1 A novel DNA-binding protein regulates sexual differentiation in malaria parasites and is
2 essential for transmission.
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ABSTRACT

Transmission of *Plasmodium falciparum* and other malaria parasites requires their differentiation

from asexual blood stages into gametocytes, the non-replicative sexual stage necessary for

transmission to the mosquito vector. This transition involves changes in gene expression and

chromatin reorganization mediating the activation and silencing of stage-specific genes.

However, the genomes of malaria parasites have been noted for their dearth of transcriptional and

chromatin regulators and the molecular mediators of these changes remain largely unknown. We

recently identified HomeoDomain Protein 1 (HDP1) as a novel chromatin-associated DNA-

binding protein that drives changes in chromatin structure and gene expression during early sexual

differentiation. The discovery of a homeodomain-like DNA-binding protein marks a new class of

transcriptional regulator in malaria parasites outside of the better-characterized ApiAP2 family.

In this study, we demonstrate that HDP1 is required for gametocyte maturation and parasite

transmission by facilitating the necessary upregulation of inner membrane complex components

in early gametocytes.

INTRODUCTION

In order to complete its life cycle, *Plasmodium falciparum*, the most widespread and virulent of the human malaria parasites, must repeatedly differentiate into unique cell types that are able to access and exploit specialized niches within their human and mosquito hosts. One of these key developmental transitions occurs during the parasite's blood stage. Asexual blood-stages maintain a persistent infection through continuous lytic replication within erythrocytes but are not infectious to the mosquito vector, and therefore cannot mediate transmission to the next human host. This requires their differentiation into non-replicating, male and female gametocytes that are able to infect the mosquito once taken up during a blood meal. All differentiation requires the repression and activation of genes that underlie the specific phenotypes of the origin and destination cell types, respectively. To ensure complete commitment to one cell type or another, these transitions are often involve a bistable switch that controls the activity of a single master regulator at the top of the transcriptional cascade that underlies the differentiation program (*1-4*). Once activated, the master regulator then initiates the broader downstream changes in gene expression by altering the expression of additional transcriptional regulators and changing their access to cell type-specific promoters via chromatin re-organization.

Recent work has found that this paradigm also applies in malaria parasites, where the initiation of sexual differentiation is controlled by bistable expression of a master regulator, the transcription factor AP2-G (*5, 6*). During asexual replication the *ap2-g* locus is silenced by heterochromatin (*5, 7, 8*) but, due to the presence of AP2-G binding sites within its own promoter region, incomplete repression of *ap2-g* in individual cells can trigger a transcriptional feedback loop that drives AP2-G expression to high levels, thereby locking cells into activating the sexual differentiation gene expression program (*5, 9, 10*). Under conditions that impair heterochromatin maintenance, this feedback loop is activated in a larger fraction of cells, thereby increasing the frequency of sexual differentiation (*8, 11, 12*).

Commitment to the sexual differentiation program also triggers a substantial re-distribution of heterochromatin during the early stages of gametocyte development (*13, 14*). These changes involve substantial expansion of sub-telomeric heterochromatin domains on several chromosomes to silence asexual blood-stage specific genes. One such example is a cluster of genes on chromosome 2 that are required for trafficking of PfEMP1, a parasite-encoded adhesin on the erythrocyte surface that is critical for immune evasion in asexually-replicating parasites but not expressed in gametocytes (*15*). Conversely, heterochromatin is lost from several loci that

were previously silenced in asexual stages but upregulated during early gametocyte development (*13*, *14*). While AP2-G is critical for the initiation of sexual differentiation, it is expressed only during a small window that begins with sexually committed schizonts and ends after the first 48 hours of gametocyte development (*10*, *16*). This means that the many of changes in gene expression during the 12-14 days process of gametocyte development are regulated by additional waves of transcriptional regulators and is consistent with the our previous observations that AP2-G upregulates a number of putative transcription factors and chromatin remodeling enzymes (*9*, *10*).

While most species of malaria parasites form spherical gametocytes that mature in 2-6 days, sexual differentiation in *P. falciparum* takes substantially longer, 12-14 days, and produces gametocytes with the characteristic falciform morphology that give the parasite its name. Unsurprisingly, this prolonged gametocyte maturation is accompanied by a wide array of gene expression changes (*17-20*). However, relatively little is known about the transcriptional regulators downstream of AP2-G that mediate these changes. Compared to other single-celled eukaryotes, DNA-binding proteins are notable underrepresented in the genomes of malaria parasites (*21*). Like AP2-G, most belong to the ApiAP2 family (*21*), but only a small number have been shown to function specifically during gametocyte development of *P. falciparum* (*22*). In the rodent malaria parasite *P. berghei*, PbAP2-G2 functions as a transcriptional repressor of asexual-specific gene expression (*6*, *23*), while PbAP2-FG (PyAP2-G3 in *P. yoelii*) was shown to mediate upregulation of female-specific transcripts (*24*, *25*) but whether these functions are conserved in *P. falciparum* remains to be determined.

In this study, we identify HDP1, a previously uncharacterized DNA-binding protein that is first expressed during early sexual differentiation. Parasites lacking HDP1 are unable to upregulate genes required for the expansion of the inner membrane complex and fail to progress beyond the day 3 of gametocyte development. Additionally, loss of HDP1 expression results in an increase in chromatin accessibility, reduced telomere clustering, and leaky transcription of heterochromatin-associated genes in early gametocytes. Our findings indicate that HDP1 is an essential regulator of gene expression and chromatin during early gametocytogenesis.

RESULTS

hdp1 is essential for gametocyte development.

Searching for possible regulators of gene expression during *P. falciparum* sexual differentiation, we identified HomeoDomain-like Protein 1 *(hdp1, PF3D7_1466200)* encoding a 3078 amino acid protein with a C-terminal homeodomain-like domain, containing a helix-turn-helix structural motif commonly involved in DNA binding (fig. S1A) (*26*). Syntenic orthologs of *hdp1* could be readily identified in other malaria parasites with homology to the homeodomain-like domain extending to the coccidia but apparently absent from other apicomplexan clades (fig. S1B). Analysis of *hdp1* expression in *P. falciparum* blood stages by qRT-PCR detected only minimal expression in cultures of asexual blood stages (which always contain smalls number of gametocytes) with substantial upregulation during the early stages of gametocytogenesis (fig. S1C). AP2-G, the transcriptional master switch that controls the initiation of the sexual differentiation gene expression program (*5*, *9*, *10*, *27*), binds at two sites located upstream of *hdp1* in early gametocytes (*10*), consistent with our hypothesis that AP2-G activates additional regulators of gene expression during early gametocytogenesis.

In an effort to determine HDP1's subcellular localization, we inserted an in-frame N-terminal HaloTag at the endogenous *hdp1* locus (fig. S2A) in order to avoid possible interference with the predicted DNA-binding domain (DBD) located at the very C-terminus. As expected based on transcript abundance, no Halo-tagged protein was detected in asexual stages. However, when we attempted to determine Halo-HDP1 levels in the sexual stages, we found that *halo-hdp1* cultures were unable to produce the characteristic crescent shapes of maturing *P. falciparum* gametocytes (Fig. 1A-B). Subsequent tagging at the HDP1 C-terminus with either GFP or a triple Ty1 epitope tag (*hdp1-gfp* and *hdp1-Ty1*, fig. S2B-C), yielded parasite lines that produce gametocytes indistinguishable in numbers and morphology from the wildtype parent (Fig. 1A-B), despite the proximity to the putative DNA-binding domain. To test whether N-terminal tagging resulted in a loss of HDP1 function, we generated a Δ*hdp1* knockout line for comparison by replacing 1.4 kb at the 5' end of the *hdp1* locus with a selectable marker cassette (fig. S2D). The resulting Δ*hdp1* parasites exhibited no discernible change in phenotype in asexual blood-stages, but like the *halo-hdp1* parasites, were unable to form viable mature gametocytes (Fig. 1D-F). More detailed analyses using synchronous induction of gametocytogenesis found that both *halo-hdp1* and Δ*hdp1* have sexual commitment rates comparable to the NF54 parent (fig. S3) but are unable to complete gametocyte development (Fig. 1A-C).

As the substantial length of the *hdp1* coding sequence made genetic complementation infeasible, we generated inducible HDP1 knockdown parasites by inserting a triple Ty1 epitope tag followed by the autocatalytic *glmS* ribozyme at the 3' end of the endogenous *hdp1* coding sequence through genome editing (*hdp1-glmS,* fig. S2E) (*28*). In the absence of glucosamine, the resulting *hdp1-glmS* gametocytes expressed HDP1 protein at levels comparable to *hdp1-Ty1* parasites lacking the ribozyme and produced wild-type gametocytes in terms of number and morphology (fig. S4). Supplementation of the culture medium with 5 mM glucosamine during the first 5 days of gametocyte development had no discernible effect on *hdp1-Ty1* parasites but diminished HDP1 expression by 70% and reduced the number of falciform gametocytes by 80% in *hdp1-glmS* parasites, recapitulating the phenotype of the *halo-hdp1* and *Δhdp1* lines (Fig. 1G-H). Since *hdp1* transcript levels remain relatively constant during gametocyte development (fig. S1C), we wanted to test whether *hdp1* transcripts were required throughout gametocyte maturation. Knockdown of *hdp1* levels with glucosamine reduced gametocyte maturation prior to day 5 but not thereafter, indicating that sufficient HDP1 protein had been produced by that time to support gametocyte maturation (fig. S4).

HDP1 is a chromatin-associated nuclear protein in gametocytes that recognizes a GC-rich DNA motif as a dimer. An earlier study had reported a variety of subcellular localizations based on antibodies raised against a low-complexity region of HDP1 (fig. S1A), including export to the erythrocyte membrane of early gametocytes (*29*). This was surprising given the absence of a signal peptide, the presence of two predicted nuclear localization signals (fig. S1A), and localization of the *Toxoplasma gondii* ortholog to the nucleus of tachyzoites (fig. S5). To resolve this apparent disagreement, we carried out live-cell and immunofluorescence microscopy of *hdp1-gfp* and *hdp1-Ty1* gametocytes, respectively. In both lines, HDP1 localized exclusively to the gametocyte nucleus (Fig. 2A-B) and we were unable to replicate the localization(s) described in the earlier study. Unfortunately, according to the corresponding author the antisera used in that study are no longer available, precluding a direct comparison. HDP1 protein was undetectable in asexual blood stages by both microscopy and western blotting (fig. S6, Fig. 2C) but showed increasing expression from day 2 of gametocytogenesis (Stage I-II) onward, reaching maximal levels by day 5 (Stage III) before dropping again by day 8 (Stage IV) (Fig. 2C). Analysis of subcellular fractions from day 5 *hdp1-Ty1* gametocytes found HDP1 almost exclusively in the nuclear fraction, with about 70% resistant to solubilization by up to 600 mM NaCl, indicating a tight association with chromatin (Fig. 2D) and validating HDP1 as a nuclear protein.

Since HDP1 is an integral component of chromatin and homeo-like domains typically mediate protein-DNA interactions, we evaluated HDP1's ability to bind DNA using a protein-binding microarray (PBM). Binding of recombinant HDP1 DBD was highly enriched on probes containing the palindromic hexamer GTGCAC (Fig. 2E, fig. S7A-C). Since homeo-domains generally recognize DNA as dimers (*26, 30*), we carried out isothermal titration calorimetry to measure the interaction of HDP1 with double-stranded DNA containing a tandem motif with a 5 bp spacer that places the motifs one helical turn apart. The results found that binding saturated at a 2:1 protein to DNA molar ratio with a dissociation constant of 2.8 μM, indicating that DNA recognition by the HDP1 DBD also occurs as a dimer (Fig. 2F). We subsequently confirmed dimeric binding using DNA gel-shift assays with double-stranded DNA probes containing either no match, a single binding-motif, or a tandem motif. When compared to the tandem-motif probe, the gel-shift of the single motif probe was substantially weaker but identical in size (Fig. 2G), again consistent with DNA recognition as a dimer even when only a single motif is present. Intriguingly, a scan of the 3D7 reference genome for instances of GTGCAC tandem motifs with a 5-6 bp spacer found them exclusively located at each chromosome end with the first tandem located within either 7 or 28 bp of the ultimate *rep20* sub-telomeric repeats (*31*), with the exception of those ends where this region was deleted as the result of telomere healing events (*32*) (fig. S7D, Data Set 1A). Earlier work had predicted these conserved sequences to be subset of motifs recognized by the ApiAP2-domain protein SIP2 in asexual blood stages based on its binding preference *in vitro* (*33*), however, their unique spacing and palindromic nature clearly distinguishes these symmetrical GTGCACCnnnGGTGCAC tandem motifs from the arrays of asymetrical GTGCAnnnnGGTGCG SIP2-binding sites further downstream. While the functional role of these motifs in asexual and sexual blood stages remains unclear, their exclusive localization at chromosome ends is highly conserved across *P. falciparum* isolates of diverse geographic origins (Data Set 1B).

Loss of HDP1 leads to dysregulation of gene expression in early gametocytes.

Based on HDP1's ability to bind DNA, we wanted to test whether it plays a role in the regulation of gene expression during early gametocytogenesis. In order to identify changes in expression that may account for the aberrant development of Δ*hdp1* gametocytes rather than looking at the consequences of the loss in viability that occurs in Δhdp1 gametocytes, we decided to analyze the transcriptome of Δ*hdp1* and parental NF54 on Day 2, when HDP1 is first detectable in wild-type gametocytes but before any change in viability or morphology occurs in Δhdp1 gametocytes. (Fig. 1D, fig. S3B). Global comparison of transcript abundances found that the majority of genes were

expressed at similar levels, including canonical markers of very early gametocytes such as *pfs16*

and *gexp5* (Fig. 3A). This confirms our earlier observation that HDP1-deficient parasites initiate

gametocyte development at similar rates and that changes in gene expression are not due to

change in viability at that point. However, we observed reduced transcript levels for 188 genes

and increased levels for 150 genes in Δ*hdp1* Stage I gametocytes compared to those of the NF54

parent line. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) found that transcripts encoding components of

the inner membrane complex were significantly down-regulated (Fig. 3B) while transcripts from

heterochromatin-associated multi-copy gene families were significantly over-represented among

up-regulated genes (Fig. 3C), including members of the *var*, *rifin*, *stevor*, and *PHISTa/b/c* gene

families (Fig. 3D, fig. S8A-B). While fold-changes for these genes could be substantial, the

absolute increase in transcripts for these genes was generally small but nevertheless significantly

above their levels in wild-type cells (Data Set 2), suggesting a possible impairment of that

heterochromatin-mediated silencing leading to leaky background transcription but not full

transcriptional activation. Several of these heterochromatin-regulated families exhibit

transcriptional variation due to expression switching between members but this does not lead to

a broad upregulation across all family members as observed here. Comparison of transcript levels

of *var* and *rifin* family genes found similar levels of upregulation regardless of whether these

were located in subtelomeric or non-subtelomeric regions of heterochromatin (fig. S8C). Analysis

of *var* gene expression in asexual Δ*hdp1* ring-stages found expression of a single major *var* gene

as expected for a recently cloned parasite line and indicating that mutually exclusive *var* gene

expression remained unaffected in asexual blood stages (fig. S8D).

HDP1 is required for extension of the inner membrane complex in early gametocytes.

Among the genes with reduced transcript levels in HDP1 knockout parasites, those associated

with the inner membrane complex were substantially enriched (Fig. 3A-B, Fig. 4A). This was

notable since Δ*hdp1* gametocytes fail to elongate from spherical stage I gametocytes into the

oblong Stage II, a process that depends on the extension of the inner membrane complex. Six

separate inner membrane complex genes were confirmed by qRT-PCR to have greater than 2-

fold lower transcript levels in HDP1 knockout gametocytes (Fig. 4B). These included PhIL1 and

the PhIL1-interacting protein 1 (PIP1), both of which are highly upregulated in early *P.*

falciparum gametocytes and essential for assembly of the inner membrane complex and

gametocyte maturation (*34*). Strikingly, the spherical morphology of *hdp1*-deficient gametocytes

perfectly resembles the phenotype of gametocytes of PhIL1 knockdown parasites. Comparison of

PhIL1 protein levels showed a 75% percent reduction in Δ*hdp1* gametocytes compared levels in

the wild-type parent while other proteins remained unchanged (Fig. 4C). This concomitant

reduction in PhIL1 expression (Fig. 4D) and inner membrane complex extension (Fig. 4E) when

HDP1 is knocked down gametocytes confirmed the dependence of PhIL1 expression and inner

membrane complex extension on HDP1.

Loss of HDP1 increases chromatin accessibility and decreases telomeric clustering.

Since our experiments clearly showed that HDP1 can bind DNA and is tightly associated with

nuclear chromatin (Fig. 2), we set out to determine where in the genome HDP1 is binding by

chromatin immunoprecipitations sequencing. However, numerous attempts at HDP1 ChIP-seq

with both the GFP- and Ty1-tagged lines were unsuccessful in multiple labs (see Materials and

Methods for details). As an alternative approach to detect altercation in chromatin organization,

we used high-throughput chromatin-conformation capture (Hi-C) to look for differences in

chromatin organization of day 2 gametocytes between the NF54 and Δ*hdp1* lines. Correlation

analysis of Hi-C replicates indicated a clear difference between these lines (Fig. 5A), genome-

wide intra-chromosomal interactions appeared largely unchanged (fig. S9). However, further

statistical analysis revealed an overall reduction in long distance interactions in Δ*hdp1* (Fig. 5B).

Genome-wide mapping of interaction changes revealed a substantial reduction in interaction

frequency between nearly all chromosomes ends (Fig. 5C), consistent with reduced but not

abrogated telomere clustering. When combined with our observation of leaky transcription of

heterochromatin associated genes located at these sites, this reduction in telomeric clustering led

us to ask whether chromatin compaction is impaired in HDP1-deficient gametocytes, leading to

an increase in chromatin accessibility. Indeed, brief treatment with micrococcal nuclease (MNase)

revealed accelerated digestion of chromatin from Δ*hdp1* gametocytes (Fig. 5D), consistent with

an increase in chromatin accessibility.

DISCUSSION

Our understanding of the regulatory machinery that underlies sexual differentiation in *P.*

falciparum has improved substantially in recent years. Much of this work has focused on the

regulation of AP2-G, the master switch of this developmental decision. However, it is becoming

clear that the role of AP2-G is constrained to the initiation of the transcriptional program that

drives the nearly two week-long process of gametocyte development (*16*). This suggests that a

second wave of hitherto unknown transcriptional regulators is required to drive gametocyte-

specific gene expression during early gametocyte development.

In this study, we showed that HDP1 is a nuclear DNA-binding protein that functions as regulator of gene expression in early gametocytes and is essential for their development. In particular, HDP1 regulates the expression of genes, like *phil1* and *pip1/2*, that drive the expansion of the inner membrane complex to give *P. falciparum* gametocytes their characteristic crescent shape. While its expression is gametocyte-specific in *P. falciparum,* the *P. berghei* ortholog (PBANKA_1329600) may also have a role during asexual blood-stage replication as its disruption leads to significant reduction in growth (*35*). This suggests that the gametocyte-specific function of HDP1 evolved more recently in the Laveranian clade of malaria parasites which uniquely produce falciform gametocytes. While essential during early gametocyte development, whether HDP1 is required in other parasite stages remains to be determined. Since the knockdown system used in this study regulates expression at the transcript level, we can infer that additional translation of HDP1 is not required during the later stages of gametocyte maturation but HDP1 protein expressed during the earlier stages of gametocytogenesis may still be required during the later stages. Previous transcriptomic studies indicate that HDP1 is also expressed in ookinetes, suggesting a role even after mating in the mosquito midgut. Intriguingly, homeodomain-like proteins have been implicated in mating processes of other haploid protozoa, such as Dictyostelium (*36*).

Our experiments clearly show that HDP1 has the ability to bind DNA and is an integral component of chromatin in gametocytes (Fig. 2), but chromatin immuno-precipitation remained unsuccessful, despite exhaustive attempts (see Materials and Methods for details). One likely explanation is that the C-terminal tags are not accessible to antibodies when HDP1 is component of chromatin. This explains why chromatin immunoprecipitation of HDP1 with has been unsuccessful, as well as the diffuse nuclear localization we observed (Fig. 2A-B). Unfortunately, N-terminal tagging of HDP1 is not a viable alternative as it results in loss of function (Fig. 1). Another possibility is that HDP1 resides in a fraction of chromatin that is especially difficult to solubilize, which has been shown to lead to incomplete recovery of chromatin under standard ChIP conditions (*37*).

Parasites lacking HDP1 exhibit defects in efficient heterochromatin-mediated gene silencing during early sexual differentiation that manifests as a low but significant up-regulation across a wide array of heterochromatin-associated gene families (Fig. 3), reduced clustering of the sub-telomeric heterochromatin regions (Fig. 5C) in the nuclear periphery, and greater chromatin accessibility (Fig. 5D). One explanation is that HDP1 promotes chromatin packaging in early

gametocytes, leading to the overall increase in chromatin accessibility observed in HDP1-deficient cells. This would also explain the leaky expression of heterochromatin-associated genes as efficient silencing depends on limiting promoter accessibility while the promoters of euchromatin-associated genes are already generally accessible and therefore a reduction in packaging would therefore be predicted to have little impact on their transcript levels.

Additional studies will focus on identifying interaction partners of HDP1 and elucidating its structure-function relationship. Only 2% of its protein sequence is comprised of the homeodomain-like DNA-binding domain while the remainder contains no other identifiable domains and conservation is generally weak outside this region. The fact that insertion of a large tag at the N-terminus results in loss of function indicates that critical interactions occur in this region, but which other regions are essential for HDP1's function remains unclear. Similarly, identifying interactions with other nuclear proteins and genomic locations will offer important insights into its function. Of particular interest will be whether HDP1 regulates gene expression by altering chromatin structure or is more directly involved in the recruitment of RNA polymerase II.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Parasite culture

Unless otherwise noted, *P. falciparum* parasites were grown in 0.5% AlbuMAX II supplemented malaria complete medium using stablished cell culture techniques (*38*) at 3% hematocrit and below 3% parasitemia. Strains expressing selectable markers were maintained under constant drug-selection. Toxoplasma tachyzoites were cultured as described in (*39*).

Gametocyte induction and isolation

Gametocytes were induced synchronously as previously described in (*9*). Gametocyte maturation was monitored by Giemsa-stained thin blood smears and gametocytemia was counted on the fifth day of development. The sexual commitment rate was calculated by dividing the day 5 gametocytemia by the day 1 parasitemia, counted before addition of N-acetyl-D-glucosamine. For knockdown experiments in the HDP1-glmS line, at the gametoring stage either 5 mM glucosamine or solvent control was added. Gametocytes were purified from culture at the required development stage using magnetic columns (LS columns, Miltenyi Biotec).

Generation of transgenic strains

Transfection of ring-stage parasites were performed as previously described (*40*). Genome editing was performed by CRISR/Cas9 technology using the system described by (*41*). The pL6-DX2 plasmid flanking homology region were PCR amplified using Advantage Genomic LA polymerase (Takara) from NF54 genomic DNA (for list of primers, see Supplementary Table) and cloned into the *AflII* and *SpeI* sites by Gibson assembly. *Plasmodium* codon optimized sequences for HALO-tag and triple Ty1 epitope tag were synthetized as gene-Blocks (Genewiz). The absence of undesired mutations in the homology regions and the sgRNA was confirmed by Sanger sequencing. Genomic DNA from transfectant parasites was isolated with QIAamp DNA blood Kit (Qiagen, Cat. Nº 51106) and diagnostic PCR's were set using Taq phusion DNA polymerase (Invitrogen). The TGME49_233160-HA parasite line was generated as part of an earlier study by tagging of the endogenous locus in the *T. gondii* RH-ku80ko strain as described in (*39*).

Flow cytometric analysis of gametocyte viability

Gametocytes were stained with 16 µM Hoechst33342 and 50 nM DilC1 for 30 minutes at 37˚C. Using a Cytek DxP12 flow cytometer, gametocytemia was determined by gating for DNA-

positive cells and gametocyte viability was inferred based on mitochondrial membrane potential dependent accumulation of DilC1(5) for 1000 gametocytes (*42*). Analysis was carried out using FlowJo 10. The gating strategy is shown in fig. S10.

Nuclear extract preparation and chromatin high salt fractionation

Nuclear isolation and extraction was carried out based on (*43*), with minor modifications. Briefly, parasites released from RBC's by saponin treatment (0.01%) were lysed with ice-chilled CLB (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.9; 10 mM KCl; 1mM EDTA, pH 8.0; 1 mM EGTA, pH 8.0; 0.65% NP-40; 1 mM DTT, 1x Roche Complete protease inhibitors cocktail). Nuclei were pelleted at 3,000 x *g* for 20min at 4°C and cytoplasmic fraction was removed. Nuclei were resuspended in digestion buffer (20 mM Tris- HCl, pH 7.5, 15 mM NaCl, 60 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl$_2$, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 300 mM sucrose, 0.4% NP-40, 1 mM DTT, 1x Roche Complete protease inhibitors cocktail EDTA-free) and treated with 5U of micrococcal nuclease (ThermoFisher, Cat. N° 88216) for 30 min in a water bath at 37°C. Soluble and insoluble nuclear fractions were recovered by centrifugation at 3,000 x *g* for 10 min at 4° C. Insoluble nuclear fraction were treated with salt fractionation buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4; 2 mM MgCl$_2$; 2 mM EGTA pH 8.0; 0.1% Triton X-100; 0.1 mM PMSF; 1x Roche Complete protease inhibitors cocktail) supplemented with increasing NaCl concentrations (80-600 mM) while rotating at 4°C for 30 min. All supernatants were recovered by centrifugation at 700 x *g* for 4 min at 4°C and last remaining pellet was resuspended in 1x PBS supplemented with protease inhibitors cocktail. 5% of each fraction was prepared for Western blotting in order to check quality of fractionation.

Micrococcal nuclease digestion

Day 2 gametocytes were isolated magnetically and crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde then lysed with hypotonic lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 3 mM MgCl$_2$; 0.2% NP-40; 1 mM DTT and 1x Roche Complete protease inhibitors cocktail). Mechanical lysis was enhanced by passing the suspension ten times through a 26 G 1/2 needle. Nuclei were pelleted at 3,000 x *g* for 20 min at 4°C and cytoplasmic fraction was removed. Nuclei were resuspended in MNase buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 5 mM CaCl$_2$; 0.4% NP-40) and 1U of MNase (ThermoFisher) was added. Digestion was carried for 5 min at 37°C and was stopped by adding 20mM EGTA pH 8.0. Soluble and insoluble fractions were recovered by centrifugation at 3,000 x *g* for 10 min at 4°C. Samples were decrosslinked and deproteinized by adding 0.1% SDS and 100ug/ml of Proteinase K (Roche,) and incubated for 1 hour at 50°C. DNA was isolated through standard phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol extraction.

Immunoblotting

For SDS-PAGE, total protein lysates were prepared using saponin-lysed parasites resuspended with 1x Laemmli loading buffer diluted in 1x PBS supplemented with 1x Roche Complete protease inhibitors cocktail. Protein samples were separated in 4-15% polyacrylamide gels and transferred to 0.2 μm Immobilion-P^{SQ} transfer membrane (Millipore, Cat. No ISEQ00010) using a Bio-Rad transfer system. Membranes were blocked in 5% skim milk/1x TBS-Tween20 for 1 hour at RT. Primary and secondary antibodies were prepared in 3% skim milk/1x TBS-Tween20 and incubated for 1 hour at RT. Membranes were washed four times with 1x TBS-Tween20 for 10 min, after primary and secondary antibody incubations. The following primary antibodies were used in this study: Anti-Ty1 BB2 mouse (1:2,500; Invitrogen Cat. N° MA5-23513), anti-PhIL1 rabbit (1:5,000 (*44*)), anti-PfHsp70 rabbit (1:5,000; StreesMarq Biosciences Cat. N° SPC-186D), anti-Histone 4 rabbit (1:2,000; Diagenode Cat. N° C15410156-50). HRP-conjugated anti-mouse and anti-rabbit antibodies were used (1:5,000, Millipore). Immunoblots were incubated with the chemiluminescent substrate SuperSignal West Pico PLUS (ThermoFisher, Cat. N° 34578) following manufacturer directions. Chemiluminescent images were obtained using an Azure c300 digital imaging system (Azure Biosystems).

Live-cell and Immunofluorescence microscopy

For live-cell microscopy of *hdp1-gfp* and NF54 blood stages, infected red blood cells were stained with 16 μM Hoechst33342 in incomplete media for 15 min at 37° C and imaged with identical exposure settings at 1000× magnification using a Leica DMI6000 microscope with differential interference contrast bright field optics, DAPI, and GFP filter cubes. For immunofluorescence microscopy of *hdp1-Ty1* and *hdp1-glmS* gametocytes, cells were immobilized on glass slides with Concanavalin A (5 mg/ml; Sigma) as described in (*45*), then fixed with a solution of 4% paraformaldehyde/0.0075% glutaraldehyde for 20 min at 37° C. Parasites were permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 for 15 min at RT followed by blocking with 3% BSA. Primary antibodies (anti-Ty1 BB2 mouse 1:1,000; anti-PhiL1 rabbit 1:400) were allowed to bind for 1 hour in 3% BSA/PBS followed by three washes with blocking buffer for 5 min. Secondary antibodies were diluted at 1:500 (anti-mouse-Alexa546 and anti-rabbit-Alexa488, Invitrogen) in fresh blocking buffer containing 16 μM Hoechst 33342 and incubated for 1 hour. Z-stacks of stained specimens were collected at 1000× magnification using a Leica DMI6000 microscope with differential interference contrast bright field optics, DAPI, and RFP filter cubes with identical exposure times. Fluorescent channel z-stacks were deconvolved using the ImageJ DeconvolutionLab2 plugin (NLLS algorithm) followed by maximum intensity z-projection and background adjustment.

Immunofluorescence microscopy of Toxoplasma tachyzoites was carried out as previously described (*39*).

Protein Expression and Purification

Expression of recombinant HDP1-DBD motif was done using the Glutathione S-transferase (GST) gene fusion system (GE Healthcare). The pGEX-4T-1 plasmid was used as backbone for cloning the codon optimized sequence comprising the last 87aa of HDP1. Plasmid pGEX-GST-HDP1-DBD was transformed into BL21 (DE3) competent *E. coli* strain (NEB) and protein expression was done following the manufacturer directions with some modifications. Briefly, an overnight culture was inoculated with one bacterial colony in 2x YT media supplemented with the corresponding antibiotic. Next day, culture was diluted 1:100 with fresh media and kept at 30º C with vigorous agitation. Bacterial growth was monitored until culture reach exponential phase. At this point, IPTG (1 mM final concentration) was added and the culture was kept for another 2 hours at 30º C with vigorous agitation. Cells were harvested and resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 100 mM NaCl; 1 mM DTT; 5% Glycerol; 1 mM PMSF; 1 mM EDTA; 1x protease inhibitors cocktail) supplemented with Lysozyme (1mg/ml, Sigma). In order to remove bacterial DNA from our putative DNA binding protein, lysate was treated with polyethyleneimine (PEI) (0.1% v/v) (*46*). Lysate was sonicated, cleared by centrifugation at 14,000 x g for 30 min at 4º C. Protein extract was recovered and GST-HDP1-DBD protein was purified using Pierce GST Spin purification kit (Cat. Nº 16106) following manufacturer directions. Protein of interest was dialyzed using Slide-A-Lyzer Dialysis Cassette 10,000 MWCO (ThermoScientific, Cat. Nº 66810) and concentrated using Amicon Ultra Centrifugal filters 10,000 MWCO (Millipore, Cat. Nº UFC901024). Purity was verified by Coomassie staining after SDS-PAGE and concentration was measured by Bradford assay.

Protein Binding Microarray

GST-HDP1-DBD binding was analyzed twice on Protein Binding Microarrays (PBMs) as previously described (*47, 48*). In this study two different universal PBM arrays (Agilent AMADIDs 016060 v9 and AMADID 015681 v11) were used covering all contiguous 8-mers, as well as gapped 8-mers spanning up to 10 positions. Binding of purified GST-HDP1-DBD fusion proteins was visualized on the PBMs using Alexa-488 conjugated anti-GST antibody. Data analysis was carried out using the PBM analysis software suite downloaded from http://thebrain.bwh.harvard.edu/PBMAnalysisSuite/index.html.   Following   normalization, enrichment scores were calculated and the "Seed-and-Wobble" algorithm was applied to the

combined data to generate position weight matrices (PWMs). An enrichment score cut-off of 0.45

was used to separate high affinity binding from non-specific and low affinity binding. Secondary

motifs were identified by running the "rerank" program until E-scores below 0.45 were obtained.

Isothermal Titration Calorimetry

Sequence encoding HDP1 aa2991-3078 were cloned into the MCS1 of the pRSFDuet-1 vector

(Novagen) engineered with an N-terminal His-SUMO tag. The proteins were expressed in *E. coli*

strain BL21 CodonPlus (DE3)-RIL (Stratagene). Bacteria were grown in Luria-Bertani medium

at 37°C to OD600=0.8 and induced with 0.4 mM IPTG at 18°C overnight. Cells were collected

via centrifugation at 5000×g and lysed via sonication in Lysis Buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0;

500 mM NaCl; 20 mM imidazole, and 5% Glycerol) supplemented with 1 mM

phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride and 0.5% Triton X-100. Cellular debris was removed by

centrifugation at 20,000×g, and the supernatant was loaded onto 5 ml HisTrap FF column (GE

Healthcare) and eluted using the lysis buffer supplemented with 500 mM imidazole. The elution

was dialyzed at 4°C overnight against the buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 20

mM imidazole, and 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol) with ULP1 protease added (lab stock). The sample

was reloaded on the HisTrap FF column to remove the His-SUMO tag. The flow-through was

loaded on the Heparin column (GE Healthcare) and eluted with a gradient of NaCl from 300 mM

to 1 M. The target protein was further purified by size exclusion chromatography (Superdex 200

[16/60], GE Healthcare) in the buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 200 mM NaCl; 1 mM MgCl$_2$;

and 1 mM DTT). The high purity eluting fractions were detected by SDS-PAGE and concentrated

to around 20 mg/ml. The protein was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

All the binding experiments were performed on a Microcal ITC 200 calorimeter. Purified HDP1-

DBD proteins were dialyzed overnight against the buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl,

1 mM DTT) at 4°C. DNA oligos were synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) and

dissolved in the same buffer. The assays perform with 1 mM DNA duplexes containing the

tandem motif (TA<u>GTGCAC</u>CTATG<u>GTGCAC</u>TT) with 0.1 mM HDP1-DBD proteins. Each

reaction's exothermic heat was measured by sequential injection of the 2 μL DNA duplexes into

proteins solution, spaced at intervals of 180 seconds. The titration was according to standard

protocol at 20°C and the data were fitted using the program Origin 7.0.

Gel-shift Assays

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays were performed using Light Shift EMSA kits (Thermo Scientific) using 24 pg of protein and 40 fmol of probe, as previously described (*49*). Biotinylated double-stranded were synthesized probes (ThermoFisher) with the indicated sequence.

RNA Extraction, cDNA synthesis, and quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA from saponin-lysed parasites was extracted using Trizol (Invitgrogen) and Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep Plus kit (Zymo Research). The cDNA was prepared from 100-500ng total RNA (pre-treated with 2U DNase I, amplification grade) using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase kit (Invitrogen) and random hexamers. Quantitative PCR was performed on the Quant Studio 6 Flex (Thermo Fisher) using iTaq Sybr Green (Bio-Rad) with specific primers for selected target genes (Table). Quantities were normalized to seryl-tRNA synthetase (PF3D7_0717700). Analysis of expression of the *var* gene family was performed by using the primer set described in Salanti et al. 2003 (*50*).

RNA sequencing

Following gametocyte induction, highly synchronous cultures containing committed schizonts were added to fresh RBCs and allowed to reinvade for 12 hours prior to the addition of 50 mM N-acetyl glucosamine to block the development of hemozoin-containing asexual trophozoites. On day 2 of gametocyte development, stage I gametocytes were purified magnetically, and total RNA was extracted as described above. Following RNA isolation, total RNA integrity was checked using a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). RNA concentrations were measured using the NanoDrop system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA). Preparation of RNA sample library and RNA-seq were performed by the Genomics Core Laboratory at Weill Cornell Medicine. rRNA was removed from Total RNA using Illumina Ribo Zero Gold for human/mouse/rat kit. Using Illumina TruSeq RNA Sample Library Preparation v2 kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA), Messenger RNA was fragmented into small pieces using divalent cations under elevated temperature. The cleaved RNA fragments were copied into first strand cDNA using reverse transcriptase and random primers. Second strand cDNA synthesis followed, using DNA Polymerase I and RNase H. The cDNA fragments then went through an end repair process, the addition of a single 'A' base, and then ligation of the adapters. The products were then purified and enriched with PCR to create the final cDNA library. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on Illumina HiSeq4000 sequencer with single-end 50 cycles. Read files were checked for quality by using FASTQC v0.11.5 (https://github.com/s-andrews/FastQC). Reads were

trimmed to remove low-quality positions and adapter sequences using cutadapt (version 1.16) (*51*). Reads were mapped against the *P. falciparum* 3D7 reference genome v40 (*52*) using STAR aligner (version 2.61) (*53*) and nuclear-encoded genes were analyzed for differential gene expression using cufflinks (version 2.2.1) (*54*). Genes with a false discovery rate of <=0.05 with a mean FPKM >5 in at least one strain were called significant. For genes with FPKM > 5 in one strain and no detectable expression in the other, FKPM values were set to 0.1 for purposes of fold-change calculation. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis was carried out with the FGSEA v1.16.0 Bioconductor v 3.12 package (*55*) with an FDR cutoff of <=0.05.

Hi-C Sequencing

Parasites were crosslinked in warm PBS containing 1.25% formaldehyde for 25 min on a rocking platform and quenched by adding glycine to 150 mM followed by 15 min incubations at 37°C and 4°C. The parasites were centrifuged at 660 x *g* for 20 min at 4°C, resuspended in 5 volumes of ice-cold PBS, and incubated for 10 min at 4°C. Parasites were centrifuged at 660 x *g* for 15 min at 4°C, washed once in ice-cold PBS, and stored as a pellet at −80°C. Parasite pellets were then thawed on ice in Hi-C lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH8.0; 10 mM NaCl, 2 mM AEBSF, Roche Complete Mini EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail, 0.25% Igepal CA-630). Parasite membranes were disrupted by passing the lysate through a 26.5- gauge needle 15 times with a syringe. Samples were spun and pellets were washed once with ice-cold Hi-C lysis buffer, resuspended in 0.5% SDS and incubated at 62°C for 10 min to solubilize the chromatin. The SDS was neutralized by the addition of nuclease-free water and 1% Triton X-100, for 15-minutes at 37°C. DNA was then digested using *MboI* restriction overnight at 37°C. After digestion, the enzyme was heat inactivated at 62°C for 20 min, and then cooled to RT. 5' overhangs were filled in by Biotin-14-dCTP (Invitrogen) using DNA Polymerase I and Large (Klenow) Fragment (NEB) for 45 min at 37°C. Blunt-end ligation was performed using T4 DNA ligase at 20°C for 4 hours. The nuclei were spun down to remove random ligation products and to reduce the overall reaction volume and resuspend in decrosslinking buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 1% SDS, 1 mM EDTA, 500 mM NaCl) before adding RNaseA (20 mg/ml) for 45 min at 37°C and proteinase K (NEB) treatment overnight at 45°C. DNA was extracted using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) and eluted in 10 mM Tris-HCl at pH 8.0. The purified DNA was sheared on a Covaris S220 and biotinylated DNA fragments were pull-down using MyOne Streptavidin T1 magnetic beads (Invitrogen) at 55°C for 2 min, washed and resuspended in T4 DNA Ligase Buffer to perform end-repair on DNA fragments bound to the beads containing DNA Polymerase I, Large (Klenow) Fragment (NEB), and T4 DNA Polymerase (NEB) and incubated for 30 min at

20°C. The beads were washed twice before performing A-tailing using Klenow Fragment (3′→5′ exo–nuclease) (NEB)) for 30 min at 37°C. The beads were then washed twice and resuspended in T4 DNA Ligase Buffer to perform adapter ligation using the NEBNext Illumina Adapter for 15 min at 20°C in a thermomixer. The beads were then resuspended in 100 μl of 10 mM Tris-HCl at pH 8.0 and transferred to a new tube to amplify the library using the HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems) as well as the universal forward primer and barcoded reverse primer before being incubated with the following PCR program: 45 sec at 98°C, 12 cycles of 15 sec at 98°C, 30 sec at 55°C, 30 sec at 62°C and a final extension of 5 min at 62°C. The library was then purified using double-SPRI size selection, with 0.5Å~ right-side selection (25 μl AMPure XP beads) and 1.0Å~ left-side selection (25 μl AMPure XP beads). Libraries were quantified by NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific) and Bioanalyzer (Agilent), prior to multiplexing and sequencing in a 75-bp paired-end run on a NextSeq500 (Illumina).

Analysis of Hi-C Data

Bed files of virtual complete *MboI* (cutting at GATC) digest of the *P. falciparum* genome were generated with digest_genome.py from the HiC-Pro suite (*56*). The paired-end reads were processed (i.e. mapped, paired, and de-duplicated), binned at 10kb resolution, and normalized using the ICE algorithm using HiC-Pro v2.11.4 (*57*). Reproducibility and strain-dependent differences (Fig. 5A) between Hi-C samples was evaluated by correlation analysis using HiCSpector v1.0.1 (*58*) and GenomeDISCO (same correlation pattern as HiCSpector, not shown) (*59*). Interaction maps (Fig. S9) were generated by plotting intra-chromosomal ICE-normalized interactions. Summary statistics (Fig. 5B) of intra-chromosomal interaction distances were calculated for each strain and chromosome from normalized ICE interaction counts using R v4.0.0. Differential interaction analysis was carried out at 10 kb resolution for each replicate using selfish (*60*) based on ICE-normalized interaction counts from the Hi-C Pro all-valid-pairs matrix and reformatted into the ".hic" file-format using Juicebox v1.9.9 (*61*). All genome-wide bin pairs with significant changes in interaction frequency between the *hdp1*-ty1 and Δ*hdp1* strains with an FDR <=0.1 in both replicate pairs are shown in the top left of Fig. 5C. For the analysis of chromosome-end interactions, interactions fold-change were calculated for all interactions in bins between the chromosome end and the first protein coding gene. As the final bin on each chromosome varies in size, an additional bin was added for ends truncated by telomere healing (5R, 11R, and 14R) to ensure interaction counts were calculated for at least 10kb.

Description of Chromatin Immunoprecipitation Sequencing attempts.

Since our experiments clearly that HDP1 has the ability to bind DNA and is tightly associated with nuclear chromatin (Fig. 2), we have spent the last 2.5 years attempting determine where in the genome HDP1 is bound by chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq). Repeated independent efforts using crosslinked chromatin from the Day 5 *hdp1-Ty1* gametocytes were unsuccessful in the Kafsack (Weill Cornell), and Bartfai (Radboud University) labs while control ChIP-seq for known chromatin-associated proteins was successful. We then generated the *hdp1-gfp* line in case the Ty1 epitope tags were no accessible. But independent ChIP-seq attempts with crosslinked chromatin in the Kafsack and Llinás labs with *hdp1-gfp* gametocytes were also unsuccessfully while controls worked. Finally, we adapted the CUT&RUN (a method for native, *in situ* ChIP) (*62*, *63*) for use in malaria parasites (manuscript forthcoming). Again, CUT&RUN worked great for other chromatin-associated proteins but failed repeatedly for HDP1.

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Data and materials availability:

Raw high throughput sequencing data have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under accession number SRPXXXX.

Analysis code is available at https://github.com/KafsackLab/HDP1.

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the Supplementary Materials. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the authors.

Fig. 1: Loss of HDP1 function disrupts gametocyte maturation. (A-C) N-terminal tagging of the endogenously encoded HDP1 (*halo-hdp1*) blocked maturation of gametocytes (GCs) while C-terminal tagging of the endogenous locus with either GFP (*hdp1-gfp*) or a triple Ty1 (*hdp1-Ty1*) epitope had no effect on gametocyte morphology or viability, as determined by membrane potential staining with DilC(1)-5 on day 5 of gametocyte maturation. **(D-F)** Targeted disruption of the *hdp1* locus (Δ*hdp1*) blocked formation of late gametocytes. Representative of n=3. Graphs show mean ± s.e.m of n=3-5 **(G)** Glucosamine-inducible knockdown of HDP1 in *hdp1-Ty1* and *hdp1-glmS* day 5 gametocytes. Representative of n=3. **(H)** Percentage of falciform day 5 gametocytes in response to 5 mM glucosamine (GlcN). All Images and flow cytometry plots are representative of n=3.

Fig. 2: HDP1 is chromatin-associated nuclear protein in gametocytes that recognizes a GC-rich DNA motif as a dimer. (A) Live-cell fluorescence microscopy of *hdp1-gfp* on day 5 of maturation stained with the DNA dye Hoechst33342 (blue). Scale Bar: 2mm. Representative of n=2. **(B)** Immunofluorescence microscopy of *hdp1-Ty1* and parental NF54 gametocytes on day 5 of maturation co-stained with anti-Ty1 antibodies (red) and Hoechst33342 (blue). Scale Bar: 5 µm. Representative of n=2. **(C)** Western blotting of parasite lysates in asexual stages and during gametocyte maturation shows HDP1 is expressed during the stages of gametocytogenesis. Representative of n=3. **(D)** Western blot of cytoplasmic and nuclear extracts of *hdp1-Ty1* gametocytes on day 5 of maturation stained with antibodies against the Ty1 epitope tag, the histone H4, and HSP70-1. Representative of n=3. **(E)** Maximum enrichment DNA motif for the GST-HDP1 DBD from a PBM. **(F)** Isothermal calorimetry indicates the HDP1-DBD domain recognizes DNA as a dimer. n=2. **(G)** Optimal gel-shift was observed for probes containing a tandem motif with a 5bp spacer compared to probes with either a single or no motif. Representative of n=3.

Fig. 3: Disruption of HDP1 results in leaky expression of heterochromatin-associated genes and reduced expression of inner membrane complex genes in early gametocytes. (A) Genome-wide comparison of differential gene expression in Δ*hdp1* and parental NF54 gametocytes on day 2 of gametocytogenesis (stage I, n=2). *hdp1* (solid black), heterochromatin-associated genes (cyan), IMC genes (orange) and the two canonical early gametocyte markers, *pfs16* and *gexp5 (red)* are highlighted. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) indicated significant downregulation of IMC genes **(B)** and global upregulation of heterochromatin associated genes **(C)**. **(D)** Heterochromatin associated gene families with significant up regulation in Δ*hdp1*. Geometric mean fold-changes and p-values (two-sided, one sample t-test) are indicated.

Fig. 4: HDP1 regulates PhIL1-dependent expansion of the inner membrane complex in early gametocytes. **(A)** Transcripts encoding inner membrane complex proteins are down-regulated in Δ*hdp1* day 2 gametocytes. Normalized transcript levels (FPKM) in NF54 and Δ*hdp1* day 2 gametocytes. **(B)** Validation of down-regulation by qRT-PCR. Levels of the canonical early gametocyte marker *pfs16* remained unchanged (n=3). **(C)** PhIL1 protein levels in parental and Δ*hdp1* day 5 gametocytes. Hsp70-1 abundance shown as the loading control. Representative result of n=2. **(D)** Day 5 morphology of *hdp1-ty1* and *hdp1- glmS* gametocytes under 0 and 5 mM glucosamine. HDP1 and PhIL1 protein levels in *hdp1-ty1* and Δ*hdp1* day 5 gametocytes. Hsp70-1 abundance shown as the loading control. Representative result of n=3. **(E)** Immunofluorescence microscopy of PhIL1 distribution in day 5 gametocytes of *hdp1-glmS* under 0 and 5 mM glucosamine. Scale Bar: 3 μm

Fig. 5: Loss of HDP1 results in reduced telomere clustering. (A) Analysis of Hi-C interaction maps for each sample by HiCSpector highlights reproducibility of replicates and illustrate systematic differences between the strains. Scale ranges from 0–1.0 but only 0.6–1.0 is shown for improved visibility. **(B)** Mean HiC interaction distance in *hdp1-ty1* (blue) and Δ*hdp1* (red) stage I gametocytes. Error-bars indicate the 95% confidence interval and the black line indicates the median interaction distance. **(C)** Top triangle shows significant genome-wide changes in the Δ*hdp1* compared to *hdp1-Ty1* with inside ticks indicating chromosome boundaries. FDR < 0.1. The average interaction fold-changes for all pair-wise interactions of chromosome ends are shown in the bottom triangle. **(D)** Accelerated MNase digestion of Δ*hdp1* chromatin from stage I gametocytes indicates reduced chromatin compaction.

fig. S1: The predicted DNA-binding protein HDP1 is expressed in gametocytes. (A) The single exon
locus Pf3D7_1466200 encodes a large 3078aa protein with a predicted C-terminal Helix-Turn-Helix
DNA-binding domain (DBD) and two nuclear localization signals (NLS). Multiple AP2-G binding sites
are located in the 2kb promoter region. Black bracket indicates the antigen used for generating antisera
used in (29). **(B)** Alignment of the helix-turn-helix domain for homologs from other apicomplexan
parasites. **(C)** Quantitative RT-PCR of *hdp1* transcripts found minimal expression in asexual blood stages
with upregulation during gametocyte development. (mean of n=2).

fig. S2: Validation of engineered parasite lines. (A) Generation of *halo-hdp1* parasites by CAS9 genome editing. Insertion of the N-terminal HALO tag at the 5'- end the *hdp1* coding sequence was confirmed by PCR and checked for mutations by Sanger sequencing of the 3.8kb PCR product (not shown). **(B)** Generation of *hdp1-gfp* parasites by CAS9 genome editing. Insertion of the C-terminal GFP tag at the 3'- end the *hdp1* coding sequence was confirmed by PCR and checked for mutations by Sanger sequencing of the 1.9kb PCR product (not shown). **(C)** Generation of *hdp1-Ty1* parasites by CAS9 genome editing. Insertion of the C-terminal triple Ty1 epitope tag at the 3'- end the *hdp1* coding sequence was confirmed by PCR and checked for mutations by Sanger sequencing of the 1.1kb PCR product (not shown). **(D)** Generation of *Δhdp1* parasites by CAS9 genome editing. Replacement of 1.4 kb flanking the *hdp1* start codon by a hDHFR selectable marker cassette was confirmed by PCR. **(E)** Generation of *hdp1-glmS* parasites by CAS9 genome editing. Insertion of the C-terminal triple Ty1 epitope tag and the *glmS* ribozyme at the 3' end the *hdp1* coding sequence was confirmed by PCR and checked for mutations by Sanger sequencing of the 1.4 kb PCR product (not shown).

Fig. S3: Loss of HDP1 does not alter the sexual commitment frequency or Stage I gametocyte viability. (A) The sexual commitment frequency (day 5 gametocytes per day 1 ring stages) is not significantly affected in *halo-hdp1* and Δ*hdp1* parasites. n=3 **(B)** Mitochondrial membrane potential of gametocytes (GCs), as measured by DilC(1)5 staining, indicates similar viability on day 2, but not days 5 or 10, for NF54 (orange) and Δ*hdp1* (green) gametocytes. Representative of n=2.

fig. S4: Inducible knockdown of HDP1 reduces gametocyte maturation in early but not late gametocytes. Representative morphology (right) of *hdp1-glmS* gametocytes in response to 5 mM glucosamine on days 1-5, 3-8, 5-10, or in the absence of glucosamine. Percentage of falciform gametocytes on Day 10 in response to 5 mM glucosamine on days 1-5, 3-8, 5-10, or in the absence of glucosamine for *hdp1-Ty1* or *hdp1-glmS* parasites (bottom). mean±s.e.m of n=2.

fig. S5: Immunofluorescence microscopy localizes the HA-tagged ortholog TGME49_233160 to the nucleus of *Toxoplasma gondii* tachyzoites.

fig. S6: HDP1-GFP localized to the nucleus of *hdp1-gfp* gametocytes. No signal was observed in *hdp1-gfp* asexual blood stages or gametocytes of the untagged NF54 parent line. Scale bar is 3 microns. Exposure and brightness/contrast settings are uniform across the images shown. Representative of n=3.

fig. S7: The HDP1 DNA-binding domain dimers recognize a tandem GC-rich motif found at
chromosome ends. (A) Coomassie stain of GST-HDP1-DBD used for PBM analysis. (B) The three
most highly enriched DNA motifs for the GST-HDP1 DBD domain on the protein-binding microarray.
(C) Top three secondary motif hits after removal of primary hits. (D) Tandem HDP1 motifs with a 5-6bp
spacer occur exclusively in arrays of 1-2 copies within either 7 bp or 28 bp of the last *rep20* sub-
telomeric repeats at all full-length chromosome ends. The motif on the left end of chromosome 10 is
degenerate but its positioning is conserved. Truncation by telomere healing resulted in the loss of rep20
adjacent region at five other chromosome ends.

fig. S8: *var* gene expression is altered in early Δ*hdp1* gametocytes but not asexual blood stages. (A) Normalized abundance of reads uniquely mapping to *var* genes in day 2 gametocytes from Δ*hdp1* (orange) or parental NF54 parasites (blue). Significantly upregulated genes are marked with asterisks. (n=2) **(B)** qRT-PCR confirmation of *var* gene up-regulation in Δ*hdp1* vs NF54 day 2 gametocytes. **(C)** Upregulation of *rifin* (purple) and *var* genes (green) in Δ*hdp1* day 2 gametocytes is independent of chromosomal position in subtelomeric or non- subtelomeric heterochromatin clusters. **(D)** qRT-PCR analysis of *var* transcript abundance (normalized seryl tRNA synthetase expression) in Δ*hdp1* asexual ring stages found expression a single dominant var as expected indicating that mutually exclusive expression remains unchanged in asexual stages. (n=2)

fig. S9: Intra-chromosomal HiC maps from Δ*hdp1* and *hdp1-Ty1* of day 2 gametocytes. Color scale indicates the normalized log10 interaction frequency (counts per million). Gray bars indicate bins of high-homology that could not be uniquely mapped with high confidence.

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859 **fig. S10: Gating schema for viable gametocytes.** Populations were gated for single cells based on
860 forward (FSC) and side scatter (SSC). Viable gametocytes were identified based on DNA content and
861 mitochondrial membrane potential based on Hoechst33342 and DilC(1)5 staining.