Title: Kinetics of *Plasmodium* midgut invasion in *Anopheles*

mosquitoes

Short Title: Live imaging of *Plasmodium* invasion of mosquito midguts

Gloria Volohonsky[1]*, Perrine Paul-Gilloteaux[2,4], Jitka Štáfková[1,5], Julien

Soichot[1,6], Jean Salamero[2], Elena A. Levashina[1,3]*

*Corresponding authors:

Email: gloria.volochonsky@isunet.edu, levashina@mpiib-berlin.mpg.de

Affiliations:

[1] INSERM U963, CNRS UPR9022, University of Strasbourg, France

[2]SERPICO Inria Team/UMR 144 CNRS & National Biology and Health

Infrastructure "France Bioimaging", Institut Curie, Paris, France

UMR144 CNRS/Institut Curie, Plateforme Imagerie Cellulaire et Tissulaire-

Infrastructure en Biologie Santé et Agronomie, Paris, France

[3]Vector Biology Unit, Max Planck Institute for Infection Biology, Berlin,

Germany.

[4]Current address: Structure fédérative de recherche santé François-Bonamy,

institut de recherche en santé de l'université de Nantes, Nantes, France.

[5]Current address: Department of Parasitology, Charles University, BIOCEV,

Vestec, Czech Republic

[6]Current address: Institute for Parasitology, Zurich University, Zurich,

Switzerland.

Abstract

Malaria-causing *Plasmodium* parasites traverse the mosquito midgut cells to

establish infection at the basal side of the midgut. This dynamic process is a

determinant of mosquito vector competence, yet the kinetics of the parasite

migration is not well understood. Here we used transgenic mosquitoes of two

Anopheles species and a *Plasmodium berghei* fluorescence reporter line to

track parasite passage through the mosquito tissues at high spatial resolution.

We provide new quantitative insight into malaria parasite invasion in African

and Indian *Anopheles* species and demonstrate that species-specific kinetics

of *Plasmodium* invasion is shaped by the mosquito complement-like system.

Author Summary

The traversal of the mosquito midgut cells is one of the critical stages in the life

cycle of malaria parasites. Motile parasite forms, called ookinetes, traverse the

midgut epithelium in a dynamic process which is not fully understood.

Here, we harnessed transgenic reporters to track invasion of *Plasmodium*

parasites in African and Indian mosquito species. We found important

differences in parasite dynamics between the two anopheline species and

demonstrated an unexpected role of mosquito complement-like system in

regulation of parasite invasion.

Introduction

Malaria is a vector-borne human infectious disease caused by protozoan parasites of *Plasmodium* species. It is widespread in tropical and subtropical regions, including parts of the Americas, Asia, and Africa. Approximately 200 million annual cases of malaria result in half a million deaths [1]. Malaria-causing *Plasmodium* parasites are transmitted by *Anopheline* mosquitoes. Among more than 400 of known *Anopheles* species, only 40 are vectors of human malaria [2].

Plasmodium development in the mosquito begins with the ingestion of red blood cells infected with sexual-stage gametocytes. In the mosquito midgut, gametocytes differentiate into gametes that egress from the red blood cells and fuse to form the zygotes that develop into motile ookinetes within 16-18 h. The ookinetes penetrate the midgut epithelium 18 – 26 h after the infectious blood meal and transform into vegetative oocysts on the basal side of the midgut [3]. After 12–14 days, mature oocysts rupture and release thousands of sporozoites into the mosquito hemocoel. Released sporozoites invade the salivary glands, where they reside inside the salivary ducts to be injected into a new host when the infected mosquito feeds again [4].

The passage of the malaria parasite through the mosquito vector is characterized by a major population bottleneck. Previous studies revealed that mosquitoes kill the majority of invading *Plasmodium* parasites (reviewed by [5,6]), predominantly during the ookinete stage at the basal side of the epithelium [7].

The immune response of mosquitoes to *Plasmodium* parasites is multifaceted and involves multiple processes. In the midgut, reactive oxygen and nitrogen

species, hemoglobin degradation products, as well as digestive enzymes and

´bacterial flora, all affect the rate of *Plasmodium* development (Reviewed in [8]).

As parasites traverse midgut epithelial cells, the invaded cells produce high

levels of nitric oxide synthase and peroxidases, creating a toxic environment

for the parasites. As a result, some parasites undergo nitration which marks

them for killing by the mosquito complement-like system [9]. Furthermore,

intracellular parasites can trigger apoptosis causing extrusion and clearance of

invaded cells from the cellular layer into the midgut lumen [10]. As *Plasmodium*

tries to evade reactive oxygen and nitrogen species inside the cells, these toxic

molecules may shape the path taken by the parasite through the cellular layer.

When the surviving parasites finally reach the basal lamina, they encounter

soluble immune factors that circulate in the hemolymph. Complement-like

proteins TEP1 and leucine-rich repeat proteins APL1 and LRIM1 form a

complex that mediates parasite killing [11,12]. Histological studies have shown

that parasites crossing the cellular layer can be found both inside and in

between midgut cells [3,13]. However, it is not yet known whether some

parasites cross the cellular layer exclusively between cells, thus avoiding

nitration and subsequent recognition by TEP1.

Despite accumulating evidence of molecular processes that govern the

passage of motile ookinetes through mosquito tissues, the complexity and

diversity of this dynamic process remains to be deciphered. Three modes of

motility were reported for the invading ookinetes, namely spiraling, gliding and

stationary rotation [14][15]. Spiraling and gliding movements result in active

displacement of the parasite in space. In contrast, stationary rotation movement

was observed for prolonged periods of time and resulted in no displacement of

the ookinete. Because of the lack of markers of the entire midgut cellular layer,

previous studies did not establish how distinct types of movements correlate

with ookinete location in the midgut.

It has been previously demonstrated that *Anopheles* species differ in their

vector competence [16]. In the laboratory, *Anopheles stephensi* (*As*) and

Anopheles gambiae (Ag) can be infected with the murine parasite *Plasmodium*

berghei, albeit at different rates [17]. We set out to image *in vivo* migration of

the RFP-expressing *P. berghei* (Pb) ookinetes through the epithelial cells in

these two genetically-modified mosquito species that express GFP in the

midgut cells. Using high-speed spinning disk microscopy and automated image

analyses, we quantified parasite invasion dynamics at high spatial and temporal

resolution. Our data revealed unexpected differences in invasion of closely-

related mosquito species, pointing to important species-specific mechanisms

that regulate mosquito – parasite interactions. Moreover, silencing of the major

component of the mosquito complement-like system affected the parasite

invasion dynamics, suggesting a new function of TEP1 at the early stages of

the midgut invasion process.

Results and discussion

TEP1 inhibits midgut invasion of *P. berghei* ookinetes.

To study the passage of *Pb* ookinetes through the mosquito midgut, we

combined multiscale imaging techniques with high-throughput data analysis

and mining (Fig 1). We used transgenic mosquitoes expressing GFP under

midgut-specific promoters [18,19] to label mosquito midgut cells, and

transgenic rodent *Pb* parasites expressing RFP under a constitutive promoter

[20] (S1a Fig). We first made sure that expression of the reporters did not

interfere with *Plasmodium* infection. As expected, a significant difference was

observed in infection intensity between *As* and *Ag*. Regardless of the infection

levels, *As* developed significantly higher oocysts numbers than *Ag* (S1b Fig).

We concluded that the transgenic mosquito and *Pb* lines can be used for *in vivo*

imaging.

Figure 1. Workflow and experimental settings. *A. stephensi* (*As*) and *A. gambiae* (*Ag*) mosquitoes were blood fed on *P. berghei* infected mice, their midguts dissected and visualized using fast confocal microscopy. Images from all experiments collected at different time points after infection were uploaded into an image database and annotated. Quantitative data was extracted from the images in the database regarding the number, position and intensity of visualized parasites. The results of the data analysis reveal the kinetics of parasite invasion.

As the transgenic mosquito lines expressed GFP in the entire midgut cell, we

measured the exact position of RFP-expressing parasites relative to the cellular

layer (Fig 2). To this end, we collected large series of z-stack images of live

parasites inside the dissected mosquito midguts at different time points after

infection and time-lapse images of selected parasites. These tools enabled us

to study the parasite invasion process at two time-scales: one was based on

statistical analysis of parasites in three dimensional (3D) snapshots of the state

of infection between 18 and 25 h post infection, the second tracked single

parasites 18 to 25 h post infection over a time of 20 min to 2 h.

	A. stephensi	A.gambiae	A.gambiae^{TEP1KD}
Blood meal n, (%)	726 (68)	606 (70)	264 (38)
Cell layer n, (%)	239 (22)	191 (22)	324 (46)
Basal lamina n, (%)	103 (10)	(70 (8)	111 (16)
Total, n	1068	867	699

Figure 2. Positions of the parasites relative to the midgut cells. a. Schematic
representation of topology in the mosquito midgut. Motile ookinetes (red) traverse the
mosquito midgut cells and establish infection on the basal side under the basal lamina.
b. A representative projection of a cross section of *A. stephensi* midgut, scale bar - 50
μm. GFP-positive midgut cells are in green, RFP-positive *P. berghei* parasites are in
red, nuclei are labeled by DAPI in blue. **c**. Schematic 3D representation of the same
midgut as in (**b**), where the position of the cellular layer is calculated relative to the

nuclei. Positions of parasites are indicated as red dots, nuclei as blue dots. Deviation
of the cell layer from a flat surface is color-coded from blue to red (blue no deviation,
red - 10 µm). Note the blood meal location of the majority of parasites (above the cell
layer). **d**. Representation of nuclei (blue) and parasites (red) in the same midgut as (**b**)
after segmentation. **e**. Pooled positions of the parasites from all records at all time
points are shown for three layers relative to the midgut cells (blood meal, cellular layer
or basal lamina) for *A. stephensi*, *A. gambiae* and *A. gambiae* mosquitoes silenced for
TEP1 (*A. gambiae*^{TEP1KD}). Each dot represents the number of parasites at a given
position in a single midgut. The numbers of midguts analyzed (n) are indicated above
the graph. Horizontal lines depict the mean number of parasites per position. The table
below summarizes parasite distribution inside the mosquito midguts at 18-25 hpi. The
percentage of ookinetes in the midguts of *A. stephensi*, *A. gambiae* and *Ag*^{TEP1KD} at
each location (blood meal, cellular layer and basal lamina) is given in parenthesis. n is
the number of parasites at each position, total n is the total number of analyzed
parasites.
188

For each record, parasites and nuclei of the midgut cells were segmented and

their positions in 3D space were calculated relative to the cellular layer at each

examined time point after infection (Fig 2). The position of parasites relative to

the cellular layer was determined by fitting the midgut cell nuclei position by a

cubic spline surface. This surface was then considered as the central position

of the cellular layer (normalized z=0). An average thickness of 5 µm above and

below this surface defined the average cellular layer position.

We next examined whether the dynamics of parasite invasion was similar in

two *Anopheles* species. To this end, we measured the number of parasites at

each position (blood meal, cellular layer and basal lamina) in *As* and *Ag*.

Analyses of all time points did not detect significant differences in parasite

localization between the two species (Fig 2e). The majority of ookinetes were

detected in the blood meal (70%) and in the cellular level (20%). Only few

ookinetes crossed the midgut and reached the basal side (10%). Interestingly,

silencing of the major antiparasitic factor *TEP1* in *Ag* (*AgTEP1*^{KD}) significantly

changed spatial distribution of the parasites with only 40% of ookinetes

observed in the blood meal, 45% in the cellular layer and 15% at the basal side.

This difference in the dynamics of *Pb* invasion in *TEP1*-depleted mosquitoes

was suggestive of an additional role of TEP1 in inhibition of ookinete midgut

invasion. Previous studies reported *TEP1* expression in the larval gastric ceaca

and adult midguts [21,22]. In line with these reports, silencing of *TEP1* also

affected midgut microbiota by an as yet unknown mechanism [23]. Our findings

extend these observations to the early stages of parasite invasion and suggest

that in addition to parasite killing at the basal side, TEP1 directly or indirectly

inhibits *Plasmodium* midgut traversal.

Dynamics of the ookinete midgut invasion

We next focused on *P. berghei* ookinete passage through the mosquito midgut

cells at different time points after infection and examined the proportion of

parasites at each position (blood meal, cellular layer and basal lamina). To this

end, we calculated the average proportion of parasites at each position at the

early (18 – 20 h post infection, hpi), intermediate (21 -23 hpi) and late (24 – 25

hpi) intervals after infection (Fig 3a, S4Fig).

We observed that in *As* mosquitoes the proportion of blood bolus-residing

parasites did not change over time. The proportion of parasites within the

cellular layer significantly increased between the early (14% at 18-20 hpi) and

intermediate (32% at 21-23 hpi) time intervals. However, this increase did not

cause accumulation of the ookinetes at the basal lamina. Instead, a significant

decrease in the proportion of basally located parasites was detected between

the early (20% at 18-20 hpi) and intermediate (4% at 21-23 hpi) time intervals.

Strikingly, this decrease was temporal, as the proportion of parasites in the

basal lamina significantly increased at the late time interval (10% at 24-25 hpi).

Similar decrease in the proportion of basally located ookinetes was detected in

Ag, where the proportion of parasites at the basal lamina declined from 12% at

18-20 hpi to 3% at 21-23 hpi, and then increased again to 14% at the late time

interval.

Figure 3. Kinetics of *P. berghei* invasion of *A. stephensi* and *A. gambiae* midguts.
a. Positions of parasites in *A. stephensi* (*As*), *A. gambiae* (*Ag*) and in *A. gambiae*
mosquitoes silenced for *TEP1* (*A. gambiae*^{TEP1KD}) between 18 and 25 h post infection
(hpi). Plots show the proportion of parasites at each position (blood meal, cellular layer

and basal lamina) for three different time intervals (18-20, 21-23 and 24-25 hpi). Each
bar represents the average proportion of parasites in midguts with at least 10
parasites. Parasite positions were calculated by the distance from the cellular layer:
blood meal for ookinetes detected more than 5 μm above the cellular layer; basal
lamina for parasites observed more than 5 μm below the cellular layer. Statistical
analyses were performed by a non-parametric Mann-Whitney test. The table below
shows the number of midguts analyzed at each time interval for each mosquito type.
b. Speed of parasites as function of the parasite position in *As* and *Ag*. Speed (μm/min)
was determined by tracking the parasites position over time from the time-lapse series.
Four time-lapse experiments were used: guid 1615 and guid 1628 for *As* and guid
1622 and guid 2109 for *Ag*. The table below details the number of frames (n) used for
speed calculations. Statistical significance of differences in the average speed at each
given position between *As* and *Ag* were examined by the non-parametric Mann-
Whitney test and $p \leq 0.0001$ are shown by three asterisks.
254
255
Since the mosquito immune system targets the ookinetes at the basal side of

the midgut [24], we examined whether the observed decrease in the proportion

of basally located ookinetes was rescued by *TEP1* knockdown. *TEP1* silencing

eliminated the decrease in the basally located ookinetes observed in *As* and

Ag mosquitoes and at the same time increased the proportion of parasites

within the cellular layer (Fig 3a). These results suggest that the first wave of

invading ookinetes is rapidly killed and lysed by the mosquito immune system.

As the parasites that reach the basal lamina at later time points do accumulate,

it is possible that asynchronous midgut invasion by *Pb* exhausts the

components of the mosquito immune system and, thereby, benefits the

establishment of infection by the second wave of the parasites. These results

may also explain why not all parasites are recognized and killed by TEP1 at the

basal lamina. We suggest that early crossing parasites may serve as pioneers

that attract and locally deplete TEP1, allowing later-coming parasites to survive

the immune attack.

To better understand *Pb* invasion dynamics, we measured ookinete motility in

time-lapse experiments. The blood-filled midguts were dissected from infected

mosquitoes and mounted *ex vivo* for imaging by spinning disk microscopy for

20 to 120 min. In line with the previous work [14], we observed four distinct

ookinete motility modes: (i) passive floating within the blood bolus (guid 2107,

guid 1615, S1 Table), (ii) gliding within the cellular layer (guid 1628, S1 Table)

(iii) spiraling in the blood meal and within the cellular layer (guid 1622, guid

1624, S2 Table) and (iv) stationary rotation without translocation within the

cellular layer (guid 2115, S1 Table). Some ookinetes were observed within a

midgut cell for more than one hour, suggesting that the parasites may remain

intracellular for relatively long periods of time without inducing cellular

apoptosis. By measuring the parasite speed in the blood meal, cellular layer,

and at the basal lamina, we found that the speed of ookinetes carried by the

bolus content was the highest as compared to other locations (Fig 3b).

Interestingly, the speed of the ookinetes in the blood bolus differed between *As*

(8.2 μm/min) and *Ag* (3.4 μm/min) midguts, suggesting some differences in the

blood bolus environment. The ookinete spiraling motility in the cellular layer was

much slower in both mosquito species, namely 0.36 μm/min in *As* and 1.78

μm/min in *Ag*. The slowest stationary rotation movement of parasites was

observed at the basal lamina (in *As*, average speed 0.28 μm/min, guid 2113,

S1 Table, in *Ag*, average speed 0.54 μm/min, guid 1622, S2 Table). We noted

that the speed of ookinetes within the cellular layer and at the basal lamina was

faster in *Ag* mosquitoes than in *As* mosquitoes. This observation indicates

important differences in the cellular organization of midguts of the closely

related mosquito species.

Ookinete invasion routes

To characterize ookinete invasion routes, intra- or extracellular location of the ookinetes at the cellular layer was examined in more detail. To this end, we developed an algorithm that classified intracellular, extracellular and intercellular parasites based on the score of their 3D distance to the four nearest neighboring nuclei of the midgut cells. The score was calculated for each parasite (Fig 4a,b). The parasites with the score between 0 - 0.45 were defined as extracellular, 0.45-0.55 - as intercellular, and higher than 0.55 - as intracellular. We noticed a proportion of parasites that was extracellular at all time points in both species (Fig 4c).

Figure 4. Parasite distribution in the mosquito midgut. Parasite positions within
the cellular layer calculated relative to the distance of each parasites to the nuclei of
surrounding midgut cells. **a**. Calculations of the distance of parasites from the nuclei
of the nearest neighboring midgut cell. The score (s) determines whether the parasite
is intercellular ($0.45 \leq s \leq 0.55$), extracellular ($s < 0.45$), or intracellular ($s > 0.55$).
Example images from a z stack, scale bar = 20 µm: (I) s = 0.74, the parasite (green
arrow) is intracellular; (II) s = 0.45 (red arrow) the parasite is intercellular and (III) s =
0.36, the parasite is extracellular (blue arrow). **b**. Schematic representation of parasite
(red) and nuclei (blue) positions with distances (green lines) used to calculate
distances from the nuclei. **c**. Positions of parasites within the cell layer over time in *A.*
stephensi (*As*), *A. gambiae* (*Ag*) and *A. gambiae* mosquitoes silenced for *TEP1* (*A.*
gambiae^{TEP1KD}). The table indicates the percentage of parasites at each position for
each mosquito. The number *(n)* indicates the number of midguts analyzed for each
mosquito genotype. **d.** Comparison of the proportion of intercellular parasites between
As, *Ag* and *Ag*^{TEP1KD}. Each dot represents the proportion of parasites detected between
cells in a single midgut. Midguts (n) with at least six parasites within the cellular layer
were used for analyses. Statistically significant differences between *As* and *Ag* and
between *Ag* and *Ag*^{TEP1KD} revealed by a non-parametric t-test (Mann-Whitney) are
indicated by asterisks (*p* = 0.03 (*); *p* = 0.003(**)). The table details the mean
proportion values for parasites in each midgut and for each position for *n* mosquitoes.
327

When comparing intercellular and intracellular parasite distribution, a higher

proportion of intercellular ookinetes was observed in *As* (40%) than in *Ag* (20%)

(Fig 4d, S6 Fig). These results point to intricate differences in parasite invasion

routes between the two related *Anopheline* species.

Parasite viability within the midgut

As the transgenic *P. berghei* line used in this study expressed the fluorescence

reporter under a constitutive promoter, we were surprised by high variability in

the reporter fluorescence levels observed between individual parasites in the

same midgut. We examined whether differences in fluorescence intensity

correlated with parasite localization and time post infection in two mosquito

species. To compare different experimental conditions, we normalized

fluorescence intensity of each parasite based on the highest and lowest

intensity of parasites in each image. We found only modest overall differences

in mean fluorescence intensities at different positions (basal lamina, cellular

layer, blood meal) over time and between the two species (*S7-S9* Fig, Tables

S8-S9). Furthermore, we observed the parasites with very low levels of

fluorescence that appeared as a black hole on the background of the midgut

cells expressing GFP reporter in *Ag* mosquitoes (Fig 5a**)** that expressed GFP

uniformly in all midgut cells. In contrast, irregular patterns of GFP expression in

the midgut were reported for *As* [18] (S1 Fig). Hence, fluorescence-negative

parasites were only examined in *Ag* where parasites were clearly identified as

black shapes on fluorescent background.

352
353
Figure 5. Quantification of dead parasites in *A. gambiae*. a. Detection of dead
parasites within the cellular layer. Due to uniform GFP expression with the midgut cells
of the *dmAct5C::GFP* line of *A. gambiae*, dead parasites that no longer express RFP
could be distinguished in the midgut by their negative signal and a characteristic
shape. Shown is a single z-section (scale bar - 20 μm) containing two live RFP-
expressing parasites and one dead parasite, indicated by arrows. **b.** The proportion of
dead parasites at different time points after *Ag* infection. Midguts (n) that contained at
least 10 parasites were used for analyses. Each dot represents a single midgut. **c**.
Distribution of dead parasites within the cellular layer. The table gives the number of
parasites at each position at all time points. The number (n) is the number of midguts
analyzed. Total (n) is the number of all analyzed parasites.
365

We considered the parasites that lost their fluorescence dying or dead [11,25].

On average, 10-15% of all recognized parasites had no fluorescence and were

classified as dead (Fig 5b). Differences in distribution were observed for live

and dead parasites within the cellular layer. More dead parasites were found to

be located extracellular or intercellular (compare Fig 5c and Fig 4d). This

observation points to more efficient parasite killing of extracellular parasites.

Interestingly, we hardly detected any dead parasites in Ag^{TEP1KD} mosquitoes,

suggesting that TEP1 may be involved in killing of parasites within the cellular

layer.

Cell damage caused by parasite passage

Midgut regeneration is a natural process of epithelia renovation after a blood

feeding, whether infective or not [26]. Blood meal generates a stressful

environment as it contains bacteria, reactive oxygen species and digestive

enzymes that may cause damage to the midgut cells. It has been previously

suggested that invaded midgut cells die after invasion and are expelled into the

midgut lumen [27] resulting in accumulation of hundreds of cells in highly

infected midguts. However, we only once observed GFP positive midgut cells

in the midgut lumen. This result indicates that either upon expel dead midgut

cells rapidly lose their GFP fluorescence, or that only few midgut cells are

expelled after invasion. To resolve these conjectures, we investigated the

integrity of the cell layer using high molecular weight Texas-Red conjugated

dextran which is trapped inside damaged cells [28]. In these experiments, the

fluorescent dextran was delivered into the midgut by blood feeding mosquitoes

on mice injected intravenously with fluorescent dextran several minutes before

mosquito feeding. We detected dextran filled cells (Fig 6a), calculated their

position (Fig 6b, S11 Fig) and measured the distance to the nearest parasite

(Fig 6c). The majority of dextran filled cells (70%) that contained a parasite in

As were predominantly detected in the cellular layer. In contrast in *Ag,* dextran

filled cells were observed both in the cellular layer and in the midgut lumen (Fig

6b). As many as 30% of dextran filled cells in *Ag*, were found in the midgut

lumen. Out of these, 50% contained a parasite (S10 Table). In contrast, we

found only one (5% of total) dextran filled cell the midgut lumen of *As*

mosquitoes.

401
402
Figure 6. Quantification of damaged cells. **a**. Detection of dextran-positive cells in
the midguts of *As* and *Ag* mosquitoes. Shown are single z-sections of GFP-expressing
dissected midguts. Mosquitoes were fed on mice injected with Texas-Red conjugated

dextran. Dextran-filled cells appeared red *(scale bar - 50 μm)*. **b**. Positions of dextran-
filled cells in the midgut layers of *As* and *Ag*. Each dot represents a single dextran-
positive cell. The graph depicts positions of the dextran-positive cells within the midgut
layers. Each midgut layer is color coded: Blood meal (blue), cellular layer (green) and
basal lamina (red). The number of dextran filled cells (n) at each position is indicated.
c. Distances of dextran-filled cells to the nearest parasite at different time points after
infection of *Ag* and *As*. The number of dextran filled cells analyzed (n) is shown.
Statistical analysis was performed by a Mann-Whitney non-parametric t-test.
414
Interestingly in *Ag*, the distance between the dextran-positive cell and the

nearest parasite significantly increased at 24-25 hpi compared to the earlier

time intervals (Fig 6c). Furthermore, no dextran-positive cells were found in *As*

at the late time interval after infection (24-25 hpi). Taken together, these results

suggest that in *Ag* mosquitoes, damaged cells are readily extruded into the

midgut lumen with or without the parasites. It is important to note that while

some dextran filled cells contained a parasite, most midgut cells that we

observed to host a parasite were dextran-negative, indicating that ookinete

invasion damaged and killed only a small proportion of midgut cells.

Interestingly, in both *As* and *Ag*, we never observed more than one parasite in

a non-damaged midgut cell, indicating that parasites refrain from entering an

invaded cell. Here we also observed chains of several connected dextran-

positive cells, indicating that ookinetes can traverse several neighboring cells

before exiting on the basal side of the cellular layer. In conclusion, our results

led us to suggest that the route of ookinete invasion for the same parasite is

species-specific and shaped by midgut tissue morphology, physiology, damage

and immune responses. Future studies should examine how invasion

strategies of the human malaria *P. falciparum* parasites are affected by diverse

vector species.

Conclusions

By combining live imaging techniques with quantitative bioimage analysis workflow, we uncovered differences in ookinete invasion strategies in two related mosquito species. We showed that in both species, the "pioneer" parasites that first reach the basal side of the midgut were rapidly eliminated by the mosquito immune system, and that colonization of the mosquito midgut was initiated at later stages of the infection. High throughput image data analyses of two *Anopheles* species revealed important differences in parasite invasion routes. We showed that the average ookinete speed in the cellular layer is lower in *As* compared to *Ag* mosquitoes. Moreover, *As* midguts contained more intercellular parasites and displayed higher numbers of damaged parasite-harboring cells. These results indicate that faster ookinete speeds and preference for intracellular route may impede parasite survival during invasion in *Ag*, the mosquito species which is more resistant to *P. berghei* infection.

The reported here combination of live imaging and automated image analysis is highly adaptable and can be extended to functional analyses of gene knockdowns, mutations, and drug treatments. Moreover, the image data base and image analysis tools generated by this study offer a powerful tool for studying *Plasmodium* motility in *Anopheles* mosquitoes.

Materials and methods

Mosquito rearing

Transgenic *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes expressing GFP under the midgut-specific G12 promoter (*pG12::EGFP transgenic line* [18]) and *Anopheles gambiae* expressing GFP under the *Drosophila Acti5c* promoter

(*dmActin5c::dsx-eGFP*) line [19]) were reared in the lab as previously described

[29]. Briefly, mosquitoes were maintained in standard conditions (28°C, 75–

80% humidity, 12-hr/12-hr light/dark cycle). Larvae were raised in deionized

water and fed finely ground TetraMin fish food. Adults were fed on 10% sucrose

ad libitum and females were blood fed on anaesthetized mice. To obtain *Ag*

mosquitoes that do not express *TEP1*, the dominant *TEP1* knockdown *Ag^{TEP1KD}*

transgenic line [30] was crossed to *dmActin5c::dsx-eGFP* mosquitoes. The F1

progeny had reduced TEP1 levels while expressing GFP in the midgut [30].

***P. berghei* infections**

For infections, mosquitoes were blood fed on *P. berghei* infected mice as

previously described [31]. *P. berghei* pyrimethamine resistant strain (RMgm

296) constitutively expressed RFP [20]. For the visualization of damaged

mosquito cells, mice were injected in the tail vein with 0.1 ml of 5% dextran

(3,000 kDa Texas Red conjugated, Invitrogen) diluted in PBS 10 min prior to

blood feeding. Mosquitoes were blood fed for 20 min on anesthetized mice and

dissected between 18-24 h after blood feeding, as indicated in each

experiment.

Confocal microscopy

Immediately prior to visualization, infected mosquitoes were dissected on ice in

PBS buffer supplemented with 0.02% DAPI (Thermo Fisher, 4′,6-diamidino-2-

phenylindole, 5 mg/mL), and with 0.2% tricaine (Sigma), 0.02% tetramisole

(Sigma) to prevent midgut contraction during image acquisition. Blood-filled

midguts were placed on 35 mm plastic dishes with glass bottom (Nunc,

ThermoFisher). Dishes were mounted on inverted DMI6000 Leica Microscope,

equipped with a Nipkow Disk confocal module (Andor Revolution), 20X

objective. For time-lapse experiments, samples were visualized for up to two

hours at 1 min intervals. The number of 1 µm-stacks, annotated for each image,

ranged between 24 and 95 depending on tissue thickness. We noticed that *As*

midguts were rigid and sturdy, allowing for longer live imaging. *Ag* midguts were

more fragile and tended to move and tear during image acquisition. We were

able to collect live imaging data from 16 *As* (S1 Table) and 5 *Ag* midguts (S2

Table). We were not able to follow parasites in mosquitoes lacking the immune

protein TEP1 due to high midgut fragility of Ag^{TEP1KD} midguts.

Image analyses

All images were uploaded to a database where they were annotated according

to mosquito species and other experimental conditions. Images were subjected

to bulk analysis as well as manual verification. The annotated image database

is accessible to JAVA programming using the Strand Avadis IManage data

management software. All data (images and extracted data as text files) are

available on cid.curie.fr, Project "Malaria parasite invasion in the mosquito

tissues" at https://cid.curie.fr/iManage/standard/login.html. The META data is

managed using OpenImadis https://strandls.github.io/openimadis/. Companion

scripts are available here:

https://github.com/PerrineGilloteaux/MalariaParasiteinMosquito.

The api documentation is available under API tab

https://cid.curie.fr/iManage/api/client/. The api client jar is available at

https://cid.curie.fr/iManage/standard/downloads.html.

Companion scripts include segmentation of parasites, nuclei and quantification

of intensities corrected by background was performed using a set of ImageJ

Plugins in Java. Analysis of the position of parasites relative to cell layer and

statistics are performed with MATLAB.

The data set was collected from 110 experiments including a total of 2,557

parasites (*As* - 45 midguts, 1,068 parasites; *Ag* - 34 midguts, 796 parasites;

and Ag^{Tep1KD} – 31 midguts, 693 parasites). There was no bias in the number of

parasites per midgut across different time points and mosquito species (S2

Fig). Furthermore, we found that infection levels (low, intermediate, or high) had

some effect on the result of parasite distribution, specifically in at low infection

levels (S3 Fig). Consequently, we used for our analysis only images that

contained at least 10 parasites per image.

Ethics statement

The animal work described in this study received agreement #E67-482-2 from

the veterinary services of the region Bas-Rhin, France (Direction

départementale des services vétérinaires).

Acknowledgments

GV, JŠ, JS and EAL thank M.E. Moritz and C. Kappler for help with the

mosquito colony and parasite cultures; and E. Marois for scientific discussions

and support. JeS and PPG acknowledge the Structure fédérative de recherche

santé François-Bonamy and the SERPICO team, are members of the national

infrastructure "France BioImaging". Authors thank A. Volohonsky for graphic

expertise.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: GV, EAL. Performed the

experiments: GV, JŠ, JuS. Analyzed the data: GV, PPG, JeS, EAL. Contributed

reagents/materials/analysis tools: PPG, JeS. Wrote the paper: GV, EAL.

References

1. WHO. WHO | World malaria report 2017. WHO. World Health

Organization; 2018.

2. Kiszewski A, Mellinger A, Spielman A, Malaney P, Sachs SE, Sachs J. A

global index representing the stability of malaria transmission. Am J Trop

Med Hyg. 2004; 70(5): 486–498.

3. Baton L, Ranford-Cartwright L. How do malaria ookinetes cross the

mosquito midgut wall? Trends Parasitol. 2005; 21(1): 22–28.

4. Sinden RE. Molecular interactions between *Plasmodium* and its insect

vectors. Cell Microbiol. 2002; 4(11): 713–724.

5. Blandin S, Levashina EA. Mosquito immune responses against malaria

parasites. Curr Opin Immunol. 2004; 16(1): 16–20.

6. Blandin SA, Marois E, Levashina EA. Antimalarial responses in

Anopheles gambiae: from a complement-like protein to a complement-

like pathway. Cell Host Microbe. 2008; 3(6): 364–374.

7. Blandin SA, Levashina EA. Phagocytosis in mosquito immune

responses. Immunol Rev. 2007; 219(1): 8–16.

8. Smith RC, Vega-Rodríguez J, Jacobs-Lorena M. The *Plasmodium*

bottleneck: malaria parasite losses in the mosquito vector. Mem Inst

Oswaldo Cruz. 2014; 109(5): 644–661.

9. Oliveira G de A, Lieberman J, Barillas-Mury C. Epithelial nitration by a

peroxidase/NOX5 system mediates mosquito antiplasmodial immunity.

Science. 2012; 335(6070): 856–859.

10.   Kumar S, Gupta L, Han YS, Barillas-Mury C. Inducible peroxidases

mediate nitration of anopheles midgut cells undergoing apoptosis in

response to *Plasmodium* invasion. J Biol Chem. 2004; 279(51): 53475–

53482.

11.   Fraiture M, Baxter RHG, Steinert S, Chelliah Y, Frolet C, Quispe-Tintaya

W, et al. Two mosquito LRR proteins function as complement control

factors in the TEP1-mediated killing of *Plasmodium*. Cell Host Microbe.

2009; 5(3): 273–284.

12.   Povelones M, Waterhouse RM, Kafatos FC, Christophides GK. Leucine-

rich repeat protein complex activates mosquito complement in defense

against *Plasmodium* parasites. Science. 2009; 324(5924): 258–261.

13.   Meis JFGM, Pool G, van Gemert GJ, Lensen AHW, Ponnudurai T,

Meuwissen JHET. *Plasmodium falciparum* ookinetes migrate

intercellularly through *Anopheles stephensi* midgut epithelium. Parasitol

Res. 1989; 76(1): 13–19.

14.   Vlachou D, Zimmermann T, Cantera R, Janse CJ, Waters AP, Kafatos

FC. Real-time, in vivo analysis of malaria ookinete locomotion and

mosquito midgut invasion. Cell Microbiol. 2004; 6(7): 671–685.

15.   Kan A, Tan Y-H, Angrisano F, Hanssen E, Rogers KL, Whitehead L, et

al. Quantitative analysis of *Plasmodium* ookinete motion in three

dimensions suggests a critical role for cell shape in the biomechanics of

malaria parasite gliding motility. Cell Microbiol. 2014; 16(5): 734–750.

16.   Beier JC. Malaria parasite development in mosquitoes. Annu Rev

Entomol. 1998; 43(1): 519–543.

17.   Alavi Y, Arai M, Mendoza J, Tufet-Bayona M, Sinha R, Fowler K, et al.

The dynamics of interactions between *Plasmodium* and the mosquito: a

study of the infectivity of *Plasmodium berghei* and *Plasmodium*

gallinaceum, and their transmission by *Anopheles stephensi, Anopheles*

gambiae and *Aedes aegypti*. Int J Parasitol. 2003; 33(9): 933–943.

18.   Nolan T, Petris E, Müller H-M, Cronin A, Catteruccia F, Crisanti A.

Analysis of two novel midgut-specific promoters driving transgene

expression in *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes. PLoS One. 2011; 6(2):

e16471.

19.   Magnusson K, Mendes AM, Windbichler N, Papathanos P-A, Nolan T,

Dottorini T, et al. Transcription regulation of sex-biased genes during

ontogeny in the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae*. PLoS One. 2011;

6(6): e21572.

20.   Graewe S, Retzlaff S, Struck N, Janse CJ, Heussler VT. Going live: A

comparative analysis of the suitability of the RFP derivatives RedStar,

mCherry and tdTomato for intravital and *in vitro* live imaging of

Plasmodium parasites. Biotechnol J. 2009; 4(6): 895–902.

21.   Neira Oviedo M, Vanekeris L, Corena-McLeod MDP, Linser PJ. A

microarray-based analysis of transcriptional compartmentalization in the

alimentary canal of *Anopheles gambiae* (Diptera: Culicidae) larvae.

Insect Mol Biol. 2008; 17(1): 61–72.

22.   MacCallum RM, Redmond SN, Christophides GK. An expression map for

Anopheles gambiae. BMC Genomics. 2011; 12(1): 620.

23.   Dong Y, Manfredini F, Dimopoulos G. Implication of the mosquito midgut

microbiota in the defense against malaria parasites. PLoS Pathog. 2009;

5(5): e1000423.

24.   Blandin S, Shiao S-H, Moita LF, Janse CJ, Waters AP, Kafatos FC, et al.

Complement-like protein TEP1 is a determinant of vectorial capacity in

the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae*. Cell. 2004; 116(5): 661–670.

25.   Frolet C, Thoma M, Blandin S, Hoffmann JA, Levashina EA. Boosting

NF-kappaB-dependent basal immunity of *Anopheles gambiae* aborts

development of *Plasmodium berghei*. Immunity. 2006; 25(4): 677–685.

26.   Okuda K, de Almeida F, Mortara RA, Krieger H, Marinotti O, Tania

Bijovsky A. Cell death and regeneration in the midgut of the mosquito,

Culex quinquefasciatus. J Insect Physiol. 2007;5 3(12): 1307–1315.

27.   Han YS, Thompson J, Kafatos FC, Barillas-Mury C. Molecular

interactions between *Anopheles stephensi* midgut cells and *Plasmodium*

berghei: the time bomb theory of ookinete invasion of mosquitoes. EMBO

J. 2000;1 9(22): 6030–6040.

28.   Liang H, Purucker WJ, Stenger DA, Kubiniec RT, Hui SW. Uptake of

fluorescence-labeled   dextrans   by   10T   1/2   fibroblasts   following

permeation by rectangular and exponential-decay electric field pulses.

Biotechniques. 1988; 6(6): 550–552, 554, 556–558.

29.   Volohonsky G, Terenzi O, Soichot J, Naujoks DA, Nolan T, Windbichler

N, et al. Tools for *Anopheles gambiae* Transgenesis. G3. 2015; 5(6):

1151–1163.

30.   Pompon J, Levashina EA. A New Role of the Mosquito Complement-like

Cascade in Male Fertility in *Anopheles gambiae*. PLoS Biol. 2015; 13(9):

e1002255.

31.   Volohonsky G, Hopp A-K, Saenger M, Soichot J, Scholze H, Boch J, et

al. Transgenic Expression of the Anti-parasitic Factor TEP1 in the Malaria

Mosquito *Anopheles gambiae*. PLoS Pathog. 2017; 13(1): e1006113.