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A specific non-bisphosphonate inhibitor of the bifunctional farnesyl/geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase in malaria parasites

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Abstract
There are multiple validated antimalarial drug targets in isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways. Using
a growth rescue screen, we identified MMV019313 as an inhibitor of isoprenoid biosynthesis in
Plasmodium falciparum parasites that cause malaria. We demonstrate that the molecular target of
MMV019313 is the *P. falciparum* bifunctional farnesyl and geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase
(FPPS/GGPPS): Both an S228T variant and overexpression of wildtype *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS
conferred resistance to MMV019313. MMV019313 also inhibited the activity of purified
*Pf*FPPS/GGPPS. *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS has already been validated as an antimalarial drug target since
its inhibition by bisphosphonates, a class of drugs that inhibits human FPPS, was shown to clear
parasitemia in a mouse malaria model. Though bisphosphonates are clinically used for treating
osteoporosis, MMV019313 has significant advantages over bisphosphonates for antimalarial
drug development. MMV019313 has superior physicochemical properties compared to charged
bisphosphonates that have poor bioavailability and strong bone affinity. We also show that it is
highly selective for *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS and showed no activity against human FPPS or GGPPS.
Inhibition of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS by MMV019313, but not bisphosphonates, was disrupted in the
S228T variant, demonstrating that MMV019313 and bisphosphonates have distinct modes-of-
inhibition against *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS. In addition, we describe two methodological improvements: a
more sensitive chemical rescue screen for identifying isoprenoid inhibitors and the first report
using chemical mutagenesis for drug resistance selection in *Plasmodium*. Altogether
MMV019313 is the first specific, non-bisphosphonate inhibitor of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS. Our findings
uncover a new small molecule binding site in this important antimalarial drug target and provide
a promising starting point for development of *Plasmodium*-specific FPPS/GGPPS inhibitors.

Significance Statement
There is an urgent need for antimalarials with novel mechanisms-of-action to circumvent
resistance to frontline drugs. Isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways are essential for *Plasmodium*
(malaria) parasites and contain multiple validated drug targets. We identify a new antimalarial
compound that inhibits a key branchpoint enzyme in isoprenoid biosynthesis. Our compound has
significant advantages over bisphosphonate inhibitors that inhibit the same drug target with
improved drug properties and specificity for the *Plasmodium* enzyme over human homologs.
Our findings uncover a new "druggable" site in this important antimalarial drug target and
provide a chemical starting point for development of *Plasmodium*-specific FPPS/GGPPS
inhibitors.

Introduction
There is an urgent need for antimalarials with novel mechanisms-of-action to circumvent
resistance to frontline drugs. The biosynthesis of cellular isoprenoids is an essential process in
Plasmodium parasites that cause malaria. A number of antimalarial compounds target enzymes
in isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways leading to parasite growth inhibition. First, *Plasmodium*
parasites depend on the 7-enzyme prokaryotic 2-*C*-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP)
pathway in its plastid organelle, the apicoplast, to produce isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and
its isomer dimethyallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) (1). IPP and DMAPP are the C5 building
blocks for all isoprenoids. The antibiotic fosmidomycin inhibits the MEP enzyme, Dxr/IspC, in
both bacteria and *Plasmodium* parasites (1).
Second, at least three isoprenoid synthases (PF3D7_1128400.1, PF3D7_0202700,
PF3D7_0826400) catalyze the condensation of IPP and DMAPP into longer prenyl chains (2-4).

In particular, farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (FPPS) and geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate
synthase (GGPPS) are key branch point enzymes that synthesize C15 and C20 prenyl chains,
respectively, for multiple downstream enzymes. Nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates,
blockbuster drugs which inhibit human FPPS, also inhibit the bifunctional FPPS/GGPPS found
in *Plasmodium* parasites (5-9).
Finally, prenyl chains are cyclized and/or conjugated to small molecule and protein
scaffolds by a variety of prenyltransferases to biosynthesize final isoprenoid products required
for parasite growth and replication. Tetrahydroquinolines (THQ) have been shown to potently
inhibit the *Plasmodium* protein farnesyltransferase (10-12). Other inhibitors may interfere with
isoprenoid biosynthesis indirectly by disrupting transporters that supply starting substrates or
export products or blocking pathways that provide cofactors for isoprenoid biosynthetic
enzymes.
Importantly fosmidomycin, bisphosphonates, and tetrahydroquinolines have all shown
efficacy in mouse models of malaria infection, validating the key importance of isoprenoid
biosynthesis as an antimalarial drug target (1, 5, 6, 10). Fosmidomycin is currently being tested
in human clinical trials, while a THQ lead candidate was investigated in preclinical studies (10,
13). However, novel chemical scaffolds that disrupt isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways in
Plasmodium remain desirable to overcome unfavorable drug properties of these known
inhibitors. For example, bisphosphonates avidly bind bone mineral, and both fosmidomycin and
THQs have short half-lives *in vivo* (14-16).
In 2011 the Medicine for Malaria Venture (MMV) distributed the Open-Access Malaria
Box to accelerate antimalarial drug discovery (17). The Malaria Box consists of 400 structurally
diverse compounds, curated from >20,000 hits generated from large-scale screens, that inhibit
the growth of blood-stage *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites (18-20). A major goal of sharing
these compounds was to facilitate elucidation of their antimalarial mechanism-of-action and
open new classes of validated chemical scaffolds and drug targets. Compounds that disrupt
isoprenoid metabolism can be detected by "rescue" of their growth inhibition upon
supplementation of isoprenoids in the growth media (21). Previously, we and two other groups
screened the Malaria Box for compounds whose growth inhibition were rescued by addition of
IPP and identified MMV008138 (22, 23). We and our collaborators demonstrated that
MMV008138 inhibits IspD, an enzyme in the MEP pathway that produces IPP (23).
Using a quantitative high-throughput screen (qHTS), we report a second compound in the
Malaria Box, MMV019313, that shows an IPP rescue phenotype but was not identified in
screens performed by other groups (22, 24, 25). We demonstrate that the target of MMV019313
is the *P. falciparum* FPPS/GGPPS, a cytosolic isoprenoid synthase that utilizes IPP and the key
branch point enzyme in isoprenoid biosynthesis in parasites. MMV019313 represents the first
new class of non-bisphosphonate inhibitors of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS.
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102 **Results**
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A quantitative high-throughput screen (qHTS) for growth and IPP rescue identifies
MMV019313 as an inhibitor of isoprenoid biosynthesis
Previous IPP rescue screens of the Malaria Box tested compounds at a single, high
concentration >5 μM (22, 24, 25). While testing compounds at a single concentration is useful
for identifying phenotypes that occur at a threshold concentration (e.g. growth inhibition),
growth rescue is expected to occur within a specific range of concentrations. For example,

doxycycline inhibits *P. falciparum* growth with an EC_{50}= 0.3 µM that increases to 3.2 µM upon
addition of IPP (21). At concentrations <0.3 µM, doxycycline does not cause growth inhibition.
However, at concentrations >3.2 µM, it is no longer specific for its target and causes growth
inhibition through additional targets that cannot be IPP rescued. Therefore the concentration
range in which IPP rescue can be observed is greater than the EC_{50} of the compound for its
specific, IPP-rescuable target but less than that for any nonspecific targets.
To increase the sensitivity for detecting IPP chemical rescue, we screened the Malaria
Box for growth inhibition of blood-stage *P. falciparum* in the presence and absence of IPP over
8-12 drug concentrations from 0.01-27 µM (Table S1). Of 397 compounds tested (3 compounds
were not available), 383 showed growth inhibition at ≤27 µM. Initial hits showing IPP rescue of
growth inhibition at one or more drug concentrations were commercially sourced and retested.
Along with the previously reported compound, MMV008138, we confirmed a second compound
in the Malaria Box showing an IPP rescue phenotype, MMV019313 (Figure 1A). MMV019313
inhibited *P. falciparum* growth measured in a single replication cycle with EC_{50}=268 nM (250-
289 nM) in the absence of IPP; in the presence of IPP, the EC_{50} was over 13-fold more at 3.6 µM
(3.2-4.0 µM) (Figure 1B). Notably, at concentrations >3.6 µM, MMV019313 inhibits a
nonspecific target that can no longer be IPP rescued, which explains why it was not identified in
previous screens.
An unusual feature of blood-stage *Plasmodium* is that IPP can rescue complete loss of the
apicoplast, the plastid organelle which houses the MEP pathway, since production of IPP is the
only essential function of the apicoplast. Compounds like doxycycline that disrupt apicoplast
biogenesis cause growth inhibition rescued by IPP and result in parasites lacking an apicoplast
(21). In contrast, inhibitors of isoprenoid biosynthesis, like fosmidomycin and MMV008138,
cause growth inhibition rescued by IPP with an intact apicoplast (26). We determined whether
MMV019313 disrupted the biogenesis of the apicoplast. Both the replication of the apicoplast
genome and import of an apicoplast-targeted GFP were intact in MMV019313-treated and IPP-
rescued parasites (Figure S1; 21). Altogether MMV019313 causes growth inhibition rescued by
IPP with no defect in apicoplast biogenesis, suggesting that, like fosmidomycin and
MMV008138, MMV019313 blocks isoprenoid biosynthesis (23).
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MMV019313-resistant parasites contain a mutation in the geranylgeranyl diphosphate
synthase
To gain further insight into the mechanism-of-action of MMV019313, we identified
mutations that confer resistance to MMV019313. Our initial attempt to select drug-resistant
parasites from a bulk culture of 10^{10} parasites was not successful, though this same protocol was
effective in selecting drug resistance against MMV008138 when performed in parallel (23).
Therefore, we turned to chemical mutagenesis to increase the likelihood of selecting
MMV019313-resistant parasites. Chemical mutagenesis has been successfully employed to
perform genetic screens in *T. gondii* but, to our knowledge, has not been used in *Plasmodium*
parasites (27). We treated 10^8 *P. falciparum* W2 parasites with sub-lethal doses of ethyl
methanesulfonate (EMS), an alkylating agent. Because EMS is unstable, we tested a fresh batch
of mutagen immediately prior to treatment in a standard parasite growth inhibition assay to
determine its EC_{50}. We then selected the EC_{50} as the highest mutagen concentration used and
also tested several lower concentrations by serially diluting 3-fold. These concentrations were
selected to maximize the frequency of drug-resistant mutations while minimizing lethal
mutations that would result in a smaller pool of starting parasites or nonspecific passenger

mutations that would confound identification of causative mutations. Following mutagenesis,
parasites were continuously selected with a dose of MMV019313 equal to its EC_{75} in the
presence of IPP for 7 or 32 days before removal of the drug. This concentration was chosen to
maximize selection pressure for developing resistance in the IPP-rescuable target, while
minimizing that for developing resistance in nonspecific targets.
Resistant parasites emerged in all mutagenized cultures one week after drug removal. In
these resistant populations, MMV019313 showed EC_{50} values that ranged from 3-9-fold greater
than that observed in the initial susceptible population. Growth inhibition of two MMV019313-
resistant populations which showed the highest levels of resistance at the lowest EMS
concentrations used, designated 019313R1 and 019313R2, are shown in Figure 2A. Significantly
the EC_{50} of MMV019313 in 019313R1 and 019313R2 was similar to that observed in susceptible
strains in the presence of IPP, and growth inhibition could no longer be rescued by addition of
IPP (Figure S2). These results suggest that, as expected, 019313R1 and 019313R2 populations
were completely resistant to inhibition of its specific IPP-rescuable target but had not developed
resistance to inhibition of additional nonspecific targets. This is the first example of using
chemical mutagenesis to aid selection of drug-resistant parasites in *P. falciparum.*
019313R1, 019313R2, and their respective mutagenized parent strains used to initiate
drug selection, WT1 and WT2, were subjected to whole-genome sequencing. Comparison of the
resistant and parent genome sequences identified a single nucleotide variant (SNV) which was
present in 100% of reads in 019313R1 and 63% of reads in 019313R2 but not present in either
susceptible parent genomes (Table 1). No other SNV were detected at >40% prevalence in either
resistant populations relative to the corresponding parent populations. The identified SNV was a
T-to-A mutation in the gene PF3D7_1128400 characterized as a bifunctional FPPS/GGPPS and
resulted in a Ser228-to-Thr change in the protein (Figure 2B; 2, 4). IPP is a known substrate of
the FPPS/GGPPS, and in the primary sequence Ser228 is adjacent to conserved KT residues and
an Asp-rich region required for catalysis in all homologous FPPS and GGPPS enzymes (Figure
2C). *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS was a strong candidate for further validation as the molecular target of
MMV019313.
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Overexpression and an S228T variant of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS confers resistance to
MMV019313
We determined whether overexpression of wildtype *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS was sufficient to
confer resistance to MMV019313. A transgene encoding FPPS/GGPPS-GFP under the control of
either the ribosomal L2 protein (*RL2*; PF3D7_1132700) or calmodulin (*CaM*; PF3D7_1434200)
promoter was integrated into an engineered *att*B locus in Dd2[attb] parasites (28). Expression of the
CaM promoter is 10 to 50-fold greater across the life cycle than that of the RL2 promoter based
on RNA-seq data, resulting in appreciably greater FPPS/GGPPS-GFP protein (Figure S3A; 29).
Therefore, we compared the effect of no, moderate (RL2), and high (CaM) levels of
FPPS/GGPPS-GFP overexpression on susceptibility to MMV019313. As shown in Figure 3A,
overexpression of FPPS/GGPPS-GFP results in a dose-dependent increase in the EC_{50} of
MMV019313 with intermediate-level resistance to MMV019313 observed in the RL2-
FPPS/GGPPS-GFP strain and high-level resistance observed in the CaM-FPPS/GGPPS-GFP
strain. Notably growth inhibition by MMV019313 in the CaM-FPPS/GGPPS-GFP strain could
no longer be rescued by IPP, indicating that complete resistance to inhibition of the specific IPP-
rescuable target had been achieved (Figure S3B).

We also determined whether the S228T variant of GGPPS confers MMV019313
resistance. Initially we attempted to introduce the S228T mutation into the *fpps/ggpps* gene in the
P. falciparum genome using CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis but were unable to recover mutant
parasites. As an alternative, we overexpressed the FPPS/GGPPS(S228T)-GFP variant using the
"moderate" RL2 promoter and compared its effect on MMV019313 susceptibility with that of
the wild-type RL2-FPPS/GGPPS-GFP. Overexpression of the FPPS/GGPPS(S228T)-GFP
variant, even at moderate levels, caused an 18-fold increase in the EC_{50} which did not increase
further with IPP rescue, indicating that complete resistance to inhibition of the specific, IPP-
rescuable target had been achieved (Figure 3B and S3C). Because moderate overexpression of
the S228T variant caused greater MMV019313 resistance than moderate overexpression of
wildtype *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, we conclude that the S228T variant is sufficient to confer resistance
independent of overexpression. Altogether these results clearly demonstrated that the
mechanism-of-action of MMV0193313 is dependent on *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS.
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MMV019313 specifically inhibits the enzymatic activity of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS
To confirm that *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS is the molecular target of MMV019313, we directly
measured MMV019313 inhibition in enzymatic assays. Consistent with a previous report,
purified *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS catalyzed the production of both farnesyl(C15)-PP and
geranylgeranyl(C20)-PP (2). To measure the inhibitory effect of MMV019313, we determined
its IC_{50} for FPP and GGPP production in two conditions. In the first "non-saturating" condition,
substrate concentrations equaled K_M values (Figure S4), the concentration at which the rate of
reaction is half-maximal. In the second "k_{cat}" condition, substrate concentrations were saturating
and the rate of reaction was maximal. Measuring inhibitor effects in both "non-saturating" and
"k_{cat}" conditions increases the sensitivity for detecting different types of inhibitors (competitive,
non-competitive, uncompetitive). We found the IC_{50} value was 330 nM for FPP production
under "non-saturating" conditions, comparable to its EC_{50} value in cellular growth inhibition
assays (Figure 1B and S5). MMV019313 was identified by its IPP rescue phenotype in cell
growth assays wherein addition of exogenous substrate increases enzymatic rates, indicating that
physiological conditions are likely sub-saturating. Therefore its IC_{50} value measured in sub-
saturating condition is more relevant for comparison to its EC_{50} value for growth inhibition.
Under "k_{cat}" conditions, IC_{50} values were 2.0 μM for FPP production and 9.8 μM for GGPP
production (Figure 4A-B).
Since inhibition was detectable in both conditions, assays of mutant and human enzymes
were performed at saturating conditions which gives higher signal-to-noise. Significantly
MMV019313 at concentrations up to 200 μM did not inhibit human FPPS or GGPPS activity,
indicating that it was at least 100-fold selective for *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS over human homologs
(Figure 4A-B). In contrast, the most selective bisphosphonate identified by a previous study,
BPH-703, showed only a 2.6-fold selectivity for *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS versus human FPPS and 3.6-
fold selectivity versus human GGPPS in enzymatic assays (Figure 4C-D; 6).
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MMV019313 binds a novel site on *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, distinct from that of bisphosphonates
The lack of inhibition of human FPPS and GGPPS by MMV019313 was intriguing since
*Pf*FPPS/GGPPS is structurally related to human FPPS and GGPPS and all are inhibited by
bisphosphonates (6). Co-crystal structures have shown that bisphosphonates, zoledronate and its
lipophilic analog BPH-703, bind in the allylic substrate (DMAPP, GPP, or FPP) site in the
Plasmodium vivax FPPS/GGPPS homolog (6). This binding is similar to what is observed in

bisphosphonate-mammalian FPPS complexes (30-33). To determine whether MMV019313 and
bisphosphonates share a common binding site, we compared the effect of the S228T variant on
inhibition by MMV019313 and the bisphosphonate BPH-703. MMV019313 and BPH-703 both
inhibited wild-type *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS activity. However only MMV019313 inhibition was
decreased by over 10-fold in the S228T variant (Figure 4A-D). This difference in their *in vitro*
enzyme inhibition was consistent with the effect on parasite growth inhibition, in which
moderate overexpression of the S228T variant conferred resistance to MMV019313 but not
BPH-703 (Figure S5). In addition, residue S228 is adjacent to the IPP binding site in the
bisphosphonate-PvFPPS/GGPPS structures and distal from the bound bisphosphonate. These
results demonstrate that MMV019313 has a novel binding mode, distinct from the known allylic
substrate site occupied by bisphosphonates, one which may confer its specificity for *Plasmodium*
FPPS/GGPPS over human homologs.
Because our biochemical results indicated that MM019313 binds a new site which is
unique to *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, we performed molecular docking calculations to evaluate the
likelihood of MMV019313 binding at known small molecule binding sites in *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS.
Three small molecule binding sites have been identified in FPPS and GPPS enzymes: 1) the
allylic substrate binding site, which is also occupied by bisphosphonates, 2) the IPP binding site,
and 3) an allosteric site identified in *Hs*FPPS (34). Because both the allylic substrate and IPP
sites have been structurally characterized in *Pv*FPPS/GGPPS, we used the rigid body docking
program Glide to generate poses with MMV019313 bound to these sites and estimate the binding
free energy of each pose (35-37). The binding affinity estimated for the MMV019313 poses were
$>10^8$ weaker than bisphosphonate at the allylic site and $>10^5$ weaker than IPP at its site (Table
S2). Therefore, the modeling suggests that MMV019313 is unlikely to bind either the allylic
substrate or IPP site. We also attempted to dock MMV019313 into other potential binding
pockets in the *Pv*FPPS/GGPPS apo structure but with inconclusive results.
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Discussion
Farnesyl and geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase (FPPS and GGPPS) are key branch
point enzymes in isoprenoid biosynthesis. Human cells contain separate FPPS and GGPPS
enzymes. An important class of clinical drugs, nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates, inhibits
human FPPS in osteoclasts and block their function and proliferation (31). Because osteoclasts
are responsible for bone resorption, bisphosphonates are highly effective for treatment of
osteoporosis and other bone remodeling diseases. Bisphosphonates are chemically stable analogs
of inorganic pyrophosphate containing a P-C-P bond in place of the phosphodiester, which
accounts for both its inhibition of FPPS (acting as an analog of the allylic diphosphate substrate)
and its high selectivity for osteoclasts (depositing in bone mineral which is composed of calcium
and phosphate). Unfortunately the charge state of bisphosphonates is a major liability in other
therapeutic applications, as they are poorly bioavailable, rapidly cleared by the kidney, and do
not achieve therapeutic levels in serum for treatment of non-bone diseases (5, 8, 25, 38).
*Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, the molecular target of MMV019313 as demonstrated in this study,
closely resembles mammalian FPPS enzymes in sequence, structure, and inhibition by
bisphosphonates (2, 6). Like human FPPS, it is a central node in cellular isoprenoid biosynthesis
vulnerable to drug inhibition (4, 31, 39). In *Plasmodium*, FPP and GGPP are required for the
biosynthesis of prenylated proteins, the prenyl modification of ubiquinone, and other isoprenoid
products, such that inhibition of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS disrupts multiple cellular pathways (3, 40-43).
Previously lipophilic bisphosphonates modified with an alkyl chain to increase their cell

permeability were shown to inhibit *Pv*FPPS/GGPPS homolog and clear both blood- and liver-stage *Plasmodium* parasites in mice infection models (5, 6). Importantly, these results validated *Plasmodium* FPPS/GGPPS as an antiparasitic drug target for both acute malaria treatment and malaria chemoprophylaxis.

Our identification of MMV019313 further addresses two key hurdles in the development of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS inhibitors as antimalarial drugs. First, MMV019313 represents the first non-bisphosphonate class of *Plasmodium* FPPS/GGPPS inhibitors with superior physicochemical properties. Many efforts have been made to develop modified bisphosphonates or non-bisphosphonate compounds as FPPS and/or GGPPS inhibitors for treatment of soft-tissue cancers and infectious diseases (34, 44-47). Unlike bisphosphonates, MMV019313 has drug-like physicochemical properties satisfying the Rule of 5 and does not need to mimic a charged diphosphate substrate to achieve FPPS/GGPPS inhibition (25). As a compound in the Malaria Box library, it has already been tested in a panel of bioactivity and pharmacokinetic assays with encouraging results (25). Furthermore the results of >300 assays characterizing Malaria Box compounds as part of an innovative "open source" drug discovery effort by many groups will be a rich source of information (25, 48-50).

Second, MMV019313 has high selectivity for *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS over human FPPS and GGPPS, minimizing the potential for mechanism-based (e.g. "on-target") toxicity. In fact, we could not detect any inhibition of human FPPS or GGPPS indicating selectivity at the enzymatic level of at least 100-fold. Consistent with this lack of enzymatic inhibition, MMV019313 showed no cytotoxicity against a panel of 60 human cancer cell lines at 10 μM (25). In contrast, the most selective bisphosphonate BPH-703 identified by No *et al* showed 2.6-3.6-fold selectivity in our enzymatic assays (corresponding to a reported therapeutic index of 193 in growth inhibition assays; 6). Our results suggest that MMV019313 binds a novel site in *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS that is either absent from or substantially different in the human homologs, which may explain its high selectivity. Altogether MMV019313 offers a distinct and promising starting point for development of antimalarial FPPS/GGPPS inhibitors, which circumvents the inherent liabilities of the bisphosphonate pharmacophore and greatly improves on their selectivity.

Our immediate priority is to obtain structures of the inhibitor-enzyme complex to aid in structure-based design of MMV019313 derivatives with higher potency, as well as discovery of additional chemical scaffolds that occupy this new binding site. A potential challenge is that the FPPS structure is dynamic during catalysis. For example, the human FPPS is known to undergo at least two critical conformational changes (31): The first is from an "open" apo form to a "closed" conformation upon binding of the allylic substrate, which is associated with drastically increased affinity for the allylic substrate (and bisphosphonates that mimic this substrate) as well as orders the IPP binding pocket. The second structural change occurs upon IPP binding and sequesters the active site from bulk solvent. Several attempts to obtain co-crystal structures of MMV019313 with *Pv*FPPS/GGPPS under conditions in which bisphosphonate-*Pv*FPPS/GGPPS crystals were obtained (presumed to correspond to the "closed" conformation) have been unsuccessful (personal communication, Dr. Raymond Hui). Additional crystallization conditions may require testing in the presence and absence of different allylic substrates and IPP, as their binding could affect the binding of MMV019313. Given the dynamic and complex mechanism of FPPS and GGPPS enzymes, detailed kinetic characterization of MMV019313 inhibition will be important to complement structural studies.

Since the S228T variant distinguishes between MMV019313 and bisphosphonate binding
to *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, obtaining its structure to compare with wildtype FPPS/GGPPS will also offer
clues to this new mode-of-inhibition. The resistance caused by the S228T variant could be
explained by a direct contact between Ser228 and MMV019313 in a new small molecule binding
pocket. But because the change from Ser to Thr is quite conservative, the addition of a methyl
group, it seems more likely that Ser228 is involved in conformational dynamics important for
catalysis. Structural analysis of this variant enzyme may reveal altered conformational states
underlying the resistance to MMV019313.
Optimization of the bioactivity and pharmacokinetic properties of MMV019313
derivatives will be priorities for their development as antimalarials. The luciferase-based
enzymatic assays performed in our study are robust for detection of effective inhibitors and can
be adapted to high-throughput screening of small molecule libraries (in contrast we found a
commercially-available colorimetric assay was not sufficiently sensitive; 51). Inhibitor-enzyme
structures will greatly accelerate optimization for potency against the *Plasmodium*
FPPS/GGPPS, while simultaneously minimizing binding to the human homologs. *P. falciparum*
strains overexpressing wildtype or the S228T variant, generated during this study, can also be re-
tooled as secondary cellular assays for on-target specificity. The drug properties of MMV019313
derivatives will be optimized in standard absorption-distribution-metabolism-excretion-toxicity
(ADME-T) assays. For example, we found that while MMV019313 is stable to human liver
microsomal enzymes ($t_{1/2}$> 159 min), its $t_{1/2}$ in mouse liver microsomes was 4 min. This metabolic
instability may account for a <1μM peak serum concentration following oral administration in
mice and will need to be addressed before derivatives can be tested in mouse models of
Plasmodium infection (25).
Finally, our study demonstrates two methodological improvements. First, we took
advantage of a quantitative screen for IPP chemical rescue using a range of inhibitor
concentrations, rather than a single high dose. The increased sensitivity allowed us to identify
MMV019313, though it was missed in prior screens. It also permits the screen to be performed
with geranylgeraniol, which is significantly less costly than IPP, since so far all identified
inhibitors that rescue with IPP also show at least a partial rescue of parasite growth inhibition
with geranylgeraniol (24, 52). Second, we employed chemical mutagenesis to select for drug-
resistant mutants, which has not previously been reported in *Plasmodium* to our knowledge but
has been used for genetic screens in *Toxoplasma gondii* (27). Notably we were unable to select
MMV019313-resistant parasites in the absence of chemical mutagenesis, though this same
protocol was effective in selecting drug resistance against MMV008138 when performed in
parallel (23). Our experience suggests that the use of chemical mutagens will increase successful
selection for drug resistance in *Plasmodium* parasites, which is the most common method
employed to identify drug targets from phenotypic drug screens (18-20). The low frequency of *in*
vitro MMV019313 resistance also indicates that clinical resistance will also be less frequent to
MMV019313 and its derivatives.
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P. falciparum in vitro cultures. *Plasmodium falciparum* W2 (MRA-157) and Dd2[attB]
(MRA-843) were obtained from MR4. Parasites were grown in human erythrocytes (2%
hematocrit) in RPMI 1640 media supplemented with 0.25% Albumax II (GIBCO Life

Technologies), 2 g/L sodium bicarbonate, 0.1 mM hypoxanthine, 25 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), and
50 μg/L gentamycin, at 37°C, 5% O_2, and 5% CO_2. For passage of drug-treated, IPP-rescued
parasites, the media was supplemented with 5 μM drug and 200 μM IPP (Isoprenoids LC or
NuChem). For comparison of growth between different treatment conditions, cultures were
carried simultaneously and handled identically with respect to media changes and addition of
blood cells
390
391 **Chemical handling.** Malaria Box compounds were received as 10 mM DMSO stocks in
392 96-well plates and diluted three-fold manually in DMSO. Fosmidomycin was included in control
393 wells. Two-fold serial dilutions of the 96-well plates were performed on Velocity11. Compound
394 stocks stored in DMSO were diluted for growth assays. MMV019313 was purchased from
395 ChemDiv
396
qHTS screen for IPP chemical rescue. Growth assays were performed in 384-well clear
bottom assay plates (E and K scientific, Santa Clara, CA). Drug (100-400 nL) was added directly
to each well using PinTool (V&P Scientific) on a Sciclone ALH3000 (Caliper Sciences). Using
the Titertek Multidrop 384, first 40 μL of growth media with and without 375 μM IPP was
dispensed, followed by 10 μL ring-stage *P. falciparum* D10 parasites (parasitemia 0.8% in 10%
hematocrit) into 384-well plates using the Titertek Multidrop 384. The final assay consisted of
50 μL ring-stage cultures at 0.8% parasitemia/ 2% hematocrit and drug concentrations from
0.01-26.7 μM ± 300 μM IPP. The plate was incubated at 37°C for 72 h. Parasites were lysed
with 10 μL 5mM EDTA, 1.6% Triton-X, 20mM Tris-HCl and 0.16% Saponin containing 0.1%
Sybr Green I (Invitrogen). The plates were then incubated at -80 ^{o}C for 20 min and thawed at
room temperature overnight in the dark. Fluorescence was detected using Flexstation II- 384.
Compounds that showed IPP rescue of growth inhibition at 1 or more drug concentrations in the
initial 384-well high-throughput screen were re-tested in a 96-well growth assay.
410
Growth inhibition assays to determine EC_{50} values. *P. falciparum* cultures (125 μL)
were grown in 96-well plates containing serial dilution of drugs in triplicate. Media was
supplemented with 200 μM IPP as indicated. Growth was initiated with ring-stage parasites at
1% parasitemia and 0.5% hematocrit. Plates were incubated for 72h. Growth was terminated by
fixation with 1% formaldehyde and parasitized cells were stained with 50 nM YOYO-1
(Invitrogen). Parasitemia was determined by flow cytometry. Data were analyzed by BD C6
Accuri C-Sampler software, and EC_{50} curves plotted by GraphPad Prism.
418
***P. falciparum* mutagenesis and resistance selection.** Late-stage parasites were purified
using a SuperMACS II separator (Miltenyi Biotec) and incubated in complete medium with 8.3 –
2025 μM ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS, 6 concentrations total) for 2 hours. The concentrations
of EMS used were selected by determining the EC_{50} in 72h parasite growth inhibition assays.
The highest concentration used for mutagenesis was equal to the EC_{50} in order to maximize the
selection pressure. The mutagen was then serially diluted 1:3 to test lower concentrations that
might give lower mutation rates and therefore a lower frequency of passenger mutations.
Mutagenized parasites were washed and separated into wells of 10 mL total volume
(approximately 10% parasitemia, 2 % HCT). MMV019313 drug selection was applied to one
well for each mutagenesis condition at 600 nM (approximately EC_{75}), while the other well was
left untreated in order to serve as a control for whole genome sequencing. Parasites were fed

daily for the first week and every 3 days thereafter. Each culture was split in half every 6 days in
order to introduce fresh RBC. Drug pressure was maintained for 32 days, with no observable
parasite growth. After 32 days of selection, half of the culture from each EMS condition was
removed from drug pressure. In these cultures, parasites which showed resistance to
MMV019313 by a standard drug assay were observable after 7 days at all EMS conditions used.
The parasites treated with the two lowest concentrations of EMS were selected for whole
genome sequencing.

Whole Genome Sequencing. *Plasmodium falciparum* strains were sequenced by
Illumina sequencing as described previously (53). Briefly, NEBNext DNA library reagents
(NEB) and NEXTflex DNA barcode adapters (Bioo Scientific) were used to prepare PCR-free
libraries (54). Eight whole genome gDNA libraries were multiplexed and spiked with 8% PhiX
control. Single-end sequencing was performed across two lanes on an Illumina HiSeq 2500
system. Data was analyzed using tools available in the Galaxy platform (55-57). Sequencing
reads were mapped against the *P. falciparum* 3D7v.10.0 reference genome using the Burrows-
Wheeler Alignment tool (58). Sequencing data was visualized using Integrative Genomics
Viewer (IGV) (59, 60). Variants were called using Freebayes (61) and filtered for Quality >100
and Read Depth >30 using GATK tools (62). SnpEff was used to annotate the list of variants
based on the *P. falciparum* 3D7v9.1 reference genome (63). Sequencing data have been
deposited to the SRA.

P. falciparum **Transfections.** An *E. coli* codon optimized version of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS
(PF3D7_1128400) was designed and synthesized by GeneWiz. Quick change mutagenesis was
used to mutate GGPPS serine 228 to a threonine in the pUC vector provided by GeneWiz. These
constructs were then moved into the pLN transfection plasmid designed for Bxb1
mycobacteriophage integrase system (64). The In-fusion cloning kit (Clontech) was used for all
cloning. Restriction enzymes *Avr*II and *Bs*iWI were used to linearize the pLN vector. GGPPS
was designed to have a *C*-terminal GFP tag. All transgenes were driven with either the ribosomal
L2 protein (RL2) promoter (PF3D7_1132700) or the calmodulin (CaM) promoter
(PF3D7_1434200) as denoted.
Transfections were carried out as previously described (65). Briefly, 400 µL fresh red
blood cells were preloaded with 100 µg of both pINT, which carries the bacteriophage integrase,
and pRL2, which carries the gene of interest and the blasticidin resistance cassette, using a
BioRad Gene-Pulser Xcell Electroporator. Electroporation conditions were infinite resistance,
310 V, and 950 µF using a 2 mm cuvette. Preloaded red blood cells were combined with 2.5 mL
~20% schizont Dd2^{attB} parasites and allowed to recover for 2 days before selection pressure was
applied. Transfected parasites were selected with 2.5 µg/mL blasticidin are were detectable by
thin smear within 15 days. Integration was confirmed by PCR and identity of the transgene was
confirmed by sanger sequencing.

Immunoblots. Parasites expressing either ACP$_L$-GFP or one of the FPPS/GGPPS
constructs generated in this study were isolated by saponin lysis and resuspended in 1xNuPage
LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen). Whole cell lysate was separated by SDS-PAGE using 4-12%
Bis-Tris gels (Initrogen) and transferred to nitrocellulose using a Trans Turbo-blot (BioRad).
Membranes were blocked with 3% BSA, probed with 1:5,000 monoclonal anti-GFP JL-8

(BioRad) overnight, washed, then probed with 1:10,000 IRDye 680LT goat-anti-mouse. The
Western was imaged using a Oddysey Imager (LiCor Biosciences).
477
478   **Live microscopy.** Infected red blood cells were treated with Hoescht to stain the nucleus.
479 Single z-stack images were collected on an epifluorescence Nikon eclipse.
480
Quantative PCR. Quantitative PCR was performed as previously published(21). Briefly,
parasites from 200 µL of culture were isolated by saponin lysis followed by PBS wash to remove
extracellular DNA. DNA was purified using DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). Primers
were designed to target genes found on the apicoplast or nuclear genome: *tufA* (apicoplast) 5′-
GATATTGATTCAGCTCCAGAAGAAA-3′ / 5′-ATATCCATTTGTGTGGCTCCTATAA-3′
and *CHT1* (nuclear) 5′-TGTTTCCTTCAACCCCTTTT-3′ / 5′-TGTTTCCTTCAACCCCTTTT-
3′. Reactions contained template DNA, 0.15 µM of each primer, and 0.75× LightCycler 480
SYBR Green I Master mix (Roche). PCR reactions were performed at 56°C primer annealing
and 65°C template extension for 35 cycles on a Lightcycler 6500 (Roche). For each time point,
the apicoplast∶nuclear genome ratio of the fosmidomycin-treated positive control,
chloramphenicol-treated negative control, or MMV019313-treated experiment were calculated
relative to that of an untreated control collected at the same time.
493
Recombinant protein purification. Full length constructs of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, *Hs*FPPS,
and *Hs*GGPPS were cloned into pET28a with an n-terminal hexahistidine tag. The *P. falciparum*
FPPS/GGPPS was codon optimized for expression in *E. coli* (GeneWiz). *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS was
mutagenized (S228T) using quick change mutagenesis. When expressed in *E. coli,*
*Pf*FPPS/GGPPS (wt and S228T) and *Hs*FPPS were toxic. Cultures were supplemented with 0.4%
glucose and grown to OD_{600} of 0.8-1 and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG. *Hs*GGPPS was grown
without supplementation to an OD_{600} of 0.8-1. All cultures were induced for 4 hours at 37 °C,
then harvested. Cells were lysed in 20 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, and
protease inhibitor cocktail using sonication. Cleared lysates were either mixed with Talon metal
affinity resin (Clonetech) or purified over 5 ml HisTrap columns (GE Healthcare). His tagged
protein was purified with a single step purification eluting with buffer with 300 mM imidazole.
Proteins were dialyzed to remove imidazole and flash frozen.
506
***In vitro* FPPS/GGPPS assays.** FPPS/GGPPS activity was measured by monitoring
pyrophosphate release using the Lonza PPiLight kit under kinetic conditions. Drug and either 20
µg/ml *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS, 40 µg/ml *Hs*GGPPS, or 100 µg/ml *Hs*FPPS protein were incubated for
30 min room temperature. The reaction was initiated by the addition of Lonza PPiLight kit
reaction mix and substrates. Saturating substrate conditions were 100 µM GPP or FPP, and 200
µM IPP. Sub-saturation conditions were K_M conditions as shown in Figure S4. Luciferase
activity was monitored overtime using a BioTeck plate reader.
514
MMV019313 ligand docking. Using a solved *Pv*FPPS/GGPPS structure (PDB: 3EZ3,
zoledronate and IPP bound) as a receptor model protein preparation wizard was used to add back
in missing hydrogens and side chains. All crystallographic waters were removed. Hydrogen
bonds were calculated using Epik at pH 8 (±1). The protein structure was minimized using OPL3
force field. MMV019313 was docked using glide to receptor grids generated from the relevant
crystallized small molecules.

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523
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532
533
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mitochondrion. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* 172(2):156–160.

Tables

700
701   **Table 1. Summary of mutations identified by whole genome sequencing**

Gene ID[a]	Description[b]	Base Call[c]			AA change	Population	Read Number[d]		%[e]	
		Position	WT	EMS			WT1	R	WT2	R
PF3D7_1128400	Geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase (GGPPS)	682	T	A	S228T	019313R1	219	163	100	100
						019313R2	186	181	100	62.4

702   [a] PlasmoDB gene Identification number
703   [b] Basic gene description based on PlasmoDB functional assignments
704   [c] WT calls match 3D7 reference genome
705   [d] Read depth corresponding to WT call (IGV) and Mut call (SnpEff) respectively
706   [e] Percent of reads corresponding to WT call (IGV) and Mut call (SnpEff) respectively
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710   **Figures and figure legends**

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712

713 **Figure 1. IPP rescues growth inhibition by MMV019313. A.** The structure of MMV019313.
714 **B.** EC_{50} curves in the absence (solid line) and presence (dotted line) of IPP. Parasitemia is
715 normalized to that of an untreated control.
716
717
718

Strain	Fold Change EC_{50}
W2 + 200 µM IPP	10.06
019313R1	9.42
019313R2	8.45

B

```
            WT  TAT TAT TCA TTC TTT
       Control  Y   Y   S   F   F

     019313R1/  TAT TAT ACA TTC TTT
          R2    Y   Y   T   F   F
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C

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FPPS Sc  FKTAYYSFYLPVALAMYVAGITDE-KDLKQARDVLIPLGEYFQIQDDYLDCF
FPPS Hs  YKTAFYSFYLPIAAAMYMAGIDGE-KEHANAKKILLEMGEFFQIQDDYLDLF
GGPPS Tg LKTSHYSFYLPTALGMTYGGLTDP-ALMAQAKELCLAIGEYFQVQDDYLDCF
GGPPS Pf HKTAYYSFFLPIVCGMQMGGISLDNLLYKKVENIAILMGEYFQVHDDYIDTF
GGPPS Pv HKTAYYSFFLPIVCGMLLAGIAVDNLIYKKIEDISMLMGEYFQIHDDYLDIF
GGPPS Sc NKTGG---LFRLTLRLMEALSPSS-HHGHSLVPFINLLGIIYQIRDDYLNLK
GGPPS Hs QKTGG---LFGLAVGLMQLFS----DYKEDLKPLLNTLGLFFQIRDDYANLH
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719
Figure 2. MMV019313-resistant parasites contain a mutation in the bifunctional farnesyl
and geranylgeranyl diphosphate synthase. A. EC_{50} curves of parental W2 parasites alone
(black, solid line) and with IPP supplementation (black, dotted line) and the two resistant
populations (019313R1, red line, and 019313R2, green line) without IPP added. Fold change in
EC_{50} compared to W2 parasites is shown in the right. **B**. Mutation determined by whole genome
sequencing of resistant populations 019313R1 and 019313R2, highlighted in red **C.** Schematic
of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS protein. The S228T residue is highlighted in bold black while conserved KT
and SARM residues are highlighted in bold grey and underlined.
728

729
Figure 3. Overexpression of WT and an S228T variant of *Pf*FPPS/GGPPS confer resistance
730
to MMV019313. A. EC_{50} curves of MMV019313 against the parental Dd2[attB] parasites (black)
731
and parasites over-expressing FPPS/GGPPS-GFP under the RL2 (red) or CaM (green) promoter.
732
B. EC_{50} curves of MMV019313 against the parental Dd2[attB] parasites (black) and parasites over-
733
expressing wild type (red) or mutant (S228T, blue) FPPS/GGPPS-GFP under the RL2 promoter.
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Figure 4. **MMV019313 has a specific and distinct mode-of-inhibition against purified**
*Pf*FPPS/GGPPS.** Dose-dependent inhibition of wild-type PfFPPS/GGPPS (solid),
PfFPPS/GGPPS S228T variant (dotted), and either human FPPS or GGPPS (dashed) of **A**. FPP
(C15) production by MMV019313, **B**. GGPP (C20) production by MMV010313, **C**. FPP (C15)
production by BPH-703, and **D**. GGPP (C20) production by BPH-703. Partial inhibition of
*Hs*GGPPS by BPH-703 was observed under k_{cat} conditions, while complete inhibition was
observed under non-saturating conditions (**Figure S5**).
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