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

# against malaria

1

2

3

4

7

13

20

21

22

# Author list and affiliations

- 5 Hong Ming Huang<sup>1</sup>, Denis C. Bauer<sup>2</sup>, Patrick M. Lelliott<sup>3</sup>, Matthew W. A. Dixon<sup>4</sup>, Leann Tilley<sup>4</sup>,
- 6 Brendan J. McMorran<sup>1</sup>, Simon J. Foote<sup>1</sup>, Gaetan Burgio<sup>1</sup>\*
- 8 <sup>1</sup> Department of Immunology and Infectious Disease, John Curtin School of Medical Research,
- 9 Australian National University, ACT, Australia.
- 10 <sup>2</sup> CSIRO, Sydney, NSW, Australia.
- <sup>3</sup> IFReC Research Building, Osaka University, 3-1 Yamada-oka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan.
- <sup>4</sup> Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Bio21 Institute, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.

# 14 Corresponding author\*

- 15 Dr Gaetan Burgio
- 16 The John Curtin School of Medical Research, Australian National University,
- 17 131 Garran Road, ACT 2601, Australia.
- 18 Gaetan.burgio@anu.edu.au
- 19 +61 2 612 59428

# **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,
- 25 S.J.F. and G.B. interpreted and analysed the data. H.M.H., D.C.B. and G.B. performed statistical
- 26 analysis. H.M.H, P.M.L., G.B., B.J.M. and S.J.F. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the
- 27 manuscript.

# **Abstract**

Allelic heterogeneity is a common phenomenon where a gene exhibit different phenotype depending on the nature of 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 exhibit allelic heterogeneity during malaria infections. We employed 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 protection against *Plasmodium chabaudi* infections. Upon further examination, *Ank-1* (MRI95845) caused increased bystander 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 observation further supported the protective roles of ankyrin-1 mutations in conferring malaria protection. This study also emphasised the importance of such phenomenon to achieve a better understanding of host-parasite interactions, which could be the basis of future studies.

#### Authors' summary

In malaria endemic regions, many individual developed natural resistance against the disease by having certain genetic mutations that affect the ability of malarial parasites to survive within the human body, notably the red blood cells. However, it is often observed that different mutations within the same gene could give rise to different degree of malaria protection. Through studying this phenomenon, we are able to better understand the underlying cause of their protective effects. In this report, we study two mutations of ankyrin-1 gene, MRI96570 and MRI95845, both of which protect mice from malaria infections. However, both of them exhibit stark differences in the way they mediate protection. MRI96570 affects the ability of malarial parasites to develop inside the red blood cells, whereas MRI95845 enhances the destruction of red blood cells during malaria infection. This is the first direct observation of two distinct methods of achieving malaria protection from ankyrin-1 gene. This report also highlights the complex relationship between the human and malarial parasites, and that such phenomenon might be more common than we initially expected.

#### Introduction

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

Historically, malarial parasites have been co-evolving with humans for thousands of years and have played a major role in shaping human genome in malaria endemic regions (1, 2). Indeed, many genetic polymorphisms were selected for as they provide significant survival advantages during malaria infections (1, 3), resulting in high frequencies of protective genetic mutations in malaria endemic regions. The majority of them 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 mutations (6, 7). This phenomenon, known as "allelic heterogeneity", is characterised 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 endemic regions (8). One of the most prominent examples of this is the G6PD deficiency disorder, which could arise from multiple mutations in 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 to confer malaria resistance, and their 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 could also complicate the characterisation 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

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

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 also further emphasises the importance of taking allelic heterogeneity into consideration to enable a better design in future studies involving host genetics in malaria, as well as various infectious diseases. In contrast, the allelic heterogeneity of genes affecting RBC cytoskeleton in terms of malaria susceptibility is poorly understood. Many of the resulting genetic disorders are heterogeneous, such as hereditary spherocytosis (HS), which is characterised by the formation of "spherocytes", 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 HS cases (23-27). HS also exhibits clinical heterogeneity, 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, where only specific 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 hypothesised 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,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95870/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ . displayed haematological and clinical features consistent with HS, and a marked resistance to infection by the murine malarial parasite, P. chabaudi. Analysis of the underlying mechanism of resistance to infection revealed both common and distinct features between the strains. RBCs from both lines were similarly resistant to merozoite invasion. However, the Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes were also more rapidly cleared from circulation during an infection, whereas 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 *Ank-1* gene in the context of malaria resistance in mouse models.

#### Results

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

#### 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 haematological screening to identify genes affecting RBC properties, as potential candidates that might confer malaria protection. G1 mice MRI96570 and MRI95845 were identified from the ENUdominant 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 of them exhibit low erythrocyte MCV values. Two affected MRI96570 and MRI95845 G2 progeny, which also showed a reduction of MCV, were sent for exome sequencing to identify the causative genetic mutations. Unique variants shared between the affected mice were filtered and selected for mice carrying MRI96570 mutation or MRI95845 mutation (S1 Table). A mutation in 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 Ank-1 gene for MRI96570 strain, and a T to A transversion in exon 5 of Ank-1 gene for MRI95845 strain (S1 Figure). 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 4<sup>th</sup> 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.

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

Both Ank-1 (MRI96570) and Ank-1 exhibit HS-like phenotypes Since ankyrin mutations are usually associated with HS, we examined both Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> mice in terms of their HS-like phenotypes. When two Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> G2 progeny were intercrossed,  $\textit{Ank-1}^{(\textit{MRI96570/MRI96570})}$  mice were born with severe jaundice and died within several days from birth (Figure 1b), suggesting homozygosity for Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> mutation caused lethal anaemia. On the other hand, Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice appeared healthy with normal lifespan. Haematological analysis of these mice revealed a significant reduction in MCV and mean corpuscular haemoglobin (MCH) and increased red cell distribution width (RDW) (S2 table), 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 RBC osmotic fragility compared to wild-type RBCs (Figure 1c). 50% haemolysis was observed at approximately 5.6 and 5.4 g/L (equivalent to 104mM and 100mM) sodium chloride, respectively, compared to approximately 4.6g/L (84mM) sodium chloride of wild-type. The Ank- $1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  RBCs showed further susceptibility towards osmotic stress, with 50% haemolysis 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 and tracking the remaining biotinylated RBCs over time. As shown in Figure 1d, erythrocytes from Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs have significantly shorter half-life of approximately 9.5 days as opposed to 16 days of wild-type erythrocytes, but no significant difference was observed for erythrocytes from heterozygous mice. The morphology of these RBCs were examined under light and scanning electron microscopy (S2 Figure). Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> mice exhibited slight reduction in RBC size, while Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice had smaller RBCs and displayed anisocytosis and acanthocytic. On the other

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

hand, blood smears obtained from jaundiced Ank-1 pups showed reticulocytosis, fragmented RBCs and severe anisocytosis. Another feature of HS is the 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, whereas Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs showed further reduction in elongation index, indicating significant reduction in RBC deformability (Figure 1e). In addition, the in vitro spleen 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 via splenic retention assay, comparing between wild-type, Ank-1 (MRI96570/+), Ank- $1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  RBCs. An approximately 70% increased retention for Ank-1 $1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  RBCs was observed compared to wild-type, whereas erythrocytes of  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> 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 examined (S3 Figure). Significant reduction of Ank-1 mRNA levels was observed in Ank-1 (MRI96570/+), Ank-1 (MRI95845/+), Ank-1 1<sup>(MRI96570/MRI96570)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> embryonic livers (S3a Figure). 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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes (S3b-d Figure). The predicted truncated ANK-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> form (160kDa) was also not evidenced. The levels of other cytoskeletal proteins were also examined to account for possible disruptions to interactions with other binding partners of ankyrin-1. However, no difference was observed for Band 3,  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ - spectrin, whereas significantly lower protein 4.2 level was observed in *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes (S3d Figure).

# Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> confer protection against P. chabaudi infection

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

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 the percentage of parasitised RBCs (parasitemia) was recorded. As shown in Figure 2a, Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> mice showed significant reduction in peak parasitemia of approximately 15-20%, while Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice showed approximately 30% reduction in peak parasitemia compared to wildtype. Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice also showed a two-day delay in parasitemia, peaking on day 12 postinfection 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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> mice showed moderate resistance, whereas Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice exhibited significant resistance towards *P. chabaudi* infection in relative to the 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 as the mutations disrupt erythrocyte cytoskeletal structure, which is important for facilitating efficient erythrocyte invasion (37). Thirdly, the mutations might result in an improved detection of parasitised RBCs, thus enhancing their removal from circulation during malaria infection. Since Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>

and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice exhibited differences in malaria resistance, we hypothesised that they mediate malaria resistance through different pathways.

# Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes are resistant to merozoite invasion

First, the ability of parasite to invade erythrocytes was assessed via an *in vivo* erythrocyte tracking (IVET) assay. Labelled RBCs from either wild-type, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> or *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> 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 hour timepoints, and the results were expressed as a ratio of parasitised RBCs of either, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> to wild-type (Figure 3a), *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> to wild-type (Figure 3b), or *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> to *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> (Figure 3c). From Figure 3a and 3b, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes were less parasitised compared to wild-type (0.6-0.7 for *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and 0.55-0.8 for *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup>) from 3 hours up to 36 hours post-injection, indicating both *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes were more resistant to parasite invasion than wild-type. However, no significant differences in parasitemia ratio were observed at 30 minute timepoint. Furthermore, when the invasion rate of both *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> 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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> 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) (38). 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 calculated. 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  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  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, although growth inhibition at other stages were not studied.

# 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 the indicator of RBC clearance during malaria infection. No significant reduction in *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> erythrocyte numbers was observed during IVET assay compared to wild-type (Figure 4a). On the other hand, the number of labelled *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes decreased significantly compared to wild-type and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> 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% (S4a-b Figure), which did not correlate with the reduction of labelled *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes. This suggested an increased bystander clearance rather than clearance of infected *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs. To further verify this observation, the RBCs of infected mice from each genotype were biotinylated and the RBC half-life was examined without blood transfusion. As shown in Figure 4d, the *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> mice exhibited no significant reduction in RBC numbers, whereas *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice were found to have significantly shorter half-life of approximately 6 days,

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

associated with the RBC cytoskeleton.

which did not correlate with the parasitemia curve (S4c Figure). This observation of shorter RBC halflife in infected Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice is consistent with the increased Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocyte clearance as shown in IVET assays. We proposed that the spleen played a major role in mediating this bystander clearance. Therefore, we infected mice which had been splenectomised with P. chabaudi and infused with labelled wildtype and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> 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 splenectomised mice compared to non-splenectomised 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 hypothesised that this phenomenon is likely due to changes to the cytoskeletal structure of Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs. In order to support our hypothesis, we examined the band 3 mobility across the RBC membrane as an indicator of disrupted RBC cytoskeleton (39, 40). We fluorescently labelled erythrocytic band 3 with eosin-5'-maleimide and performed Fluorescence Recovery after Photobleaching (FRAP) on erythrocytes, which involved photobleaching with highpowered laser followed by a recovery period where the fluorescence intensity was recorded. Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs were found to have significantly higher fluorescence recovery compared to wild-type and Ank-1<sup>(MR)96570/+)</sup> RBCs (Figure 4f), which suggests a higher band 3 mobility in Ank- $1^{(MR195845/MR195845)}$  erythrocytes, possibly due to an increased amount of band 3 that was not Discussion

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

Ank-1 gene displayed allelic heterogeneity displayed allelic heterogeneity on host mice

phenotypes and 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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>

mice and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> 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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> erythrocytes were

more likely to be TUNEL-positive, indicating impaired intra-erythrocytic maturation, whereas Ank-

1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup>/MRI95845) erythrocytes were more likely to be removed from circulation and possibly

increased turnover rate.

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

studies on other Ank-1 mice also exhibit similar mechanisms of resistance. Notably, Ank-1 (MRI23420/+)

and Ank-1<sup>(nb/nb)</sup> mice were both reported to affect the parasite survival within the defective RBCs (33,

36). On the other hand, Ank-1<sup>(MRI61689/+)</sup> mice were also found to exhibit increased RBC bystander

clearance (41), similar to Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice. Nevertheless, this is the first direct report of

such allelic heterogeneity described in in vivo mouse models, which highlighted the complexity

behind the genetic resistance to malaria, especially in human populations.

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

However, due to lack of large scale studies on the HS prevalence in malaria endemic regions,

ankyrin-1 has not been associated with malaria protection. Although HS prevalence is more well-

characterised in Northern European and Japanese populations, with a prevalence of about 1 in 2000

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

(42-44), one study proposed an increased HS incidence in Algeria of about 1 in 1000 (45), 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 (46) or achieve consistent symptoms (47) to be easily associated with malaria protection. In addition, technical difficulties (29), confounding factors from large genetic variation in African populations (48), as well as poor diagnostics and health systems (48), pose significant challenges for dissecting the connection between HS and malaria. With development of more advanced technologies and better characterisation 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 the first 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 remodelling by parasites (49-51), and maintaining the structure of RBC cytoskeleton (28, 52). It is possible that this allelic heterogeneity is due to the effect each mutation has on the integrity of RBC cytoskeletal structure, as evidenced by the significantly increased band 3 mobility caused by Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup>, but not Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> mutation (Figure 4f). This suggests that mutations at different locations of the ankyrin-1 protein might have different effects on the RBCs, consequently impacts the ability of parasites to invade and grow. This hypothesis also agrees with the findings from other Ank-1 mice from previous studies (35, 36, 41), where each mutation exhibited differences in terms of mechanisms of malaria resistance, which could be the basis for further studies.

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

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

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 (53, 54), the protective effects are often debated, with many studies reporting increased, or no protection, for individuals with certain alleles of G6PD deficiency (55-60). 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 was proposed to correlate with the malaria protection they conferred (55). More recently, Clarke and colleagues proposed reduced G6PD activity is associated with lower risk of cerebral malaria, but in exchange for higher risk of malaria anaemia (12), suggesting a delicate balance underlying the high frequency of G6PD polymorphism in populations of 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 valine, or lysine, respectively. They exhibit some similarities in mediating malaria resistance, including impaired parasite growth (61, 62), reduced cytoadherence (63-65) and increased erythrocyte clearance (66). 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 emphasising the importance of allelic heterogeneity in understanding host-parasite interactions. In conclusion, we reported a novel observation where the Ank-1 gene exhibits phenotypic heterogeneity in mediating malaria resistance mechanisms either via 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.

#### **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. 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 dose 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 analysed on an Advia 120 Automated Haematology Analyser (Siemens, Berlin, Germany) to identify abnormal red blood cell count. Mouse carrying MRI96570 or MRI95845 mutation was identified with a "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 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 previous described (67). 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, McMorran (68). Private variants that were shared between the two mutants but not with other SJL/J, C57BL/6 mice or previously described ENU mutants were annotated using ANNOVAR (69). 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 were amplified through PCR with 35 cycles of 30 seconds of 95°C denaturation, 30 seconds of 56-58°C annealing and 72°C elongation for 40 seconds. The primers used in the PCR are described as 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:

Snai2	CATCTGCAGACCCACTCTGA	TGGTTGGTAAGCACATGAGAA
Tbc1d23	CACCCCTTTTTGGTTTCTT	ACGTGCACATCGACTAACCA
Pnpla6	AGGCTGAGGAAGTGTGCCTA	AACTAGCTGGGCTTTGGTCA
Zglp1	CTGGCCTTTGACTTCTGACC	CCTCACAAGGTGGCTGTTTC
Ank-1	CTCCAAGTGAGAGGGTTTGC	GATGGCACACAGTCAGACCA

#### 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,  $5\mu l$  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 haemoglobin, was measured at 540nm to assess the degree of haemolysis. The absorbance values were expressed as percentage of haemolysis, with haemolysis at 0g/L sodium considered as 100% lysis.

#### Erythrocyte lifetime assay

Each uninfected mouse was injected with 1mg of EZ-link® Sulfo-NHS- LC Biotin (Biotin) (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in MT-PBS intravenously. 2ul of blood was collected on day 1, 7, 14, 21 and 28 from the day of injection. Samples were stained and analysed using a flow cytometer (details described in method 2.4.5). 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

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

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 on flow cytometry (approximately 0.05-0.3%). Samples were collected daily and analysed 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 were examined according to the protocol described previous by Deplaine, Safeukui (70) 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<sub>2</sub>, 2.2mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 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.

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

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 time. 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 (71) was used to determine the cDNA levels of Ank-1 and the housekeeping gene  $\beta$ -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'; 5'β-Actin-F: 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 centrifuged 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 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: anti-alpha 1 spectrin (clone 17C7), anti-beta 1 spectrin (clone 4C3) (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), anti-GAPDH (clone 6C5) (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), anti-N-terminal *Ank-1* "p89", anti-Band 3 and anti-protein 4.2 (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 visualised using ImageQuant LAS 4000 (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Arlington Heights, IL), and quantified using ImageJ software (72).

#### 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 (73). Each experimental mouse was infected with 1x10<sup>4</sup> 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<sup>TM</sup> 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 precoated with 0.1% polyethylenimine (PEI) for 10 minutes at room temperature. The excess cells were washed and 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 600x to 1000x 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, Lampkin (74), (75). 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 1x10<sup>9</sup> erythrocytes were injected intravenously into infected wild-type mice at 1-5% parasitemia during schizogony stage. Blood samples were collected at various timepoints,

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

Hoechst 33342 positive and JC-1 positive population.

from 30 minutes up to 36 hours after injection, and analysed 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 analysing on flow cytometer, 5µl of 123count eBeads (eBioscience, San Diego, CA) was added to determine the relative anaemic levels. 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-CD45allophycocyanin (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 analysed 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<sup>TM</sup> 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 Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out as described in previous study (41). The LOD score method coupled with Bonferroni correction was used to determine the causative mutation for MRI96570 and MRI95845. The statistical significance of the malaria survival was tested using the Log-Rank test. The statistical significance of parasite infection was determined via the statmod software package for R (<a href="http://bioinf.wehi.edu.au/software/compareCurves">http://bioinf.wehi.edu.au/software/compareCurves</a>) 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. For the rest of the results, statistical significance was determined using two-tailed Students t-tests.

# Acknowledgement

We would like to acknowledge Shelley Lampkin and Australian Phenomics Facility (APF) for the maintenance of the mouse colonies. 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. This study was funded from the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) of Australia (Program Grant 490037, and Project Grants 605524 and APP1047090), the National Collaborative Research Infrastructure Strategy (NCRIS), the Education Investment Fund from the Department of Education and Training, the Australian Phenomics Network,

#### **Literature Cited:**

563

- 564 1. Kwiatkowski DP. How malaria has affected the human genome and what human genetics
- can teach us about malaria. Am J Hum Genet. 2005;77(2):171-92.
- Hedrick PW. Resistance to malaria in humans: the impact of strong, recent selection. Malaria Journal. 2012;11(1):349.
- 3. Williams TN. Red blood cell defects and malaria. Mol Biochem Parasitol. 2006;149(2):121-7.
- 569 4. Williams TN. Human red blood cell polymorphisms and malaria. Curr Opin Microbiol.
- 570 2006;9(4):388-94.
- 571 5. Lell B, May J, Schmidt-Ott RJ, Lehman LG, Luckner D, Greve B, et al. The role of red blood cell
- polymorphisms in resistance and susceptibility to malaria. Clinical infectious diseases : an official
- 573 publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America. 1999;28(4):794-9.
- 574 6. Fry AE, Ghansa A, Small KS, Palma A, Auburn S, Diakite M, et al. Positive selection of a CD36
- 575 nonsense variant in sub-Saharan Africa, but no association with severe malaria phenotypes. Hum
- 576 Mol Genet. 2009;18(14):2683-92.
- 577 7. Clark T, Fry A, Auburn S, Campino S, Diakite M, Green A. Allelic heterogeneity of G6PD
- deficiency in West Africa and severe malaria susceptibility. Eur J Hum Genet. 2009;17.
- 579 8. Bauduer F. Red cell polymorphisms and malaria: an evolutionary approach. Bulletins et 580 mémoires de la Société d'anthropologie de Paris. 2013;25(1):55-64.
- 581 9. Beutler E, Kuhl W, Sáenz GF, Rodríguez W. Mutation analysis of glucose-6-phosphate
- dehydrogenase (G6PD) variants in Costa Rica. Hum Genet. 1991;87.
- 583 10. Howes RE, Battle KE, Satyagraha AW, Baird JK, Hay SI. G6PD deficiency: Global distribution,
- genetic variants and primaquine therapy. Adv Parasitol. 2013;81.
- 585 11. Shah SS, Rockett KA, Jallow M, Sisay-Joof F, Bojang KA, Pinder M, et al. Heterogeneous
- alleles comprising G6PD deficiency trait in West Africa exert contrasting effects on two major clinical
- presentations of severe malaria. Malaria Journal. 2016;15(1):1-8.
- 588 12. Clarke GM, Rockett K, Kivinen K, Hubbart C, Jeffreys AE, Rowlands K, et al. Characterisation
- of the opposing effects of G6PD deficiency on cerebral malaria and severe malarial anaemia. eLife.
- 590 2017;6:e15085.
- 591 13. Kilian N, Srismith S, Dittmer M, Ouermi D, Bisseye C, Simpore J, et al. Hemoglobin S and C
- affect protein export in Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes. Biology Open. 2015;4(3):400-
- 593 10.
- 594 14. May J, Evans JA, Timmann C, Ehmen C, Busch W, Thye T, et al. Hemoglobin variants and
- disease manifestations in severe falciparum malaria. Jama. 2007;297(20):2220-6.
- 596 15. Kreuels B, Kreuzberg C, Kobbe R, Ayim-Akonor M, Apiah-Thompson P, Thompson B, et al.
- 597 Differing effects of HbS and HbC traits on uncomplicated falciparum malaria, anemia, and child
- 598 growth. Blood. 2010;115(22):4551-8.
- 599 16. Gonçalves BP, Gupta S, Penman BS. Sickle haemoglobin, haemoglobin C and malaria
- mortality feedbacks. Malaria Journal. 2016;15(1):26.
- 601 17. Aitman TJ, Cooper LD, Norsworthy PJ, Wahid FN, Gray JK, Curtis BR, et al. Malaria
- susceptibility and CD36 mutation. Nature. 2000;405(6790):1015-6.
- 603 18. Curtis BR, Aster RH. Incidence of the Nak(a)-negative platelet phenotype in African
- Americans is similar to that of Asians. Transfusion. 1996;36(4):331-4.
- 605 19. Urwijitaroon Y, Barusrux S, Romphruk A, Puapairoj C. Frequency of human platelet antigens
- among blood donors in northeastern Thailand. Transfusion. 1995;35(10):868-70.
- 20. Pain A, Urban BC, Kai O, Casals-Pascual C, Shafi J, Marsh K, et al. A non-sense mutation in
- 608 Cd36 gene is associated with protection from severe malaria. Lancet. 2001;357(9267):1502-3.
- 609 21. Amodu OK, Gbadegesin RA, Ralph SA, Adeyemo AA, Brenchley PE, Ayoola OO, et al.
- 610 Plasmodium falciparum malaria in south-west Nigerian children: is the polymorphism of ICAM-1 and
- 611 E-selectin genes contributing to the clinical severity of malaria? Acta tropica. 2005;95(3):248-55.

- 612 22. Ayodo G, Price AL, Keinan A, Ajwang A, Otieno MF, Orago AS, et al. Combining evidence of
- 613 natural selection with association analysis increases power to detect malaria-resistance variants. Am
- 614 J Hum Genet. 2007;81(2):234-42.
- 615 23. Gallagher PG, Forget BG. Hematologically Important Mutations: Spectrin and Ankyrin
- Variants in Hereditary Spherocytosis. Blood Cells, Molecules, and Diseases. 1998;24(4):539-43.
- 617 24. Jarolim P, Murray JL, Rubin HL, Taylor WM, Prchal JT, Ballas SK, et al. Characterization of 13
- 618 novel band 3 gene defects in hereditary spherocytosis with band 3 deficiency. Blood.
- 619 1996;88(11):4366-74.
- 620 25. Takaoka Y, Ideguchi H, Matsuda M, Sakamoto N, Takeuchi T, Fukumaki Y. A novel mutation
- in the erythrocyte protein 4.2 gene of Japanese patients with hereditary spherocytosis (protein 4.2
- 622 Fukuoka). Br J Haematol. 1994;88(3):527-33.
- 623 26. Matsuda M, Hatano N, Ideguchi H, Takahira H, Fukumaki Y. A novel mutation causing an
- aberrant splicing in the protein 4.2 gene associated with hereditary spherocytosis (protein
- 4.2Notame). Hum Mol Genet. 1995;4(7):1187-91.
- 626 27. Eber SW, Gonzalez JM, Lux ML, Scarpa AL, Tse WT, Dornwell M, et al. Ankyrin-1 mutations
- are a major cause of dominant and recessive hereditary spherocytosis. Nat Genet. 1996;13(2):214-8.
- 628 28. Gallagher PG. Hematologically important mutations: ankyrin variants in hereditary
- spherocytosis. Blood Cells Mol Dis. 2005;35(3):345-7.
- 630 29. Sangerman J, Maksimova Y, Edelman EJ, Morrow JS, Forget BG, Gallagher PG. Ankyrin-linked
- hereditary spherocytosis in an African-American kindred. Am J Hematol. 2008;83(10):789-94.
- 632 30. Spector I, Metz J. A Bantu family with hereditary spherocytosis. S Afr Med J. 1963;37:211-3.
- 633 31. Hassan A, Babadoko AA, Isa AH, Abunimye P. Hereditary spherocytosis in a 27-year-old
- woman: case report. Annals of African medicine. 2009;8(1):61-3.
- 635 32. Ustun C, Kutlar F, Holley L, Seigler M, Burgess R, Kutlar A. Interaction of sickle cell trait with
- hereditary spherocytosis: splenic infarcts and sequestration. Acta Haematol. 2003;109(1):46-9.
- 637 33. Shear HL, Roth EF, Jr., Ng C, Nagel RL. Resistance to malaria in ankyrin and spectrin deficient
- 638 mice. Br J Haematol. 1991;78(4):555-60.
- 639 34. Schulman S, Roth EF, Jr., Cheng B, Rybicki AC, Sussman, II, Wong M, et al. Growth of
- Plasmodium falciparum in human erythrocytes containing abnormal membrane proteins. Proc Natl
- 641 Acad Sci U S A. 1990;87(18):7339-43.
- 642 35. Rank G, Sutton R, Marshall V, Lundie RJ, Caddy J, Romeo T, et al. Novel roles for erythroid
- Ankyrin-1 revealed through an ENU-induced null mouse mutant. Blood. 2009;113(14):3352-62.
- 644 36. Greth A, Lampkin S, Mayura-Guru P, Rodda F, Drysdale K, Roberts-Thomson M, et al. A novel
- 645 ENU-mutation in ankyrin-1 disrupts malaria parasite maturation in red blood cells of mice. PLoS One.
- 646 2012;7(6):e38999.
- 647 37. Chishti AH, Palek J, Fisher D, Maalouf GJ, Liu SC. Reduced invasion and growth of
- 648 Plasmodium falciparum into elliptocytic red blood cells with a combined deficiency of protein 4.1,
- 649 glycophorin C, and p55. Blood. 1996;87(8):3462-9.
- 650 38. McMorran BJ, Marshall VM, de Graaf C, Drysdale KE, Shabbar M, Smyth GK, et al. Platelets
- 651 Kill Intraerythrocytic Malarial Parasites and Mediate Survival to Infection. Science
- 652 2009;323(5915):797-800.
- 653 39. Kodippili GC, Spector J, Sullivan C, Kuypers FA, Labotka R, Gallagher PG, et al. Imaging of the
- diffusion of single band 3 molecules on normal and mutant erythrocytes. Blood. 2009;113(24):6237-
- 655 45.
- 656 40. Cho MR, Eber SW, Liu S-C, Lux SE, Golan DE. Regulation of Band 3 Rotational Mobility by
- Ankyrin in Intact Human Red Cells. Biochemistry. 1998;37(51):17828-35.
- 658 41. Huang HM, Bauer DC, Lelliott PM, Greth A, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, et al. A novel ENU-
- 659 induced ankyrin-1 mutation impairs parasite invasion and increases erythrocyte clearance during
- malaria infection in mice. Scientific reports. 2016;6:37197.
- 661 42. Godal HC, Heisto H. High prevalence of increased osmotic fragility of red blood cells among
- Norwegian blood donors. Scandinavian journal of haematology. 1981;27(1):30-4.

- 663 43. Eber SW, Pekrun A, Neufeldt A, Schroter W. Prevalence of increased osmotic fragility of
- 664 erythrocytes in German blood donors: screening using a modified glycerol lysis test. Annals of
- 665 hematology. 1992;64(2):88-92.
- 666 44. Yawata Y, Kanzaki A, Yawata A, Doerfler W, Ozcan R, Eber SW. Characteristic features of the
- genotype and phenotype of hereditary spherocytosis in the Japanese population. Int J Hematol.
- 668 2000;71(2):118-35.
- 669 45. Zerhouni F, Guetarni D, Henni T, Colonna P. Occurrence and characteristics of hereditary
- 670 spherocytosis in Algeria. European journal of haematology. 1991;47(1):42-7.
- 671 46. Kavallaris M, Ng D, Byrne F. Cytoskeleton and Human Disease: Springer; 2012.
- 672 47. Shah S, Vega R. Hereditary Spherocytosis. Pediatrics in Review. 2004;25(5):168-72.
- 673 48. A global network for investigating the genomic epidemiology of malaria. Nature.
- 674 2008;456(7223):732-7.
- 675 49. Maier AG, Cooke BM, Cowman AF, Tilley L. Malaria parasite proteins that remodel the host
- 676 erythrocyte. Nat Rev Micro. 2009;7(5):341-54.
- 677 50. Zuccala ES, Baum J. Cytoskeletal and membrane remodelling during malaria parasite
- invasion of the human erythrocyte. Br J Haematol. 2011;154(6):680-9.
- 679 51. Hanspal M, Dua M, Takakuwa Y, Chishti AH, Mizuno A. Plasmodium falciparum cysteine
- 680 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
- 682 of Hematology, Orlando, FL, 2001. 2002;100(3):1048-54.
- 683 52. Miraglia del Giudice E, Iolascon A, Pinto L, Nobili B, Perrotta S. Erythrocyte membrane
- protein alterations underlying clinical heterogeneity in hereditary spherocytosis. Br J Haematol.
- 685 1994;88(1):52-5.
- 686 53. Ruwende C, Hill A. Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency and malaria. Journal of
- 687 molecular medicine (Berlin, Germany). 1998;76(8):581-8.
- 688 54. Mason PJ, Bautista JM, Gilsanz F. G6PD deficiency: the genotype-phenotype association.
- 689 Blood Rev. 2007;21.
- 690 55. Manjurano A, Sepulveda N, Nadjm B, Mtove G, Wangai H, Maxwell C. African glucose-6-
- 691 phosphate dehydrogenase alleles associated with protection from severe malaria in heterozygous
- 692 females in Tanzania. PLoS Genet. 2015;11.
- 693 56. Ruwende C, Khoo SC, Snow RW, Yates SN, Kwiatkowski D, Gupta S. Natural selection of
- 694 hemi- and heterozygotes for G6PD deficiency in Africa by resistance to severe malaria. Nature.
- 695 1995;376.
- 696 57. Guindo A, Fairhurst RM, Doumbo OK, Wellems TE, Diallo DA. X-Linked G6PD Deficiency
- 697 Protects Hemizygous Males but Not Heterozygous Females against Severe Malaria. PLoS Medicine.
- 698 2007;4(3):e66.
- 699 58. Sirugo G, Predazzi IM, Bartlett J, Tacconelli A, Walther M, Williams SM. G6PD A- deficiency
- and severe malaria in The Gambia: heterozygote advantage and possible homozygote disadvantage.
- 701 Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2014;90.
- 702 59. Toure O, Konate S, Sissoko S, Niangaly A, Barry A, Sall AH, et al. Candidate polymorphisms
- and severe malaria in a Malian population. PLoS One. 2012;7(9):e43987.
- 704 60. Martin SK, Miller LH, Alling D, Okoye VC, Esan GJ, Osunkoya BO. Severe malaria and glucose-
- 6-phosphate-dehydrogenase deficiency: a reappraisal of the malaria/G-6-P.D. hypothesis. Lancet.
- 706 1979;1.
- 707 61. Fairhurst RM, Fujioka H, Hayton K, Collins KF, Wellems TE. Aberrant development of
- 708 Plasmodium falciparum in hemoglobin CC red cells: implications for the malaria protective effect of
- 709 the homozygous state. Blood. 2003;101(8):3309-15.
- 710 62. Cyrklaff M, Sanchez CP, Kilian N, Bisseye C, Simpore J, Frischknecht F, et al. Hemoglobins S
- and C interfere with actin remodeling in Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes. Science.
- 712 2011;334(6060):1283-6.

- 713 63. Carlson J, Nash GB, Gabutti V, al Yaman F, Wahlgren M. Natural protection against severe
- 714 Plasmodium falciparum malaria due to impaired rosette formation. Blood. 1994;84.
- 715 64. Fairhurst RM, Bess CD, Krause MA. Abnormal PfEMP1/knob display on Plasmodium
- 716 falciparum-infected erythrocytes containing hemoglobin variants: fresh insights into malaria
- 717 pathogenesis and protection. Microbes and Infection / Institut Pasteur. 2012;14(10):851-62.
- 718 65. Fairhurst RM, Baruch DI, Brittain NJ, Ostera GR, Wallach JS, Hoang HL, et al. Abnormal
- 719 display of PfEMP-1 on erythrocytes carrying haemoglobin C may protect against malaria. Nature.
- 720 2005;435(7045):1117-21.
- 721 66. Ayi K, Turrini F, Piga A, Arese P. Enhanced phagocytosis of ring-parasitized mutant
- 722 erythrocytes: a common mechanism that may explain protection against falciparum malaria in sickle
- 723 trait and beta-thalassemia trait. Blood. 2004;104(10):3364-71.
- 724 67. Hortle E, Nijagal B, Bauer DC, Jensen LM, Ahn SB, Cockburn IA, et al. Adenosine
- 725 monophosphate deaminase 3 activation shortens erythrocyte half-life and provides malaria
- resistance in mice. Blood. 2016.
- 727 68. Bauer DC, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G. Genome-wide analysis of chemically induced
- mutations in mouse in phenotype-driven screens. BMC Genomics. 2015;16(1):1-8.
- 729 69. Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from high-
- throughput sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Research. 2010;38(16):e164-e.
- 73. Deplaine G, Safeukui I, Jeddi F, Lacoste F, Brousse V, Perrot S, et al. The sensing of poorly
- 732 deformable red blood cells by the human spleen can be mimicked in vitro. Blood. 2011;117(8):e88-
- 733 95.

747

748

749

750

751

752

- 734 71. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time
- 735 quantitative PCR and the 2–  $\Delta\Delta$ CT method. methods. 2001;25(4):402-8.
- 736 72. Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. Nat
- 737 Meth. 2012;9(7):671-5.
- 738 73. Jarra W, Brown K. Protective immunity to malaria: studies with cloned lines of Plasmodium
- 739 chabaudi and P. berghei in CBA/Ca mice. I. The effectiveness and inter and intra species
- specificity of immunity induced by infection. Parasite immunology. 1985;7(6):595-606.
- 74. Lelliott PM, Lampkin S, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G. A flow cytometric assay to quantify
- 742 invasion of red blood cells by rodent Plasmodium parasites in vivo. Malar J. 2014;13:100.
- 743 75. Lelliott PM, McMorran BJ, Foote SJ, Burgio G. In vivo assessment of rodent Plasmodium
- 744 parasitemia and merozoite invasion by flow cytometry. JoVE (Journal of Visualized Experiments).
- 745 2015(98):e52736-e.

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

**Figure Captions** Figure 1. The mutations and phenotypes of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$ mice. The location of ankyrin-1 mutations in Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> alleles and the predicted effects on ankyrin-1 protein (a). The Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)/MRI96570)</sup> pups (indicated by arrows) showed severe jaundice and died within 1 week after birth (b). 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) (c). The RBC half-life of  $Ank-1^{(MRI95870/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice (n=5) (d). The elasticity of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  RBCs under shear pressure as measured by ektacytometer (n=3) (e). The proportion of retained Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>, Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> RBCs when passing through a layer of beads during the *in vitro* spleen retention assay (n=3) (f). \* P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01, \*\*\* P<0.001. All error bars indicate standard error of mean (SEM). Figure 2. The parasitemia and survival curve of Ank-1 (MRI96570/+), Ank-1 and Ank-1 1 mice when challenged with P. chabaudi. The parasite load (a) and survival rate (b) of  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice from day 7 to day 15 post-infection when challenged with  $1x10^4$  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<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes was examined through IVET assay, where parasitemia ratio was calculated from parasite load of either  $Ank-1^{(MR195870/+)}$  to wild-type (a),  $Ank-1^{(MR195845/MR195845)}$  to wild-type (b), or  $Ank-1^{(MR196570/+)}$  to  $Ank-1^{(MR196570/+)}$  $1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (c) (n=5-7). The parasite growth inhibition was determined via TUNEL

assay on infected RBCs (DAPI-positive) as an indicator of apoptotic and necrotic parasites (d). The proportion of TUNEL-positive infected RBCs was counted for  $Ank-1^{(MRI95870/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  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)(e). \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01, \*\*\*P<0.001. Error bars indicates SEM.

Figure 4. The clearance of wild-type, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95870/+)</sup> *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes during malaria infection and the mobility of erythrocytic Band 3. The remaining percentage of labelled RBCs was monitored during the course of IVET assays, comparing between wild-type and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> erythrocytes (a), wild-type and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes (b), and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes (c) (n=5-7). The half-life of wild-type, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes during malaria infection as determined by biotinylation of RBCs when parasites were detectable (n=6-7) (d). The clearance of wild-type and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> erythrocytes in splenectomised and non-splenectomised mice infected with *P. chabaudi* over 3 days starting from 1% parasitemia (n=6) (e). The band 3 mobility on RBC membrane was measured using Fluorescence recovery after Photobleaching (FRAP), showing the recovery rate of fluorescence as a result of Band 3 migration to the bleach spot (n=9-21) (f). \*\* P<0.01, \*\*\* P<0.001. Error bars indicate SEM.

# **Supporting Information Captions**

S1 Figure. The location of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$  mutation. 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 (a). Mice carrying  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$  mutation were found to have a T to

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

A transversion in exon 5 of Ank-1 gene, which is predicted to cause a missense mutation from tyrosine to asparagine at residue 149 (b). S2 Figure. The RBC morphology of mice carrying Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> or Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> mutation. Giemsastained blood smears as examined under light microscope at 1000x magnification (a). Scanning electron microscopic images showing the RBC shape of Ank-1 (MRI95845/+) and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice (b). S3 Figure. The expression of Ank-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal proteins in mice carrying Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570)</sup> or Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> mutation. Quantitative PCR was carried out on E14 embryonic livers to examine Ank-1 expression levels (n=3) (a). The abundance of ANK-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal protein levels of of  $Ank-1^{(MRI95870/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice as examined via Coomassie (b) and Western blot (c) on membrane of mature RBCs. The relative abundance of various cytoskeletal protein levels calculated from western blots (n=3) (d). SPTA =  $\alpha$ -spectrin, SPTB =  $\beta$ -spectrin, P 4.2 = Protein 4.2. \* P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01. Error bars indicate SEM. S4 Figure. 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 wild-type with Ank-1 (MRI95845/MRI95845) erythrocytes (a), and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  with  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (b) (n=5-7). The parasitemia curve of wild-type, Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice during RBC half-life assay (n=6-7) (c). S1 Table. The candidate genes for MRI96570 and MRI95845 mutations.

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

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). S2 Table. The complete blood count of *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>, *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> and *Ank-1*<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> 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<sup>-5</sup> compared to wild-type mice; whereas ^ P<0.001 compared to Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> mice.

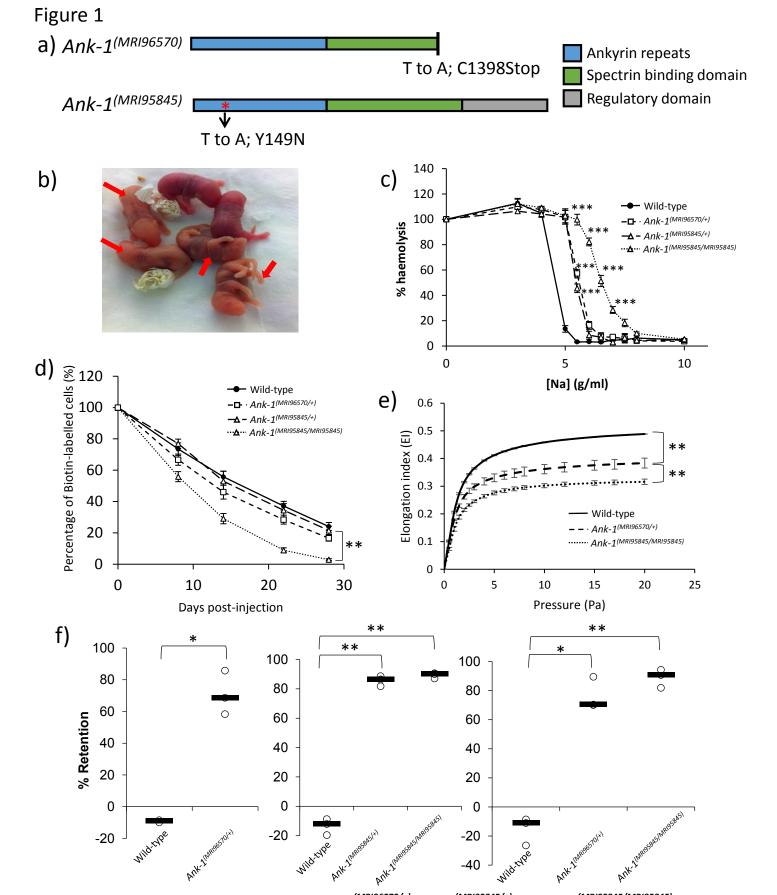


Figure 1. The mutations and phenotypes of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice. The location of ankyrin-1 mutations in  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$  alleles and the predicted effects on ankyrin-1 protein (a). The  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/MRI96570)}$  pups (indicated by arrows) showed severe jaundice and died within 1 week after birth (b). 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) (c). The RBC half-life of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice (n=5) (d). The elasticity of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  RBCs under shear pressure as measured by ektacytometer (n=3) (e). 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) (f). \* P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01, \*\*\* P<0.001. All error bars indicate standard error of mean (SEM).

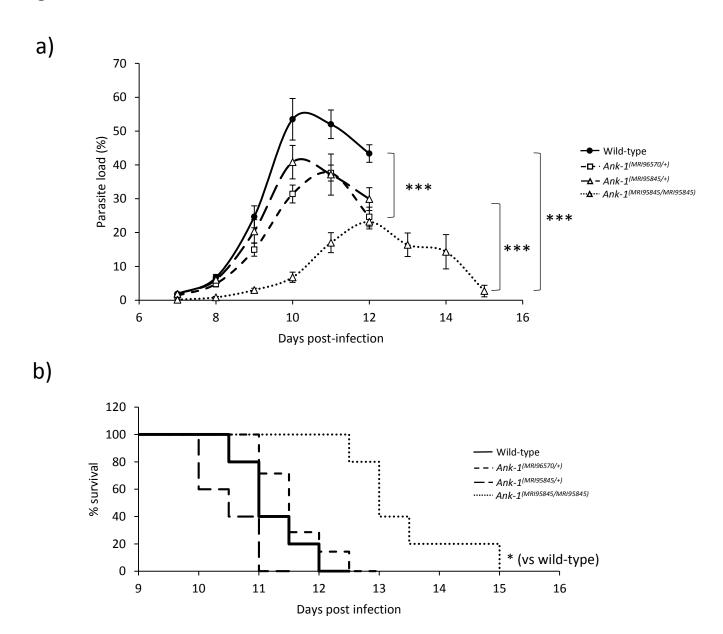


Figure 2. The parasitaemia and survival curve of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice when challenged with P. chabaudi. The parasite load (a) and survival rate (b) of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice from day 7 to day 15 post-infection when challenged with  $1\times10^4$  parasite intraperitoneally as determined by light microscopy. (n=9-13). \* P<0.05, \*\*\* P<0.001. Error bars indicate SEM.

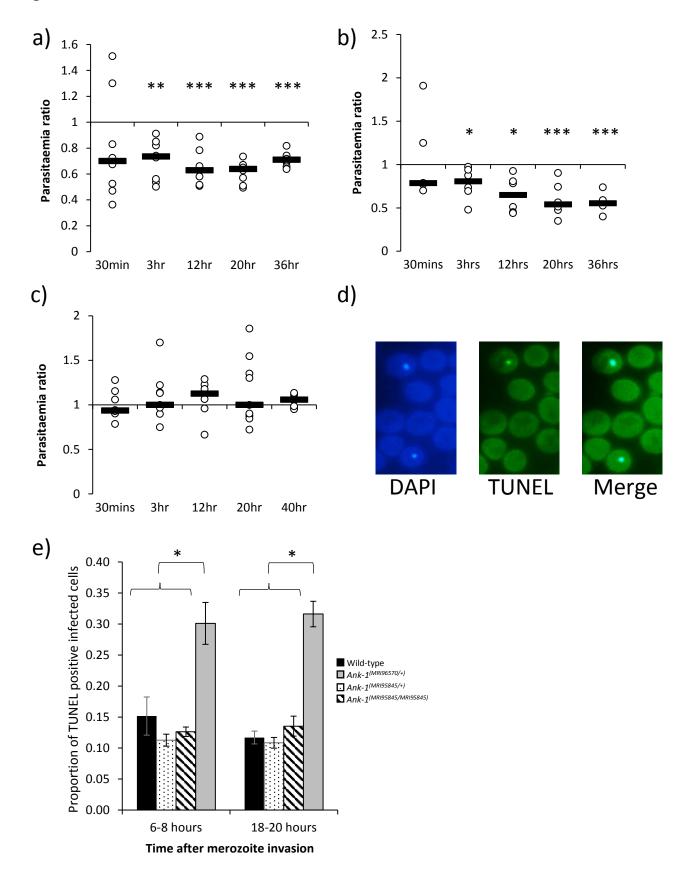


Figure 3. The parasite invasion and intra-erythrocytic growth as indicated via IVET and TUNEL assay. The relative invasion efficiency into  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes was examined through IVET assay, where parasitaemia ratio was calculated from parasite load of either  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  to wild-type (a),  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  to wild-type (b), or  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  to  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (c) (n=5-7). The parasite growth inhibition was determined via TUNEL assay on infected RBCs (DAPI-positive) as an indicator of apoptotic and necrotic parasites (d). 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% parasitaemia at ring stage (6-8 hours) and late trophozoite (18-20 hours) stage (n=4)(e). \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01, \*\*\*P<0.001. Error bars indicates SEM.

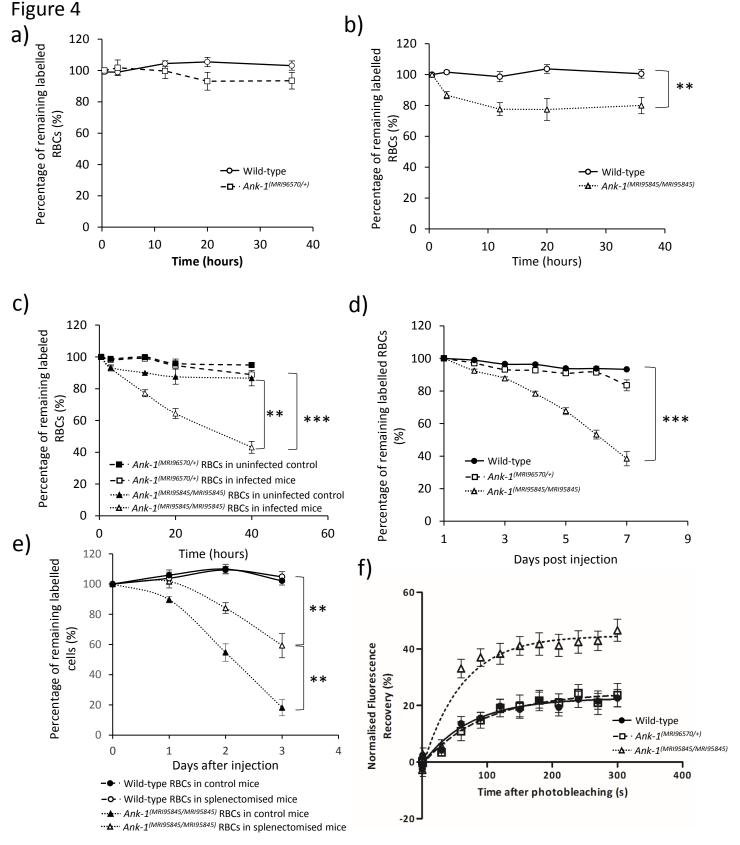


Figure 4. The clearance of wild-type,  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes during malaria infection and the mobility of erythrocytic Band 3. The remaining percentage of labelled RBCs was monitored during the course of IVET assays, comparing between wild-type and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  erythrocytes (a), wild-type and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (b), and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (c) (n=5-7). 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) (d). The clearance of ), wild-type and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes in splenectomised and non-splenectomised mice infected with P. Chabaudi over 3 days starting from 1% parasitemia (n=6) (e). The band 3 mobility on RBC membrane was measured using Fluorescence recovery after Photobleaching (FRAP), showing the recovery rate of fluorescence as a result of Band 3 migration to the bleach spot (n=9-21) (f). \*\* P<0.01, \*\*\* P<0.001. Error bars indicate SEM.

# Supplementary figures

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

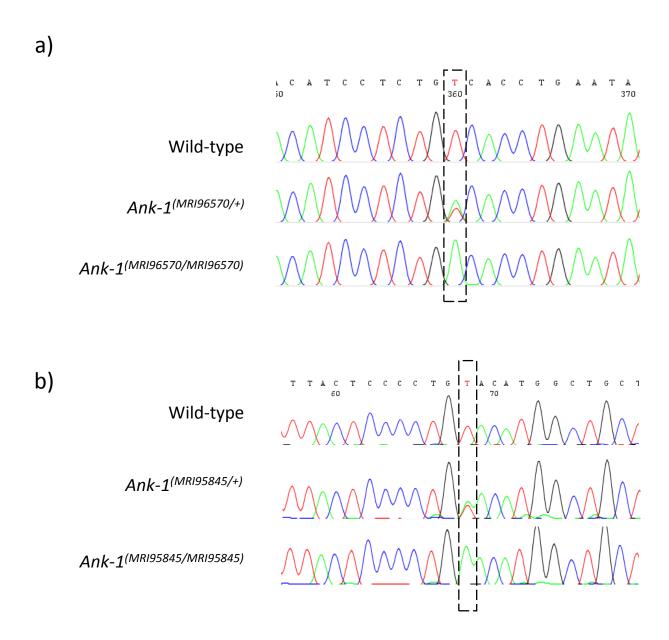
a)

Chromosome	Gene name	Location	Reference base	Variant base	Number of mutant mice with mutation	LOD score (Threshold: 1.9)
3	Fat4	38888347	Т	Α	0/10	-2.81
7	Rhcg	79601661	Т	С	0/10	-2.81
8	Ank1	23119400	Т	Α	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	Т	Α	10/10	2.81
8	Pnpla6	3531116	G	Α	8/10	1.24
9	Zglp1	21062907	G	Α	0/10	-2.81
16	Snai2	14708259	А	С	0/10	-2.81
16	Tbc1d23	57191544	Т	С	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).



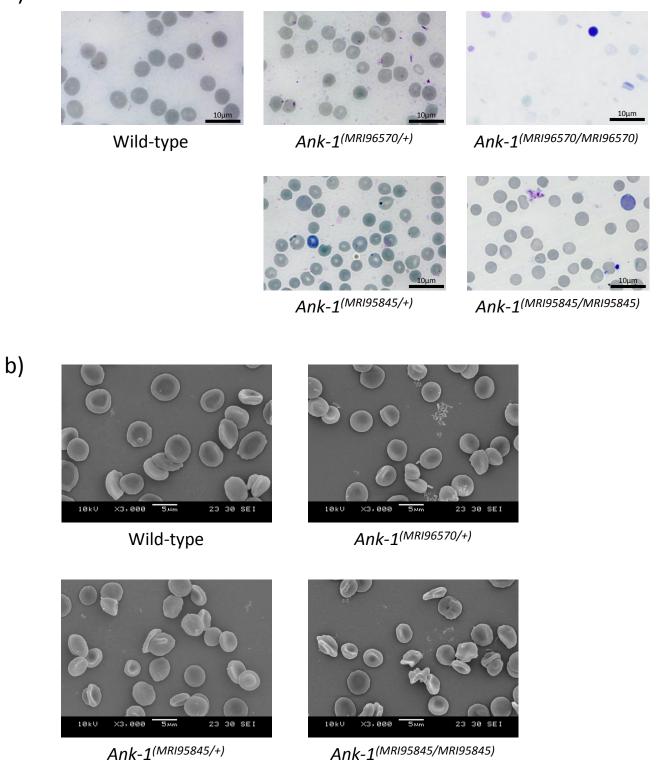
**S1 Figure.** The location of  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$  mutation. Sanger sequencing of mice carrying  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570)}$  revealed a T to A transversion in exon 34 of Ank-1 gene, which is predicted to induce a premature stop codon (a). Mice carrying  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845)}$  mutation 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 (b).

S2 Table. The complete blood count of  $Ank-1^{(MRI95870/+)}$ ,  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice.

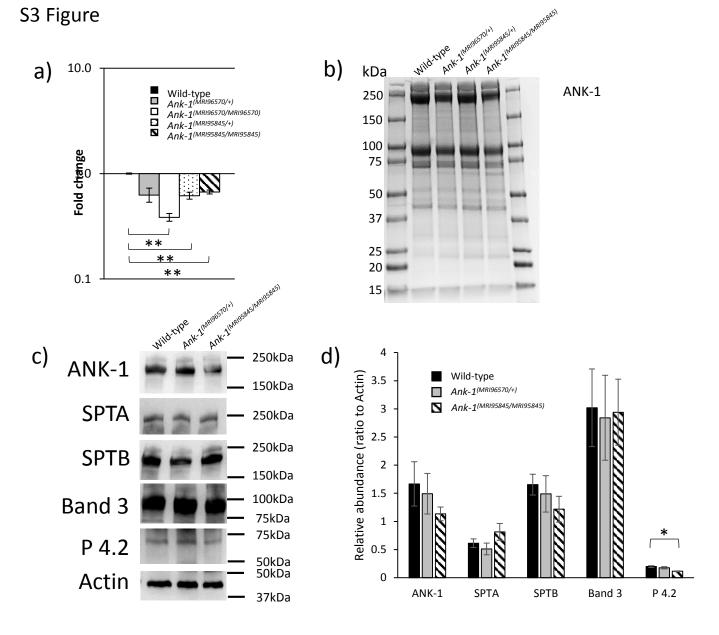
	Wild type	Ank-1 <sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>	Ank-1 <sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup>	Ank-1 <sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup>
WBC (x10 <sup>6</sup> /ml)	11.3±0.3	11.2±0.4	11.9±0.8	12.1±0.8
RBC (x10 <sup>9</sup> /ml)	10.1±0.1	11.0±0.1***	10.7±0.1***	10.9±0.1***
HGB (g/L)	150.5±0.8	150.7±1.1	148.8±1.9	142.6±1.7*
MCV (fL)	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 <sup>6</sup> /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<  $1x10^{-5}$  compared to wild-type mice; whereas ^ P<0.001 compared to  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/+)}$  mice.

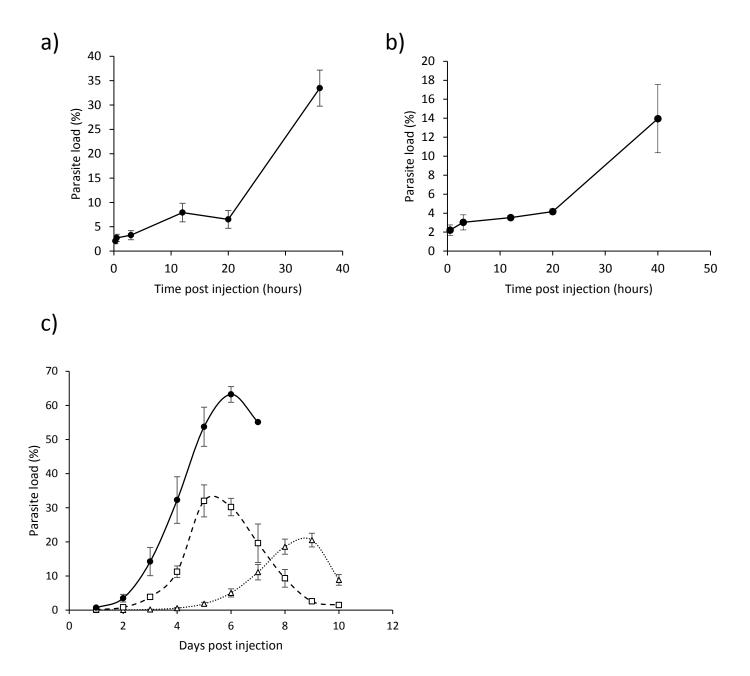
a)



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



S3 Figure. The expression of Ank-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal proteins in mice carrying Ank-1 (MRI96570) or Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845)</sup> mutation. Quantitative PCR was carried out on E14 embryonic livers to examine Ank-1 expression levels (n=3) (a). The abundance of ANK-1 and other RBC cytoskeletal protein levels of of Ank-1<sup>(MRI96570/+)</sup>, Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/+)</sup> and Ank-1<sup>(MRI95845/MRI95845)</sup> mice as examined via Coomassie (b) and Western blot (c) on membrane of mature RBCs. The relative abundance of various cytoskeletal protein levels calculated from western blots (n=3) (d). SPTA =  $\alpha$ -spectrin, SPTB =  $\beta$ -spectrin, P 4.2 = Protein 4.2. \* P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01. Error bars indicate SEM.



**S4 Figure.** The parasitaemia of the host mice during IVET assays and half-life assay. The parasitaemia curve of the host mice during IVET assays, when comparing wild-type with  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (a), and  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  with  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  erythrocytes (b) (n=5-7). The parasitaemia curve of wild-type,  $Ank-1^{(MRI96570/+)}$  and  $Ank-1^{(MRI95845/MRI95845)}$  mice during RBC half-life assay (n=6-7) (c).