGCAATATAAATGGATTATTCCTTTTGTATATAATTTAAAATA

AG-3' and was inserted into pHA-glmS and pHA-M9 (already containing the C-terminus

homology region) using restriction sites HindIII and NheI (New England Biolabs).

For the generation of *pfhsp70x-ko* parasites two plasmids were used; 1) A cas9

expressing plasmid (as described above), and 2) pL7-PfHsp70x plasmid that is derived

from the pL6 plasmid (from J. J. Lopez-Rubio, (30)). pL7-PfHsp70x contained the guide

RNA and 800bp homology regions flanking a *hdhfr* gene that confers resistance to WR.

The N-terminus of the *pfhsp70x* gene was amplified via PCR from genomic DNA using

primers 5'- cggggaggactagtATGAAGACAAAAATTTGTAGTTATATTCATTATATTG-3'

and 5'- acaaaatgcttaagGGAAACATCTTTACCTCCATTTTTTTTTTTAAAATCTTGTAC-3'

and was inserted into pL6 using restriction sites AflII and SpeI (New England Biolabs).

The C-terminus of the *pfhsp70x* gene was pcr amplified from genomic DNA using

primers 5'-

taaatctagaattcTGATCAATCATCAGCTGTCAAAGACTTATTATTATTAGATG-3' and 5'-

ttaccgttccatggTTAATTTACTTCTTCAACGGTTGGTCCATTATTTTGTGCTTC-3' and

was inserted into pL6 (already containing the C-terminus homology region) using

restriction sites NcoI and EcoRI (New England Biolabs). In order to insert the guide

DNA sequence, oligos 5'-

TAAGTATATAATATTGTACAAGCAGCCATCTTATCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAA-3' and 5'-

TTCTAGCTCTAAAACGATAAGATGGCTGCTTGTACAATATTATATACTTA-3' were

annealed and cloned into pL6 as previously described (30). Briefly, pL6 was digested

with BtgZI (New England Biolabs) and annealed oligos were inserted using In-Fusion

HD Cloning Kit (Clontech).

Cell culture and transfections. Parasites were cultured in RPMI medium

supplemented with Albumax I (Gibco) and transfected as described earlier (37, 38). For

generation of *PfHsp70x-DDD* parasites, PfHsp70x-HADB was transfected in duplicates

into 3D7-derived parental strain PM1KO which contains a *hDHFR* expression cassette

conferring resistance to TMP (39). Selection and drug cycling were performed as

described (25) in the presence of 10 μM of TMP (Sigma). Integration was detected after

three rounds of drug cycling with blasticidin (Sigma).

For generation of PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9* parasites, a mix of three plasmids

(40 µg of each) was transfected in duplicates into 3D7 parasites. The plasmids mix

contained pUF1-Cas9 (from J. J. Lopez-Rubio, (30)) which contains the *DHOD*

resistance gene, pMK-U6-PfHsp70x, pHA-glmS-PfHsp70x or pHA-M9-PfHsp70x, which

are all marker-free. Drug pressure was applied 48 hours post transfection, using 1μM

DSM (40), selecting only for Cas9 expression. Drug was removed from the culturing

media once parasites became detectable in the culture, usually around 3 weeks post

transfection.

For generation of PfHsp70x-KO parasites, a mix of pUF1-Cas9 (from J. J. Lopez-Rubio,

(30)) and pL7-PfHsp70x (50 µg of each plasmid) was transfected in duplicates into 3D7

parasites. Drug pressure was applied 48 hours post transfection, using 2.5nM

WR99210 (Sigma), selecting for integration of the drug resistance cassette into the

pfhsp70x gene.

Growth assays. For asynchronous growth assays of PfHsp70x-DDD lines, parasites

were washed twice and incubated without TMP. For asynchronous growth assays of

PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9 parasites*, 5 or 10 mM GlcN (Sigma) were added to

the growth media. Asynchronous growth assays of PfHsp70x-KO parasites were

performed in media containing WR99210. Parasitemia was monitored every 24 hours

via flow cytometry. For flow cytometry, aliquots of parasite cultures (5 μl) were stained

with 1.5 mg/ml Acridine Orange (Molecular Probes) in PBS. The fluorescence profiles of

infected erythrocytes were measured by flow cytometry on a CyAn ADP (Beckman

Coulter) or CytoFLEX (Beckman Coulter) and analyzed by FlowJo software (Treestar,

Inc.). Whenever required, parasites were sub-cultured to avoid high parasite density

and relative parasitemia at each time point was back-calculated based on actual

parasitemia multiplied by the relevant dilution factors. 100% parasitemia was

determined as the highest relative parasitemia and was used to normalize parasite

growth. Data were fit to exponential growth equations using Prism (GraphPad Software,

Inc.)

Southern blotting. Southern blots were performed with genomic DNA isolated using

the Qiagen Blood and Cell Culture kit. 10 μg of DNA was digested overnight with

NcoI/XmnI for PfHsp70x-DDD and BamHI/ScaI for PfHsp70x-KO (New England

Biolabs). Integrants were screened using biotin-labeled probes against the 3'-end

(PfHsp70x-DDD parasites) or 5'-end (PfHsp70x-KO parasites) of the *pfhsp70x* ORF.

Southern blot was performed as described earlier (41). The probe was labeled using

biotinylated Biotin-16-dUTP (Sigma). The biotinylated probe was detected on blots

using IRDye 800CW Streptavidin conjugated dye (LICOR Biosciences) and was

imaged, processed and analyzed using the Odyssey infrared imaging system software

(LICOR Biosciences).

Western blotting. Western blots were performed as described previously (27). Briefly,

late-stage parasites were isolated on a percoll gradient (Genesee Scientific). For

PfHsp70x-DDD parasites, host RBCs were permeabilized selectively by treatment with

ice-cold 0.04% saponin in PBS for 10 min. Supernatants were collected for detection of

exported parasites proteins and pellets were collected for detection of proteins with the

parasite. For PfHsp70x-KO, PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9* parasites, whole

parasite lysates, including the host RBC, were used to detect protein expression and

export. The antibodies used in this study were rat anti-HA (3F10, Roche, 1:3000), rabbit

anti-PfEF1α (from D. Goldberg, 1: 2000), mouse anti-Plasmepsin V (From D. Goldberg,

1:400), rabbit anti-PfHsp70x (From J. Przyborski, 1:1000). The secondary antibodies

that were used are IRDye 680CW goat anti-rabbit IgG and IRDye 800CW goat anti-

mouse IgG (LICOR Biosciences, 1:20,000). The western blot images were processed

and analyzed using the Odyssey infrared imaging system software (LICOR

Biosciences).

Microscopy and image processing. For detection of HA-tags, PfHsp70x, PfFIKK4.2,

and MAHRP1, cells were smeared on a slide and acetone-fixed. For KAHRP detection,

cells were fixed with paraformaldehyde and glutaraldehyde. PfHsp70x-HA was detected

using rat anti-HA antibody (clone 3F10, Roche, 1:100). MAHRP1 was detected using

rabbit anti-MAHRP1 (from Hans-Peter Beck, 1:500). PfFIKK4.2 and KAHRP were

detected using mouse anti-PfFIKK4.2 (1:1000) and mouse anti-KAHRP (1:1000 and

1:500, respectively. Both antibodies acquired from David Cavanagh and EMRR).

Secondary antibodies used were anti rat-AlexaFluor 488 or 594, anti rabbit-AlexaFluor

488, and anti mouse-AlexaFluor 488 (Life Technologies, 1:100). Cells were mounted on

ProLong Diamond with DAPI (Invitrogen) and were imaged using DeltaVision II

microscope system with an Olympus IX-71 inverted microscope using a 100X objective.

Image processing, analysis and display were preformed using SoftWorx and Adobe

Photoshop. Adjustments to brightness and contrast were made for display purposes.

Acknowledgments

We thank Julie Nelson at the Center for Tropical and Emerging Global Diseases

Cytometry Shared Resource Laboratory; Muthugapatti Kandasamy at the University of

Georgia Biomedical Microscopy Core; Heather M. Bishop for technical assistance;

Jose-Juan Lopez-Rubio for sharing the pUF1-Cas9 and pL6 plasmids; and Dan

Goldberg (for anti-Plasmepsin V and anti-EF1α), Hans-Peter Beck (for anti-MAHRP),

Jude Przyborski (for anti-PfHsp70x), and David Cavanagh and EMRR (for anti-FIKK4.2

and anti-KAHRP). This work was supported by grants from the March of Dimes

References

1.   WHO. 2016. World Malaria ReportWorld Health Organization.

2.   Cowman AF, Healer J, Marapana D, Marsh K. 2015. Malaria : Biology and

Disease. Cell 167:610–624.

3.   Nilsson SK, Childs LM, Buckee C, Marti M. 2015. Targeting Human Transmission

Biology for Malaria Elimination. PLoS Pathog 11:e1004871.

4.   Desai SA. 2014. Why do malaria parasites increase host erythrocyte

permeability? Trends Parasitol 30:151–159.

5.   Maier AG, Cooke BM, Cowman AF, Tilley L. 2009. Malaria parasite proteins that

remodel the host erythrocyte. Nat Rev Microbiol 7:341–354.

6.   Marti M, Good RT, Rug M, Knuepfer E, Cowman AF. 2004. Targeting Malaria

Virulence and Remodeling Proteins to the Host Erythrocyte. Science (80-)

306:1930–1933.

7.   Hiller NL, Bhattacharjee S, Ooij C Van, Liolios K, Harrison T, Lopez-estran C,

Haldar K. 2004. A Host-Targeting Signal in Virulence Proteins Reveals a

Secretome in Malarial Infection. Science (80-) 306:1934–1937.

8.   Klemba M, Goldberg DE. 2005. Characterization of plasmepsin V, a membrane-

bound aspartic protease homolog in the endoplasmic reticulum of Plasmodium

falciparum. Mol Biochem Parasitol 143:183–191.

9.   Russo I, Babbitt S, Muralidharan V, Butler T, Oksman A, Goldberg DE. 2010.

Plasmepsin V licenses Plasmodium proteins for export into the host erythrocyte.

Nature 463:632–6.

10. Boddey J a, Hodder AN, Günther S, Gilson PR, Patsiouras H, Kapp E a, Pearce

JA, de Koning-Ward TF, Simpson RJ, Crabb BS, Cowman AF. 2010. An aspartyl

protease directs malaria effector proteins to the host cell. Nature 463:627–631.

11. Haase S, Herrmann S, Grüring C, Heiber A, Jansen PW, Langer C, Treeck M,

Cabrera A, Bruns C, Struck NS, Kono M, Engelberg K, Ruch U, Stunnenberg HG,

Gilberger TW, Spielmann T. 2009. Sequence requirements for the export of the

Plasmodium falciparum Maurer's clefts protein REX2. Mol Microbiol 71:1003–

1017.

12. Gruring C, Heiber A, Kruse F, Flemming S, Franci G, Colombo SF, Fasana E,

Schoeler H, Borgese N, Stunnenberg HG, Przyborski JM, Gilberger TW,

Spielmann T. 2012. Uncovering common principles in protein export of malaria

parasites. Cell Host Microbe 12:717–729.

13. de Koning-Ward TF, Gilson PR, Boddey JA, Rug M, Smith BJ, Papenfuss AT,

Sanders PR, Lundie RJ, Maier AG, Cowman AF, Crabb BS. 2009. A newly

discovered protein export machine in malaria parasites. Nature 459:945–9.

14. Gehde N, Hinrichs C, Montilla I, Charpian S, Lingelbach K, Przyborski JM. 2009.

Protein unfolding is an essential requirement for transport across the

parasitophorous vacuolar membrane of Plasmodium falciparum. Mol Microbiol

71:613–628.

15. Riglar DT, Rogers KL, Hanssen E, Turnbull L, Bullen HE, Charnaud SC,

Przyborski J, Gilson PR, Whitchurch CB, Crabb BS, Baum J, Cowman AF. 2013.

Spatial association with PTEX complexes defines regions for effector export into

Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes. Nat Commun 4:1415.

16. Boddey JA. 2014. Inhibition of Plasmepsin V activity demonstrates its essential

role in protein export, PfEMP1 display, and survival of malaria parasites. PLoS

Biol 12:e1001897.

17. Hodder AN, Sleebs BE, Czabotar PE, Gazdik M, Xu Y, O'Neill MT, Lopaticki S,

Nebl T, Triglia T, Smith BJ, Lowes K, Boddey JA, Cowman AF. 2015. Structural

basis for plasmepsin V inhibition that blocks export of malaria proteins to human

erythrocytes. Nat Struct Mol Biol 22:590–596.

18. Beck JR, Muralidharan V, Oksman A, Goldberg DE. 2014. PTEX component

HSP101 mediates export of diverse malaria effectors into host erythrocytes.

Nature 511:592–5.

19. Elsworth B, Matthews K, Nie CQ, Kalanon M, Charnaud SC, Sanders PR,

Chisholm SA, Counihan NA, Shaw PJ, Pino P, Chan J-A, Azevedo MF, Rogerson

SJ, Beeson JG, Crabb BS, Gilson PR, de Koning-Ward TF. 2014. PTEX is an

essential nexus for protein export in malaria parasites. Nature 511:587–91.

20. Maier AG, Rug M, O'Neill MT, Brown M, Chakravorty S, Szestak T, Chesson J,

Wu Y, Hughes K, Coppel RL, Newbold C, Beeson JG, Craig A, Crabb BS,

Cowman AF. 2008. Exported Proteins Required for Virulence and Rigidity of

Plasmodium falciparum-Infected Human Erythrocytes. Cell 134:48–61.

21. Külzer S, Charnaud S, Dagan T, Riedel J, Mandal P, Pesce ER, Blatch GL, Crabb

BS, Gilson PR, Przyborski JM. 2012. Plasmodium falciparum-encoded exported

hsp70/hsp40 chaperone/co-chaperone complexes within the host erythrocyte.

Cell Microbiol 14:1784–1795.

22. Rhiel M, Bittl V, Tribensky A, Charnaud SC, Strecker M, Müller S, Lanzer M,

Sanchez C, Schaeffer-Reiss C, Westermann B, Crabb BS, Gilson PR, Külzer S,

Przyborski JM. 2016. Trafficking of the exported P. falciparum chaperone

PfHsp70x. Sci Rep 6:36174.

23. Mesen-Ramirez P, Reinsch F, Blancke Soares A, Bergmann B, Ullrich AK, Tenzer

S, Spielmann T. 2016. Stable Translocation Intermediates Jam Global Protein

Export in Plasmodium falciparum Parasites and Link the PTEX Component EXP2

with Translocation Activity. PLoS Pathog 12:1–28.

24. Elsworth B, Sanders PR, Nebl T, Batinovic S, Kalanon M, Nie CQ, Charnaud SC,

Bullen HE, de Koning Ward TF, Tilley L, Crabb BS, Gilson PR. 2016. Proteomic

analysis reveals novel proteins associated with the Plasmodium protein exporter

PTEX and a loss of complex stability upon truncation of the core PTEX

component, PTEX150. Cell Microbiol.

25. Muralidharan V, Oksman A, Pal P, Lindquist S, Goldberg DE. 2012. Plasmodium

falciparum heat shock protein 110 stabilizes the asparagine repeat-rich parasite

proteome during malarial fevers. Nat Commun 3:1310.

26. Prommana P, Uthaipibull C, Wongsombat C, Kamchonwongpaisan S, Yuthavong

Y, Knuepfer E, Holder AA, Shaw PJ. 2013. Inducible Knockdown of Plasmodium

Gene Expression Using the glmS Ribozyme. PLoS One 8:1–10.

27. Muralidharan V, Oksman A, Iwamoto M, Wandless TJ, Goldberg DE. 2011.

Asparagine repeat function in a Plasmodium falciparum protein assessed via a

regulatable fluorescent affinity tag. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108:4411–6.

28.   Pei Y, Miller JL, Lindner SE, Vaughan AM, Torii M, Kappe SHI. 2013.

496   Plasmodium yoelii inhibitor of cysteine proteases is exported to exomembrane

497   structures and interacts with yoelipain-2 during asexual blood-stage development.

498   Cell Microbiol 15:1508–1526.

499   29.   Nacer A, Claes A, Roberts A, Scheidig-Benatar C, Sakamoto H, Ghorbal M,

500   Lopez-Rubio J-J, Mattei D. 2015. Discovery of a novel and conserved

501   Plasmodium falciparum exported protein that is important for adhesion of PfEMP1

502   at the surface of infected erythrocytes. Cell Microbiol.

503   30.   Ghorbal M, Gorman M, Macpherson CR, Martins RM, Scherf A, Lopez-Rubio J-J.

504   2014. Genome editing in the human malaria parasite Plasmodium falciparum

505   using the CRISPR-Cas9 system. Nat Biotechnol 32:819–21.

506   31.   Kats LM, Fernandez KM, Glenister FK, Herrmann S, Buckingham DW, Siddiqui G,

507   Sharma L, Bamert R, Lucet I, Guillotte M, Mercereau-Puijalon O, Cooke BM.

508   2014. An exported kinase (FIKK4.2) that mediates virulence-associated changes

509   in Plasmodium falciparum-infected red blood cells. Int J Parasitol 44:319–328.

510   32.   Watermeyer JM, Hale VL, Hackett F, Clare DK, Cutts EE, Vakonakis I, Fleck RA,

511   Blackman MJ, Saibil HR. 2016. A spiral scaffold underlies cytoadherent knobs in

512   Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes. Blood 127:343–51.

513   33.   Spycher C, Rug M, Pachlatko E, Hanssen E, Ferguson D, Cowman AF, Tilley L,

514   Beck HP. 2008. The Maurer's cleft protein MAHRP1 is essential for trafficking of

515   PfEMP1 to the surface of Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes. Mol

516   Microbiol 68:1300–1314.

34.   Pasini EME, Kirkegaard M, Mortensen P, Lutz HU, Thomas AW, Mann M. 2006.

In-depth analysis of the membrane and cytosolic proteome of red blood cells.

Blood 108:791–801.

35.   Banumathy G, Singh V, Tatu U. 2002. Host chaperones are recruited in

membrane-bound complexes by Plasmodium falciparum. J Biol Chem 277:3902–

3912.

36.   Egan ES, Jiang RHY, Moechtar MA, Barteneva NS, Weekes MP, Nobre L V, Gygi

SP, Paulo JA, Frantzreb C, Tani Y, Takahashi J, Watanabe S, Goldberg J, Paul

AS, Brugnara C, Root DE, Wiegand RC, Doench JG, Duraisingh MT. 2015. A

forward genetic screen identifies erythrocyte CD55 as essential for Plasmodium

falciparum invasion. Science 348:711–4.

37.   Drew ME, Banerjee R, Uffman EW, Gilbertson S, Rosenthal PJ, Goldberg DE.

2008. Plasmodium food vacuole plasmepsins are activated by falcipains. J Biol

Chem 283:12870–12876.

38.   Russo I, Oksman A, Goldberg DE. 2009. Fatty acid acylation regulates trafficking

of the unusual Plasmodium falciparum calpain to the nucleolus. Mol Microbiol

72:229–245.

39.   Liu J, Gluzman IY, Drew ME, Goldberg DE. 2005. The role of Plasmodium

falciparum food vacuole plasmepsins. J Biol Chem 280:1432–1437.

40.   Ganesan SM, Morrisey JM, Ke H, Painter HJ, Laroiya K, Phillips MA, Rathod PK,

Mather MW, Vaidya AB. 2011. Yeast dihydroorotate dehydrogenase as a new

selectable marker for Plasmodium falciparum transfection. Mol Biochem Parasitol

177:29–34.

41.   Klemba M, Gluzman I, Goldberg DE. 2004. A Plasmodium falciparum dipeptidyl

aminopeptidase I participates in vacuolar hemoglobin degradation. J Biol Chem

279:43000–43007.

Fig. 1. Generating PfHsp70x-DDD parasites. (A) Mechanism of PfHsp70x-DDD

conditional inhibition. The *pfhsp70x* locus was modified to contain a triple hemagglutinin

(HA) tag and a DHFR-based destabilization domain (DDD). In the presence of

trimethoprim (TMP) the DDD is stable and the chaperone is active. Upon TMP removal

the chaperone binds the DDD intra-molecularly and cannot interact with client proteins,

inhibiting normal activity. (B) Single crossover homologous recombination enables the

integration of the plasmid into the 3' end of the *pfhsp70x* gene (upper panel). Southern

blot analysis of genomic DNA (bottom panel) isolated from parasite lines indicated

above the lanes. The genomic DNA was digested with AccI. Bands expected from

integration of the plasmid into the 3' end of the *pfhsp70x* gene were observed in two

independent transfections. A single band indicative of the parental allele was observed

for the parental strain and it was absent in the integrant parasites. (C) PfHsp70x-DDD

parasites were incubated without TMP, and Schizont stage parasites were purified on a

percoll gradient. Host cell lysates together with exported proteins were isolated using

0.04% cold saponin and were then collected from the supernatant (S). Parasites cells

with all non-exported proteins were collected from the pellet (P). Using western blot

analysis, the two fractions were analyzed and probed for PfHsp70x expression and

export. The membrane was probed with antibodies against HA (top) and Plasmepsin V

(loading control, bottom). The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed

protein are shown on the left.

Fig. 2. TMP removal does not affect parasite growth and PfHsp70x localization.

(A) Asynchronous PfHsp70x-DDD parasites were grown with or without 10µM TMP and

parasitemia was monitored every 24 hours over 5 days. Data are fit to an exponential

growth equation and are represented as mean ± S.E.M. Experiments were done 3 times

and biological replicates are shown. (B) Immunofluorescence imaging of acetone fixed

PfHsp70x-DDD parasites stained with antibodies against HA (green) and DAPI (blue).

Scale bar, 5µm.

A

B

C

PfHsp70x-glmS

Fig. 3. CRISPR/Cas9-mediated integration of HA-*glmS*/*M9* at PfHsp70x locus.

(A) Diagram showing integration of 3xHA-ribozyme sequence and GlcN-induced

degradation of mRNA. Cas9 introduces a double-stranded break at the beginning of the

3' UTR of the *pfhsp70x* locus. The repair plasmid provides homology regions for double-

crossover homologous recombination, introducing a 3xHA tag and the ribozyme

sequence. Following translation and addition of GlcN, the PfHsp70x-*glmS* mRNA is

cleaved by the ribozyme and is subject to degradation. (B) PCR test confirming

integration at the PfHsp70x locus. DNA was purified from transfected, cloned parasites

and primers were used to amplify the region between the C-terminus and 3'UTR of

pfhsp70x. The PCR products were digested with AfeI, further confirming integration. (C)

IFA showing export of HA-tagged PfHsp70x. Asynchronous PfHsp70x-*glmS* parasites

were fixed with acetone and stained with specific antibodies. Images from left to right

are phase, DAPI (parasite nucleus, blue), anti-HA (red), anti-MAHRP1 (green), and

fluorescence merge. Scale bar represents 5 μm. (R) rings, (T) trophs and (S) schizont.

Fig. 4. GlcN-induced knockdown of PfHsp70x does not affect intraerythrocytic

growth. (A) PfHsp70x-*glmS*, PfHsp70x-*M9*, and 3D7 (parental line) were seeded at

equal parasitemia in triplicate and grown in normal culturing media (complete RPMI).

Parasitemia was measured every 24 hours using flow cytometry. Data are fit to an

exponential growth equation and are represented as mean ± S.E.M. (n=3). (B) and (C)

PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9* parasites were seeded at equal parasitemia in

triplicate. Cultures were grown in the presence of either 5 (B) or 10 mM (C) GlcN.

Parasitemia was measured every 24 hours using flow cytometry. Data are fit to an

exponential growth equation and are represented as mean ± S.E.M. (n=3). (D)

PfHsp70x-*glmS* and PfHsp70x-*M9* parasites were grown in the presence of 7.5 mM

GlcN. Schizont-stage parasites were Percoll-purified every 24 hours, and whole parasite

lysates were used for western blot analysis. Membrane was probed with anti-HA, and

anti-PfEF1α (loading control).

Fig. 5. Knockout of *pfhsp70x* does not affect intraerythrocytic growth. (A)

Schematic showing interruption of PfHsp70x ORF with *hDHFR* cassette. Cas9-

mediated double-stranded break in the *pfhsp70x* ORF is repaired using homology

regions on the template plasmid while inserting an *hDHFR* cassette into the locus. (B)

Southern blot analysis confirming knockout of PfHsp70x. Genomic DNA from

independent knockout clones (A3, A7, B3, and B9) was isolated and digested with

BamHI and ScaI. Membrane was hybridized with a biotin-labeled probe complementary

to the first 800 base pairs of the *pfhsp70x* ORF. (C) Western blot analysis

demonstrating loss of PfHsp70x protein expression in independent knockout clones.

Schizont-stage parasites were Percoll-purified, and whole cell lysate was used for

analysis. Membrane was probed with antibodies raised against PfHsp70x, and against

Plasmepsin V as a loading control. (D) Parental lines and independent PfHsp70x-KO

clones (A7 and B3) were seeded at equal parasitemia in triplicate. Parasitemia was

measured every 24 hours using flow cytometry. Data are fit to an exponential growth

equation and are represented as mean ± S.E.M. (n=3).

Fig. 6. PfHsp70x knockout does not inhibit export of virulence-associated

proteins. Asynchronous 3D7 and PfHsp70x-KO parasites were fixed with acetone

(PfFIKK4.2 and MAHRP1) or paraformaldehyde (KAHRP) and stained with antibodies

against (A) PfFIKK4.2, (B) KAHRP, and (C) MAHRP1. DAPI used to mark parasite cell

nucleus. Images from left to right are phase, DAPI (blue), anti-exported protein (green),

and fluorescence merge. Scale bar represents 5µm. Representative images shown.