Title: Ankyrin-1 gene exhibits allelic heterogeneity in conferring protection against malaria

Author list and affiliations

Hong Ming Huang*, Denis C. Bauer[†], Patrick M. Lelliott[‡], Matthew W. A. Dixon[§], Leann
Tilley[§], Brendan J. McMorran*, Simon J. Foote*, Gaetan Burgio*

*Department of Immunology and Infectious Disease, John Curtin School of Medical
Research, Australian National University, ACT, Australia.

[†] CSIRO, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

[‡] IFReC Research Building, Osaka University, 3-1 Yamada-oka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan.

[§] Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Bio21 Institute, Melbourne, Victoria,
Australia.

Authors' Contributions

H.M.H., D.C.B., P.M.L., M.W.A.D, L.T., B.J.M, S.J.F. and G.B. designed and planned the

experimental work. H.M.H., D.C.B. and G.B. performed the research. H.M.H., D.C.B., P.M.L.,

M.W.A.D, L.T., B.J.M, S.J.F. and G.B. interpreted and analysed the data. H.M.H., D.C.B. and

G.B. performed statistical analysis. H.M.H, P.M.L., G.B., B.J.M. and S.J.F. wrote the

manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Short Title: Allelic heterogeneity of Ankyrin-1

Keywords: Ankyrin-1, malaria, erythrocyte cytoskeleton, allelic heterogeneity

Corresponding author:

Dr Gaetan Burgio

The John Curtin School of Medical Research, Australian National University,

131 Garran Road, ACT 2601, Australia.

Gaetan.burgio@anu.edu.au

+61 2 612 59428

Abstract

Allelic heterogeneity is a common phenomenon where a gene exhibit different phenotype

depending on the nature of its genetic mutations. In the context of genes affecting malaria

susceptibility, it allowed us to explore and understand the intricate host-parasite

interactions during malaria infections. In this study, we described a gene encoding

erythrocytic ankyrin-1 (*Ank-1*) which exhibits allelic-dependent heterogeneous phenotypes

during malaria infections. We conducted an ENU mutagenesis screen on mice and identified

two *Ank-1* mutations, one resulted in an amino acid substitution (MRI95845), and the other

a truncated *Ank-1* protein (MRI96570). Both mutations caused hereditary spherocytosis-like

phenotypes and confer differing protection against *Plasmodium chabaudi* infections. Upon

further examination, the *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570)}$ mutation was found to inhibit intra-erythrocytic

parasite maturation, whereas *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845)}$ caused increased bystander erythrocyte

clearance during infection. This is the first description of allelic heterogeneity in ankyrin-1

from the direct comparison between two *Ank-1* mutations. Despite the lack of direct

evidence from population studies, this data further supported the protective roles of

ankyrin-1 mutations in conferring malaria protection. This study also emphasized the

importance of such phenomenon to achieve a better understanding of host-parasite

interactions, which could be the basis of future studies.

Introduction

Malarial parasites have been co-evolving with humans for thousands of years and have played a major role in shaping the human genome in malaria endemic regions [1,2]. Indeed, many genetic polymorphisms were selected for, as they provide significant host survival advantages during malaria infections [1,3], resulting in high frequencies of protective genetic mutations in malaria endemic regions. The majority of these affect the red blood cells (RBCs), and hence the blood stage of malaria infections [3-5].

Interestingly, these genetic mutations or alleles often exhibit varying degrees of malaria protection even if they affect the same gene, which is influenced by the location and the severity of the mutations [6,7]. This phenomenon, known as "allelic heterogeneity", is characterized by multiple different phenotypes arising from mutations in a single gene. It has been described for certain genes affecting malaria susceptibility, which is reflected by their geographical distribution within malaria-endemic regions [8]. One of the most prominent examples of this is the G6PD deficiency disorder, which can arise from multiple mutations in the G6PD gene [7,9]. Many studies have explored the effectiveness of each mutation in protecting individuals from malaria, which corresponds to the distribution of each allele across the globe [10-12]. Another example is the β-globin gene, which is well known for its two malaria protective alleles – the HbS and HbC in African populations [13,14]. HbC is restricted to West Africa, whereas HbS is widespread throughout Africa, which is thought to be linked to the effectiveness of each allele at conferring malaria resistance, and their non-malaria-associated morbidity [15,16]. Studies on these alleles would not only allow a better understanding of host-parasite interactions, but also give us insights into the dynamics of population genetics in malaria endemic regions [8].

However, allelic heterogeneity can also complicate the characterization of the malaria

protective roles of certain genes, often resulting in conflicting evidence from various studies.

One example of such polymorphisms is CD36 deficiency, which was originally thought to be

protective against malaria, as evidenced by the positive selection in East Asian and African

populations [17-19]. While some studies reported increased malaria protection [20], others

reported no significant associations [21] or even increased susceptibility [17,22]. It is

possible that these contradictive findings are due to confounding factors associated with

allelic heterogeneity in CD36 deficiency [6]. This further emphasizes the importance of

taking allelic heterogeneity into consideration better design future studies involving host

genetics in malaria, as well as various other infectious diseases.

In terms of malaria susceptibility, however, the allelic heterogeneity of genes affecting RBC

cytoskeleton is poorly understood. Many of the resulting genetic disorders are

heterogeneous, such as hereditary spherocytosis (HS), which is characterized by the

formation of "spherocytic" RBCs that exhibit reduced volume due to disruptions in

erythrocyte cytoskeletons. HS is caused by mutations in ankyrin, spectrins, band 3 and

protein 4.2, with ankyrin mutations contributing to more than 50% of all HS cases [23-27],

where the severity depends greatly on the location and the nature of mutations [28].

However, the prevalence of HS in malaria endemic regions is not well studied; only isolated

cases were reported [29-32]. Nevertheless, *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies have repeatedly

suggested an association of HS with increased malaria resistance, and several mechanisms

have been proposed, although not all of them were consistent [33-36]. Based on these

observations, we hypothesized that the inconsistencies in resistance mechanisms might be

due to the allelic heterogeneity of genes associated with HS.

To explore this hypothesis, we examined mouse models carrying two novel N-ethyl-N-

nitrosourea (ENU)-induced ankyrin mutations. These two mouse lines, *Ank-1*[(MRI96570/+)] and

Ank-1[(MRI95845/MRI95845)], displayed hematological and clinical features consistent with HS, and

a marked resistance to infection by the murine malarial parasite, *Plasmodium chabaudi*.

Analysis of the underlying mechanism of resistance to infection revealed both common and

distinct features between the strains. RBCs from both mouse lines were similarly resistant

to merozoite invasion. Although, the *Ank-1*[(MRI95845/MRI95845)] erythrocytes were more rapidly

cleared from circulation during an infection, an impairment in intra-erythrocytic parasite

maturation was observed in the infected *Ank-1*[(MRI96570/+)] erythrocytes. This study highlights

the first direct examination of allelic heterogeneity of the *Ank-1* gene in the context of

malaria resistance in mouse models.

Materials and Methods

Mice and ethics statement

All mice used in this study were housed with 12 hour light-dark cycle under constant

temperature at 21 °C, with food and water available *ad libitum*. All procedures were

performed according to the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC)

Australian code of practice. Experiments were carried out under ethics agreement AEEC

A2014/54, which was approved by the animal ethics committees of the Australian National

University.

ENU mutagenesis and dominant phenotype screening

SJL/J male mice were injected intraperitoneally with two doses of 100 mg/kg ENU (Sigma-

Aldrich, St Louis, MO) at one week interval. The treated males (G0) were crossed to females

from the isogenic background to produce the first generation progeny (G1). The seven-

week-old G1 progeny were bled and analyzed on an Advia 120 Automated Hematology

Analyzer (Siemens, Berlin, Germany) to identify abnormal red blood cell count.　A mouse

carrying the MRI96570 or MRI95845 mutation was identified with a RBC "mean corpuscular

volume" (MCV) value three standard deviations lower from other G1 progeny. It was

crossed with SJL/J mice to produce G2 progeny to test the heritability of the mutations and

the dominance mode of inheritance. Mice that exhibited low MCV (<48fL) were selected for

whole exome sequencing and genotyping.

Whole exome sequencing

DNA from two G2 mice per strain carrying the abnormal red blood cell parameters (MCV

<48fL) were extracted with Qiagen DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen, Venlo, Netherlands)

for exome sequencing as previously described [37].　Briefly, 10μg of DNA was prepared for

exome enrichment with Agilent Sure select kit paired-end genomic library from Illumina

(San Diego, CA), followed by high throughput sequencing using a HiSeq 2000 platform. The

bioinformatics analysis was conducted according to the variant filtering method previously

described by Bauer et al. [38]. Private variants that were shared between the two mutants

but not with other SJL/J, C57BL/6 mice, excluding the common variants between other

mouse strains were annotated using ANNOVAR [39]. Private non-synonymous exonic and

intronic variants within 20 bp from the exon spicing sites were retained as potential

candidate ENU mutations.

PCR and Sanger sequencing

DNA from mutant mice was amplified through PCR with 35 cycles of 30 seconds of 95^0C

denaturation, 30 seconds of 56-58^{0}C annealing and 72^0C elongation for 40 seconds. The

primers used in the PCR are described below. The PCR products were examined with

agarose gel electrophoresis before being sent to the Australian Genome Research Facility

(AGRF) in Melbourne, Australia, for Sanger sequencing. Logarithm of odds (LOD) score was

calculated based on the number of mice that segregated with the candidate mutations.

Primers for MRI95845 mutation:

Amplicon	Forward	Reverse
Snai2	CATCTGCAGACCCACTCTGA	TGGTTGGTAAGCACATGAGAA
Tbc1d23	CACCCCCTTTTTGGTTTCTT	ACGTGCACATCGACTAACCA
Pnpla6	AGGCTGAGGAAGTGTGCCTA	AACTAGCTGGGCTTTGGTCA
Zglp1	CTGGCCTTTGACTTCTGACC	CCTCACAAGGTGGCTGTTTC
Ank-1	CTCCAAGTGAGAGGGTTTGC	GATGGCACACAGTCAGACCA

158   Primers for MRI96570 mutation:

Amplicon	Forward	Reverse
Fat4	CGCATCCCTTCATACAACCT	ACACCCCACTCACGTAGCTC
Rhcg	TGAGGAATGAGGGAGAAAGG	CCAATATGGCAGCCCTCTAA
Plxnb3	TACCCGATCAATCCAGAAGG	TTCTGAATGTGCAGGGTCAC
Ank-1	TGTGCAGGCATTTCTACATGA	ACTCTCTGGGTAGACCCCGT

RBC osmotic fragility analysis

To assess the susceptibility of RBC membrane to osmotic stress, 5μl of mouse whole blood

was diluted 100-fold with phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 0 to 10g/L of sodium

chloride, and incubated for at least 10 minutes at room temperature. The cells were

centrifuged at 800g for 3 minutes, and the supernatant, which contains free hemoglobin,

was measured at 540nm to assess the degree of hemolysis. The absorbance values were

expressed as percentage of hemolysis, with hemolysis at 0g/L sodium considered as 100%

lysis.

Erythrocyte lifetime assay

Each uninfected mouse was intravenously injected with 1mg of EZ-link® Sulfo-NHS- LC Biotin

(Biotin) (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in mouse tonicity PBS (MT-PBS). 2ul of blood was

collected on day 1, 7, 14, 21 and 28 days post-injection. Samples were stained and analyzed

using a flow cytometer. The proportion of Biotin-labelled mature RBCs on day 1 was

considered as the "starting point" of 100% of labelled cells. For subsequent timepoints, the

remaining number of biotin-labelled RBCs were expressed as a percentage of the starting

number as the indication of RBC turnover rate.

For infected mice, 1mg of Biotin was injected intravenously as soon as parasitemia was

detectable via flow cytometry (approximately 0.05-0.3%). Samples were collected daily and

analyzed as above.

Ektacytometry

10-15ul of uninfected RBCs were first resuspended in 500ul of pre-warmed

polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) solution at a viscosity of 30 mPa/second at 37 °C until needed.

Samples were analyzed according to the manufacturer's instructions with a RheoScan

Ektacytometer (Rheo Meditech, Seoul, South Korea) and the elongation index measured

across a range of pressures from 0-20 Pa. Each sample was measured three times to account

for technical variabilities. The values were normalized against the wild-type samples.

In vitro spleen retention assay

The RBC deformability was examined according to the protocol described previous by

Deplaine et al. [40] with modifications. Briefly, RBCs from each genotype of mice were

stained with 10µg/ml of either hydroxysulfosuccinimide Atto 633 (Atto 633) or

hydroxysulfosuccinimide Atto 565 (Atto 565) (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO), followed by

three washes with MTRC (154mM NaCl, 5.6mM KCl, 1mM $MgCl_2$, 2.2mM $CaCl_2$, 20mM

HEPES, 10mM glucose, 4mM EDTA, 0.5% BSA, pH 7.4, filter sterilized). The stained RBCs

were mixed in equal proportion and diluted with unstained wild-type RBCs to give

approximately 10-20% of the total RBCs being labelled RBCs. The samples were further

diluted to 1-2% haematocrit with MTRC, before passing through the filter bed. The pre-

filtered and post-filtered samples were analysed on BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences,

Franklin Lakes, NJ) flow cytometer to determine the proportion being retained in the filter

bed.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

SEM was performed as described previously [41]. Mouse blood was fixed overnight in 3%

EM-grade glutaraldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) at 4°C immediately upon collection.

The samples were washed with MT-PBS 3 times, 10 minute each time. The cells were then

adhered to the coverslips with 0.1% polyethylenimine (PEI) for 10 minutes, before washing

with MT-PBS. The cells were then dried serially using 30%, 50%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 100%, 100%

ethanol, 10 minutes each. The cells were then soaked in 1:1 ethanol: hexamethyldisilazane

solution for 10 minutes, followed by 2 washes with 100% hexamethyldisilazane (Sigma-

Aldrich, St Louis, MO), each 10 minutes. The coverslips were then air-dried overnight and

coated with gold and examined under JEOL JSM-6480LV scanning electron microscope.

Quantitative PCR and cDNA sequencing

RNA was purified from embryonic livers of E14 embryos using Qiagen RNeasy kit (Qiagen,

Venlo, Netherlands), followed by cDNA synthesis using Transcriptor High Fidelity cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Roche, Basel, Switzerland), as described previously [41]. Quantitative PCR was

performed on ViiA™ 7 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). The $\Delta\Delta C_T$

method [42] was used to determine the cDNA levels of *Ank-1* and the housekeeping gene β-

actin and expressed as a fold-change of the mutants to the wild-type. The primers used for

Ank-1 gene spanned exon 2 to 4: *Ank-1*-F: 5'-TAACCAGAACGGGTTGAACG-3'; *Ank-1*-R: 5'-

TGTTCCCCTTCTTGGTTGTC-3'; β-Actin-F: 5'- TTCTTTGCAGCTCCTTCGTTGCCG-3'; β-Actin-R: 5'-

TGGATGCGTACGTACATGGCTGGG-3'.

SDS-PAGE, Coomassie staining and Western blot

The analysis of erythrocytic proteins was carried out as described previously [41]. Briefly,

RBC ghosts were prepared by lysing mouse RBCs with ice-cold 5mM phosphate buffer

(ph7.4) and centrifuging at 20,000g for 20 minutes followed by removal of the supernatant,

and repeat until the supernatant became clear. The RBC ghosts or whole blood lysates were

denatured in SDS-PAGE loading buffer (0.0625M Tris pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 0.1M

DTT, 0.01% bromophenol blue) at 95°C for 5 minutes before loading onto a 4-15% Mini-

PROTEAN® TGX™ Precast Gels (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). The gels were then either stained

with Coomassie blue solution (45% v/v methanol, 7% v/v acetic acid, 0.25% w/v Brilliant

Blue G) overnight or transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. The western blot was carried

out using these primary antibodies: 1ug/ml anti-alpha 1 spectrin (clone 17C7), 1ug/ml anti-

beta 1 spectrin (clone 4C3) (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), 0.5ug/ml anti-GAPDH (clone 6C5)

(Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), anti-N-terminal *Ank-1* "p89" at 1:1500 dilution,

anti-band 3 at 1:4000 dilution and anti-protein 4.2 at 1:2000 dilution (kind gifts from Connie

Birkenmeier, Jackson Laboratory, US). Each primary antibody was detected with the

appropriate horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibody at 1:5000 dilution

from 1mg/ml stocks. The blots were visualized using ImageQuant LAS 4000 (GE Healthcare

Life Sciences, Arlington Heights, IL), and quantified using ImageJ software [43].

Malaria infection

Malaria infections on mice were performed as described previously [41]. 200µl of thawed *P.*

chabaudi adami infected blood was injected into the intraperitoneal cavity of a C57BL/6

donor mouse. When the donor mouse reached 1-10% parasite load (parasitemia), blood was

collected through cardiac puncture. The blood was diluted with Krebs' buffered saline with

0.2% glucose as described previously [44]. Each experimental mouse was infected with

$1x10^4$ parasites intraperitoneally. The parasitemia of these mice were monitored either

using light microscopy or flow cytometry.

Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labelling (TUNEL) staining

The TUNEL assay was carried out as described previously [41] with slight modification. 3µl of

infected blood containing 1-10% parasitemia were collected during trophozoite stage and

fixed in 1 in 4 diluted BD Cytofix™ Fixation Buffer (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) for at

least day until they were needed. Each sample was then washed twice with MT-PBS, and

adhered to a glass slide pre-coated with 0.1% polyethylenimine (PEI) for 10 minutes at room

temperature. The excess cells were washed and the glass slide was incubated overnight at

room temperature with TUNEL labelling solution (1mM Cobalt Chloride, 25mM Tris-HCl pH

6.6, 200mM sodium cacodylate, 0.25mg/ml BSA, 60uM BrdUTP, 15U Terminal transferase).

The slides were washed three times, followed by staining with 50µg/ml of anti-BrdU-FITC

antibody (Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO) in MT-PBT (MT-PBS, 0.5% BSA, 0.05% Triton X-

100) for 1 hour. The slides were then washed three times with MT-PBS and mounted with

SlowFade® Gold antifade reagent with DAPI (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) and sealed.

When the slides were dried, they were examined using Axioplan 2 fluorescence light

microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) between 60x to 100x magnification. At least

100 DAPI-positive cells were counted, and each was graded as either positive or negative for

TUNEL staining, as an indication of DNA fragmentation.

In vivo erythrocyte tracking (IVET) assays

The IVET assay was carried out as previously described by Lelliott et al. [45],[46]. Briefly, at

least 1.5ml whole blood was collected from mice of each genotype via cardiac puncture,

followed by staining with either 10μg/ml of Atto 633 or 125μg/ml of EZ-Link™ Sulfo-NHS-LC-

Biotin (Biotin) (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) for 45 minutes at room temperature,

followed by washing two times with MT-PBS. The blood was mixed in two different dye

combinations to correct for any dye effects. Approximately 1×10^9 erythrocytes were injected

intravenously into infected wild-type mice at 1-5% parasitemia during schizogony stage.

Blood samples were collected at various timepoints, from 30 minutes up to 36 hours after

injection, and analyzed using flow cytometry. The ratio of infected labelled erythrocytes was

determined, as an indication of the relative susceptibility of RBCs to *P. chabaudi* infections.

The proportion of labelled blood populations was also tracked over time to determine the

clearance of these RBCs from the circulation.

Flow cytometry analysis of blood samples

For erythrocyte lifetime assays, 2μl of whole blood samples were stained with 2μg/ml

streptavidin-PE-Cy7, 1μg/ml anti-CD71-allophycocyanin (APC) (clone R17217), 1μg/ml anti-

CD45–APC eFluor 780 (clone 30-F11) (eBioscience, San Diego, CA), 4μM Hoechst 33342

(Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) and 12μM JC-1 (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in MTRC.

The samples were washed once with MTRC and further stained with 2μg/ml streptavidin-PE-

Cy7 to capture all biotin-labelled cells. Immediately prior to analyzing on flow cytometer, 5μl

of 123count eBeads (eBioscience, San Diego, CA) was added to determine the relative levels

of anemia.

For both malaria infections and IVET assay, 2µl of whole blood samples were stained with

2µg/ml streptavidin-PE-Cy7 (only for experiments with biotinylated erythrocytes), 1µg/ml

anti-CD45–allophycocyanin (APC)–eFluor 780 (clone 30-F11), 1µg/ml anti-CD71 (TFR1)–

PerCP–eFluor 710 (clone R17217) (eBioscience, San Diego, CA), 4µM Hoechst 33342 (Sigma-

Aldrich, St Louis, MO) and 12µM JC-1 (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in MTRC. All

samples analyzed through flow cytometry were performed on BD LSRFortessa (BD

Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ), where 200,000 to 1,000,000 events were collected and

visualized on FACSDiva^{TM} and FlowJo software. RBCs were identified by gating on CD71

negative and CD45 negative population, followed by gating on Atto-labelled and Biotin-

labelled erythrocytes on appropriate channels (APC for Atto-633, PE for Atto-565 and PE-

Cy7 for Biotin). The parasitemia of each labelled erythrocyte population was determined by

gating on Hoechst 33342 positive and JC-1 positive population.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out as described in previous study [41]. Unless otherwise

stated, all statistical analysis was carried out using unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests

without corrections. In particular, the LOD score method coupled with Bonferroni correction

was used to determine the causative mutation for MRI96570 and MRI95845, in which the

significance threshold and the LOD score for each candidate mutation was calculated, and a

LOD score above the threshold was considered statistically significant. The statistical tests

for FRAP assay, ektacytometry, RBC lifetime and clearance assays were performed by first

calculating the area under curves for each sample, followed by an unpaired Student's t-test

on pooled mice of each genotype. The statistical tests for *in vitro* spleen retention assays

were performed using paired Sudent's t-test, comparing mutant with wild-type RBC

population within the same sample. The statistical significance of the malaria survival was

tested using the unpaired Log-Rank test on pooled mutant versus wild-type mice. The

statistical significance of *Plasmodium* infection was determined via the statmod software

package   for   R   (http://bioinf.wehi.edu.au/software/compareCurves)   using   the

'compareGrowthCurves' function with 10,000 permutation, followed by adjustments for

multiple testing. The statistical significance for the ratios of IVET assays was determined

using the one sample t-test with hypothetical mean of 1.

Results

MRI96570 and MRI95845 carry mutations in *Ank-1* gene

ENU-treated SJL/J male mice were crossed with wild-type female to produce G1 progeny.

The G1 progeny carrying heterozygous point mutations in their genome were then

subjected to hematological screening to identify genes affecting RBC properties that might

confer malaria protection. Heterozygous G1 mice MRI96570 and MRI95845 were identified

from the ENU-dominant screen with mean cellular volume (MCV) three standard deviations

below the normal level of the respective parental line: 48.5fl for MRI96570, and 50.6fl for

MRI95845, compared to the background of 55.1±1.2fl in SJL/J inbred strain. These mice

were crossed with wild-type to produce G2 progeny, where approximately half exhibit low

erythrocyte MCV values. Exome sequencing was carried out from two MRI96570 and

MRI95845 G2 progeny showing a reduction of MCV to identify the causative genetic

mutations. Unique variants shared between these mice were identified and listed in Table

S1. A mutation in the ankyrin-1 (*Ank-1*) gene was present in all the affected mice, and co-

segregated completely with the reduced MCV phenotype for over three generations of

crosses. Sanger sequencing revealed a T to A transversion in exon 34 of the *Ank-1* gene for

MRI96570 strain, and a T to A transversion in exon 5 of the *Ank-1* gene for MRI95845 strain

(Figure S1). They were predicted to cause a nonsense mutation at amino acid position 1398,

located in the spectrin-binding domain for MRI96570 mice, and a substitution of tyrosine for

asparagine at amino acid residue 149 in the 4th ankyrin repeat for MRI95845 mice (Figure

1A). MRI96570 and MRI95845 will be referred as *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$*

respectively, for the rest of the report.

Both *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$* exhibit HS-like phenotypes

Since ankyrin mutations are usually associated with HS, we examined both *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$*

and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$* mice in terms of their HS-like phenotypes. When two *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* G2

progeny were intercrossed, *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/MRI96570)}$* mice were born with severe jaundice and

died within several days of birth (Figure 1B), suggesting homozygosity for *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$*

mutation caused lethal anemia. On the other hand, *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice appeared

healthy with a normal lifespan. Hematological analysis of these mice revealed a significant

reduction in MCV and mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), and increased red cell

distribution width (RDW) (Table S2), indicating microcytosis and anisocytosis, which are the

hallmarks for HS. When the RBCs were subjected to osmotic stress, RBCs from *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$, *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice exhibit significantly increased

osmotic fragility compared to wild-type RBCs (Figure 1C). In particular, sodium chloride

concentration required to achieve 50% hemolysis is significantly higher (P<0.001) for *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ RBCs (5.6 g/L or 104mM) and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* RBCs (5.4 g/L or 100mM),

compared to wild-type RBCs (4.6 g/L or 84mM). The *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs showed

further susceptibility to osmotic stress, with 50% hemolysis at approximately 6.5 g/L

(121mM) sodium chloride concentration.

We predicted that the mutant RBCs have shorter half-life, which is also one of the

symptoms of HS. Therefore, RBC half-life was determined by biotinylating mouse RBCs *in*

situ and tracking the proportion of biotinylated RBCs in circulation over time. As shown in

Figure 1D, erythrocytes from *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ have a significantly shorter half-life of

approximately 9.5 days as opposed to the 16 days of wild-type erythrocytes (P=0.008), but

no significant difference was observed for erythrocytes from heterozygous mice (P=0.09 for

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ mice and P=0.08 for *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ mice). The morphology of these RBCs

were examined under light and scanning electron microscopy (Figure S2). *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$

and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ mice exhibited slight reduction in RBC size, while *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$

mice had smaller acanthocytic RBCs and displayed anisocytosis. On the other hand, blood

smears obtained from jaundiced *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/MRI96570)}$ pups showed reticulocytosis,

fragmented RBCs and severe anisocytosis.

Another feature of HS is reduced RBC deformability, which was examined using two

different analytical techniques: ektacytometry and an *in vitro* spleen retention assay.

Ektacytometry measures the flexibility of RBCs when subjected to shear pressure, and

expresses as an elongation index, which indicates the deformability of RBCs. The *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ RBCs showed reduced elongation index compared to wild-type, with *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs showing further reduction in elongation index, indicating significant

reduction in RBC deformability (Figure 1E). In addition, the *in vitro* "spleen mimic" retention

assay was performed by passing the erythrocytes through layer of microbeads of varying

sizes, modelling *in vivo* splenic filtration. RBC deformability was assessed by the ability of

RBCs to pass through the bead layer. Figure 1F showed three independent measurements of

RBC deformability using the splenic retention assay, comparing wild-type, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$,

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs. An approximately 70% increased retention

for *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ RBCs was observed compared to wild-type, whereas erythrocytes of *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice showed 86% and 90% increased RBC retention

compared to wild-type, respectively. However, no significant difference was observed

between *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes.

The expression levels of ankyrin and other RBC membrane proteins were also examined

(Figure S3). Significant reduction of *Ank-1* mRNA levels was observed in *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$,

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/MRI96570)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ embryonic livers (Figure

S3a). However, Coomassie staining and Western blotting of the RBC membrane fractions did

not show a significant difference in ANK-1 levels between wild-type, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes (P=0.3) (Figure S3b-d), using an anti-ANK-1 antibody (p89)

targeting specifically to the N-terminal region of ANK-1 protein [36]. The predicted

truncated ANK-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ form (160kDa) was also not evidenced, suggesting degradation of

truncated protein. The levels of other cytoskeletal proteins were also examined to account

for possible disruptions to interactions with binding partners of ankyrin-1. However, no

difference was observed for band 3, α- and β-spectrin, whereas with a significantly lower

protein 4.2 level was observed only in *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes (Figure S3d).

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$ and Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$ confer protection against *P. chabaudi* infection

We proposed that mice carrying these mutations have reduced susceptibility to malaria

infection, which we examined by injecting with a lethal dose of *P. chabaudi*, and recording

the percentage of parasitized RBCs (parasitemia). As shown in Figure 2A, *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* and

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ mice showed significant reduction in peak parasitemia of approximately 15-

20%, while *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice showed approximately 30% reduction in peak

parasitemia compared to wild-type. *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice also showed a two-day delay

in parasitemia, peaking on day 12 post-infection rather than day 10 as with wild-type. *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice also exhibited significantly higher survival rate compared to wild-type

during *P. chabaudi* infection, but no significant difference was observed for *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$*

and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* mice compared to wild-type (Figure 2B). Overall, these results suggested

that both *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* mice showed moderate resistance, whereas

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice exhibited significant resistance towards *P. chabaudi* infection

relative to wild-type mice.

From these results, we further investigated and compared the possible mechanisms of

resistance mediated by *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$* mutations. We examined three

important determinants of parasite growth and survival within the host. Firstly, we studied

the ability of parasite to survive within these erythrocytes, since ankyrin-1 mutations have

previously been implicated to impair parasite intra-erythrocytic maturation [36]. Secondly,

the erythrocyte invasion was assessed since the mutations disrupt erythrocyte cytoskeletal

structure, which is important for facilitating efficient erythrocyte invasion [47]. Thirdly, the

mutations might result in an improved detection of parasitized RBCs, thus enhancing their

removal from circulation during malaria infection. Since *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* and *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice exhibited differences in malaria resistance, we hypothesized that they

mediate malaria resistance through different pathways.

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* erythrocytes are resistant to merozoite invasion

First, the ability of parasites to invade erythrocytes was assessed via an *in vivo* erythrocyte

tracking (IVET) assay. Labelled RBCs from either wild-type, *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* or *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice were injected into infected wild-type mice of 1-10% parasitemia

during late schizogony stage and the parasitemia of each genotype was monitored over 36-

40 hours to indicate relative invasion rates. The initial invasion period was expected at 30

minutes to 3 hours post-injection, and the results were expressed as a ratio of parasitized

RBCs of either, *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* to wild-type (Figure 3A), *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* to wild-type

(Figure 3B), or *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* to *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* (Figure 3C). From Figure 3A and 3B,

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* erythrocytes were less parasitized compared to

wild-type (0.6-0.7 for *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* to wild-type, P<0.001; and 0.55-0.8 for *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ to wildtype, P<0.001) from 3 hours up to 36 hours post-injection, indicating

both *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* erythrocytes were more resistant to parasite

invasion than wild-type. However, no significant differences in parasitemia ratio were

observed at the 30 minute timepoint. Furthermore, when the invasion rate of both *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* erythrocytes were compared in infected wild-type mice

(Figure 3C), no significant difference in parasitemia ratio was observed, suggesting a similar

invasion rate between the two mutant erythrocytes.

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocytes impair parasite maturation

Second, the parasite intra-erythrocytic maturation was determined through a TUNEL assay,

which allows the detection of fragmented DNA in RBCs, as an indication of dying parasites

(Figure 3D) [48]. Samples were collected from infected mice at 1-10% parasitemia at both

young ring stage and late trophozoite stage, and the proportion of TUNEL-positive infected

RBCs were measured. As seen from Figure 3E, more TUNEL-positive parasites were observed

within $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocytes, in both ring (30.1±3.4% compared to 15.2±3.1% of wild-

type) and trophozoite stage (30.8±3.8% compared to 11.7±1.0% of wild-type), whereas no

differences were observed for $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes. This

result suggested that the growth of parasites within $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocytes was

impaired, but was normal in $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes. This

also indicate that $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$ disrupts parasite maturation, whereas $Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$ seems

to support normal parasite growth.

$Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes are more likely to get cleared during malaria infections,

partially via splenic filtration

The proportions of labelled erythrocytes were also monitored during the IVET assays to

compare the relative loss of the two labelled RBC populations as an indicator of RBC

clearance during malaria infection. No significant reduction in $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocyte

numbers was observed during IVET assay compared to wild-type (Figure 4A). In contrast, the

number of labelled $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes decreased significantly compared to

wild-type and $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocytes (Figure 4B and C), with approximately 20% and

50% reduction, respectively. However, the parasitemia measurements during the IVET

assays were approximately 2% to 16-30% (Figure S4a-b), which did not correlate with the

reduction of labelled *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes. This suggested an increased

bystander clearance rather than clearance of infected *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs. To further

verify this observation, the infected mice from each genotype were injected with biotin and

the biotinylated RBC half-life was examined. As shown in Figure 4D, the *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ mice

exhibited no significant reduction in RBC numbers, whereas *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice were

found to have significantly shorter half-life of approximately 6 days, which did not correlate

with the parasitemia curve (Figure S4c). This observation of shorter RBC half-life in infected

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice is consistent with the increased *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocyte

clearance as shown in IVET assays.

We proposed that the spleen played a major role in mediating this bystander clearance.

Therefore, we infected splenectomized mice with *P. chabaudi* and infused with labelled

wild-type and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes, the proportions of which were monitored

over time. As shown in Figure 4E, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocyte numbers are

approximately two-fold higher (P<0.01) in splenectomized mice compared to non-

splenectomized mice. This suggests that the spleen is a major contributor towards *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocyte clearance, although the clearance was not completely

abrogated in the absence of the spleen.

Increased Band 3 mobility in *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes as a likely mechanism for

increased clearance.

Nevertheless, we hypothesized that this increase in RBC clearance is likely due to changes to

the cytoskeletal structure of *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs. In order to examine our hypothesis,

we investigated the band 3 mobility within the RBC membrane as an indicator of the

integrity of vertical linkages in the RBC cytoskeleton [49,50]. We fluorescently labelled

erythrocytic band 3 with eosin-5'-maleimide and performed Fluorescence Recovery after

Photobleaching (FRAP) on erythrocytes, which involves photobleaching a spot on the RBC

surface with a pulse from a high-powered laser followed by a fluorescence recovery period

where the intensity was recorded over 5 minutes as a marker of mobility. *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs were found to have significantly higher fluorescence recovery

compared to wild-type and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ RBCs (Figure 4F), which suggests a higher band 3

mobility in *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes, possibly due to an increased amount of band

3 that was not associated with the RBC cytoskeleton as the result of disrupted ankyrin

binding to band 3 on RBC surface.

Discussion

***Ank-1* gene displayed allele-dependent heterogeneous phenotypes during malaria**

infections

Similar to HS in human populations, ankyrin mutations in mice also exhibit differences in

clinical symptoms depending on the mutations. As shown in this study, homozygosity for

MRI96570 mutation is lethal, while MRI95845 homozygotes appeared healthy; whereas

both *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ mice and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ mice exhibited HS-phenotypes with similar

severity. While both mutations also conferred malaria protection and appeared to impair

parasite invasion, they also showed some remarkable differences in mediating this

resistance. Parasites in *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ erythrocytes were more likely to be TUNEL-positive,

indicating   impaired   intra-erythrocytic   maturation,   whereas   *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$

erythrocytes were more likely to be removed from circulation and possibly had an increased

turnover rate.

These findings were not exclusive to the two *Ank-1* mice described in this study. In fact,

previous studies on other *Ank-1* mice also exhibit similar mechanisms of resistance. Notably,

similar to $1^{(MRI96570/+)}$, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI23420/+)}$ [36] and *Ank-1*$^{(nb/nb)}$ mice [33] were both reported to

affect the parasite survival within the defective RBCs. These mutations resulted in truncated

protein, therefore, it is possible that the loss of C-terminal ANK-1 protein might be

important for growth. However, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI61689/+)}$ mice, which were also predicted to give rise

to truncated protein, were found to exhibit increased RBC bystander clearance but no intra-

erythrocytic growth impairment [41], similar to the *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice in this study.

Taking these findings together, it would seem that although these mutations resides in

different exons of ankyrin-1 gene, they all resulted in HS-like phenotype. However, they

exert different effects on the parasite survival depending on the nature of the mutation. In

particular, nonsense mutations (*Ank-1*$^{(nb)}$, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI23420)}$, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570)}$), with the exception

of *Ank-1*$^{(MRI61689)}$, impair parasite growth. On the other hand, the only described missense

mutation, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845)}$, increases the bystander RBC clearance. It is interesting to note that

although *Ank-1*$^{(MRI61689)}$ mutation was predicted to produce a truncated protein, a full length

alternative spliced transcript with a skipped exon was also found [41], possibly indicating

that *Ank-1*$^{(MRI61689)}$ is unlikely to be a null mutation, consequently exhibiting different

mechanisms of malaria resistance compared to other nonsense mutations. Therefore, it is

proposed that the presence of a truncated form of ANK-1 protein might be important factor

to determine the detrimental effects on malaria parasites.

However, without detailed examination into RBC cytoskeletal structure, it is challenging to

speculate the exact mechanisms of malaria resistance of these mutations. Nevertheless, this

is the first direct report of such allelic heterogeneity described in *in vivo* malaria mouse

models, highlighting the complexity underlying the genetic resistance to malaria, which is

likely to correlate with human populations.

Allelic heterogeneity of *Ank-1* and its association with malaria

Due to lack of large scale studies on the HS prevalence in malaria endemic regions, ankyrin-1

mutations have not been associated with malaria protection. Although HS prevalence is

more well-characterized in non-malarial regions such as Northern European and Japanese

populations, with a prevalence of about 1 in 2000 [51-53], one study proposed an increased

HS incidence in Algeria of about 1 in 1000 [54], raising the possibility of positive selection of

HS by malarial parasites. However, as the result of extreme allelic heterogeneity of HS-

causing genes, many alleles do not reach sufficient frequencies [55] or achieve consistent

symptoms [56] to be easily associated with malaria protection. In addition, technical

difficulties [29], confounding factors from large genetic variation in African populations [57],

as well as poor diagnostics and health systems [57], pose significant challenges for

dissecting the connection between HS and malaria. Furthermore, the varying allele

frequency in African populations might introduce epistasis effects, possibly masking the

genotype-phenotype associated typically observed in other populations [58]. With

development of more advanced technologies and better characterization of the genetic

structure of African populations, further studies into the association of HS and malaria could

potentially yield beneficial insights into the co-evolutionary relationships between humans

and *Plasmodium*.

Nonetheless, previous *in vivo* studies have indicated that *Ank-1* mutations affect merozoite

invasion and maturation [33,36], both of which were also demonstrated in this study.

However, this study also describes for the first time, the direct *in vivo* observation of

different mutations in the *Ank-1* gene mediating two distinct, independent mechanisms of

malaria resistance, where one impairs parasite maturation and the other increases RBC

clearance. Ankyrin is one of the key proteins involved in RBC remodeling by parasites [59-

61], and maintaining the native structure of the RBC cytoskeleton [28,62]. It is possible that

this allelic heterogeneity is due to the effect each mutation has on the integrity of the RBC

cytoskeletal structure, as evidenced by the significantly increased band 3 mobility caused by

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$, but not *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570)}$ mutation (Figure 4F). This suggests that mutations at

different locations of the ankyrin-1 protein might have different effects on the RBCs,

consequently impacting the ability of parasites to invade and grow, which could be the basis

for further studies, while also taking into potential confounding factors due to differences in

genetic background.

Similarities of allelic heterogeneity in *Ank-1* and other malaria susceptibility genes

As evidenced from this study, the protective effect of the *Ank-1* gene against malaria is

dependent on the nature and the location of mutations within the gene. Similarly, this allelic

heterogeneity is also observed in other malaria susceptibility genes in human populations.

For instance, although many G6PD deficiency-causing alleles have been implicated with

malaria protection [63,64], the protective effects are often debated, with many studies

reporting increased, or no protection, for individuals with certain alleles of G6PD deficiency

[65-70]. This is thought to be due to the phenotypic complexity of G6PD deficiency

associated with malaria susceptibility [7]. Indeed, various G6PD alleles have been shown to

cause a reduction of G6PD activity with differing severity, and were proposed to correlate

with the malaria protection they conferred [65]. More recently, Clarke and colleagues

proposed reduced G6PD activity is associated with lower risk of cerebral malaria, but in

exchange for higher risk of malarial anemia [12], suggesting a delicate balance underlying

the high frequency of G6PD polymorphism of populations in malaria endemic region.

Similarly, *Ank-1* mutations described in this study, as well as other previous mouse studies

[33,35,36], exhibit variability in malaria resistance, most likely as the result of allelic

heterogeneity.

The heterogeneity in malaria resistance mechanisms of the *Ank-1* gene as observed in this

study is comparable to the two prevalent alleles of the β-globin gene – the HbS and HbC,

which result from amino acid substitution at position 6 from glutamate to either valine, or

lysine, respectively. These two mutations exhibit some similarities in mediating malaria

resistance, including impaired parasite growth [71,72], reduced cytoadherence [73-75] and

increased erythrocyte clearance [76]. However, HbS erythrocytes were found to be more

resistant to all forms of malaria, whereas HbC erythrocytes appeared to be protective

against cerebral malaria [15]. This difference in malaria protection was proposed to

correlate with distribution of HbS and HbC in Africa [16], further emphasizing the

importance of allelic heterogeneity in understanding host-parasite interactions.

In conclusion, we have reported a novel observation where the *Ank-1* gene exhibits

phenotypic heterogeneity in malaria resistance mechanisms, either by impairing intra-

erythrocytic parasite growth, or promoting RBC clearance. This study also highlighted that

the allelic heterogeneity in relation to malaria resistance is not exclusive to G6PD deficiency,

and it could also be much more common than we expected. Further studies should extend

the understanding of the effects of various *Ank-1* mutations on the development of intra-

erythrocytic parasites, as well as the association of HS with malaria in human populations.

This could provide new insights into the intricate relationships between RBC cytoskeletal

structure and parasite interactions.

Acknowledgement

We would like to acknowledge Shelley Lampkin and Australian Phenomics Facility (APF) for

the maintenance of the mouse colonies. We would also like to thank Dr Matthew Dixon and

Prof Leann Tilley for assisting with ektacytometry and FRAP techniques and the associated

analyses. We are also grateful for the assistance of the Microscopy Unit of the Macquarie

University in the sample preparation and operation of the scanning electron microscope.

1. Kwiatkowski DP (2005) How malaria has affected the human genome and what human
genetics can teach us about malaria. Am J Hum Genet 77: 171-192.
2. Hedrick PW (2012) Resistance to malaria in humans: the impact of strong, recent
selection. Malaria Journal 11: 349.
3. Williams TN (2006) Red blood cell defects and malaria. Mol Biochem Parasitol 149: 121-
127.
4. Williams TN (2006) Human red blood cell polymorphisms and malaria. Curr Opin
Microbiol 9: 388-394.
5. Lell B, May J, Schmidt-Ott RJ, Lehman LG, Luckner D, et al. (1999) The role of red blood
cell polymorphisms in resistance and susceptibility to malaria. Clin Infect Dis 28: 794-
799.

6. Fry AE, Ghansa A, Small KS, Palma A, Auburn S, et al. (2009) Positive selection of a CD36
nonsense variant in sub-Saharan Africa, but no association with severe malaria
phenotypes. Hum Mol Genet 18: 2683-2692.
7. Clark T, Fry A, Auburn S, Campino S, Diakite M, et al. (2009) Allelic heterogeneity of G6PD
deficiency in West Africa and severe malaria susceptibility. Eur J Hum Genet 17.
8. Bauduer F (2013) Red cell polymorphisms and malaria: an evolutionary approach.
Bulletins et mémoires de la Société d'anthropologie de Paris 25: 55-64.
9. Beutler E, Kuhl W, Sáenz GF, Rodríguez W (1991) Mutation analysis of glucose-6-
phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) variants in Costa Rica. Hum Genet 87.
10. Howes RE, Battle KE, Satyagraha AW, Baird JK, Hay SI (2013) G6PD deficiency: Global
distribution, genetic variants and primaquine therapy. Adv Parasitol 81.
11. Shah SS, Rockett KA, Jallow M, Sisay-Joof F, Bojang KA, et al. (2016) Heterogeneous
alleles comprising G6PD deficiency trait in West Africa exert contrasting effects on
two major clinical presentations of severe malaria. Malaria Journal 15: 1-8.
12. Clarke GM, Rockett K, Kivinen K, Hubbart C, Jeffreys AE, et al. (2017) Characterisation of
the opposing effects of G6PD deficiency on cerebral malaria and severe malarial
anaemia. eLife 6: e15085.
13. Kilian N, Srismith S, Dittmer M, Ouermi D, Bisseye C, et al. (2015) Hemoglobin S and C
affect protein export in *Plasmodium falciparum*-infected erythrocytes. Biology Open
4: 400-410.
14. May J, Evans JA, Timmann C, Ehmen C, Busch W, et al. (2007) Hemoglobin variants and
disease manifestations in severe *falciparum* malaria. JAMA 297: 2220-2226.
15. Kreuels B, Kreuzberg C, Kobbe R, Ayim-Akonor M, Apiah-Thompson P, et al. (2010)
Differing effects of HbS and HbC traits on uncomplicated *falciparum* malaria, anemia,
and child growth. Blood 115: 4551-4558.
16. Gonçalves BP, Gupta S, Penman BS (2016) Sickle haemoglobin, haemoglobin C and
malaria mortality feedbacks. Malaria Journal 15: 26.
17. Aitman TJ, Cooper LD, Norsworthy PJ, Wahid FN, Gray JK, et al. (2000) Malaria
susceptibility and CD36 mutation. Nature 405: 1015-1016.
18. Curtis BR, Aster RH (1996) Incidence of the Nak(a)-negative platelet phenotype in African
Americans is similar to that of Asians. Transfusion 36: 331-334.
19. Urwijitaroon Y, Barusrux S, Romphruk A, Puapairoj C (1995) Frequency of human platelet
antigens among blood donors in northeastern Thailand. Transfusion 35: 868-870.
20. Pain A, Urban BC, Kai O, Casals-Pascual C, Shafi J, et al. (2001) A non-sense mutation in
Cd36 gene is associated with protection from severe malaria. Lancet 357: 1502-1503.
21. Amodu OK, Gbadegesin RA, Ralph SA, Adeyemo AA, Brenchley PE, et al. (2005)
Plasmodium falciparum malaria in south-west Nigerian children: is the
polymorphism of ICAM-1 and E-selectin genes contributing to the clinical severity of
malaria? Acta Trop 95: 248-255.
22. Ayodo G, Price AL, Keinan A, Ajwang A, Otieno MF, et al. (2007) Combining evidence of
natural selection with association analysis increases power to detect malaria-
resistance variants. Am J Hum Genet 81: 234-242.
23. Gallagher PG, Forget BG (1998) Hematologically Important Mutations: Spectrin and
Ankyrin Variants in Hereditary Spherocytosis. Blood Cells, Molecules, and Diseases
24: 539-543.

24. Jarolim P, Murray JL, Rubin HL, Taylor WM, Prchal JT, et al. (1996) Characterization of 13
novel band 3 gene defects in hereditary spherocytosis with band 3 deficiency. Blood
88: 4366-4374.
25. Takaoka Y, Ideguchi H, Matsuda M, Sakamoto N, Takeuchi T, et al. (1994) A novel
mutation in the erythrocyte protein 4.2 gene of Japanese patients with hereditary
spherocytosis (protein 4.2 Fukuoka). Br J Haematol 88: 527-533.
26. Matsuda M, Hatano N, Ideguchi H, Takahira H, Fukumaki Y (1995) A novel mutation
causing an aberrant splicing in the protein 4.2 gene associated with hereditary
spherocytosis (protein 4.2Notame). Hum Mol Genet 4: 1187-1191.
27. Eber SW, Gonzalez JM, Lux ML, Scarpa AL, Tse WT, et al. (1996) Ankyrin-1 mutations are
a major cause of dominant and recessive hereditary spherocytosis. Nat Genet 13:
214-218.
28. Gallagher PG (2005) Hematologically important mutations: ankyrin variants in hereditary
spherocytosis. Blood Cells Mol Dis 35: 345-347.
29. Sangerman J, Maksimova Y, Edelman EJ, Morrow JS, Forget BG, et al. (2008) Ankyrin-
linked hereditary spherocytosis in an African-American kindred. Am J Hematol 83:
789-794.
30. Spector I, Metz J (1963) A Bantu family with hereditary spherocytosis. S Afr Med J 37:
211-213.
31. Hassan A, Babadoko AA, Isa AH, Abunimye P (2009) Hereditary spherocytosis in a 27-
year-old woman: case report. Ann Afr Med 8: 61-63.
32. Ustun C, Kutlar F, Holley L, Seigler M, Burgess R, et al. (2003) Interaction of sickle cell
trait with hereditary spherocytosis: splenic infarcts and sequestration. Acta
Haematol 109: 46-49.
33. Shear HL, Roth EF, Jr., Ng C, Nagel RL (1991) Resistance to malaria in ankyrin and
spectrin deficient mice. Br J Haematol 78: 555-560.
34. Schulman S, Roth EF, Jr., Cheng B, Rybicki AC, Sussman, II, et al. (1990) Growth of
Plasmodium falciparum in human erythrocytes containing abnormal membrane
proteins. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 87: 7339-7343.
35. Rank G, Sutton R, Marshall V, Lundie RJ, Caddy J, et al. (2009) Novel roles for erythroid
Ankyrin-1 revealed through an ENU-induced null mouse mutant. Blood 113: 3352-
3362.
36. Greth A, Lampkin S, Mayura-Guru P, Rodda F, Drysdale K, et al. (2012) A novel ENU-
mutation in ankyrin-1 disrupts malaria parasite maturation in red blood cells of mice.
PLoS One 7: e38999.
37. Hortle E, Nijagal B, Bauer DC, Jensen LM, Ahn SB, et al. (2016) Adenosine
monophosphate deaminase 3 activation shortens erythrocyte half-life and provides
malaria resistance in mice. Blood.
38. Bauer DC, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G (2015) Genome-wide analysis of chemically
induced mutations in mouse in phenotype-driven screens. BMC Genomics 16: 1-8.
39. Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H (2010) ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants
from high-throughput sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Research 38: e164-e164.
40. Deplaine G, Safeukui I, Jeddi F, Lacoste F, Brousse V, et al. (2011) The sensing of poorly
deformable red blood cells by the human spleen can be mimicked in vitro. Blood 117:
e88-95.

41. Huang HM, Bauer DC, Lelliott PM, Greth A, McMorran BJ, et al. (2016) A novel ENU-
induced ankyrin-1 mutation impairs parasite invasion and increases erythrocyte
clearance during malaria infection in mice. Sci Rep 6: 37197.
42. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD (2001) Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time
quantitative PCR and the 2− ΔΔCT method. methods 25: 402-408.
43. Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW (2012) NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image
analysis. Nat Meth 9: 671-675.
44. Jarra W, Brown K (1985) Protective immunity to malaria: studies with cloned lines of
Plasmodium chabaudi and *P. berghei* in CBA/Ca mice. I. The effectiveness and inter-
and intra-species specificity of immunity induced by infection. Parasite immunology
7: 595-606.
45. Lelliott PM, Lampkin S, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G (2014) A flow cytometric assay
to quantify invasion of red blood cells by rodent *Plasmodium* parasites in vivo. Malar
J 13: 100.
46. Lelliott PM, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G (2015) *In vivo* assessment of rodent
Plasmodium parasitemia and merozoite invasion by flow cytometry. JoVE (Journal of
Visualized Experiments): e52736-e52736.
47. Chishti AH, Palek J, Fisher D, Maalouf GJ, Liu SC (1996) Reduced invasion and growth of
Plasmodium falciparum into elliptocytic red blood cells with a combined deficiency
of protein 4.1, glycophorin C, and p55. Blood 87: 3462-3469.
48. McMorran BJ, Marshall VM, de Graaf C, Drysdale KE, Shabbar M, et al. (2009) Platelets
Kill Intraerythrocytic Malarial Parasites and Mediate Survival to Infection. Science
323: 797-800.
49. Kodippili GC, Spector J, Sullivan C, Kuypers FA, Labotka R, et al. (2009) Imaging of the
diffusion of single band 3 molecules on normal and mutant erythrocytes. Blood 113:
6237-6245.
50. Cho MR, Eber SW, Liu S-C, Lux SE, Golan DE (1998) Regulation of Band 3 Rotational
Mobility by Ankyrin in Intact Human Red Cells. Biochemistry 37: 17828-17835.
51. Godal HC, Heisto H (1981) High prevalence of increased osmotic fragility of red blood
cells among Norwegian blood donors. Scand J Haematol 27: 30-34.
52. Eber SW, Pekrun A, Neufeldt A, Schroter W (1992) Prevalence of increased osmotic
fragility of erythrocytes in German blood donors: screening using a modified glycerol
lysis test. Ann Hematol 64: 88-92.
53. Yawata Y, Kanzaki A, Yawata A, Doerfler W, Ozcan R, et al. (2000) Characteristic features
of the genotype and phenotype of hereditary spherocytosis in the Japanese
population. Int J Hematol 71: 118-135.
54. Zerhouni F, Guetarni D, Henni T, Colonna P (1991) Occurrence and characteristics of
hereditary spherocytosis in Algeria. Eur J Haematol 47: 42-47.
55. Kavallaris M, Ng D, Byrne F (2012) Cytoskeleton and Human Disease: Springer.
56. Shah S, Vega R (2004) Hereditary Spherocytosis. Pediatrics in Review 25: 168-172.
57. (2008) A global network for investigating the genomic epidemiology of malaria. Nature
456: 732-737.
58. Greene CS, Penrod NM, Williams SM, Moore JH (2009) Failure to replicate a genetic
association may provide important clues about genetic architecture. PLoS One 4:
e5639.

59. Maier AG, Cooke BM, Cowman AF, Tilley L (2009) Malaria parasite proteins that remodel
the host erythrocyte. Nat Rev Micro 7: 341-354.
60. Zuccala ES, Baum J (2011) Cytoskeletal and membrane remodelling during malaria
parasite invasion of the human erythrocyte. Br J Haematol 154: 680-689.
61. Hanspal M, Dua M, Takakuwa Y, Chishti AH, Mizuno A (2002) *Plasmodium falciparum*
cysteine protease falcipain-2 cleaves erythrocyte membrane skeletal proteins at late
stages of parasite development. Presented in part in abstract form at the 43rd
Annual Meeting of the American Society of Hematology, Orlando, FL, 2001 100:
1048-1054.
62. Miraglia del Giudice E, Iolascon A, Pinto L, Nobili B, Perrotta S (1994) Erythrocyte
membrane protein alterations underlying clinical heterogeneity in hereditary
spherocytosis. Br J Haematol 88: 52-55.
63. Ruwende C, Hill A (1998) Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency and malaria. J
Mol Med (Berl) 76: 581-588.
64. Mason PJ, Bautista JM, Gilsanz F (2007) G6PD deficiency: the genotype-phenotype
association. Blood Rev 21.
65. Manjurano A, Sepulveda N, Nadjm B, Mtove G, Wangai H, et al. (2015) African glucose-6-
phosphate dehydrogenase alleles associated with protection from severe malaria in
heterozygous females in Tanzania. PLoS Genet 11.
66. Ruwende C, Khoo SC, Snow RW, Yates SN, Kwiatkowski D, et al. (1995) Natural selection
of hemi- and heterozygotes for G6PD deficiency in Africa by resistance to severe
malaria. Nature 376.
67. Guindo A, Fairhurst RM, Doumbo OK, Wellems TE, Diallo DA (2007) X-Linked G6PD
Deficiency Protects Hemizygous Males but Not Heterozygous Females against Severe
Malaria. PLoS Medicine 4: e66.
68. Sirugo G, Predazzi IM, Bartlett J, Tacconelli A, Walther M, et al. (2014) G6PD A-
deficiency and severe malaria in The Gambia: heterozygote advantage and possible
homozygote disadvantage. Am J Trop Med Hyg 90.
69. Toure O, Konate S, Sissoko S, Niangaly A, Barry A, et al. (2012) Candidate polymorphisms
and severe malaria in a Malian population. PLoS One 7: e43987.
70. Martin SK, Miller LH, Alling D, Okoye VC, Esan GJ, et al. (1979) Severe malaria and
glucose-6-phosphate-dehydrogenase deficiency: a reappraisal of the malaria/G-6-P.D.
hypothesis. Lancet 1.
71. Fairhurst RM, Fujioka H, Hayton K, Collins KF, Wellems TE (2003) Aberrant development
of *Plasmodium falciparum* in hemoglobin CC red cells: implications for the malaria
protective effect of the homozygous state. Blood 101: 3309-3315.
72. Cyrklaff M, Sanchez CP, Kilian N, Bisseye C, Simpore J, et al. (2011) Hemoglobins S and C
interfere with actin remodeling in *Plasmodium falciparum*-infected erythrocytes.
Science 334: 1283-1286.
73. Carlson J, Nash GB, Gabutti V, al Yaman F, Wahlgren M (1994) Natural protection against
severe *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria due to impaired rosette formation. Blood 84.
74. Fairhurst RM, Bess CD, Krause MA (2012) Abnormal PfEMP1/knob display on
Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes containing hemoglobin variants: fresh
insights into malaria pathogenesis and protection. Microbes and Infection / Institut
Pasteur 14: 851-862.

75. Fairhurst RM, Baruch DI, Brittain NJ, Ostera GR, Wallach JS, et al. (2005) Abnormal
display of PfEMP-1 on erythrocytes carrying haemoglobin C may protect against
malaria. Nature 435: 1117-1121.
76. Ayi K, Turrini F, Piga A, Arese P (2004) Enhanced phagocytosis of ring-parasitized mutant
erythrocytes: a common mechanism that may explain protection against *falciparum*
malaria in sickle trait and beta-thalassemia trait. Blood 104: 3364-3371.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. The mutations and phenotypes of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$*, *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice. (A) The location of ankyrin-1 mutations in *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$* and *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845)}$ alleles and the predicted effects on ankyrin-1 protein, compared to the previously

described *Ank-1$^{(MRI23420)}$*, *Ank-1$^{(MRI61689)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(nb)}$*. (B) The *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/MRI96570)}$* pups

(indicated by arrows) showed severe jaundice and died within 1 week after birth. (C) The

osmotic fragility of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$*, *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* erythrocytes in

hypotonic solution from 0-10g/L sodium (n=5). (D) The RBC half-life of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$*, *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice (n=5). (E) The elasticity of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* and

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ RBCs under shear pressure as measured by ektacytometer (n=3). (F)

The proportion of retained *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$*, *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* RBCs

when passing through a layer of beads during the *in vitro* spleen retention assay (n=3). *

$P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$. All error bars indicate standard error of mean (SEM).

Figure 2. The parasitemia and survival of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* , *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice during *P. chabaudi* infection. (A) The parasite load and (B) survival

rate of *Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$* , *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$* and *Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$* mice from two

independent experiments, starting from day 7 to day 15 post-infection when challenged

with 1×10^4 parasite intraperitoneally as determined by light microscopy. (n=9-13). * P<0.05,

*** P<0.001. Error bars indicate SEM.

Figure 3. The parasite invasion and intra-erythrocytic growth as indicated via IVET and

TUNEL assay. The relative invasion efficiency into *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$

erythrocytes was examined through IVET assay, where parasitemia ratio was calculated

from parasite load of either (A) *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ to wild-type, (B) *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ to

wild-type, or (C) *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ to *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes (n=5-7 per group). (D)

The parasite growth inhibition was determined via TUNEL assay on infected RBCs (DAPI-

positive) as an indicator of apoptotic and necrotic parasites. (E) The proportion of TUNEL-

positive infected RBCs was counted for *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice at 1-5% parasitemia at ring stage (6-8 hours) and late trophozoite (18-

20 hours) stage (n=4). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001. Error bars indicates SEM.

Figure 4. The band 3 mobility and clearance of wild-type, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and *Ank-

1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes. The remaining percentage of labelled RBCs was monitored

during the course of IVET assays, comparing between (A) wild-type and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$

erythrocytes, (B) wild-type and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes, and (C) *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$

and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes (n=5-7). (D) The half-life of wild-type, *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570/+)}$

Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes during malaria infection as determined by biotinylation of

RBCs when parasites were detectable (n=6-7). (E) The clearance of wild-type and *Ank-*

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes in splenectomised and non-splenectomised mice infected

868 with *P. chabaudi* over 3 days starting from 1% parasitemia (n=6). (F) The band 3 mobility on

869 RBC membrane was measured using Fluorescence recovery after Photobleaching (FRAP),

870 showing the recovery rate of fluorescence as a result of Band 3 migration to the bleach spot

871 (n=9-21). ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001. Error bars indicate SEM.

874 **Supporting Information Captions**

875 **Table S1. The candidate genes for MRI96570 and MRI95845 mutations.** Variants from

876 exome sequencing were filtered to exclude strain-specific variants and variants found in

877 other ENU-induced mice. Variants that were shared between the two mice carrying

878 MRI96570 mutation or MRI95845 mutation are shown in (A) and (B), respectively. For each

879 mutation, the candidate genes were Sanger sequenced in affected mice to determine the

880 correlation between the genetic mutations and the phenotype by calculating the LOD score.

881 LOD Threshold = 1.9 for MRI96570, 2.0 for MRI95845 (n= 10).

883 **Figure S1. The location of *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570)}$ and *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845)}$ mutation.** (A) Sanger sequencing

884 of mice carrying *Ank-1*$^{(MRI96570)}$ revealed a T to A transversion in exon 34 of *Ank-1* gene,

885 which is predicted to induce a premature stop codon. (B) Mice carrying *Ank-1*$^{(MRI95845)}$

886 mutation were found to have a T to A transversion in exon 5 of *Ank-1* gene, which is

887 predicted to cause a missense mutation from tyrosine to asparagine at residue 149.

Table S2. The complete blood count of Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$, Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and Ank-

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice. The blood parameters were obtained from a haematological

analyser ADVIA 120. WBC = white blood cell count; RBC = red blood cell count; HGB = total

haemoglobin; MCV = mean corpuscular volume; MCH = mean corpuscular haemoglobin;

MCHC = mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration; RDW = red cell distribution width;

PLT = platelet counts; Retics = percentage of reticulocytes, n=23-50. Bonferroni adjusted

significance threshold = 0.001852, * P< 0.001, ** P< $1x10^{-5}$ compared to wild-type mice;

whereas ^ P<0.001 compared to Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ mice.

Figure S2. The RBC morphology of mice carrying Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$ or Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$ mutation.

(A) Giemsa-stained blood smears as examined under light microscope at 1000x

magnification. (B) Scanning electron microscopic images showing the RBC shape of Ank-

1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$, Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice.

Figure S3. The expression of Ank-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal proteins in mice carrying

Ank-1$^{(MRI96570)}$ or Ank-1$^{(MRI95845)}$ mutation. (A) Quantitative PCR was carried out on E14

embryonic livers to examine Ank-1 expression levels (n=3). The abundance of ANK-1 and

other RBC cytoskeletal protein levels of Ank-1$^{(MRI96570/+)}$, Ank-1$^{(MRI95845/+)}$ and Ank-

1$^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice as examined via (B) Coomassie staining and (C) Western blotting on

membrane of mature RBCs. (D) The relative abundance of various cytoskeletal protein levels

calculated from western blots (n=3). SPTA = α-spectrin, SPTB = β-spectrin, P 4.2 = Protein 4.2.

* P<0.05, ** P<0.01. Error bars indicate SEM.

Figure S4. The parasitemia of the host mice during IVET assays and half-life assay. The

parasitemia curve of the host mice during IVET assays, when comparing (A) wild-type with

$Ank\text{-}1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ erythrocytes, and (B) $Ank\text{-}1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ with $Ank\text{-}1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$

erythrocytes (n=5-7). (C) The parasitemia curve of wild-type, $Ank\text{-}1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ and $Ank\text{-}$

$1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice during RBC half-life assay (n=6-7).

Figure 1

Figure 2

A)

B)

Figure 3

Figure 4

Table S1

Table S1. The candidate genes for MRI96570 and MRI95845 mutations.

A)

Chromosome	Gene name	Location	Reference base	Variant base	Number of mutant mice with mutation	LOD score (Threshold: 1.9)
3	*Fat4*	38888347	T	A	0/10	-2.81
7	*Rhcg*	79601661	T	C	0/10	-2.81
8	*Ank1*	23119400	T	A	10/10	2.81
X	*Plxnb3*	73763183	G	T	0/10	-2.81

B)

Chromosome	Gene name	Location	Reference base	Variant base	Number of mutant mice with mutation	LOD score (Threshold: 2.0)
8	*Ank1*	23085597	T	A	10/10	2.81
8	*Pnpla6*	3531116	G	A	8/10	1.24
9	*Zglp1*	21062907	G	A	0/10	-2.81
16	*Snai2*	14708259	A	C	0/10	-2.81
16	*Tbc1d23*	57191544	T	C	0/10	-2.81

Variants from exome sequencing were filtered to exclude strain-specific variants and variants found in other ENU-induced mice. Variants that were shared between the two mice carrying MRI96570 mutation or MRI95845 mutation are shown in (A) and (B), respectively. For each mutation, the candidate genes were Sanger sequenced in affected mice to determine the correlation between the genetic mutations and the phenotype by calculating the LOD score. LOD Threshold = 1.9 for MRI96570, 2.0 for MRI95845 (n= 10).

Figure S1

A)

B)

Figure S1. The location of *Ank-1*(*MRI96570*) and *Ank-1*(*MRI95845*) mutation. (A) Sanger sequencing of mice carrying *Ank-1*(*MRI96570*) revealed a T to A transversion in exon 34 of *Ank-1* gene, which is predicted to induce a premature stop codon. (B) Mice carrying *Ank-1*(*MRI95845*) mutation were found to have a T to A transversion in exon 5 of *Ank-1* gene, which is predicted to cause a missense mutation from tyrosine to asparagine at residue 149.

Table S2

Table S2. The complete blood count of *Ank-1(MRI96570/+)*, *Ank-1(MRI95845/+)* and *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* mice.

	Wild type	*Ank-1(MRI96570/+)*	*Ank-1(MRI95845/+)*	*Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)*
WBC (x10^6 /ml)	11.3±0.3	11.2±0.4	11.9±0.8	12.1±0.8
RBC (x10^9 /ml)	10.1±0.1	11.0±0.1***	10.7±0.1***	10.9±0.1***
HGB (g/L)	150.5±0.8	150.7±1.1	148.8±1.9	142.6±1.7*
MCV (fL)	52.3±0.2	46.9±0.2***	46.6±0.2***	43.0±0.1*** ^
MCH (pg)	14.9±0.1	13.7±0.1***	13.9±0.1***	13.1±0.2*** ^
MCHC (g/L)	285.3±1.2	290.3±1.8	298.3±2.4	294.7±4.0
RDW (%)	14.5±0.1	15.3±0.1***	16.1±0.3***	18.4±0.2*** ^
PLT (x10^6 /ml)	1036±31	1051±34	992±51	1026±53
Retics (%)	2.23±0.26	3.34±0.42	3.33±0.46	5.68±0.43***

The blood parameters were obtained from a haematological analyser ADVIA 120. WBC = white blood cell count; RBC = red blood cell count; HGB = total haemoglobin; MCV = mean corpuscular volume; MCH = mean corpuscular haemoglobin; MCHC = mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration; RDW = red cell distribution width; PLT = platelet counts; Retics = percentage of reticulocytes, n=23-50. Bonferroni adjusted significance threshold = 0.001852, * $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ compared to wild-type mice; whereas ^ $P < 0.001$ compared to *Ank-1(MRI95845/+)* mice.

Figure S2

Figure S2. The RBC morphology of mice carrying *Ank-1(MRI96570)* or *Ank-1(MRI95845)* mutation. (A) Giemsa-stained blood smears as examined under light microscope at 1000x magnification. (B) Scanning electron microscopic images showing the RBC shape of *Ank-1(MRI96570/+)*, *Ank-1(MRI95845/+)* and *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* mice.

A)

B)

C)

D)

Figure S3. The expression of *Ank-1* and other RBC cytoskeletal proteins in mice carrying *Ank-1(MRI96570)* or *Ank-1(MRI95845)* mutation. (A) Quantitative PCR was carried out on E14 embryonic livers to examine *Ank-1* expression levels (n=3). The abundance of ANK-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal protein levels of *Ank-1(MRI96570/+)*, *Ank-1(MRI95845/+)* and *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* mice as examined via (B) Coomassie staining and (C) Western blotting on membrane of mature RBCs. (D) The relative abundance of various cytoskeletal protein levels calculated from western blots (n=3). SPTA = α-spectrin, SPTB = β-spectrin, P 4.2 = Protein 4.2. * P<0.05, ** P<0.01. Error bars indicate SEM.

Figure S4

Figure S4. The parasitemia of the host mice during IVET assays and half-life assay. The parasitemia curve of the host mice during IVET assays, when comparing (A) wild-type with *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* erythrocytes, and (B) *Ank-1(MRI96570/+)* with *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* erythrocytes (n=5-7). (C) The parasitemia curve of wild-type, *Ank-1(MRI96570/+)* and *Ank-1(MRI95845/MRI95845)* mice during RBC half-life assay (n=6-7).