1

A coordinated transcriptional switching network mediates antigenic variation of human malaria parasites

Xu Zhang[1], Francesca Florini[1], Joseph E. Visone[1], Irina Leonardi[2], Mackensie R. Gross[1], Valay Patal[1] and Kirk W. Deitsch[1*]

[1] Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, NY, 10065, USA

[2] Jill Roberts Center for Inflammatory Bowel Disease, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, New York, USA

* To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: 011-212-746-4976; Fax: 011-212-746-8587; Email: kwd2001@med.cornell.edu Orcid ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9183-2480

Keywords: mutually exclusive expression, antigenic switching, malaria pathogenesis, immune evasion, gene expression

Abstract: Malaria parasites avoid immune clearance through their ability to

systematically alter antigens exposed on the surface of infected red blood cells. This is

accomplished by tightly regulated transcriptional control of individual members of a

large, multicopy gene family called *var* and is the key to both the virulence and chronic

nature of malaria infections. Expression of *var* genes is mutually exclusive and

controlled epigenetically, however how large populations of parasites coordinate *var*

gene switching to avoid premature exposure of the antigenic repertoire is unknown.

Here we provide evidence for a transcriptional network anchored by a universally

conserved gene called *var2csa* that coordinates the switching process. We describe a

structured switching bias that shifts overtime and could shape the pattern of *var*

expression over the course of a lengthy infection. Our results provide an explanation for

a previously mysterious aspect of malaria infections and shed light on how parasites

possessing a relatively small repertoire of variant antigen encoding genes can

coordinate switching events to limit antigen exposure, thereby maintaining chronic

infections.

INTRODUCTION

Malaria is a disease of enormous historical significance that continues to exert a heavy burden on health and economic development in many regions of the world (1). The most virulent of the human malaria parasites is *Plasmodium falciparum*, a mosquito-borne pathogen that infects the circulating red blood cells (RBCs) of its hosts. While resident within the RBC, the parasites modify the host cell cytoskeleton through the insertion into the RBC membrane of an adhesive protein called *Plasmodium falciparum* erythrocyte member protein 1 (PfEMP1) (2-4). This enables adhesion to the vascular endothelium (5), thereby avoiding filtration and destruction in the spleen (6, 7), however this also exposes PfEMP1 as a target for adaptive immunity (8, 9). To escape clearance by antibodies that recognize PfEMP1, parasites systematically change the form of PfEMP1 they express, thus continuously altering their antigenic signature and promoting a chronic infection that can extend over a year (reviewed in (10)).

Different forms of PfEMP1 are encoded by individual members of the *var* gene family, a collection of highly variable, paralogous genes numbering between 45 and 90 and distributed throughout the parasite's genome, primarily within subtelomeric regions or as tandemly arranged clusters within the interior of the chromosomes (11). Epigenetic mechanisms ensure that only a single gene is actively transcribed at a time (12, 13), a process with parallels to allelic exclusion of immunoglobulin genes (14) or mutually exclusive expression within the olfactory receptor gene family in mammals (15). However, unlike these systems in which selection of the active gene is part of the differentiation process and thus permanent, *var* gene activation and silencing are reversible, thereby enabling parasites to switch which *var* gene is expressed, thus

changing the form of PfEMP1 on the infected cell surface. Many attributes of the

epigenetic processes that control *var* gene expression, including the histone

modifications that mark a gene for activation or silencing, are shared with model

eukaryotes (16-18). However, the added complexity of switching which gene is active

while maintaining mutually exclusive expression is largely without precedent outside of

pathogenic organisms. Moreover, given that the number of *var* genes within the

parasite's genome is relatively limited, switching events must be coordinated to avoid

rapid exhaustion of the parasite's variant capacity. Specifically, uncoordinated, random

var gene switching by individual parasites within a circulating population that can

number in the billions would result in rapid exposure of the entire *var* repertoire. In

contrast, *P. falciparum* infections are characterized by rising and falling waves of

parasitemia, with each wave representing a population of parasites expressing a single

or small number of *var* genes (19-21). Modelling studies have suggested that in semi-

immune hosts, an underlying structure or coordination to the switching process would

be optimal for extending an infection (22-24) by limit activation to a single or small

number of genes at a time within the circulating parasite population. However, while

communication between parasites has been suggested (25, 26), there is no evidence

that this influences *var* gene expression patterns and there does not appear to be a

strict switching order within the *var* gene family, therefore how this is accomplished

remains entirely without explanation.

In 2011, Recker and colleagues explored this phenomenon using mathematical

modelling based on data from switching events observed in cultured parasites (22).

They proposed that parasites do not switch directly from one gene to another, but rather

that a population of parasites switches from a dominant *var* gene, through a switch-

intermediate state in which many genes are transiently expressed, to either a new

dominant transcript or back to the original. This model also predicted that specific genes

could serve as either "source" or "sink" nodes and provide additional structure to the

network. The model provided a compelling explanation for how a population of parasites

that can reach up to 10^{10} individuals can display seemingly coordinated switching

patterns without the need for communication between cells or a fixed order of gene

activation. Further, it described both how parasites can extend a chronic infection as

well as successfully re-infect individuals when partial immunity exists. However, to date

no experimental data have provided a molecular basis for such a structured network,

the hypothetical switch-intermediate state or the source/sink nodes predicted by this

model.

Here we describe molecular genetic evidence that fulfils many of the predictions

of the previously proposed mathematical model. We identified a universally conserved,

unique *var* gene that displays characteristics of a sink node and plays a key role in

coordinating transcriptional switching events. Deletion of this locus disrupts *var* gene

switching, resulting in parasites that have a drastically reduced ability to change *var*

gene expression, thus disabling the process of antigenic variation that is required to

maintain a chronic infection. In addition, we describe an underlying pattern of biased *var*

transcriptional activation which shifts overtime, providing the potential for a coordinated

pattern of expression switching that could prevent premature exposure of the parasite's

variant repertoire over the length of an infection. These data extend our understanding

of antigenic variation beyond mathematical models and represent an important step

forward in understanding the pathogenic nature of human malaria.

RESULTS

Clonal parasite lines display either "single" or "many" var *gene expression profiles and*

can transition between these two states

The mathematical model derived by Recker and colleagues was based on observations

of *var* expression patterns observed in recently isolated clonal parasite populations (22).

The proposed transition from expression of a single *var* gene, through an intermediate

state in which many genes are expressed, then back to a single gene that becomes

dominant in the population is referred to as the "single-many-single" model for *var* gene

switching (Figure 1A). This is similar to the two-step model for olfactory receptor gene

activation in vertebrates, which has recently been shown to involve an initial, transient

state in which large numbers of genes are expressed at a low level, followed by

selection of a single gene for stable expression (27). Given the observations from this

model system and previous reports of *var* gene switching patterns, we attempted to

experimentally validate the SMS model of structured switching and to determine the

molecular requirements that underlie the hypothetical *var* gene network that forms the

foundation for this pathway.

The original proposal of the SMS model was based on analysis of *var* gene

expression by Northern blotting and quantitative real time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) using the

IT and 3D7 genetic backgrounds (22). Since this original description, the method for

determining *var* expression patterns has become widely used for NF54 and 3D7

through the further refinement of a standardized qRT-PCR method developed

specifically for this genetic background (28). This standardized method enables rapid,

quantitative assessment of the expression level of each *var* gene in the parasite's

genome. We employed this method to examine *var* gene expression profiles obtained

from recently cloned parasite lines derived from a single parent population of 3D7.

Specifically, we determined the expression level of each *var* gene within each

subcloned population approximately four weeks after cloning, the earliest time point

from which we could obtain suitable parasite numbers. Interestingly, these subcloned

populations displayed two fundamentally different expression patterns. Clones

displayed either dominant, relatively high-level expression of a single *var* gene with low-

level expression of other members of the family, as exemplified by clone 1 (Figure 1B,

top panel), or alternatively they lacked expression of a dominant gene and instead only

displayed heterogeneous, low-level expression of a large portion of the *var* gene family,

as shown by clone 2 (Figure 1B, bottom panel). Measurement of the total level of *var*

gene expression from all members of the family detected significantly fewer *var*

transcripts in the expression profile of clone 2 (Figure 1C), consistent with the lack of a

dominantly expressed gene and indicating that overall *var* expression is lower in this

population in addition to being more heterogenous. Given that the number of

generations after cloning was identical for both populations, these differences in *var*

gene expression profiles presumably reflect differences in the initial *var* expression state

or in switching frequency. Similar, rather dramatic differences in total *var* expression

levels have been previously described for clonal lines derived from both the NF54 and

IT parasite isolates (29, 30), suggesting this phenomenon is typical of cultured parasites

of different genetic backgrounds. The two phenotypes, either high-level, stable

expression of a dominant *var* gene or highly diverse, low-level expression of many

genes, are consistent with the "single" and "many" expression states proposed in the

SMS model (22).

If parasites transition between the single and many states as part of *var*

expression switching as proposed in the SMS model, and if this model applies to the

two different *var* expression profiles we observed in our recently cloned lines, then the

phenotypes should be reversible. Specifically, it should be possible to obtain "single"

parasites from a population of parasites that cumulatively expresses "many" *var* genes,

and vice versa. To test this hypothesis, we used serial subcloning by limiting dilution to

isolate and examine a large number of additional subclones (Figure 1D). As predicted,

we again obtained parasite populations that either displayed low-level expression of

many *var* genes or high-level, stable expression of one or a small number of genes,

regardless of which phenotype was displayed by the population from which the clone

was derived (Figure 1D; additional clones are shown in Figure 2B). Thus, it appears that

parasites can transition between these two states, leading to populations that display

heterogenous expression of many *var* genes or relatively stable expression of a single,

dominant *var* gene. In total, 74 recently subcloned lines were isolated and examined,

and each subclone was determined to be primarily in either the "single" or "many" state.

When total *var* transcript levels were determined by qRT-PCR, levels were significantly

lower in the "many" lines (Figure 1E), consistent with the initial observations shown in

Figure 1B and the SMS model. To ensure that this phenomenon was not a property

unique to parasites that had been in continuous culture for decades, we repeated the

subcloning a *var* expression analysis with a line of NF54 (the original isolate from which

3D7 was derived) that had not been in culture for as many replicative cycles and that

maintains many characteristics of parasites recently isolated from the field, for example

gametocytogenesis and knob formation. These subcloned lines similarly displayed

either the "single" or "many" phenotypes, with the "singles" displayed much higher levels

of total *var* transcripts (Supplementary Figure 1).

Distinct semi-conserved pattern of var *gene transcription underlies the "single" and*

"many" states and shifts slowly over time

In our *var* expression analysis of recently cloned parasites populations, we observed

that populations in both the "many" and "single" states expressed a subset of the *var*

gene family at a low level (Figure 1C). Importantly, the entire *var* gene family is not

equally represented within the subset of minor transcripts, suggesting that this low-level

var gene activation is consistently biased toward certain *var* genes. If such intrinsic

switching biases shift over time, they could shape the trajectory of *var* gene expression

over the course of an infection and provide a model for how large populations of

parasites could systematically cycle through their complement of *var* genes. This would

lead to semi-coordinated *var* gene switching, thereby avoiding antibody mediated

clearance while protecting the majority of the variant repertoire. If true, this hypothesis

provides a key insight into how antigenic variation with a small repertoire of genes can

maintain a chronic infection, however direct evidence for shifting switching biases within

the context of the SMS model has been lacking.

To specifically examine minor transcript expression, we compared the patterns of

minor transcripts from five of the newly isolated clonal populations shown by asterisks in

Figure 1D that displayed both the "single" and "many" expression profiles. RNA was

obtained on days 0, 10, 35, 49, 75 and 105 after initiation of the experiment and the

expression level of each *var* gene determined by qRT-PCR. The dominant *var* transcript

was removed from the expression profile of "single" populations and the expression

levels of the remainder of the *var* gene family displayed in a heatmap, thus enabling

easy visualization of the minor transcript expression pattern. We used this method to

determine if a distinct pattern exists and if it shifts overtime (Figure 2A). The heatmap

shows that there are subsets of *var* genes that are more highly represented within the

profiles of minor transcripts, and this pattern is largely shared within this group of closely

related subclones. However, the pattern is not fixed and displays variation between

subclones and over time. Two additional parasite populations that are genetically

identical but had been cultured separately for several years (clones 4 and 5) displayed

entirely different patterns of minor transcripts, providing additional evidence that the

pattern is not fixed (Figure 2A). The similarity of the patterns displayed by the five

subclones examined here likely reflects that these populations originated from a

common original clonal population.

To further investigate the shifting pattern of *var* minor transcript expression, we

employed a parallel approach. We again performed serial subcloning starting from

subclone 3.1, thereby obtaining additional closely related populations. If the pattern of

minor transcripts is semi-conserved and shifts slowly over time, it should be largely

shared in all the subcloned populations, regardless of whether they display a "single" or

"many" *var* expression profile, or if they express different dominant *var* genes. Rather

than following individual populations overtime, we instead isolated three "subclone

generations" (Figure 2B) and determined both the dominant *var* transcript as well as the

pattern of minor *var* transcripts for each subcloned population. Similar to our previous

observations, the subcloned populations displayed both "single" and "many" expression

patterns, and the dominant *var* gene varied amongst the "single" subclones (Figure 2B).

Comparison of the *var* minor transcripts once again detected the existence of a distinct

expression pattern that was semi-conserved but not fixed within this group of closely

related populations (Figure 2C).

Switching events converge overtime to var2csa*, a conserved* var *locus*

Previously, Mok and colleagues observed that after extended growth in culture, most

parasite populations eventually converged to stable expression of a unique, highly

conserved *var* gene called *var2csa* (UpsE), proposing that this gene could represent a

default choice for *var* gene switching (31). We similarly previously observed

convergence to *var2csa* expression when we artificially induced accelerated *var* gene

switching by altering the activity of histone modifiers (32, 33), further suggesting that the

var2csa locus could occupy a unique position in the *var* switching hierarchy. To

determine if *var2csa* likewise displayed preferential activation in our recently subcloned

parasite populations, we more closely examined *var* transcript prevalence over time in

the expression profiles for the five clonal lines shown in Figure 2A. Consistent with

previous observations (31, 33), all the clones, regardless of their initial switching

frequency, eventually displayed significant expression levels of *var2csa* (Figure 3A). In

each instance, switching to *var2csa* was highly favoured, suggesting that this *var* gene

might occupy a unique position within the *var* gene switching hierarchy.

The var2csa *locus is required for efficient* var *gene switching*

With respect to the SMS model, *var2csa* displays the properties of a sink node, and is

by far the most likely *var* gene to become highly activated in our cultures (Figure 3A).

This gene also displays several other properties that make it an atypical member of the

family, including universal conservation extending to related species that infect

chimpanzees and gorillas (34, 35) and the presence of a unique upstream regulatory

region that includes an upstream open reading frame (uORF) resulting in translational

repression of the mRNA (36-38). The gene can therefore transcribe mRNA without

producing PfEMP1 and thus could be transcriptionally activated repeatedly over the

course of an infection without generating an antibody response by the host. Based on

these unusual properties, we hypothesized that *var2csa* represents the dominant sink

node at the center of the SMS network. If correct, we predicted that loss of *var2csa*

would significantly alter how parasites undergo *var* gene switching. We recently isolated

numerous independent clonal parasite lines in which the entire subtelomeric region

surrounding *var2csa* was deleted from the parasite's genome and the chromosome end

"healed" through de novo telomere addition (Figure 3B) (39). To complement this set of

deletions, we employed CRISPR/Cas9 mediated genome editing to replace the *var2csa*

upstream region with a plasmid construct that included a drug selectable marker,

thereby deleting the entire promoter region and rendering the gene non-functional

(Figure 3C). Several independent clones were obtained from independent transfections

of both 3D7 and NF54 that had this integration event and the structure of the resulting

locus was verified by whole genome sequencing. For all subsequent experiments, we

observed no differences in phenotypes between the clones resulting from telomeric

truncations and those derived from deletion of the *var2csa* promoter region.

To examine the effect of disruption of *var2csa* on *var* gene expression, *var*

expression profiles were examined over an extended time in culture using qRT-PCR,

and five representative clones (two derived from CRISPR-mediated disruption of the

locus and three from subtelomeric deletion) are shown in Figure 4A. For all the clones,

the initial *var* expression profiles resembled the two phenotypes previously observed

when wildtype parasite populations were examined (i.e. either "single" or "many"). For

example, two clonal lines (V2dis1 and ΔV2_3) displayed expression of a dominant *var*

gene while three other clones (V2dis2, ΔV2_1 and ΔV2_2) displayed a heterogeneous

mixture of numerous *var* transcripts (Figure 4A). These results suggest that the *var2csa*

locus is not required for *var* gene activation or expression, since all the isolated clones

were able to express *var* genes. To determine if *var2csa* has a role in *var* gene

switching, these 5 clones were cultured continuously in parallel for various periods of

time, ranging from 8 months to a year, monitoring *var* gene expression profiles

periodically. Given that wildtype parasite populations tend to converge to expression of

var2csa after extended time in culture (Figure 3A and (31)), we investigated what would

happen in the absence of this locus. We observed that all the *var2csa* deleted clones

remained remarkably stable in their expression profiles, with the two "single" lines

maintaining dominant expression of the same active *var* gene throughout the

experiment, a time period extending over a year (Figure 4A). Moreover, the three clones

that displayed the "many" state failed to converge to expression of any dominant *var*

gene and continued to display highly heterogenous expression profiles (Figure 4A).

These data indicate that convergent transcriptional activation is a unique property of

var2csa and that no other *var* gene within the 3D7 genome can easily substitute upon

var2csa deletion. In addition, the loss of *var2csa* appears to alter how efficiently

parasites undergo *var* gene switching, resulting in parasites that, while some changes in

expression are detectable, switch at a much slower rate. These results are consistent

with a role for *var2csa* as the dominant sink node at the center of the SMS network.

Loss of var2csa *disrupts the underlying* var *gene transcriptional activation network*

Given that the loss of *var2csa* altered *var* gene switching frequency (Figure 4A), we

were interested in whether it might also influence the underlying pattern of minor *var*

transcript expression that we observed in wildtype parasites (Figure 2). To investigate

this, we generated a set of *var2csa*-deleted subclones that were all derived from the

same parent clonal population but that displayed different *var* expression profiles

(Figure 4B, top). Similar to our previous analysis, we then examined the minor transcript

pattern over multiple time points of continuous culture (Figure 4B, heatmap). While

patterns of expression are detectable within individual subclones, these patterns were

much more diverse than displayed by the wildtype subclones and varied substantially

between subclones and over time. To verify this conclusion in an unbiased, empirical

fashion, we applied non-metric dimensional scaling based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity

(NMDS), treating the expression levels of each *var* minor transcript as variables (Figure

4C), and we included both wildtype and *var2csa*-deleted lines for comparison. The

patterns from all the wildtype clones closely clustered within a small region of the plot

(shown in shades of light green), indicative of the similarity in the underlying expression

patterns. In sharp contrast, the clusters from the different *var2csa*-deleted lines are

scattered throughout the plot with only minor overlap, thus displaying a much-reduced

stability of the pattern of *var* minor transcripts upon deletion of *var2csa* (Figure 4C). The

increased variance within the clusters from the *var2csa*-deleted lines was confirmed by

measuring the degree of sample dispersion, which can be inferred by the area on the

plot (as defined by the mean distance of each time point from the group centroid)

(Figure 4D).

Taken together, these data are consistent with the conclusion that the underlying

pattern of *var* expression is semi-stable within closely related wildtype parasite

populations but is less stable and displays much greater variability in the *var2csa*-

deleted lines. If the patterns of minor transcripts analysed here reflect underlying on-

switching rates for individual genes, a model emerges in which *var* genes have differing

propensities for activation, and that these change overtime, thereby enabling

populations of parasites to systematically cycle through their repertoire of *var* genes

over the course of an infection. The greater variability displayed by the *var2csa*-deleted

lines indicates that the loss of the *var2csa* locus disrupted the organization of the

underlying pattern of *var* gene minor transcripts or its stability, which could in turn

disrupt or substantially alter the structured pattern of *var* gene transcriptional activation.

The "single" and "many" var *expression states are associated with differences in the*

overall ring-stage transcriptome

To gain additional insights into the two hypothetical *var* expression states, we employed

whole transcriptome analysis of both wildtype and *var2csa*-mutated lines. Specifically,

we performed RNA-seq from tightly synchronized ring stage (~16 hrs post-invasion) and

trophozoite stage (~34 hrs post-invasion) parasite populations. We compared

transcriptomes from 11 different lines, including 4 *var2csa*-mutated lines in the "single"

state, 3 *var2csa*-mutated lines in the "many" state, and 4 wildtype lines (2 "manys" and

2 "singles"). To control for possible effects from plasmid integration, two of the wildtype

lines (called WT_rif1 and WT_rif2) contain a plasmid integrated into a *rif* gene,

analogous to the integration used to disrupt *var2csa* as shown in Figure 3C. Because

we were interested in changes to expression of genes other than those that undergo

clonally variant expression (40), we excluded *var, rif, stevor* and *phist* genes and

performed the analysis on the remaining protein coding genes in the 3D7 genome.

As an initial assessment of gene expression in ring-stage parasites (16 hrs post-

invasion), we performed principal component analysis (PCA) based on the mRNA levels

of 5721 genes to determine if gene expression patterns are associated with the different

var expression states. This analysis demonstrated clear clustering between populations

that displayed either the "single" or "many" phenotype (Figure 4E). Further, the parasite

lines with the *var2csa*-mutant "single" or "many" expression profiles displayed the most

polarized patterns of gene expression while the wildtype lines presented intermediate

expression patterns. Permutational multivariate ANOVA (ADONIS) confirmed that the

var expression profiles contributed strongly to gene expression variability (R^2= 0.42768,

p=0.001***). This implies that the *var* gene expression state (either "single" or "many")

is associated with changes in the overall transcriptome at the ring-stage of the asexual

cycle. Interestingly, this phenomenon was not observed in trophozoites (see below).

Our previous qRT-PCR analysis of wildtype "single" and "many" parasite lines found

that they display very different total *var* gene expression levels (Figure 1C and E). To

confirm this observation, we quantified the *var* transcripts from our RNA-seq analysis

from all sequenced lines. Consistent with our previous results, the wildtype "single" lines

displayed higher total *var* transcripts than the "many" lines, and these differences were

magnified in the *var2csa*-mutant lines (Figure 4F).

Transcriptome analysis indicates that "single" and "many" parasites differ in cell cycle

progression

Further analysis of the transcriptional differences between the populations

identified 611 differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.05) when comparing the *var2csa*-

mutant "singles" to the *var2csa*-mutant "manys" at the ring stage (Figure 5A, left;

Supplementary Table S1). Specifically, we found 562 genes upregulated in "singles"

and the remaining 49 genes upregulated in "manys", and these differences largely

disappeared in trophozoites (Figure 5A, right; Supplementary Table S2). Functional and

Gene Ontology analyses of the differentially expressed genes only presented broad,

relatively unspecific terms and did not identify any enriched metabolic pathways or

functions (Supplementary Tables S3 and S4). This result prompted us to investigate

whether the observed transcriptional changes were indicative of a shift in cell cycle

progression rather than specific changes in cellular functions. We therefore applied two

independent methods as described by Poran et al. (41) and Lemieux et al. (42) to

estimate the approximate point in the replicative cycle of each of our ring-stage parasite

populations. We compared the transcriptomes obtained from our lines to hypothetical

transcriptomes derived from modeled parasite populations over a simulated asexual

replication time course. Both methods consistently indicated a shift in cell cycle

progression, with the *var2csa*-mutant "single" lines displaying an earlier point in the

asexual cycle than the *var2csa*-mutant "many" lines and with the wildtype lines

displaying an intermediate timepoint (Figure 5B and C). This continuum in cell cycle

progression was consistent for all 11 lines, despite the fact that all cultures were

synchronized to 16 hours post-invasion (hpi). Once again, the *var2csa*-mutant lines

occupied the extreme positions in this continuum, indicating that these lines display

more polarized phenotypes (Figure 5B and C, Supplementary Table S5).

To further investigate the possibility that the differences in gene expression

resulted from a shift in ring-stage progression, we used the PlasmoDB database to

examine the transcriptional timing of all the differentially expressed genes. We found

that of the 562 genes upregulated in "singles", 559 have higher transcription levels at 0-

10 hour hpi compared to 10-20 hpi and similarly, all 49 genes upregulated in "manys"

have higher transcription levels at 10-20 hpi compared to 0-10 hpi (Figure 5D and E,

Supplementary Tables S3 and S4), providing additional evidence that the transcriptional

differences of these populations likely reflect a shift in the replicative cycle. The

expression levels of the differentially expressed genes for all 11 lines again confirm that

the 4 wildtype lines display an intermediate level of transcription for all the differentially

expressed genes (Figure 5F). Taken together, these analyses indicate that being in the

"single" or "many" state correlates strongly with how quickly parasites progress through

the ring-stage of the cycle. In addition, the *var2csa*-mutant lines display more polarized

phenotypes, suggesting that these populations are more homogenous in being either

"single" or "many", a conclusion consistent with the hypothesis that in the absence of

var2csa, parasites are less efficient in transitioning between states. A similar change in

ring-stage progression was previously observed in response to treatment with a histone

methyltransferase inhibitor (43) that also altered *var* gene expression patterns (33), as

well as in parasites that display reduced sensitivity to artemisinin (44, 45), indicating that

how quickly parasites progress through the first half of their replicative cycle is

somewhat flexible. Interestingly, these differences appear to be largely limited to

progression through the ring-stage. Measurement of DNA content of synchronized

cultures by flowcytometry indicated that *var2csa*-mutant "single" and "many" populations

undergo DNA replication with similar timing as wildtype parasites (Figure 5G), and

growth assays did not detect any overall differences in the growth of the cultures

(Supplementary Figure 2), indicating that length of the complete replication cycle is not

detectably different. Thus, these experiments indicate that the "single" and "many"

states are distinct beyond just *var* gene expression, and likely reflect changes in the

nuclear or epigenetic organization of the parasite's genome that affect ring-stage

progression and associated gene expression patterns.

DISCUSSION

The SMS model for *var* gene transcriptional switching proposes that switching

expression from one *var* gene to another involves transition from transcribing a single

var gene, to many, then back to a single gene again (Figure 1A). This type of two-step

selection of a gene for activation is now well documented for the choice of a single

transcriptionally active olfactory receptor gene in mammals (46) and more recently for

expression of a single *vsg* in metacyclic African trypanosomes (47). In both cases this

involves the initial, low-level transcription of multiple genes, which is then limited to a

single gene in fully differentiated cells (27, 47-49). In olfactory neurons, this coincides

with the stepwise establishment of specific inter-chromosomal contacts and the

assembly of subnuclear compartments that limit expression to a single gene (50). Our

results indicate that a similar process occurs in malaria parasites during *var* gene

switching, a possibility that is consistent with the suggestion that individual parasites

can express multiple *var* genes, a phenomenon that was previously reported using

immunofluorescence and in situ hybridization (51). If correct, mutually exclusive *var*

gene expression is possibly more plastic than previously assumed, although additional

work at the single cell level will be required to fully characterize the extent of *var* gene

activation in individual parasites in the "many" state.

Populations of parasites in which *var2csa* was deleted or disrupted displayed

slower *var* gene switching rates (Figures 3) and appear more polarized with respect to

the "single" vs "many" states (Figure 5), indicating that they are much less efficient in

transitioning between these two states. How the *var2csa* locus contributes to

transcriptional switching is not known, although given that the *var2csa* promoter region

appears to be important for this function, it is tempting to propose a model of promoter

competition, as has been proposed for chromosome choice during X-inactivation in

mammals or *vsg* expression site choice in African trypanosomes (47, 52). Such models

typically propose that when in the many state, multiple loci compete or "race" for

activation, with each locus expressing a low level of transcripts. When one locus

reaches a threshold, transcription from the other loci is suppressed, resulting in stable

monoallelic expression. If this model applies to *var* gene expression, the unique nature

of the *var2csa* promoter could enable it to compete with an actively expressed *var* gene,

thereby lowering its expression level to below the threshold and thus allowing the

parasite to re-enter the "many" state. This would provide an explanation for why loss of

the *var2csa* locus results in stabilization of the active *var* gene and greatly reduces

switching. Previous work from Duffy et al (53, 54) showed that alterations to sequences

adjacent to the *var2csa* promoter can further increase its competitiveness, making it

hypercompetitive and stably expressed, thus suppressing switching rates in a way

consistent with this model. The propensities of cultured parasites to converge toward

expression of *var2csa* independent of genomic rearrangement is also consistent with its

highly competitive nature (31). To complete a switch to an alternative *var* gene,

activation of *var2csa* would have to be unstable, a property that could result from its

unique structure, including the presence of an upstream open reading frame and an

untranslated mRNA (36, 37).

The location of a large proportion of the *var* gene family within subtelomeric

regions makes them uniquely subject to frequent recombination and deletion events, an

inherent plasticity that is reflected in the variable number of *var* genes observed in the

genomes of different parasites isolates (55). Interestingly, despite the hyper-

recombinogenic nature of the subtelomeric region in which it resides, *var2csa* remains

conserved in all *P. falciparum* lines examined, and this conservation extends to the

related species *P. reichenowi* and *P. praefalciparum* (35). We hypothesize that its role

in mediating expression switching selects for its preservation within the genomes of

wildtypes parasites. This hypothesized additional role for *var2csa* is consistent with

detection of its transcription non-pregnant individuals (56-58) as well as activation of

var2csa coincident with *var* gene switching during an experimental human infection

(20). We previously documented frequent subtelomeric deletions that included *var*

genes on other chromosomes (59, 60), including the subtelomeric regions of

chromosomes 2, 3 and 14 in the 3D7 control lines employed here (59), however none of

these deletion events resulted in altered *var* switching phenotypes, indicating that the

properties we describe here are unique to the *var2csa* locus. The frequently described

convergence of cultured parasite populations to expression of *var2csa* could be a result

of a selective growth advantage parasites acquire if the *var2csa* transcript only

translates the uORF, thus saving the metabolic cost of translating a full-length PfEMP1.

While feasible, if true one would expect the "many" parasites to similarly display a

selective growth advantage given their very low rate of *var* gene transcription, which we

do not observe (Supplementary Figure 2).

In addition to changing the frequency of *var* expression switching, deletion of

var2csa also resulted in major changes in the pattern of minor *var* transcripts displayed

by parasite populations (Figure 3). This underlying pattern of transcription has been

proposed to reflect switching biases within the *var* gene network (22, 61), thereby

imposing a structure on the trajectory that *var* expression takes over the course of an

infection. This type of structured genetic network could coordinate *var* gene activation

throughout the parasite population without requiring communication between infected

cells and thus would enable lengthy infections despite a relatively small number of

variant antigen-encoding genes. The shifting pattern of *var* minor transcripts observed in

wildtype parasites and shown in Figure 2 is consistent with this hypothesis. The

disruption of the pattern of minor transcripts upon deletion of *var2csa* indicates that this

gene plays an important role in maintaining the structure of the *var* gene transcriptional

network, although the molecular mechanism underlying this phenomenon is not known.

Additional work focused on subnuclear genome organization, specifically with regard to

heterochromatic regions, and the role that *var2csa* plays in this organization are likely to

shed light on this process.

The switching biases observed in cultured parasites could help refine the

trajectory of *var* expression over the course of an infection, as suggested by the model

proposes by Recker et al (22). However, it is important to note that while *var* gene

expression patterns displayed by parasite cultures likely reflect inherent switching

biases, in a natural infection the host's immune system, in particular existing antibodies

against PfEMP1, are likely to exert a profound selective pressure that determines which

parasites can successfully establish a high parasitemia. Pre-existing anti-PfEMP1

antibodies that recognize any particular variant will select against parasites expressing

its encoding *var* gene, thus strongly shaping the *var* expression pattern over the course

of an infection. The importance of antibody selection and pre-existing immunity explains

why expression patterns cannot be truly hardwired and must maintain flexibility,

indicating why switching biases rather than a strict switching order are ideal for

maintaining chronic infections.

Given the lack of an *in vivo* experimental system for *P. falciparum*, it is difficult to

investigate the "single" and "many" states in natural infections. However, an interesting

case study of a semi-immune African immigrant to Europe might be informative (62). No

parasites were initially detected in this patient by microscopy or by malaria antigen

tests, although the individual displayed high titers of antibodies to malaria antigens

indicating a significant level of immunity. Upon splenectomy, parasitemia became

evident and increased to high levels, indicating a latent infection existed prior to removal

of the spleen. The parasites observed in the peripheral circulation represented all

stages of the asexual cycle, indicating a lack of cytoadherence, and in vitro binding

assays failed to detect adhesion to various endothelial receptors. Further, molecular

analysis indicated that these parasites did not express *var* genes at a detectable level.

However, upon transfer to in vitro culture, *var* gene expression became easily

detectable and the infected cells became cytoadherent. This is reminiscent of our

observations that parasites can transition between high-level expression of individual

var genes (the "single" state) and very low-level *var* gene expression (the "many" state).

A similar example of parasites lacking expression of surface antigens upon splenectomy

was observed in monkeys infected with *Plasmodium knowlesi* (7), suggesting that this

might be a more general phenomenon amongst malaria parasite species that display

cytoadherence. It is tempting to speculate that in the presence of high titers of anti-

PfEMP1 antibodies, parasites in the "many" state are selected for and thus represent

the dominant population found in semi-immune, asymptomatic infected individuals.

Consistent with this hypothesis, Kho et al. more recently reported that the vast majority

of the parasite biomass in asymptomatic infections is found in the spleen (63), indicative

of non-cytoadherent parasites and potentially reflecting lower expression of PfEMP1.

Similarly, a recent study of parasites obtained from asymptomatic patients at the end of

a dry season detected a lower level of *var* expression than observed in parasites from

symptomatic patients, although this difference was not statistically significant (64). Thus,

it is possible that in individuals with significant levels of immunity, parasites in the

"many" state can persist at a low level, escaping anti-PfEMP1 antibodies through

repressed *var* gene expression and maintaining very low parasitemias.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Department of Microbiology and Immunology at Weill Medical College of Cornell

University acknowledges the support of the William Randolph Hearst Foundation. This

work was supported by grants AI 52390 and AI99327 from the National Institutes of

Health to KWD. JEV was supported by training grant T32GM008539 from the National

Institutes of Health to Weill Cornell Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences. FF

received support from Early Postdoc Mobility grant P2BEP3_191777 from the Swiss

National Science Foundation. KWD is a Stavros S. Niarchos Scholar and a recipient of

a William Randolf Hearst Endowed Faculty Fellowship. The funders had no role in the

study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the

manuscript.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, XZ and KWD; Methodology, XZ, FF, JEV, IL and KWD;

Investigation, XZ, FF, JEV, IL, VP and MRG; Writing – Original Draft, XZ and KWD;

Writing – Reviewing and Editing, XZ, FF, JEV, IL and KWD; Funding Acquisition, KWD

and FF; Supervision, XZ and KWD.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Parasite culture: All parasite strains were derived from the reference strain NF54/3D7

and maintained in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 0.5% AlbuMAX II (Invitrogen) in an

atmosphere of 5% O_2, 5% CO_2 and 90% N_2 at 37° C and 3% -5% hematocrit.

Transgenic lines were maintained under continuous drug-selection. Clonal parasite lines

were obtained by limiting dilution (65) in 96 well plates. For analysis of gene expression

in subcloned populations, parasites were grown for 5 weeks from the initial isolation of

individual parasites. Daily parasitemias were monitored using a Cytek DxP12 flow

cytometer.

Generation of transgenic lines: Parasites with chromosomal truncations that included

the *var2csa* locus were generated and described in a previous study (66). Specific

disruption of the *var2csa* locus was performed via CRISPR-targeted plasmid integration.

Briefly, parasites were transfected by electroporation (67, 68) using derivatives of the

plasmids pL6_eGFP and pUF1_Cas9 for CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing as

described by Ghorbal and colleagues (69). Homology blocks were PCR amplified from

3D7 genomic DNA, using specific primers flanked by 15bp overlapping regions from

pL6-*var2csa*-promoter-deletion plasmid and pUF1_Cas9 (list of primers, see

Supplementary Table S8) that allowed the cloning by infusion cloning (Clontech, Takara

Bio USA, Mountain View, CA, USA). Plasmid integration was validated by PCR across

the site of integration and whole genome sequencing.

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis and Quantitative RT-PCR: Parasite RNA was

extracted from synchronized late ring-stage parasites as described previously (70).

Briefly, ring-stage parasites were collected using a double synchronization approach.

Cultures were initially synchronized using 5% sorbitol to select for ring-stages. 36 hours

later, late-stage infected erythrocytes (42-48 hours post-invasion) were collected using

percoll/sorbitol gradient centrifugation and allowed to reinvade overnight. Ring-stage

parasites were collected for RNA extraction 18 hours after enrichment for late-stage

infected erythrocytes (12-18 hours post-invasion). After an additional 20 hours in

culture, trophozoites were collected for RNA isolation. Synchronization was verified by

microscopy and flow cytometry. RNA was extracted with TRiZol (Invitrogen) and purified

on PureLink (Invitrogen) columns following the manufacturer's protocols. Isolated RNA

was treated with Deoxyribonuclease I (DNase I) (Invitrogen) to degrade contaminating

genomic DNA. cDNA was synthesized from approximately 800 ng of RNA in a reaction

that included Superscript II RNase H reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) as described by

the manufacturer. Control reactions in absence of reverse transcriptase were employed

to verify a lack of gDNA contamination. We employed the qRT-PCR *var* primer set of

Salanti et al to detect transcript levels from all *var* genes (71). This primer set was

specifically designed and tested to enable absolute quantification of transcript levels.

Additional primers were designed and applied to increase the accuracy (list of primers,

see Supplementary Table S7). Quantitative PCR was performed using a Quant Studio 6

Flex 489 realtime PCR machine (Thermo Fisher) using iTaq Sybr Green (Bio-Rad).

Quantities were normalized to seryl-tRNA synthetase (PF3D7_0717700). ΔCT for each

individual primer pair was determined by subtracting the individual CT value from the

CT value of the control and converting to relative copy numbers with the formula $2^{\Delta CT}$.

All Q-RT-PCR assays were performed in a 384-well format PCR machine enabling

duplicate or triplicate runs performed simultaneously. Biological replicates were

prepared from independent RNA extractions. Relative copy numbers for each *var* gene

were determined in Microscoft Excel and transcriptional profiles of individual genes are

presented as pie charts or as bar graphs. In bar graphs, standard deviations from

biological replicates are shown with error bars.

RNA sequencing and analysis: Parasite-infected RBCs from highly synchronous

cultures containing ring or trophozoites stage parasites were collected for RNAseq.

Following RNA isolation, RNA concentrations were measured using the NanoDrop

system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA). Total RNA integrity was checked

using a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). rRNA removal,

preparation of an RNA sample library and final cDNA library were completed and the

libraries pooled for sequenced using an Illumina HiSeq4000 sequencer with paired-end

protocol performed by the Genomics Core Laboratory at Weill Cornell Medicine. The

raw reads that passed quality control were mapped to the *Plasmodium falciparum*

genome (PlasmoDB-9.0_Pfalciparum3D7_Genome) by aligner HISAT2(v.2.2.0) (72,

73). Based on the alignment, featureCounts (Package Rsubread v.2.0.1) (74) was used

to generate a raw counts matrix for differential expression analysis (DE). We

independently performed both DESeq2 (v.3.14) (75) and EdgeR (v.3.14) (76-78) for the

differential expression analysis. Genes with a false discovery rate of <=0.05 with a

mean FPKM >5 in at least one strain were called significant. To exclude the obvious

impact of antigenic variant genes, we excluded *var*, *rif*, *stevor* and *phist* genes from the

differential expression analysis. The analysis was conducted with R (v.4.1.0) in Rstudio

(1.4.1717). RNA sequencing was performed by the Weill Cornell Genomic core with the

following parameters. All samples must have a RIN value greater than 8 for library

synthesis. Ribosomal RNA was removed from total RNA using the Ribo Zero Gold for

human/mouse/rat kit (Illumina). Using the TruSeq RNA Sample Library Preparation v.2

kit (Illumina), RNA was fragmented into small pieces using divalent cations under

elevated temperature. 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 RNaseH. The cDNA fragments then went through an end

repair process, the addition of a single 'A' base and ligation of adaptors. The products

were then purified and enriched with PCR to create the final cDNA library. Libraries

were pooled and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq4000 sequencer with 100bp Paired

End Sequencing (PE100). Total reads and mapped reads for each sample are shown in

Supplemental Table S9.

Statistical analysis: Statistical analysis was performed in R (v.4.1.0). We assessed beta

diversity of our samples' *var genes* expression profiles using non-metric multi-

dimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination. NMDS plots and Beta dispersion were

generated in vegan: Community Ecology Package (v.2.5-7) using Bray-Curtis

dissimilarity. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was

performed using the 'adonis' function in vegan. Heatmaps were generated by

heatmap.2 from gplots (v. 2.3.0).

Flow cytometry and assays for cell cycle progression: Progression through the cell cycle

was determined by flow cytometric analysis of parasite DNA content as previously

described (79). Briefly, parasites were tightly synchronized were stained at 37°C with 16

μM Hoechst 33342 for 30 min at 1% hematocrit in incomplete media followed by a

single wash in PBS. Cells were then diluted to 0.1% hematocrit in PBS and analyzed

using a Cytek DxP11 flow cytometer for Hoechst 33342 DNA-staining (375nm laser,

450/50 emission filter).

Growth assays: Cultures were adjusted to 0.05% - 0.5% parasitemia, 5% hematocrit in

a total culture volume of 5 ml. Parasitemia was obtained daily by flow cytometry and

verified by thin smear stained with Giemsa (Sigma). Parasitemia was allowed to

increase over time until reaching a level greater than 0.5% - 1%, at which time cultures

were diluted 1 in 10 in culture media containing uninfected RBCs. Changes in

parasitemia were calculated by multiplying the daily parasitemia by the exponential

dilution factor and the data were graphed on a log scale over time.

Materials Availability Statement: Data Deposition: Whole genome sequence and

transcriptome data are available at the BioProject database of the NCBI. The genome

sequencing data can be accessed at this link:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/515738. The RNAseq data can be accessed at

this link: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA802886. All genetically

modified parasite lines are available from the authors upon request.

REFERENCES

1.	WHO, World Malaria Report 2021. (2021).
2.	D. I. Baruch *et al.*, Cloning the *P. falciparum* gene encoding PfEMP1, a malarial variant antigen and adherence receptor on the surface of parasitized human erythrocytes. *Cell* **82**, 77-87 (1995).
3.	J. D. Smith *et al.*, Switches in expression of *Plasmodium falciparum var* genes correlate with changes in antigenic and cytoadherent phenotypes of infected erythrocytes. *Cell* **82**, 101-110 (1995).
4.	X. Su *et al.*, A large and diverse gene family (*var*) encodes 200-350 kD proteins implicated in the antigenic variation and cytoadherence of *Plasmodium falciparum*-infected erythrocytes. *Cell* **82**, 89-100 (1995).
5.	J. P. Gardner, R. A. Pinches, D. J. Roberts, C. I. Newbold, Variant antigens and endothelial receptor adhesion in *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **93**, 3503-3508 (1996).
6.	P. H. David, M. Hommel, L. H. Miller, I. J. Udeinya, L. D. Oligino, Parasite sequestration in *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria: Spleen and antibody modulation of cytoadherence of infected erythrocytes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **80**, 5075-5079 (1983).
7.	J. W. Barnwell, R. J. Howard, H. G. Coon, L. H. Miller, Splenic requirement for antigenic variation and expression of the variant antigen on the erythrocyte membrane in cloned Plasmodium knowlesi malaria. *Infect Immun* **40**, 985-994 (1983).
8.	P. C. Bull *et al.*, Parasite antigens on the infected red cell surface are targets for naturally acquired immunity to malaria. *Nat. Med* **4**, 358-360 (1998).
9.	H. A. Giha *et al.*, Antibodies to variable Plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocyte surface antigens are associated with protection from novel malaria infections. *Immunol. Lett* **71**, 117-126 (2000).
10.	K. W. Deitsch, R. Dzikowski, Variant Gene Expression and Antigenic Variation by Malaria Parasites. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol* **71**, 625-641 (2017).
11.	T. D. Otto *et al.*, Long read assemblies of geographically dispersed Plasmodium falciparum isolates reveal highly structured subtelomeres. *Wellcome. Open. Res* **3**, 52 (2018).
12.	A. Scherf *et al.*, Antigenic variation in malaria: *in situ* switching, relaxed and mutually exclusive transcription of *var* genes during intra-erythrocytic development in *Plasmodium falciparum*. *EMBO J* **17**, 5418-5426 (1998).
13.	K. W. Deitsch, A. del Pinal, T. E. Wellems, Intra-cluster recombination and var transcription switches in the antigenic variation of Plasmodium falciparum. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol* **101**, 107-116 (1999).
14.	A. E. Corcoran, Immunoglobulin locus silencing and allelic exclusion. *Semin. Immunol* **17**, 141-154 (2005).
15.	I. Rodriguez, Singular expression of olfactory receptor genes. *Cell* **155**, 274-277 (2013).
16.	T. Chookajorn *et al.*, Epigenetic memory at malaria virulence genes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A* **104**, 899-902 (2007).
17.	J. J. Lopez-Rubio, L. Mancio-Silva, A. Scherf, Genome-wide analysis of heterochromatin associates clonally variant gene regulation with perinuclear repressive centers in malaria parasites. *Cell Host. Microbe* **5**, 179-190 (2009).
18.	C. Flueck *et al.*, Plasmodium falciparum heterochromatin protein 1 marks genomic loci linked to phenotypic variation of exported virulence factors. *PLoS. Pathog* **5**, e1000569 (2009).
19.	A. Bachmann *et al.*, Highly co-ordinated var gene expression and switching in clinical Plasmodium falciparum isolates from non-immune malaria patients. *Cell Microbiol* **13**, 1397-1409 (2011).

727   20.   A. Bachmann *et al.*, Controlled human malaria infection with Plasmodium falciparum
728   demonstrates impact of naturally acquired immunity on virulence gene expression. *PLoS Pathog*
729   **15**, e1007906 (2019).
730   21.   M. Kaestli, A. Cortes, M. Lagog, M. Ott, H. P. Beck, Longitudinal assessment of Plasmodium
731   falciparum var gene transcription in naturally infected asymptomatic children in Papua New
732   Guinea. *J. Infect. Dis* **189**, 1942-1951 (2004).
733   22.   M. Recker *et al.*, Antigenic variation in Plasmodium falciparum malaria involves a highly
734   structured switching pattern. *PLoS. Pathog* **7**, e1001306 (2011).
735   23.   R. Noble, M. Recker, A statistically rigorous method for determining antigenic switching
736   networks. *PLoS. ONE* **7**, e39335 (2012).
737   24.   R. Noble *et al.*, The antigenic switching network of Plasmodium falciparum and its implications
738   for the immuno-epidemiology of malaria. *Elife. (Cambridge)* **2**, e01074 (2013).
739   25.   P. Y. Mantel *et al.*, Malaria-infected erythrocyte-derived microvesicles mediate cellular
740   communication within the parasite population and with the host immune system. *Cell Host*
741   *Microbe* **13**, 521-534 (2013).
742   26.   N. Regev-Rudzki *et al.*, Cell-cell communication between malaria-infected red blood cells via
743   exosome-like vesicles. *Cell* **153**, 1120-1133 (2013).
744   27.   L. Tan, Q. Li, X. S. Xie, Olfactory sensory neurons transiently express multiple olfactory receptors
745   during development. *Mol Syst Biol* **11**, 844 (2015).
746   28.   A. Salanti *et al.*, Selective upregulation of a single distinctly structured var gene in chondroitin
747   sulphate A-adhering Plasmodium falciparum involved in pregnancy-associated malaria.
748   *Molecular Microbiology* **49**, 179-191 (2003).
749   29.   C. J. Merrick *et al.*, Functional analysis of sirtuin genes in multiple Plasmodium falciparum
750   strains. *PLoS. ONE* **10**, e0118865 (2015).
751   30.   J. H. Janes *et al.*, Investigating the host binding signature on the Plasmodium falciparum PfEMP1
752   protein family. *PLoS Pathog* **7**, e1002032 (2011).
753   31.   B. W. Mok *et al.*, Default Pathway of var2csa switching and translational repression in
754   Plasmodium falciparum. *PLoS. ONE* **3**, e1982 (2008).
755   32.   U. E. Ukaegbu *et al.*, Recruitment of PfSET2 by RNA polymerase II to variant antigen encoding
756   loci contributes to antigenic variation in P. falciparum. *PLoS. Pathog* **10**, e1003854 (2014).
757   33.   U. E. Ukaegbu *et al.*, A Unique Virulence Gene Occupies a Principal Position in Immune Evasion
758   by the Malaria Parasite Plasmodium falciparum. *PLoS. Genet* **11**, e1005234 (2015).
759   34.   M. M. Zilversmit *et al.*, Hypervariable antigen genes in malaria have ancient roots. *BMC. Evol.*
760   *Biol* **13**, 110 (2013).
761   35.   M. R. Gross, R. Hsu, K. W. Deitsch, Evolution of transcriptional control of antigenic variation and
762   virulence in human and ape malaria parasites. *BMC Ecol Evol* **21**, 139 (2021).
763   36.   B. Amulic, A. Salanti, T. Lavstsen, M. A. Nielsen, K. W. Deitsch, An upstream open reading frame
764   controls translation of var2csa, a gene implicated in placental malaria. *PLoS. Pathog* **5**, e1000256
765   (2009).
766   37.   C. Bancells, K. W. Deitsch, A molecular switch in the efficiency of translation reinitiation controls
767   expression of var2csa, a gene implicated in pregnancy-associated malaria. *Mol. Microbiol*
768   (2013).
769   38.   S. Chan *et al.*, Regulation of PfEMP1-VAR2CSA translation by a Plasmodium translation-
770   enhancing factor. *Nat Microbiol* **2**, 17068 (2017).
771   39.   X. Zhang *et al.*, Rapid antigen diversification through mitotic recombination in the human
772   malaria parasite Plasmodium falciparum. *PLoS. Biol* **17**, e3000271 (2019).
773   40.   A. Cortes, K. W. Deitsch, Malaria Epigenetics. *Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Med*
774   cshperspect.a025528 [pii];10.1101/cshperspect.a025528 [doi] (2017).

41.   A. Poran *et al.*, Single-cell RNA sequencing reveals a signature of sexual commitment in malaria
parasites. *Nature* **551**, 95-99 (2017).

42.   J. E. Lemieux *et al.*, Statistical estimation of cell-cycle progression and lineage commitment in
Plasmodium falciparum reveals a homogeneous pattern of transcription in ex vivo culture. *Proc*
Natl Acad Sci U S A **106**, 7559-7564 (2009).

43.   A. Chan, A. Dziedziech, L. A. Kirkman, K. W. Deitsch, J. Ankarklev, A Histone Methyltransferase
Inhibitor Can Reverse Epigenetically Acquired Drug Resistance in the Malaria Parasite
Plasmodium falciparum. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **64** (2020).

44.   S. Mok *et al.*, Artemisinin resistance in Plasmodium falciparum is associated with an altered
temporal pattern of transcription. *BMC. Genomics* **12**, 391 (2011).

45.   S. Mok *et al.*, Drug resistance. Population transcriptomics of human malaria parasites reveals the
mechanism of artemisinin resistance. *Science* **347**, 431-435 (2015).

46.   S. Serizawa, K. Miyamichi, H. Sakano, One neuron-one receptor rule in the mouse olfactory
system. *Trends Genet* **20**, 648-653 (2004).

47.   S. Hutchinson *et al.*, The establishment of variant surface glycoprotein monoallelic expression
revealed by single-cell RNA-seq of Trypanosoma brucei in the tsetse fly salivary glands. *PLoS*
Pathog **17**, e1009904 (2021).

48.   N. K. Hanchate *et al.*, Single-cell transcriptomics reveals receptor transformations during
olfactory neurogenesis. *Science* **350**, 1251-1255 (2015).

49.   L. R. Saraiva *et al.*, Hierarchical deconstruction of mouse olfactory sensory neurons: from whole
mucosa to single-cell RNA-seq. *Sci Rep* **5**, 18178 (2015).

50.   K. Monahan, A. Horta, S. Lomvardas, LHX2- and LDB1-mediated trans interactions regulate
olfactory receptor choice. *Nature* **565**, 448-453 (2019).

51.   L. Joergensen *et al.*, Surface co-expression of two different PfEMP1 antigens on single
plasmodium falciparum-infected erythrocytes facilitates binding to ICAM1 and PECAM1. *PLoS.*
Pathog **6**, e1001083 (2010).

52.   M. Constancia, B. Pickard, G. Kelsey, W. Reik, Imprinting mechanisms. *Genome Res* **8**, 881-900
(1998).

53.   M. F. Duffy, T. J. Byrne, C. Carret, A. Ivens, G. V. Brown, Ectopic recombination of a malaria var
gene during mitosis associated with an altered var switch rate. *J. Mol. Biol* **389**, 453-469 (2009).

54.   M. F. Duffy *et al.*, Activation and clustering of a Plasmodium falciparum var gene are affected by
subtelomeric sequences. *FEBS J* **284**, 237-257 (2017).

55.   T. Otto *et al.*, Evolutionary analysis of the most polymorphic gene family in falciparum malaria.
Wellcome Open Res **4**, 193 (2019).

56.   M. F. Duffy *et al.*, Transcribed var genes associated with placental malaria in Malawian women.
Infect. Immun **74**, 4875-4883 (2006).

57.   J. G. Beeson *et al.*, Antibodies among men and children to placental-binding Plasmodium
falciparum-infected erythrocytes that express var2csa. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **77**, 22-28 (2007).

58.   E. Rovira-Vallbona *et al.*, Transcription of var genes other than var2csa in Plasmodium
falciparum parasites infecting Mozambican pregnant women. *J Infect Dis* **204**, 27-35 (2011).

59.   S. F. Calhoun *et al.*, Chromosome End Repair and Genome Stability in Plasmodium falciparum.
MBio **8** (2017).

60.   J. Reed, L. A. Kirkman, B. F. Kafsack, C. E. Mason, K. W. Deitsch, Telomere length dynamics in
response to DNA damage in malaria parasites. *iScience* **24**, 102082 (2021).

61.   P. Horrocks, R. Pinches, Z. Christodoulou, S. Kyes, C. Newbold, Variable var transition rates
underlie antigenic variation in malaria. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A* (2004).

62. A. Bachmann *et al.*, Absence of erythrocyte sequestration and lack of multicopy gene family
expression in Plasmodium falciparum from a splenectomized malaria patient. *PLoS. ONE* **4**,
e7459 (2009).
63. S. Kho *et al.*, Hidden Biomass of Intact Malaria Parasites in the Human Spleen. *N Engl J Med* **384**,
2067-2069 (2021).
64. C. M. Andrade *et al.*, Increased circulation time of Plasmodium falciparum underlies persistent
asymptomatic infection in the dry season. *Nat Med* **26**, 1929-1940 (2020).
65. L. A. Kirkman, X. Z. Su, T. E. Wellems, Plasmodium falciparum: isolation of large numbers of
parasite clones from infected blood samples. *Exp Parasitol* **83**, 147-149 (1996).
66. X. Zhang *et al.*, Rapid antigen diversification through mitotic recombination in the human
malaria parasite Plasmodium falciparum. *PLoS Biol* **17**, e3000271 (2019).
67. Y. Wu, L. A. Kirkman, T. E. Wellems, Transformation of Plasmodium falciparum malaria parasites
by homologous integration of plasmids that confer resistance to pyrimethamine. *Proc Natl Acad*
Sci U S A **93**, 1130-1134 (1996).
68. K. Deitsch, C. Driskill, T. Wellems, Transformation of malaria parasites by the spontaneous
uptake and expression of DNA from human erythrocytes. *Nucleic Acids Res* **29**, 850-853 (2001).
69. M. Ghorbal *et al.*, Genome editing in the human malaria parasite Plasmodium falciparum using
the CRISPR-Cas9 system. *Nat Biotechnol* **32**, 819-821 (2014).
70. R. Dzikowski, M. Frank, K. Deitsch, Mutually exclusive expression of virulence genes by malaria
parasites is regulated independently of antigen production. *PLoS Pathog* **2**, e22 (2006).
71. A. Salanti *et al.*, Selective upregulation of a single distinctly structured var gene in chondroitin
sulphate A-adhering Plasmodium falciparum involved in pregnancy-associated malaria. *Mol*
Microbiol **49**, 179-191 (2003).
72. D. Kim, J. M. Paggi, C. Park, C. Bennett, S. L. Salzberg, Graph-based genome alignment and
genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. *Nat Biotechnol* **37**, 907-915 (2019).
73. E. Afgan *et al.*, The Galaxy platform for accessible, reproducible and collaborative biomedical
analyses: 2018 update. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**, W537-W544 (2018).
74. Y. Liao, G. K. Smyth, W. Shi, featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning
sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 923-930 (2014).
75. M. I. Love, W. Huber, S. Anders, Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* **15**, 550 (2014).
76. Y. Chen, A. T. Lun, G. K. Smyth, From reads to genes to pathways: differential expression analysis
of RNA-Seq experiments using Rsubread and the edgeR quasi-likelihood pipeline. *F1000Res* **5**,
1438 (2016).
77. D. J. McCarthy, Y. Chen, G. K. Smyth, Differential expression analysis of multifactor RNA-Seq
experiments with respect to biological variation. *Nucleic Acids Res* **40**, 4288-4297 (2012).
78. M. D. Robinson, D. J. McCarthy, G. K. Smyth, edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential
expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 139-140 (2010).
79. B. T. Grimberg, Methodology and application of flow cytometry for investigation of human
malaria parasites. *J. Immunol. Methods* **367**, 1-16 (2011).
80. R. Bartfai *et al.*, H2A.Z demarcates intergenic regions of the plasmodium falciparum epigenome
that are dynamically marked by H3K9ac and H3K4me3. *PLoS. Pathog* **6**, e1001223 (2010).
81. Z. Bozdech *et al.*, The transcriptome of the intraerythrocytic developmental cycle of Plasmodium
falciparum. *PLoS. Biol* **1**, E5 (2003).

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Detection of "single" and "many" *var* expression profiles in cultured parasite

populations. A) Schematic representation of the single-many-single (SMS) model for *var*

gene transcriptional switching. Each circle represents expression of an individual *var*

gene and arrows represent switches in expression. Switching events are hypothesized

to transition from activation of a single gene (top) to a broad range of genes (middle) to

a different single gene (bottom) or back to the original gene (reverse arrow). B) *var* gene

expression profiles for two clonal populations that display the single phenotype (clone 1,

top) or the many phenotype (clone 2, bottom). *var* transcription levels were determined

using a standardized qRT-PCR protocol with the expression of each individual *var* gene

displayed as relative copy number in the histogram. Error bars represent standard

deviation of three biological replicates. C) Total *var* expression for the two subclones

shown in B, with transcripts from each individual *var* gene shown in a different colour.

For clone 1, transcripts from the dominant gene are marked, while both clones display

similar levels of minor transcripts. D) Clone tree of wildtype 3D7 parasites. Pie charts

display the *var* expression profile for each subcloned population with each slice of the

pie representing the expression level of a single *var* gene. Vertical and horizontal lines

delineate sequential rounds of subcloning by limiting dilution. For parasite populations

that display a dominantly expressed *var* gene, the annotation number is shown below

the pie chart with the *var* type shown in parenthesis. The five subclones marked with an

asterisk are further analyzed in Figure 2. D) Total *var* expression levels as determined

by qRT-PCR for 74 subclones. The median +/- 95% confidence interval is shown, and

an unpaired t-test indicates a $p < 0.0001$ (***).

Figure 2: Detection of *var* gene minor transcript expression profiles in clonal populations overtime. A) Heatmap of *var* minor transcripts for the subclones 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. The clones were all derived from the same parent population as shown in Figure 1D. Pie charts show the initial *var* gene expression profiles above the heatmap. The annotation numbers for each *var* gene are shown to the left of the heatmap and organized according to *var* type (left, *var2csa* is considered separately in Figure 3). 6 timepoints are included for each clone. Two genetically identical parasite populations (clones 4 and 5) also originally derived from 3D7 but grown separately for several years are shown for comparison. For subclones 3.4 and 3.5, the dominant transcript (PF3D7_1240600 and PF3D7_0421100, respectively, marked by black boxes in the heatmap) was removed from the analysis to enable visualization of the minor transcripts. B) Clone tree of wildtype 3D7. The tree is organized into 3 "subclone generations" derived from initial Subclone 3.1 (top row). Pie charts display the *var* expression profile for each subclone. C) Heatmap of *var* minor transcripts for the individual clones from each generation shown in B with the pattern of the parent population (subclone 3.1) shown at the left for comparison. The annotation numbers for each *var* gene are shown to the left of the heatmap, and the gene order was organized according to *var* type. The order from left to right of each column in the heatmap corresponds to the order from left to right of the pie charts for each subclone generation shown in B. For parasites expressing the "single" phenotype, the dominant transcript (marked by black boxes in the heatmap) was removed to enable visualization of the minor transcripts.

Figure 3: Convergence to *var2csa* expression in long-term cultures and targeted

deletion of the *var2csa* locus. A) Changes in *var* expression over time in five clonal

parasite populations, three "manys" (subclones 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3) and two "singles"

(subclones 3.4 and 3.5), over several months of continuous culture. Expression of

var2csa is shown in red. B) Schematic diagram showing the truncation of the end of

chromosome 12 by telomere healing. Telomere repeats are shown as slanted lines and

the telomere associated repeat elements (TARES) are shown as an open box. The

interior of the chromosome is displayed as a dashed line. A ~60 kb deletion, including

three *var* genes (blue), three *rif* genes (green) and the *acs7* gene is shown. C)

Schematic diagram showing the *var2csa* locus and the plasmid containing homology

blocks for targeted integration (hb1 and hb2). The crossed lines linking the plasmid to

the chromosome signify sites of double cross over recombination leading to deletion of

approximately 2.5 kb upstream of the *va2csa* gene, including the promoter.

Figure 4: Alterations in *var* gene expression after deletion or disruption of *var2csa*. A)

Changes in *var* expression profile over time in 5 clonal parasite populations containing

deletions or disruption of the *var2csa* locus, including two in which the locus was

disrupted by plasmid integration (V2dis1 and V2dis2, top) and three in which the locus

was deleted by chromosomal truncation (ΔV2_1, ΔV2_2, ΔV2_3). V2dis1 and ΔV2_3

display a "single" phenotype while V2dis2, ΔV2_1, ΔV2_2 express many *var* genes. B)

Heatmap displaying the pattern of *var* minor transcripts over several timepoints for 5

var2csa-deleted lines. The clones were all derived from the same parent population,

and pie charts showing the initial *var* gene expression profiles are shown above the

heatmap. The annotation numbers for each *var* gene are shown to the left of the

heatmap, organized according to *var* type. For ΔV2_3, the dominant transcript

(Pf3D7_0712600, marked by black boxes in the heatmap) was removed to enable

visualization of the minor transcripts. C) NMDS plot based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities

displaying the expression profiles of the *var* minor transcripts for the 6 *var2csa*-deleted

lines alongside 5 wildtype lines. D) The variability within each cluster shown in C is

inferred by its area on the plot (as defined by the mean distance from the group centroid

for each time point) and displayed in a boxplot. E) Transcriptomic analysis of wildtype

and *var2csa*-mutated parasite lines. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is shown

based on the normalized expression level of 5721 genes log10(FPKM+1). RNAseq

derived whole transcriptomes were obtained from eleven clonal parasite populations:

two wildtype lines (WT 3.1 and WT 7) and two WT lines with a control plasmid

integration into a *rif* gene (WT_rif1 and WT_rif2) are displayed in orange; four *var2csa*-

mutated lines displaying a "single" phenotype (V2dis1, V2dis2, V2dis3 and ΔV2_3) are

displayed in blue; and three *var2csa*-mutated lines displaying a "many" phenotype

(ΔV2_1, ΔV2_5 and ΔV2_7) are displayed in green. All analyses were performed using

data obtained from synchronized populations ~16 hours after red cell invasion. F)

Comparisons of normalized *var* transcript counts from *var2csa*-mutated and wildtype

lines displaying either the single (left) or many (right) phenotypes.

Figure 5: Parasites displaying "single" vs "many" *var* expression profiles differ in

replication cycle progression. A) Volcano plots showing differentially expressed genes

derived from whole transcriptome comparisons of *var2csa*-mutated "single" and "many"

parasite lines. Differentially expressed genes are shown in red. For ring-stage parasites

(left) 562 transcripts displayed higher expression levels in the single lines, while 49 were

higher in the many lines. For trophozoite-stage parasites, only 51 genes were

differentially expressed. B) Estimation of cell cycle position using the method of Poran

et al (42). Using the transcriptome profiles in Supplementary Table S6 (80), the

likelihood (vertical axis) of each sample having been derived from a particular timepoint

of the cycle (horizontal axis) is displayed. 11 parasite lines are shown, with wildtype

parasites in orange, *var2csa*-mutated, "single" parasites in blue and *var2csa*-mutated,

"many" parasites in green type. C) Table showing estimates of replication cycle

progression for all eleven parasite lines. Estimates of the approximate time point within

the 48-hour asexual cycle for each population were obtained by comparison with a

modeled parasite population over a simulated infection time course using established

datasets (41). The best time point match is shown for each population along with the

correlation coefficient. Wildtype parasites are designated with orange type, *var2csa*-

mutated, "single" parasites with blue type and *var2csa*-mutated, "many" parasites with

green type. D) Heatmap displaying changes in expression over the asexual replicative

cycle for 611 differentially expressed genes according to the 48h asexual cycle of the *P.*

falciparum HB3 transcriptome datasets defined by Bozdech et al (81)(Supplementary

Table S7). Genes upregulated in *var2csa*-mutated "single" lines are shown on top and

those from *var2csa*-mutated "many" lines are displayed on the bottom. E) Average

expression levels across the 48h asexual cycle of HB3 for 611 differentially expressed

genes. Genes upregulated in *var2csa*-mutated, "single" lines are shown on top and

those upregulated in *var2csa*-mutated, "many" lines are shown on the bottom. F) Left

panel, transcript expression levels for 559 differentially expressed genes that display

higher expression in "single" parasites. Average, normalized transcript levels were

obtained from *var2csa*-mutated, "single" parasites (blue), wildtype "single" and "many"

parasites (orange, left and right, respectively), and *var2csa*-mutated, "many" parasites

(green). Box and whisker plots display the mean and standard deviation for each

dataset. Right panel, analysis of transcript expression levels for 49 differentially

expressed genes that display higher expression in "many" parasites. Pairwise

comparisons using t tests with pooled standard deviation. P value adjustment method is

from Bonferroni. (Significance codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*'). G) Monitoring of DNA

content of infected cells by flow cytometry. Populations of *var2csa*-mutant "singles"

(top), wildtype (middle) and *var2csa*-mutant "manys" (bottom) were tightly synchronized

then assayed for DNA content by flow cytometry using Hoechst 33342 staining.

Parasites were assayed at 16 and 36 hours after invasion.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A. Wildtype Parasites

subclone 3.1 — *many* → *90 days* → *102 days* → *132 days*

subclone 3.2 — *many* → *90 days* → *102 days* → *132days*

subclone 3.3 — *many* → *90 days* → *116 days* → *146 days*

subclone 3.4 — *single* → *90 days* → *102 days* → *132days*

subclone 3.5 — *single* → *90 days* → *102 days* → *200 days*

■ *var2csa*

B. *var2csa* deletion via subtelomeric truncation

var var *var2csa* *acs7* deletion *fikk12* "healed" chromosome end

C. *var2csa* disruption via plasmid integration

var2csa coding region uORF acs7 *fikk12*

hb1 hb2

var2csa coding region hb1 hb2 concatameric plasmid sequences hb1 hb2 acs7 *fikk12*

Figure 4

Figure 5