RAPID, TIME-RESOLVED PROXIMITY LABELING BY SBP1 IDENTIFIES A PORIN DOMAIN PROTEIN AT THE MALARIA PARASITE PERIPHERY

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ABSTRACT

The deadly human malaria-causing parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum* relies on its capacity to completely remodel its host red blood cell (RBC) through the export of several hundred parasite proteins across several membranes to the RBC. Among these exported proteins are several membrane proteins that are assumed to be inserted into the parasite plasma membrane (PPM) during their transport via the secretory pathway. It is not known how these exported membrane proteins are extracted from the PPM for export. To answer this question, we fused the exported membrane protein, skeleton binding protein 1 (SBP1), with the rapid, efficient, promiscuous biotin ligase known as TurboID (SBP1^{TbID}). Our data show that the SBP1^{TbID} fusion protein was exported efficiently to the host RBC and was able to rapidly biotinylate proteins at the host-parasite interface during its export as well as at its final destination in the host RBC. Using time-resolved, proximity biotinylation and label-free quantitative proteomics, we identified early (pre-export) interactors and late (post-export) interactors of SBP1^{TbID}. This led to the identification of 24 proteins that were 10-fold or more enriched in the pre-export time point compared to the post-export time point. Among these early interactors were two promising membrane-associated proteins, one of which has a predicted translocon domain, that could potentially act as translocons at the PPM for exported membrane proteins (Plasmodium translocon of exported membrane proteins or PTEM). Conditional mutants of these candidates suggests that both proteins play essential roles in the asexual lifecycle of the parasite. Both proteins localize to the host-parasite interface during early stages of the intraerythrocytic cycle suggesting that they may play a role in extracting membrane proteins from the PPM for export to the host RBC.

INTRODUCTION

Malaria is a major global health issue with an estimated 241 million cases and 627 000 deaths reported during 2020[1]. This life-threatening disease is caused by apicomplexan parasites of the genus *Plasmodium*, however one species, *P. falciparum*, is the most virulent and lethal, accounting for 95% of all malaria deaths[2]. The malaria symptoms include headaches, myalgia, high fevers, severe anemia, pulmonary and renal failure, vascular obstruction, and cerebral damage. These disorders could persist even after parasite clearance and are a consequence of parasite proliferation within human red blood cells (RBC)[2,3].

To establish infection during their intraerythrocytic cycle, *P. falciparum* parasites must extensively remodel the morphology and physiology of the RBCs. This transformation requires the export of several hundred proteins (about 10% of the parasite proteome) across the unique parasitophorous vacuole (PV) into the RBC cytoplasm and membrane[4–7], and leads to increased permeability, loss of cell deformability, and formation of virulence-associated knobs at the RBC membrane[8,9]. This multi-step transformation is essential for parasite survival and pathogenesis, conferring *P. falciparum* its ability to maintain chronic infections in humans. A large fraction of exported proteins are recognizable by the presence of a 5-amino acid motif, known as the *Plasmodium* export element or PEXEL[10,11], while others have no discernable primary sequence motif and are termed as PEXEL-negative exported proteins or PNEPs[12]. Most PNEPs possess a transmembrane (TM) domain that serves to target them to the ER and the secretory pathway[12]. Several of these PNEPs play a critical role in malaria pathogenesis, such as skeleton-binding protein 1 (SBP1)[13–15], membrane associated histidine-rich protein (MAHRP1)[16,17] and erythrocyte membrane protein 1 (PfEMP1)[18–20].

Exported membrane proteins are inserted into ER membrane during their synthesis[12,21,22]. These membrane proteins are transported via vesicles from the ER and inserted into the parasite plasma membrane (PPM) when the transport vesicles fuse to the PPM[22]. While it has been shown that all exported proteins require the

Plasmodium translocon of exported proteins, or the PTEX complex to cross the PV

membrane (PVM)[23,24], how membrane proteins are extracted from the PPM and

delivered to the PTEX complex is unknown. It has been postulated that a putative

Plasmodium translocon of exported membrane proteins (which we term as PTEM)[25,26] is

required for extraction of membrane proteins from the PPM either alone or in

cooperation with the PTEX unfoldase HSP101[27,28] (Figure 1A). The identity of proteins

in this putative PTEM complex is unknown and there are no obvious candidates in the

genome of *P. falciparum*. Therefore, we attempted to utilize an unbiased proteomic

approach to identify proteins that could form a putative PTEM complex.

Proteomic approaches have been used previously to identify the exported-protein

interacting complex (EPIC) at the PV, which is thought to be required for protein

export[29]. Similar approaches using *Plasmodium* exported proteins have identified stable

complexes at the Maurer's clefts (MC), a parasite-generated protein sorting organelle in

the RBC[30,31,32,33]. However, the identification of the putative PTEM has proven elusive

because its interaction with exported membrane proteins will be transient and therefore,

unlikely to be captured using immunoprecipitation assays which are heavily biased

towards identifying stable complexes. Therefore, we used a rapid, proximity-labeling

approach to attempt to identify a putative PTEM complex and to our knowledge, this

approach has not yet been used in a time-resolved manner to capture transient

interactions in the secretory pathway.

We chose to tag the endogenous SBP1 gene (PF3D7_0501300) with a new iteration of

the promiscuous biotin ligase BirA, known as TurboID (generating SBP1^{TbID})[34]. SBP1 is

a PNEP with a single transmembrane domain and is exported in early ring-stage

parasites to the MC[13]. TurboID is a highly efficient enzyme that is able to biotinylate

proteins in close proximity within 10 minutes[34]. Therefore, we hypothesized that

SBP1^{TbID} will biotinylate proteins, even those transiently interacting with SBP1^{TbID} along

the secretory pathway during its export to the MC. Since SBP1^{TbID} should rapidly

biotinylate proximal proteins, we further reasoned that we could differentiate early (pre-

export) interactors from late (post-export) interactors of SBP1^{TbID}. Our data show that

the SBP1^{TbID} fusion protein is exported to the MC efficiently and with similar kinetics to

another MC protein, MAHRP1. Critically, SBP1[TbID] is able to rapidly biotinylate proximal

proteins prior to its export from the PV as well as after export at the MC. Using label-

free quantitative proteomics, we compared pre-export interactors and post-export

interactors of SBP1[TbID]. This approach led to the identification of two membrane

associated proteins that may be part of the putative PTEM complex.

RESULTS

SBP1 fused to TurboID is exported to Maurer's Clefts

Using CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing we generated mutants of SBP1 (Fig. 1B), where the

endogenous gene was tagged with the TurboID biotin ligase (SBP1[TbID])[34,35]. We chose

TurboID because it is an optimized version of the biotin ligase BirA[34]. TurboID is a

highly active mutant of BirA with an increased biotinylation radius and faster

biotinylation kinetics[34,35]. PCR analysis of genomic DNA isolated from the SBP1[TbID]

parasite line showed the correct integration of the TurboID biotin ligase and a V5 tag at

the endogenous locus of SBP1 (Fig. 1C). We detected expression of the SBP1[TbID] in the

mutant line at the expected size, but not in the parental line (Fig. 1D). To ensure that the

expression of TurboID is not detrimental to the parasite, we observed the growth of

SBP1[TbID] and the parental parasite line (NF54[attB])[36], over several asexual cycles using

flow cytometry (Fig. 1E). These data show no difference in the asexual growth of

SBP1[TbID] compared to the parental parasites, demonstrating that expression of TurboID

or its fusion to SBP1 does not inhibit parasite growth.

SBP1 is an exported protein with a single transmembrane domain synthesized in the

parasite ER and transported to the MC in the RBC cytoplasm[37,38]. Therefore, we wanted

to ensure that the fusion of TurboID to SBP1 did not inhibit its export to the MC. Using

immunofluorescence microscopy (IFA), we tested if SBP1[TbID] colocalized with another

MC resident protein, MAHRP1[17]. These data show that SBP1[TbID] is exported from the

parasite to the MC and co-localizes with MAHRP1 during trophozoite and schizont

stage parasites (Fig. 1F and 1G). On the other hand, in early ring stage parasites, these

data show that SBP1[TbID], as well as MAHRP1, localize to the periphery of the parasite,

probably in the PV prior to export (Fig. 1F). This has been previously observed by

electron microscopy, where SBP1 accumulated in electron dense regions within the
parasite plasma membrane (PPM) before being transported through the PV
membrane[39]. These data suggest that SBP1 and possibly other MC resident proteins
accumulate in the PV before being exported to the infected RBC. Together, the data
show that tagging SBP1 with the TbID biotin ligase did not alter the asexual growth or
development of the parasite, nor did it inhibit the export of SBP1 to the host RBC and
MC.

Figure 1. Generation of SBP1^{TbID} mutants. (A) Schematic of protein export. Membrane and
soluble proteins are transported from the ER into the PV by secretory vesicles. Soluble proteins
are released into the PV lumen after fusion of the secretory vesicle to the PPM. Membrane
proteins, on the other hand, are inserted into the PPM and need to be extracted from the
membrane by a putative translocon (PTEM) for further transport through the PV membrane to
the RBC cytoplasm by the PTEX complex. Soluble and membrane proteins are transported to
their final location in the infected RBC. (B) Schematic showing the integration of the repair
plasmid used to tag the genomic loci of SBP1 with TurboID-V5. Cas9 introduces a double-
stranded break at the C-terminus of the SBP1 locus. The repair plasmid provides homology
regions for double-crossover homologous recombination, introducing TurboID and the V5 tag
sequences. (C) PCR test confirming integration at the SBP1 locus. Amplicons were amplified
from genomic DNA isolated from mutant and wild-type parasites. Primers were designed to
amplify the region between the C-terminus and the 3'UTR of SBP1. All primers are in
Supplemental Table 1. (D) Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the parental line
(NF54^{attB})[36] and a clone of SBP1^{TbID} (D10) probed with antibodies against V5 and EF1α (loading
control). The protein marker sizes are shown on the left. (E) Growth of asynchronous SBP1^{TbID}

parasites, compared to the parental line NF54[attB], over 4 days via flow cytometry. 100%
represent the highest value of calculated parasitemia. Representative of three biological
replicates shown for each growth curve. Each data point represents the mean of three technical
replicates; error bars represent standard deviation. (F) IFA showing SBP1[TbID] localizes to the
parasite periphery in early-ring stage (top) and is exported to the Maurer's cleft in trophozoite
(middle) and schizont (bottom) stages. Asynchronous SBP1[TbID] parasites were fixed with
acetone and stained with specific antibodies. Images from left to right are phase-contrast, DAPI
(nucleus, blue), anti-V5 (green), anti-MAHRP (red), and fluorescence merge. Z stack images
were deconvolved and projected as a combined single image. (G) Quantification of the
colocalization of SBP1[TbID] with MAHRP using the Pearson's correlation coefficient. Three
biological replicates represented with 4 late-stage-parasite images from each replicate. Error
bars represent standard deviation.

162 Biotin-dependent proximity labeling by SBP1[TbID]

Since our data show that the SBP1[TbID] fusion protein was exported to MC, we wanted to

examine the capacity of TurboID to biotinylate proximal proteins in SBP1[TbID] parasites.

TurboID is an extremely efficient enzyme and we observed it could utilize the minimal

amount of biotin present in the media used to grow SBP1[TbID] parasites (Fig. S1). The

normal asexual development of *P. falciparum* does not require biotin[40]. To test if

SBP1[TbID] biotinylation is dependent upon the presence of exogenous biotin, we

analyzed protein extracts of asynchronous parasites in the presence or absence of

biotin by streptavidin blotting. We observed that efficient biotinylation of proximal

proteins occurs only in the presence of biotin in SBP1[TbID] parasites (Fig. 2A). Self-

biotinylation in SBP1[TbID] parasites was observed in the presence or absence of biotin

(Fig. 2A, lane 3 and 4, see asterisk), in agreement with has been previously reported

when tagging proteins with TurboID[34,41]. No endogenous biotinylation was detected in

the parental line NF54[attB], showing that biotinylation occurs only when TurboID is being

expressed by the parasite line (Fig. 2A, lane 1 and 2). These data show that SBP1[TbID]

efficiently biotinylates proteins and its activity is dependent upon the presence of biotin

in the growth medium.

TurboID is a highly active enzyme[34] that offers the possibility of rapid and time-resolved

labeling approaches in contrast to previous proximity-labeling methods with much

longer incubation times, usually greater than 12 hours[42–44]. Thus, we wanted to assess

the biotinylation activity SBP1^{TbID} and test whether this fusion protein is able to rapidly

biotinylate proximal proteins. SBP1^{TbID} parasites were incubated with biotin for 1, 2 or 6

hours and the biotinylation of proteins were observed using western blots probed with

streptavidin (Fig. 2B). We also tested biotinylation in response to different

concentrations of biotin, 25, 50 and 100 µM (Fig. 2C). Biotinylated proteins were

observed at all time points and biotin concentration, and the observable difference in the

extent of protein biotinylation between the time points and concentrations was minimal

(Fig. 2B and 2C).

The SBP1^{TbID} fusion protein has to traverse several membranes during its export to the

MC, and therefore, it is likely to unfold and then refold during this transport process. In

the case of exported membrane proteins, it is not known if they are kept unfolded during

their transport, though all proteins have to unfold while crossing the PV membrane

using the PTEX complex at the PV membrane[23,24,45]. Furthermore, to our knowledge

TurboID has not yet been utilized in a time-resolved manner to identify transient

interactors as proteins are transported through the secretory pathway. Therefore, we

wanted to determine if SBP1^{TbID} parasites could biotinylate proteins proximal to SBP1 at

different cellular locations during the export of SBP1^{TbID} from the parasite ER to the MC.

Synchronized early ring and trophozoite stage parasites were observed by IFAs after

the addition of biotin for 2 h. We observed biotinylation at the parasite periphery,

possibly when SBP1^{TbID} accumulates at the PV[39] (Fig. 2D, top panels). Biotinylation was

also observed when SBP1^{TbID} had been exported to the MC (Fig. 2D, bottom panels).

The observed biotinylation was dependent upon the addition of biotin. Together, these

data demonstrate that SBP1^{TbID} was highly active, efficient, rapid, and labeled proximal

proteins at different subcellular locations during its export from the parasite ER to the

final location at the MC.

Figure 2. Biotinylation of proximal proteins by TurboID$_{V5}$-tagged SBP1. (A) Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the parental line NF54^{attB} and the mutant line SBP1^{TbID} incubated with or without biotin (50 µM) for 2 h. Samples were probed with antibodies against V5, EF1α (loading control) and fluorescent dye-labeled streptavidin. The protein marker sizes are shown on the left. (B) Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the mutant line SBP1^{TbID} incubated with biotin (50 µM) for 1 h, 2h and 6h. Samples were probed with antibodies against V5 (loading control) and fluorescent dye-labeled streptavidin. The protein marker sizes are shown on the left. (C) Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the mutant line SBP1^{TbID} incubated with different concentrations of biotin (0, 25, 50 and 100 µM) for 1 h. Samples were probed with antibodies against V5 (loading control) and fluorescent dye-labeled streptavidin. The protein marker sizes are shown on the left. (D) IFA showing SBP1^{TbID} biotinylates proteins during their export out of the parasite (top panels) and at their final location at the Maurer's clefts (Bottom panels). Asynchronous SBP1^{TbID} parasites were fixed with acetone after 2 h of incubation with biotin (50 µM) and stained with specific antibodies. Images from left to right are phase-contrast, DAPI (nucleus, blue), anti-V5 (red), streptavidin (green), and fluorescence merge. Z stack images were deconvolved and projected as a combined single image.

Early interactors of SBP1^{TbID} identified by proximity labeling

Since our data show that SBP1^{TbID} biotinylates proximal proteins during its transport from the parasite ER into the RBC cytoplasm (Fig. 2C), we next wanted to identify the *P. falciparum* effectors that interact with SBP1 at the host-parasite interface. To do so, we wanted to define the kinetics of SBP1^{TbID} transport from its site of synthesis in the parasite ER to the MC and test if we could reproducibly detect SBP1 at the host-parasite interface. As previously described (Fig. 1E, 2C), SBP1^{TbID} and proteins biotinylated by SBP1^{TbID} could be detected at the parasite-RBC interface. To assess whether we could reproducibly observe SBP1^{TbID} within the parasite prior to its export to the host RBC, we used tightly synchronized cultures and observed the subcellular localization of SBP1^{TbID} with respect to EXP2, a PVM resident protein[46,47], at different time points after parasite invasion. SBP1 has been detected at the MCs as early as 4-6 hours post invasion (hpi)[48], therefore, we observed the subcellular location of SBP1^{TbID} in parasites at 3, 4 and 5 hpi. In some SBP1^{TbID} parasites, SBP1 was either not detectable or not expressed (Fig. 3B, top panels). As expected, we found parasites where SBP1^{TbID} was within the PV periphery, and others where the protein was already exported to the RBC cytoplasm (Fig. 3C, mid and bottom panels). We quantified these three events over several biological replicates. At 4hpi, SBP1^{TbID} was not expressed in about 30% of the parasites, exported in ~10% of observed parasites and at the host-parasite interface in the vast majority (60%) of all parasites (Fig. 3C). These data showed us that harvesting proteins biotinylated by SBP1^{TbID} at the host-parasite interface was feasible.

To identify early interactors of SBP1, especially those at the host-parasite interface, we opted for a quantitative and comparative approach. We wanted to differentiate these early interactors from SBP1 interactors at the MC, which have been previously identified[32], as well as those being co-transported with SBP1 to the MC. We hypothesized that using label-free quantitative proteomics and comparing interactors isolated from 4 hpi and 20 hpi would allow us to identify the early interactors of SBP1. By 20 hpi, all SBP1 is at the MCs and no more SBP1 is synthesized[49]. Label-free proteomics have been shown to offer a large dynamic range and high proteome

coverage in the identification of biotinylated proteins[41,50–52].

First, tightly synchronized late-stage schizonts were collected. These parasites were

then split into two samples, one incubated with biotin for 4 h until 4 hpi (Fig. 3A, blue

square) and then collected for further processing. Since our data show that in the

majority of the 4 h ring stage parasites, SBP1[TbID] was at the host-parasite interface (Fig.

3C), parasites were incubated with biotin for 4 h to maximize the labeling of proximal

proteins and capture a larger fraction of the pre-export interactors. To collect the post-

export sample, we let SBP1[TbID] parasites develop until 16hpi because all SBP1 localizes

to MC by this time and this protein is no longer synthesized. Thus, the other sample was

allowed to develop without biotin for 16h, and then incubated with biotin for 4 h until 20

hpi (Fig. 3A, red square). Biotinylated proteins were isolated from parasite lysates using

streptavidin-affinity pulldown. Streptavidin-captured proteins were identified via mass

spectrometry (MS) and quantified over several biological replicates[41,50,51] (Fig. 4A). A

total of 1,122 proteins were identified in at least one of the replicates. We then

compared the proteins identified in the 4h sample with those identified in the 20h

sample (Fig. 4B). We defined the putative pre-export interactors of SBP1 from our

dataset using three stringent criteria. Proteins enriched more than 10-fold compared to

the 20 hpi samples with a p-value cut-off of 0.05, and present in all three biological

replicates were considered as differentially labeled interactors at 4 hpi. Using these

criteria, 24 protein candidates were identified as putative pre-export interactors of

SBP1[TbID] during its transport at the parasite-RBC interface (Figure 4B). The identified

proteins were classified into subgroups based on their predicted functions and

subcellular locations[53]. Of the 24 identified proteins, 11 were uncharacterized proteins

with no predicted function. As expected, this approach identified proteins known to be

involved in protein and vesicle transport (5/24). One of the statistically significant

interactors of SBP1 was EXP3 (3-fold enriched at 4hpi), which has been localized to the

PV and functions in protein export [29]. The experiment worked as designed because

SBP1 (star, Figure 4B) and other MC localized as well exported proteins were also

identified but were not enriched at either time point or enriched at the 20hpi samples

(Figure 4B). Identification of exported proteins, including MC proteins, only in the post-

285 export (20hpi) samples further suggests that the proteomic approach using SBP1^{TbID}

286 worked as designed. Together these data showed that our approach successfully

287 identified a group of proteins differentially biotinylated by SBP1^{TbID} prior to its export to

288 the MC.

290 **Figure 3.** (A) Schematic of the export of proteins in *P. falciparum* highligting the locations where
291 proteins biotinylated by SBP1^{TbID} will be harvested. Created with BioRender.com. (B) IFA
292 showing the different localizations of SBP1^{TbID} during its export at early ring-stages (3-5 hpi).
293 Tightly synchronous SBP1^{TbID} parasites were fixed with acetone at 3 h, 4h and 5 h post
294 infection, and stained with specific antibodies. Images from left to right are phase-contrast, DAPI
295 (nucleus, blue), anti-V5 (green), EXP2 (PV marker, green), and fluorescence merge. Z stack
296 images were deconvolved and projected as a combined single image. (C) Quantification of the
297 events observed in (B). Events were scored based on the localization of SBP1^{TbID} with respect
298 to the PV marker EXP2. A total of 50 parasites were scored for each time point. n= 3 biological
299 replicates; error bars represent standard deviation.

Figure 4. (A) Schematic of the experimental design for time-resolved biotinylation and proteomics to identify pre-export and post-export interactors of SBP1^{TbID}. Created with BioRender.com. (B) Interactors enriched at 4 hpi (p-value plotted as function of fold change between the two samples). Proteins with p-value ≤0.05 and more than 10-fold change are identified as SBP1^{TbID} interactors. n= 3 biological replicates. (C) A summary table of the putative interactors of SBP1^{TbID} at 4hpi grouped by their putative functions are shown. All proteins identified are in Supplemental Table 2.

Early interactors of SBP1^{TbID} localize to the host-parasite interface

Since we were interested in identifying proteins that may act as a putative translocon to extract exported membrane proteins at the PPM, we reasoned that membrane associated proteins among pre-export SBP1 interactors could function in this role. Thus, based on membrane-association, high statistical score and fold enrichment, we selected

the Glideosome-associated protein with multiple membrane spans 1 (GAPM1,

PF3D7_1323700) as one putative candidate. GAPM1 is a membrane protein associated

with the biogenesis of the Inner Membrane Complex (IMC) in asexual and sexual

stages. GAPM1, as part of the IMC, is suggested to have a role in merozoite invasion[54–

56]. Using these criteria, another putative candidate was the channel protein Voltage-

dependent anion-selective channel protein (VAC, PF3D7_1432100). VAC is a soluble

protein with a translocon of outer mitochondrial membrane (TOM40) domain but no

mitochondria targeting signal. Nothing is known about the function of VAC in *P.*

falciparum.

To characterize these proteins we used CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing to generate the

conditional mutants, termed VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$. In these parasite lines, their

endogenous loci were tagged with the *tetR* aptamer system, which results in

anhydrotetracycline (aTc)-dependent expression of protein (Fig. 5A and 5B)[57]. PCR

analysis of genomic DNA from VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ parasite lines showed correct

integration of the knockdown system at the endogenous loci (Fig. S5A). To assess the

efficiency of the knockdown system, we measured protein expression in the presence or

absence of aTc by Western blotting. For both proteins, there is a clear reduction of

protein expression (Fig. S5B), which in the case of GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ was detrimental, as

parasites were not able to progress into a second life cycle. Knockdown of VAC

inhibited the asexual expansion of VAC^{apt} parasites (Fig. S5C).

Our data show that GAPM1^{mNG} localizes to the IMC in schizonts (Fig. S3). However,

what happens to the IMC after merozoite invasion is unclear and we reasoned that the

IMC most likely fuses to the PPM shortly after invasion. Similarly, the subcellular

localization of VAC during the early stages of the asexual lifecycle was unknown. The

proteomic data suggest that these proteins are in close proximity to SBP1^{TbID} when

SBP1 is in the PV (Fig. 4B). Therefore, we used IFAs to localize both proteins in tightly

synchronized parasites at 4 hpi with respect to the PV marker EXP2. VAC^{apt} localizes to

the parasite periphery and is closely juxtaposed with the known PV marker, EXP2, but it

also partially overlaps with the mitochondria (Fig. 5C, top panels) suggesting that it may

be localized to both subcellular organelles. GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ localizes to the parasite

periphery at 4 hpi, and shows colocalization with EXP2 (Fig. 5C, bottom panels). To
corroborate our observations by IFAs, we used structured illumination microscopy (SIM)
to determine the subcellular localization of VAC and GAPM1. Both proteins show a
juxtaposed localization with respect to the PVM marker EXP2, which suggests VAC and
GAPM1 do not localize to the PVM but rather to a different membrane such as the PPM
(Fig. 5D). Together these results show that both GAPM1 and VAC localize to the same
region together with SBP1^{TbID} at the PV at 4 hpi, as suggested by the proximity labeling
data.

Figure 5. Generation and characterization of VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$. (A) Representative
IFA showing VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ localizes within the PV in the early-ring stage (4 hpi).
Tightly synchronous parasites were fixed with PFA (VAC^{apt}) and acetone (GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$) and
stained with specific antibodies. Images of VAC^{apt} from left to right are phase-contrast, anti-HA
(green), anti-EXP2 (PV, blue), mitotracker (mitochondria, red), and fluorescence merge. Images
of GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ from left to right are phase-contrast, DAPI (nucleus, blue), anti-HA (green),
anti-EXP2 (PV, red), and fluorescence merge. Z stack images were deconvolved and projected
as a combined single image. (B) 3D reconstruction based on structured illumination microscopy
images captured from VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ ring-stage parasites at 4 hpi and stained with
the antibodies as in (A). (C) Quantification of the colocalization of VAC and GAPM1^{mNG} with
respect to EXP2, MitoTracker (Mitochondrial marker) and DAPI, and to EXP2 and DAPI,
respectively, using the Pearson's correlation coefficient. Three biological replicates represented

with 6 parasite images from each replicate for EXP2, and 3 parasite images for MitoTrack and
DAPI. Error bars represent standard deviation. ****p<0.05 by t-student test.

DISCUSSION

The protein-protein interactions that usher exported proteins to their final destinations in
the RBC via the secretory pathway are transient in nature. Previously, IP-based methods
have been used to identify proteins required for export of *P. falciparum* proteins, such as
the PTEX complex[58] and the EPIC complex[29]. While IP-based approaches are well-suited
for identifying stable complexes, they are unlikely to identify transient interactions. A
putative additional translocon at the PPM required for extracting exported membrane
proteins which are inserted into the PPM during transport has long been proposed[25,26].
As yet, no candidates for this putative PTEM complex have been identified (Fig. 1).

In our study, we used time-resolved biotinylation to identify transient interactions of an
exported membrane protein, SBP1, during its export. This approach uses a rapid and
promiscuous biotin ligase to biotinylate proximal proteins[34]. Since biotinylation is a
permanent modification, even transient interactions can be potentially identified. Through
this approach, we found putative candidates for a translocon complex that could help
extract membrane exported proteins from the PPM for transport into the RBC. Our data
show that fusion of TurboID to the exported transmembrane-containing protein, SBP1,
did not alter its trafficking to the MC nor did it have any effect on parasite growth. These
data also suggest that TurboID is enzymatically active during transit in the parasite
secretory pathway.

A previous study on the SBP1 interactome at their final location at the Maurer's cleft
identified 88 parasite proteins as putative interactors[32]. Most of their top-ranked hit
proteins were also identified in our study such as PfEMP1, Pf332, PIESP2, REX1,
MAHRP1, PTP1 and vapA. However, these were not highly enriched (≤10-fold) in the

post-export interactors fraction. This could be because some of these proteins are co-

transported with SBP1 and thus, are identified in the pre-export fraction as well. Members
of the PTEX complex such as EXP2, HSP101, and Trx2, were also identified in the pre-
export fraction, albeit below statistical significance. In addition, PTP2 and PfG174, that
have been previously shown to localize as residents[59], or transient interactors[60] of the
Maurer's clefts, were more than 10-fold enriched at the post-export time point,
demonstrating the reliability of our approach to identify SBP1 interactors. Another subset
of proteins identified in our study as post export interactors of SBP1 are ribosomal
proteins, which have been previously observed to be exported to the red blood cell
cytoplasm in *P. falciparum[61]*. Together, these data strongly suggest that the time-
resolved, rapid biotinylation approach was working as designed. Since our focus was to
identify pre-export interactors, we did not pursue these proteins for further study.

Using label-free quantitative proteomics, we identified a group of 24 putative candidates
that interact with SBP1 prior to its export to the RBC. Several of the proteins identified
(14/24) were uncharacterized proteins or nuclear proteins. Since we undertook this
approach to identify the proposed translocon of exported membrane proteins, we did not
pursue the function of these proteins in this study. Translocons function to transport
proteins across membranes and therefore, we hypothesized that membrane associated
proteins in this list could putatively function as translocons. There were two putative
candidates in the pre-export interactors of SBP1 that were membrane associated, VAC
and GAPM1. However, their localization in early ring stage parasites was unknown.
Therefore, to study the function of VAC and GAPM1 in early ring stage parasites, we
successfully generated conditional mutants. The data show that both VAC and GAPM1
play important functions in parasite survival within the infected RBC. Knockdown of these
proteins inhibits parasite growth. However, achieving protein knockdown takes about 24-
48 hours and results in parasite death prior to invasion of the RBC. Therefore, this
prevents the characterization of their role in export, which occurs in about 6-8 hours after
invasion. Similar to the PTEX translocon, EXP2[46], it is likely that both GAPM1 and VAC
have other essential functions in the asexual lifecycle. Defining their function in export will
require using a more rapid knockdown approach with similar kinetics as SBP1 export,
such as degradation-domain based tools[23,62] or rapid mislocalization based methods[63].

VAC has a β-barrel porin domain that can form an aqueous channel in the membrane and

function as a translocon in mitochondria and other plastids[64]. In a recent proximity-

biotinylation based proteomic screen to catalog mitochondrial proteins in *P. falciparum*,

VAC was pulled down in the membrane fraction of parasite lysates, and not in the

mitochondrial fraction[65]. In addition, VAC is predicted to not contain a mitochondrial

targeting sequence, in contrast to its Plasmodium ortholog, TOM40 (PF3D7_0617000),

which has a mitochondrial targeting sequence, suggesting that VAC it might not be

localized to the mitochondria[66]. Our data reveal that VAC localizes at the host-parasite

interface in early ring stages. While there is some overlap of VAC with the mitochondria,

there is stronger overlap between the PVM marker, EXP2, and VAC in lower resolution

IFAs. It is also possible that VAC is dually localized both to the mitochondria as well as to

the host-parasite interface. Superresolution microscopy suggests that EXP2 and VAC are

closely juxtaposed but with minimal overlap. This suggests that VAC localizes to a

compartment in close proximity to the PVM, most likely the PPM. On the other hand,

GAPM1 has seven TM domains and is from an apicomplexan-specific family of proteins[56].

GAPM1 has been localized to the inner membrane complex (IMC) in schizont-stage

parasites[56]. The IMC plays an essential role in the invasion of merozoites into the RBC,

however, it is unclear what happens to the IMC post-invasion. Lower resolution IFAs show

that GAPM1 co-localizes with the PVM localized EXP2 in early ring stage parasites. In

superresolution microscopy we observe, similar to VAC, GAPM1 in close juxtaposition

with EXP2, but does not completely overlap, suggesting that GAPM1 may also localize to

the PPM in early rings. These data further suggest that the IMC may fuse to the parasite

plasma membrane after merozoite invasion. Together, these findings suggest that VAC

and GAPM1 transiently interact with SBP1 prior to its export and their localization to the

parasite periphery suggests a role in export, perhaps as members of a putative PTEM

complex. Based on these data, we propose a model where GAPM1 and VAC act together

to select and extract exported proteins from the PPM for further transport via the PTEX

into the host RBC.

Several mechanistic aspects of this model remain to be resolved but similar to the PTEX

complex, which was first identified as a putative complex at the PV membrane[58], both

VAC and GAPM1 are at the right place at the right time. Further, VAC has a porin

translocon domain which could function in a manner analogous to the mitochondrial outer

membrane translocon to extract membrane anchored exported proteins from the parasite

plasma membrane. This hints that this ancient porin domain protein has been repurposed

by *Plasmodium* parasites on the PPM to facilitate export of membrane proteins to the

infected RBC.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dan Goldberg for anti-EF1α; Hans-Peter Beck for anti-MAHRP1; the

European Malaria Reagent Repository for anti-EXP2; Julie Nelson at the CTEGD

Cytometry Shared Resource Laboratory for help with flow cytometry and analysis; and

Muthugapatti Kandasamy at the Biomedical Microscopy Core at the University of

Georgia for help with microscopy. We acknowledge the assistance of Phil Gafken at the

Proteomics Resource at Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center for mass

spectrometry and data analysis. The study was funded by NIH/NIAID R01AI130139

(V.M.), T32AI060546 (D.W.C.), and Office of the Vice-President for Research at UGA

(D.A.).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Construction of SBP1 plasmids

Genomic DNA was isolated from *P. falciparum* NF54[attB] cultures using the QIAamp DNA

blood kit (Qiagen). PCR products were inserted into the respective plasmids using

ligation-independent cloning (SLIC), as described earlier [67], or the NEBuilder HiFi DNA

Assembly system (NEB). All constructs used in this study were confirmed by

sequencing. All primers used in this study are in Supplemental Table 1.

For generation of the plasmid pTOPO-SBP1-TbID, sequences of approximately 500 bp

of homology to the SBP1 C-terminus and 3'UTR were amplified using primer pairs P1-

P2 and P3-P4, respectively, and the sequence of V5-tagged TurboID was amplified

using primers P5 and P6. For expression of a SBP1 gRNA, oligos P17-P18 were

inserted into cut pUF1-Cas9.

For generation of the plasmid pKD-VAC-Apt, sequences of approximately 450 bp of

homology to the Pf1432100 C-terminus and 3'UTR were amplified using primer pairs

P7-P8 and P9-P10, respectively. Amplicons were then inserted into pKD[57,67] digested

with AatII and AscI. For expression of a Pf1432100 gRNA, oligo P19 was inserted into

cut PUF1-Cas9.

For generation of the plasmid pKD-GAPM1-mNG-Apt, sequences of approximately 500

bp of homology to the PfGAPM1 C-terminus and 3'UTR were amplified using primer

pairs P11-P12 and P13-P14, respectively, and the sequence of mNeonGreen was

amplified using primers P15 and P16. Amplicons were then inserted into pKD[57] digested

with AatII and AscI. For expression of PfGAPM1 gRNA, oligo p20 was inserted into cut

PUF1-Cas9.

Parasite culture and transfections

Plasmodium parasites were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium (NF54[attB], VAC[apt] and

GAPM1[mNG-apt]) or in biotin-free medium (SBP1[TbID], VAC[apt]/SBP1[TbID]) [68] supplemented

with AlbuMAX I (Gibco), and transfected as described earlier[69].

For generation of SBP1[TbID] parasites, a mix of two plasmids (50 µg each) were

transfected into NF54[attB] parasites in duplicate. The plasmid mix contained the plasmid

pUF1-Cas9-SBP1gRNA, which contains the DHOD resistance gene, and the marker-

free plasmid pTOPO-SBP1-TbID. Drug pressure was applied 48 h after transfection,

using 1µM DSM1 [70] and selecting for Cas9 expression. After parasites grew back from

507 transfection, integration was confirmed by PCR, and then cloned using limiting dilution.

508 After clonal selection, cultures were transferred to biotin-free medium without DSM1.

509 For generation of VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ parasites, the pKD-VAC-Apt and pKD-

510 GAPM1-mNG-Apt plasmids (20 µg) and the respective pUF1-Cas9 plasmid (50 µg)

511 were transfected into NF54^{attB} parasites in duplicate. Before transfection pKD plasmids

512 were digested overnight with EcoRV (NEB). The enzyme was then subjected to heat

513 inactivation for 20 min at 65 °C and then mixed with the pUF1-Cas9 plasmid.

514 Transfected parasites were grown in 0.5 µM anhydrous tetracycline (aTc) (Cayman

515 Chemical). Drug pressure was applied 48 h after transfection, using blasticidin (BSD) at

516 a concentration of 2.5 µg/mL, selecting for pKD-VAC-Apt and pKD-GAPM1-mNG-Apt

517 expression. After parasites grew back from transfection, integration was confirmed by

518 PCR, and then cloned using limiting dilution. Clones were maintained in mediums

519 containing 0.5 µM aTc and 2.5 µg/mL BSD.

520 For generation of VAC^{apt}/SBP1^{TbID} parasites, a mix of two plasmids: pTOPO-SBP1-TbID

521 and pUF1-Cas9-SBP1gRNA, was transfected into VAC^{apt} parasites. Drug pressure was

522 applied 48 h after transfection, using 1µM DSM1 [70] and selecting for Cas9 expression.

523 After parasites grew back from transfection, integration was confirmed by PCR, and

524 then cloned using limiting dilution.

525 Growth assays

526 For all assays, aliquots of parasite cultures were incubated in 8 µM Hoechst 33342

527 (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 20 min at room temperature and then fluorescence was

528 measured using a CytoFlex S (Beckman Coulter) flow-cytometer. Flow cytometry data

529 were analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star, Inc.) and plotted using Prism

530 (GraphPad Software, Inc.).

531 For the SBP1^{TbID} growth assay, asynchronous parasites were transferred to a 96-well

532 plate at 0.5% parasitemia and grown for 4 days. Parasitemia was monitored every 24 h.

533 For the VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ growth assays, synchronous ring-stage parasites

534 were washed 5 times with RPMI 1640 medium and split into two cultures, one

535 resuspended in medium containing 0.5 µM aTc and 2.5 µg/mL BSD, and the other one

536 in medium containing only 2.5 µg/mL BSD. Then cultures were transferred to a 96-well

537 plate at 0.2% parasitemia and grown for 6 days. Parasitemia was monitored every 48 h.

Western blotting

539 For SBP1^{TbID} parasites, RIPA buffer (150 mM NaCl, 20mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1mM

540 EDTA, 1% SDS, 0.1% Triton X-100) and sonication were used to disrupt parasite pellets

541 conserving all exported proteins. Briefly, late-stage parasites were isolated using a

542 Percoll gradient (Genesee Scientific). Pellets were then resuspended in RIPA buffer and

543 sonicated 3 times at 20% amplitude for 20 s. Protein supernatants were subsequently

544 solubilized in protein loading dye with Beta-mercaptoethanol (LI-COR Biosciences) and

545 used for SDS-PAGE.

546 For VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ parasites, ice-cold 0.04% saponin in 1x PBS was used to

547 isolate parasites from host cells. Parasite pellets were subsequently solubilized in

548 protein loading dye with Beta-mercaptoethanol (LI-COR Biosciences) and used for

549 SDS-PAGE.

550 Primary antibodies used in this study were mouse-anti-V5 (Cell Signaling Technology,

551 1:1000), rabbit-anti-PfEF1α (from D. Goldberg, 1:2000), and mouse-anti-HA 6E2 (Cell

552 Signaling Technology, 1:2000). Secondary antibodies used were IRDye 680 CW goat-

553 anti-rabbit IgG, IRDye 800CW goat-anti-mouse IgG, and IRDye 800CW Streptavidin (Li-

554 COR Biosciences, 1:20 000 and 1:10 000). Membranes were imaged using the

555 Odyssey Clx Li-COR infrared imaging system (Li-COR Biosciences). Images were

556 processed and analyzed using ImageStudio (Li-COR Biosciences).

Immunofluorescence microscopy

558 For IFAs, cells were fixed as described previously [67]. The cell lines SBP1^{TbID} and

559 GAPM1^{apt} were smeared on a slide and fixed with acetone. The cell lines VAC^{apt} and

VAC^{apt}/SBP1^{TbID} were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences)

and 0.03% glutaraldehyde. Primary antibodies used were mouse-anti-V5 TCM5

(eBioscience, 1:100), rabbit-anti-V5 D3H8Q (Cell Signaling technology, 1:100), rabbit-

anti-HA 71550 (ThermoFisher Scientific, 1:100), rabbit-anti-MAHRP (from H. Beck,

1:500), mouse-anti-EXP2 7.7 and mouse-anti-KAHRP (from D. Cavanagh; 1:1000,

1:500 respectively). Secondary antibodies used were Alexa Fluor 488, Alexa Fluor 546,

and Streptavidin Alexa Fluor 488 (Life Technologies, 1:1000). Cells were mounted using

ProLong Diamond with 4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Invitrogen) and imaged

using a DeltaVision II microscope system with an Olympus Ix-71 inverted microscope.

Images were collected as a Z-stack and deconvolved using SoftWorx, then displayed as

a maximum intensity projection. Adjustments to brightness and contrast were made for

display purposes using Adobe Photoshop.

Synchronization assays

573 For detection of SBP1 during export, SBP1^{TbID} parasites were synchronized with two

574 series of 5% sorbitol treatment. Then, schizont-stage parasites were isolated using

575 Percoll gradient (Genesee Scientific) and immediately transferred to previously warmed

576 fresh red blood cells at 1% hematocrit. Parasites were allowed to egress and invade

577 new red blood cells, and samples were obtained for IFAs at different time points.

SBP1^{TbID} proximity biotinylation and mass spectrometry

Biotinylation by TbID-tagged SBP1 was confirmed by collecting SBP1^{TbID} parasites for

Western blotting and IFAs after incubation for 2 h in biotin-free media supplemented

with 50 µM biotin.

For detection of SBP1 during export, SBP1^{TbID} parasites were synchronized with two

series of 5% sorbitol treatment. Then, late-schizont-stage parasites were isolated using

a Percoll gradient (Genesee Scientific). Parasites were then split in two, and

immediately transferred to red blood cells at 1% hematocrit in warm medium without or

with biotin (50 µM). Both parasite cultures were incubated for 4 h at 37°C with shaking

to let them egress and invade new red blood cells. Cultures were then treated with 5%

sorbitol to remove remaining late-stage parasites. Biotinylated culture was washed in 1X

PBS, incubated on ice for 10 min to inactivate biotinylation and then stored at -80 °C,

until processing. Non-biotinylated culture was incubated for 16 h at 37°C with shaking,

then incubated for 4 h in medium with biotin and finally collected as previously

described.

Parasite pellets were lysed using extraction buffer (40 mM Tris-HCL pH 7.6, 150 mM

KCl, 1mM EDTA, 5% NP-40 and 1X HALT) and sonication (3x, 10% amplitude, 20 s

pulses). Streptavidin MagneSphere Paramagnetic Particle beads (Promega) were used

to isolate biotinylated proteins. Beads were washed three times in 1 mL of 1X PBS.

Protein lysates were incubated with the Streptavidin beads for 1 h at room temperature.

After removal of the unbound fraction, the magnetic beads were washed twice with an

extraction buffer and once in 1X PBS. The biotinylated proteins on the magnetic beads

were digested and analyzed at the Proteomics and Metabolomics shared resource at

Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center using a Orbitrap Fusion with ETD Mass

Spectrometer. All proteins identified in this study are in Supplemental Table 2. All mass

spectrometry proteomic data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange consortium

via the MassIVE partner repository with the dataset identified PXD034946 (Project

name: Rapid proximity biotinylation of the *Plasmodium falciparum* exported protein,

SBP1).

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SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

Supplemental figure 1. Biotinylation of proximal proteins by TurboID$_{V5}$-tagged SBP1.
Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the mutant line SBP1^{TbID} grown in complete RPMI
medium, incubated with or without biotin (50 μM) for 2 h. Samples were probed with antibodies
against V5 (loading control) and fluorescent dye-labeled streptavidin. The protein marker sizes
are shown on the left.

Supplemental figure 2. Characterization of parasite lines VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$. (A)
Schematic showing the integration of the repair plasmid to modify the genomic loci of
Pf3D7_1432100 (VAC) and Pf3D7_1323700 (GAPM1). Cas9 introduces a double-stranded
break at the C-terminus of the VAC and GAPM1 locus. The repair plasmid provides homology
regions for double-crossover homologous recombination, introducing the HA-tag and the TetR-
Aptamer system. For GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$, a fluorescent tag mNeonGreen was introduced between
the C-terminus and the HA-tag. (B) Regulation of protein expression using the TetR-Aptamer
knockdown system. TetR binds to aptamer repeats in the mRNA, while PfDOZI localizes the

complex to sites of mRNA sequestration, causing a repression in translation of the gene of
interest. Anhydrous tetracycline (aTc) binds to TetR, blocking its interaction with the aptamers.
(A) PCR test confirming integration at the VAC and GAPM1 locus. Amplicons were amplified
from genomic DNA isolated from mutant and wild-type parasites. Primers were designed to
amplify the region between the C-terminus and the tandem of 10X aptamer repeats. (B)
Western blot of parasite lysates isolated from the mutant lines VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ probed
with antibodies against HA and EF1α (loading control). The protein marker sizes are shown on
the left. GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ parasites were collected after incubation for 48 h in the presence or
absence of aTc. VAC^{apt} parasites were collected after incubation for 48 and 96 h in presence or
absence of aTc. (C) Growth of synchronous VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ parasites over 6 days
after removal of aTc from the medium via flow cytometry. Representative of three biological
replicates shown for each growth curve. Each data point represents the mean of three technical
replicates; error bars represent standard deviation.

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846   **Supplemental figure 3. Localization of GAPM1 at late stages in the GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ cell line.**
847   (A) Representative live images showing GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ localization at early and late schizonts,
848   and merozoites. Images of GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ from left to right are phase-contrast, mNeonGreen
849   (green), and fluorescence merge. Z stack images were deconvolved and projected as a
850   combined single image.

Supplemental figure 4. Localization of VAC and GAPM1 at early stage parasites. 3D reconstruction based on structured illumination microscopy images captured from (A) VAC^{apt} and (B) GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$ ring-stage parasites at 4 hpi and stained with the antibodies as in Fig 5A.

866 **Supplemental Table 1.** List of primers used in the study to generate the cell lines SBP1^{TbID},
867 VAC^{apt} and GAPM1$^{mNG-apt}$
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870 **Supplemental Table 2.** Complete list of proteins identified using label-free analysis and
871 collected by mass spectrometry.