A novel computational pipeline for *var* gene expression augments the discovery of changes in
the *Plasmodium falciparum* transcriptome during transition from *in vivo* to short-term *in vitro*
culture

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<u>Abstract</u>
The pathogenesis of severe *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria involves cytoadhesive microvascular
sequestration of infected erythrocytes, mediated by *P. falciparum* erythrocyte membrane protein
1 (PfEMP1). PfEMP1 variants are encoded by the highly polymorphic family of *var* genes, the
sequences of which are largely unknown in clinical samples. Previously, we published new
approaches for *var* gene profiling and classification of predicted binding phenotypes in clinical *P.
falciparum* isolates (Wichers *et al.*, 2021), which represented a major technical advance. Building
on this, we report here a novel method for *var* gene assembly and multidimensional quantification
from RNA-sequencing that outperforms the earlier approach of Wichers *et al.*, 2021 on both
laboratory and clinical isolates across a combination of metrics. Importantly, the tool can
interrogate the *var* transcriptome in context with the rest of the transcriptome and can be applied
to enhance our understanding of the role of *var* genes in malaria pathogenesis. We applied this
new method to investigate changes in *var* gene expression through early transition of parasite
isolates to *in vitro* culture, using paired sets of *ex vivo* samples from our previous study, cultured
for up to three generations. In parallel, changes in non-polymorphic core gene expression were
investigated. Modest but unpredictable *var* gene switching and convergence towards *var2csa*
were observed in culture, along with differential expression of 19% of the core transcriptome
between paired *ex vivo* and generation 1 samples. Our results cast doubt on the validity of the
common practice of using short-term cultured parasites to make inferences about *in vivo*
phenotype and behaviour.

Introduction

Malaria is a parasitic life-threatening disease caused by species of the *Plasmodium* genus. In 2021, there were an estimated 619,000 deaths due to malaria, with children under 5 accounting for 77% of these (WHO, 2022). *Plasmodium falciparum* causes the greatest disease burden and most severe outcomes, but our efforts to combat the disease are challenged by its complex life cycle and its sophisticated immune evasion strategies. *P. falciparum* has several highly polymorphic variant surface antigens (VSA) encoded by multi-gene families, with the best studied high molecular weight *Plasmodium falciparum* erythrocyte membrane protein 1 (PfEMP1) family of proteins known to play a major role in the pathogenesis of malaria (Leech *et al.*, 1984, Wahlgren *et al.*, 2017). About 60 polymorphic *var* genes per parasite genome encode different PfEMP1 variants, which are exported to the surface of parasite-infected erythrocytes, where they mediate cytoadherence to host endothelial cells (Leech *et al.*, 1984, Su *et al.*, 1995, Smith *et al.*, 1995, Baruch *et al.*, 1995, Rask *et al.*, 2010). *Var* genes are expressed in a mutually exclusive pattern, resulting in each parasite expressing only one *var* gene, and therefore one PfEMP1 protein, at a time (Scherf *et al.*, 1998). Due to the exposure of PfEMP1 proteins to the host immune system, switching expression between the approximately 60 *var* genes in the genome is an effective immune evasion strategy, which can result in selection and dominance of parasites expressing particular *var* genes within each host (Smith *et al.*, 1995).

Despite their sequence polymorphism, *var* genes could be classified into four categories (A, B, C, and E) according to their chromosomal location, transcriptional direction, type of 5'-upstream sequence (UPSA–E), and encoded protein domains with associated binding phenotype (Figure 1) (Lavstsen *et al.*, 2003, Kraemer & Smith, 2003, Kyes *et al.*, 2007, Rask *et al.*, 2010). PfEMP1 proteins have up to 10 extracellular domains, with the N-terminal domains forming a semi-conserved head structure complex typically containing the N-terminal segment (NTS), a Duffy binding-like domain of class α (DBLα) coupled to a cysteine-rich interdomain region (CIDR). C-terminally to this head structure, PfEMP1 proteins exhibit a varying but semi-ordered composition of additional DBL and CIDR domains of different subtypes (Figure 1c). The PfEMP1 family divides into three main groups based on the receptor specificity of the N-terminal CIDR domain: (i) PfEMP1 proteins with CIDRα1 domains bind endothelial protein C receptor (EPCR), while (ii) PfEMP1 proteins with CIDRα2–6 domains bind CD36 and (iii) the atypical VAR2CSA PfEMP1 proteins bind placental chondroitin sulphate A (CSA) (Salanti *et al.*, 2004). In addition to these, a subset of PfEMP1 proteins have N-terminal CIDRβ/γ/δ domains of unknown function. This functional diversification correlates with the genetic organization of the *var* genes. Thus, UPSA *var* genes encode PfEMP1 proteins with domain sub-variants NTSA-DBLα1-CIDRα1/β/γ/δ, whereas UPSB and UPSC *var* genes encode PfEMP1 proteins with NTSB-DBLα0-CIDRα2–6. One exception to this rule is the B/A chimeric *var* genes, which encode NTSB-DBLα2-CIDRα1 domains. The different receptor binding specificities are associated with different clinical outcomes of infection. Pregnancy-associated malaria is linked to parasites expressing VAR2CSA, whereas parasites expressing EPCR-binding PfEMP1 are linked to severe malaria and parasites expressing CD36-binding PfEMP1 are linked to uncomplicated malaria (Turner *et al.*, 2013, Lavstsen *et al.*, 2012, Avril *et al.*, 2012, Claessens *et al.*, 2012, Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021). The clinical relevance of PfEMP1 proteins with unknown binding phenotypes of the N-terminal head structure and C-terminal PfEMP1 domains is largely unknown, albeit specific interactions with endothelial receptors and plasma proteins have been described (Tuikue Ndam *et al.*, 2017, Quintana *et al.*, 2019, Stevenson *et al.*, 2015). Each parasite genome carries a similar repertoire of *var* genes, which in addition to the described variants include a highly conserved *var1* variant of either type 3D7 or IT, which in most genomes occurs with a truncated or absent exon 2. Also, most genomes carry the unusually small and highly conserved *var3* genes, of unknown function (Figure 1c) (Otto *et al.*, 2019).

Comprehensive characterisation and quantification of *var* gene expression in field samples have been complicated by biological and technical challenges. The extreme polymorphism of *var* genes precludes a reference *var* sequence. *Var* genes can be lowly expressed or not expressed at all, contain repetitive domains and can have large duplications (Otto *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, most studies relating *var* gene expression to severe malaria have relied on primers with restricted coverage of the *var* family, use of laboratory-adapted parasite strains or have predicted the downstream sequence from DBLα domains (Sahu *et al.*, 2021, Storm *et al.*, 2019, Shabani *et al.*, 2017, Mkumbaye *et al.*, 2017, Kessler *et al.*, 2017, Bernabeu *et al.*, 2016, Jespersen *et al.*, 2016, Lavstsen *et al.*, 2012). This has resulted in incomplete *var* gene expression quantification and the inability to elucidate specific or detect atypical *var* sequences. RNA-sequencing has the potential to overcome these limitations and provide a better link between *var* expression and PfEMP1 phenotype in *in vitro* assays, co-expression with other genes or gene families and epigenetics. While approaches for *var* assembly and quantification based on RNA-sequencing have recently been proposed (Wichers *et al.*, 2021; Stucke et al., 2021; Andrade et al., 2020; Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Duffy et al., 2016), these still produce inadequate assembly of the biologically important N-terminal domain region, have a relatively high number of misassemblies and do not provide an adequate solution for handling the conserved *var* variants (Table 1).

Table 1: Comparison of previous *var* assembly approaches based on DNA- and RNA-sequencing.

Study	Assembler	k-mer	Transcript or gene assembly	Validation on reference strain(s) (Yes/No)	Validation on field strain(s) (Yes/No)	Validation across different expression levels (Yes/No)	Read length (Short/Long)	Read correction (Yes/No)	Scaffolding (Yes/No)	*Var* transcript filter approach	Assumption	Other limitations
Duffy *et al.*, 2016	Oases		Transcript	No	No	No	Short	Yes	Yes	Aligned to 399 *var* genes with BLAST (e-value < 10⁻⁵)		- No quantification of misassemblies - Unable to recover full length transcript assemblies
Dara *et al.*, 2017	Sprai and Celera (no longer maintained)	71	Gene	Yes (strain NF54)	Yes (12 UM patient samples)	NA – only genome assemblies	Long and short	Method assumes combination of long and short-read sequencing will identify errors	No	>500bp and aligned to VarDom database	Assumes a whole genome assembly is available	- Require prior filtering of human DNA - Need a combination of short-read and long-read sequencing
Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018*	SoapDeNovo-Trans	21, 31, 41, 52 & 61	Transcript	Yes (strain ITG)	No	No	Short	No	No	>500bp and containing a sig. annotated *var* domain		- Unable to fully resolve N-terminus - No quantification of misassemblies
Otto *et al.*, 2019	Masurca + post-assembly improvements	Default	Gene	Yes (clone 3D7)	Yes (15 Pf3k reference genomes)	No	Short	Yes	Yes		Whole genome dataset	
Andrade *et al.*, 2020	Velvet	41	Transcript	No	No	No	Short	No	No	Aligned to VarDom database		- No quantification of misassemblies
Stucke *et al.*, 2021	rnaSPAdes	Default	Transcript	No	Yes (6 UM patient samples)	No – only the most expressed *var* gene	Short	Yes	Unclear	> 500bp and containing a sig. annotated *var* domain	Information about the true *var* annotation is available	- Performs *de novo* assembly on all non-human and *P. falciparum* mapping reads - Inconsistent results in 3 samples when comparing genomic and RNA-seq results for dominant *var* gene

* also used in Wichers *et al.*, 2021; Guillochon *et al.*, 2022
UM: uncomplicated malaria

Plasmodium parasites from human blood samples are often adapted to or expanded through *in vitro* culture to provide sufficient parasites for subsequent investigation of parasite biology and phenotype (Brown & Guler, 2020). This is also the case for several studies assessing the PfEMP1

phenotype of parasites isolated from malaria-infected donors (Pickford *et al.*, 2021, Joste *et al.*, 2020, Storm *et al.*, 2019, Tuikue Ndam *et al.*, 2017, Bruske *et al.*, 2016, Claessens *et al.*, 2012, Lavstsen *et al.*, 2005, Jensen *et al.*, 2004, Kirchgatter & Portillo Hdel, 2002, Dimonte *et al.*, 2016, Hoo *et al.*, 2019). However, *in vitro* conditions are considerably different to those found *in vivo*, for example in terms of different nutrient availability and lack of a host immune response (Brown & Guler, 2020). Previous studies found inconsistent results in terms of whether *var* gene expression is impacted by culture and, if so, which *var* groups were the most affected (Zhang *et al.*, 2011, Peters *et al.*, 2007). Similar challenges apply to the understanding of changes in *P. falciparum* non-polymorphic core genes in culture, with the focus previously being on long-term laboratory adapted parasites (Claessens *et al.*, 2017, Mackinnon *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, direct interpretation of a short-term cultured parasite's transcriptome remains a challenge. It is fundamental to understand *var* genes in context with the parasite's core transcriptome. This could provide insights into *var* gene regulation and phenomena such as the proposed lower level of *var* gene expression in asymptomatic individuals (Almelli *et al.*, 2014, Andrade *et al.*, 2020).

Here we present an improved method for assembly, characterization, and quantification of *var* gene expression from RNA-sequencing data. This new approach overcomes previous limitations and outperforms current methods, enabling a much greater understanding of the *var* transcriptome. We demonstrate the power of this new approach by evaluating changes in *var* gene expression of paired samples from clinical isolates *of P. falciparum* during their early transition to *in vitro* culture, across several generations. The use of paired samples, which are genetically identical and hence have the same *var* gene repertoire, allows validation of assembled transcripts and direct comparisons of expression. We complement this with a comparison of changes which occur in the non-polymorphic core transcriptome over the same transition into culture. We find a background of modest changes in *var* gene expression with unpredictable patterns of *var* gene switching, favouring an apparent convergence towards *var2csa* expression. More extensive changes were observed in the core transcriptome during the first cycle of culture, suggestive of a parasite stress response.

Results

To extend our ability to characterise *var* gene expression profiles and changes over time in clinical *P. falciparum* isolates, we set out to improve current assembly methods. Previous methods for assembling *var* transcripts have focussed on assembling whole transcripts (Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021, Guillochon *et al.*, 2022, Andrade *et al.*, 2020). However, due to the diversity within PfEMP1 domains, their associations with disease severity and the fact different domain types are not inherited together, a method focussing on domain assembly first was developed. In addition, a novel whole transcript approach, using a different *de novo* assembler, was developed and their performance compared to the method of Wichers *et al.* (hereafter termed "original approach", Figure 2) (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). The new approaches made use of the MalariaGEN *P. falciparum* dataset, which led to the identification of additional multi-mapping non-core reads (a median of 3,955 reads per sample) prior to *var* transcript assembly (MalariaGen *et al.*, 2021). We incorporated read error correction and improved large scaffold construction with fewer misassemblies (see Methods). We then applied this pipeline to paired *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured parasites to enhance our understanding of the impact of short-term culturing on the *var* transcriptome (Figure 3). The *var* transcriptome was assessed at several complementary levels: first, changes in the dominantly expressed *var* gene and the homogeneity of the *var* expression profile in paired samples were investigated; second, changes in *var* domain expression through culture were assessed; and third, *var* group and global *var* gene expression changes were

177 evaluated. All these analyses on *var* expression were accompanied by analysis of the core
178 transcriptome at the transition to short-term culture.
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<u>Improving *var* transcript assembly, annotation and quantification</u>
A laboratory and a clinical dataset were used to assess the performance of the different *var*
assembly pipelines (Figure 2). The laboratory dataset was a *P. falciparum* 3D7 time course RNA-
sequencing dataset (European nucleotide archive (ENA): PRJEB31535) (Wichers *et al.*, 2019). The
clinical dataset contained samples from 32 adult malaria patients, hospitalised in Hamburg,
Germany (National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) BioProject ID: PRJNA679547).
Fifteen were malaria naïve and 17 were previously exposed to malaria. Eight of the malaria naïve
patients went on to develop severe malaria and 24 had non-severe malaria (Wichers *et al.*, 2021).
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Our i) new whole transcript approach, ii) domain assembly approach, and iii) modified version of
the original approach (see material and methods) were first applied to a *P. falciparum* 3D7 time
course RNA-sequencing dataset to benchmark their performance (Wichers *et al.*, 2019) (Figure 2
– Figure supplement 1). The whole transcript approach performed best, achieving near perfect
alignment scores for the dominantly expressed *var* gene (Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1a). The
domain and the original approach produced shorter contigs and required more contigs to
assemble the *var* transcripts at the 8 and 16 hour post-invasion time points, when *var* gene
expression is maximal (Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1c, f, g and h). However, we found high
accuracies (> 0.95) across all approaches, meaning the sequences we assembled were correct
(Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1b). The whole transcript approach also performed the best when
assembling the lower expressed *var* genes (Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1e) and produced the
fewest *var* chimeras compared to the original approach on *P. falciparum* 3D7. Fourteen
misassemblies were observed with the whole transcript approach compared to 19 with the
original approach (Table S1). This reduction in misassemblies was particularly apparent in the ring-
stage samples.
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Next, the assembled transcripts produced from the original approach of Wichers *et al.*, 2021 were
compared to those produced from our new whole transcript and domain assembly approaches
for *ex vivo* samples from German travellers. Summary statistics are shown in Table 2. The whole
transcript approach produced the fewest transcripts, but of greater length than the domain
approach and the original approach (Figure 2 – Figure supplement 2). The whole transcript
approach also returned the largest N50 score (more than doubling the N50 of the original
approach), which means that it was the most contiguous assembly produced. Remarkably, with
the new whole transcript method, we observed a significant decrease (2 vs 336) in clearly
misassembled transcripts with, for example, an N-terminal domain at an internal position.
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Table 2: Statistics for the different approaches used to assemble the *var* transcripts. *Var* assembly approaches were applied
to malaria patient *ex vivo* samples (n=32) from (Wichers *et al.*, 2021) and statistics determined. Given are the total number of
assembled *var* transcripts longer than 500 nt containing at least one significantly annotated *var* domain, the maximum length of the
longest assembled *var* transcript in nucleotides and the N50 value, respectively. The N50 is defined as the sequence length of the
shortest *var* contig, with all *var* contigs greater than or equal to this length together accounting for 50% of the total length of
concatenated *var* transcript assemblies. Misassemblies represents the number of misassemblies for each approach. *Number of
misassemblies were not determined for the domain approach due to its poor performance in other metrics.
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	Number of contigs ≥500nts	Maximum length (nt)	Average contig length (nt)	N50	Number of misassemblies
Original approach	6,441	10,412	1,621	2,302	336
Domain approach	4,691	5,003	954	1,088	NA*
Whole transcript approach	3,011	12,586	2,771	5,381	2

When genome sequencing is not available, concordance of different *var* profiling approaches can
support the validation of an approach. Here, the same methods used in the original analysis were
applied for quantifying the expression of the assembled *var* transcripts and domains. This suggests
any concordance in expression estimates likely reflects concordance at the domain annotation
level. The original approach and the new whole transcript approach gave similar results for domain
expression in each sample with greater correlation in results observed between the highly
expressed domains (Figure 2 – Figure supplement 3). As expected, comparable results were also
seen for the differentially expressed transcripts identified in the original analysis between the
naïve vs pre-exposed and severe vs non-severe comparisons, respectively (Figure 2 – Figure
supplement 4).

Overall, the new whole transcript approach performed the best on the laboratory 3D7 dataset
(ENA: PRJEB31535) (Wichers *et al.*, 2019), had the greatest N50, the longest *var* transcripts and
produced concordant results with the original analysis on the clinical *ex vivo* samples (NCBI:
PRJNA679547) (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, it was selected for all subsequent analyses unless
specified otherwise.

<u>Establishing characterisation of *var* transcripts from *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples</u>
Of the 32 clinical isolates of *P. falciparum* from the German traveller dataset, 13 underwent one
replication cycle of *in vitro* culture, 10 of these underwent a second generation and one
underwent a third generation (Table 3). Most (9/13, 69%) isolates entering culture had a single
MSP1 genotype, indicative of monoclonal infections. All samples were sequenced with a high read
depth, although the *ex vivo* samples had a greater read depth than the *in vitro* samples (Table 3).
Figure 3 shows a summary of the analysis performed.

Table 3: Summary of the clinical dataset used to analyze the impact of parasite culturing on gene expression. RNA-sequencing
was performed on 32 malaria infected German traveler samples (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). The 32 *ex vivo* samples were used to compare
the performance of the *var* assembly approaches. Parasites from 13 of these *ex vivo* samples underwent one cycle of *in vitro*
replication, 10 parasite samples were also subjected to a second cycle of replication *in vitro*, and a single parasite isolate was also
analyzed after a third cycle of replication. For the *ex vivo* vs short-term *in vitro* cultivation analysis only paired samples were used. The
number of assembled *var* contigs represents results per sample using the whole transcript approach, and shows either the number of
assembled *var* contigs significantly annotated as *var* gene and > =500nt in length, or the number of assembled *var* transcripts identified
with a length >= 1500nt and containing at least 3 significantly annotated *var* domains. *PE; paired-end reads.

		Generation			
		Ex vivo (n=32)	1 (n=13)	2 (n=10)	3 (n=1)
Malaria exposure (n)	**Naïve**	15	6	4	1
	Previously exposed	17	7	6	0
Malaria severity (n)	**Severe**	8	3	1	0
	Non-severe	24	10	9	1
Number of MSP1 genotypes (number of samples)	**1**	22	9	7	1
	2	4	0	0	0
	3	5	3	0	0
	4	1	1	0	0
Number of *P. falciparum* PE* reads (non-*var*) (median, IQR) (million of reads)		34.6 (27.0–36.5)	17.1 (12.9–18.0)	17.2 (12.9–19.1)	15.1
Number of non-core *P. falciparum* PE* reads (median, IQR) (million of reads)		5.05 (3.62–6.60)	1.16 (1.07–1.40)	1.29 (1.04–1.58)	0.91
Number of assembled *var* contigs in a sample (≥500nts) (whole transcript approach) (median, IQR)		53 (44–84)	61 (38–76)	71.5 (48.25–79.5)	75
Number of assembled *var* contigs in a sample (≥1,500nts and 3 sig. domain annotations) (whole transcript approach) (median, IQR)		20 (7–31)	15.5 (10–26)	15 (10.25–23.75)	18

To account for differences in parasite developmental stage within each sample, which are known to impact gene expression levels (Bozdech *et al.*, 2003), the proportions of life cycle stages were estimated using the mixture model approach of the original analysis (Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021). As a complementary approach, single cell differential composition analysis (SCDC) with the Malaria Cell Atlas as a reference was also used to determine parasite age (Dong *et al.*, 2021, Howick *et al.*, 2019). SCDC and the mixture model approaches produced concordant estimates that most parasites were at ring stage in all *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1a,b). Whilst there was no significant difference in ring stage proportions across the generations, we observed a slight increase in parasite age in the cultured samples. Overall, there were more rings and early trophozoites in the *ex vivo* samples compared to the cultured parasite samples and an increase of late trophozoite, schizont and gametocyte proportions during the culturing process (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1c). The estimates produced from the mixture model approach showed high concordance with those observed by counting Giemsa-stained blood smears (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1d). Due to the potential confounding effect of differences in stage distribution on gene expression, we adjusted for developmental stage determined by the mixture model in all subsequent analyses.

Our new approach was applied to RNA-sequencing samples of *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured parasites from German travellers (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). Table S2 shows the assembled *var* transcripts on a per sample basis. Interestingly, we observed SSPACE did not provide improvement in terms of extending *var* assembled contigs in 9/37 samples. We observed a significant increase in the number of assembled *var* transcripts in generation 2 parasites compared to paired generation 1 parasites ($p_{adj} = 0.04$, paired Wilcoxon test). We observed no significant differences in the length of the assembled *var* transcripts across the generations. Three different filtering approaches were applied in comparison to maximise the likelihood that correct assemblies were taken forward for further analysis and to avoid the overinterpretation of lowly expressed partial *var* transcripts (Table S3). Filtering for *var* transcripts at least 1500nt long and containing at least 3 significantly annotated *var* domains was the least restrictive, while the other approaches required the presence of a DBLα domain within the transcript. All three filtering approaches generated the same maximum length *var* transcript and similar N50 values. This suggests minimal differences in the three filtering approaches, whilst highlighting the importance of filtering assembled *var* transcripts.

In the original approach of Wichers *et al.*, 2021, the non-core reads of each sample used for *var* assembly were mapped against a pooled reference of assembled *var* transcripts from all samples, as a preliminary step towards differential *var* transcript expression analysis. This approach returned a small number of *var* transcripts which were expressed across multiple patient samples (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 2a). As genome sequencing was not available, it was not possible to know whether there was truly overlap in *var* genomic repertoires of the different patient samples, but substantial overlap was not expected. Stricter mapping approaches (for example, excluding transcripts shorter than 1500nt) changed the resulting *var* expression profiles and produced more realistic scenarios where similar *var* expression profiles were generated across paired samples, whilst there was decreasing overlap across different patient samples (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 2b,c). Given this limitation, we used the paired samples to analyse *var* gene expression at an individual subject level, where we confirmed the MSP1 genotypes and alleles were still present after short-term *in vitro* cultivation. The per patient approach showed consistent expression of *var* transcripts within samples from each patient but no overlap of *var* expression profiles across different patients (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 2d). Taken together, the per patient approach was better suited for assessing *var* transcriptional changes in longitudinal

307 samples. However, it has been hypothesised that more conserved *var* genes in field isolates
308 increase parasite fitness during chronic infections, necessitating the need to correctly identify
309 them (Dimonte *et al.*, 2020, Otto *et al.*, 2019). Accordingly, further work is needed to optimise the
310 pooled sample approach to identify truly conserved *var* transcripts across different parasite
311 isolates in cross-sectional studies.
312
<u>Longitudinal analysis of *var* transcriptome from *ex vivo* to *in vitro* samples</u>
To assess the changes in the *var* transcriptome induced by parasite culturing, we performed a
series of analyses, all of which addressed different aspects: (i) changes in individual *var* gene
expression pattern and *var* expression homogeneity ("per patient analysis"), (ii) changes in the
expression of *var* variants conserved between strains, (iii) changes in the expression of PfEMP1
domains, (iv) changes in expression at the *var* group level, and (v) at the overall *var* expression
level. We validated our results using the DBLα-tag approach and complemented the *var* -specific
analysis by also examining changes in the core transcriptome.
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To investigate whether dominant *var* gene expression changes through *in vitro* culture, rank
analysis of *var* transcript expression was performed (Figure 4, Figure 4 − Figure supplement 1). In
most cases a single dominant *var* transcript was detected. The dominant *var* gene did not change
in most patient samples and the ranking of *var* gene expression remained similar. However, we
observed a change in the dominant *var* gene being expressed through culture in isolates from
three of 13 (23%) patients (#6, #17 and #26). Changes in the dominant *var* gene expression were
also observed in the DBLα-tag data for these patients (described below). In parasites from three
additional patients, #1, #7 and #14, the top expressed *var* gene remained the same, however we
observed a change in the ranking of other highly expressed *var* genes in the cultured samples
compared to the *ex vivo* sample. Interestingly, in patient #26 we observed a switch from a
dominant group A *var* gene to a group B and C *var* gene. This finding was also observed in the
DBLα-tag analysis (results below). A similar finding was seen in patient #7. In the *ex vivo* sample,
the second most expressed *var* transcript was a group A transcript. However, in the cultured
samples expression of this transcript was reduced and we observed an increase in the expression
of group B and C *var* transcripts. A similar pattern was observed in the DBLα-tag analysis for patient
#7, whereby the expression of a group A transcript was reduced during the first cycle of cultivation.
Overall, the data suggest that some patient samples underwent a larger *var* transcriptional change
when cultured compared to the other patient samples and that culturing parasites can lead to an
unpredictable *var* transcriptional change.
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In line with these results, *var* expression homogeneity (VEH) on a per patient basis showed in some
patients a clear change, with the *ex vivo* sample diversity curve distinct from those of *in vitro*
generation 1 and generation 2 samples (patients #1, #2, #4) (Figure 4 − Figure supplement 2).
Similarly, in other patient samples, we observed a clear difference in the curves of *ex vivo* and
generation 1 samples (patient #25 and #26, both from first-time infected severe malaria patients).
Some of these samples (#1 and #26, both from first-time infected severe malaria patients) also
showed changes in their dominant *var* gene expression during culture, taken together indicating
much greater *var* transcriptional changes *in vitro* compared to the other samples.
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<u>Expression of conserved *var* gene variants through short-term *in vitro* culture</u>
Due to the relatively high level of conservation observed in *var1, var2csa* and *var3*, they do not
present with the same limitations as regular *var* genes. Therefore, changes in their expression
through short-term culture was investigated across all samples together. We observed no
significant differences in the expression of conserved *var* gene variants, *var1-IT* (p_{adj} = 0.61, paired

Wilcoxon test), *var1-3D7* (p_{adj} =0.93, paired Wilcoxon test) and *var2csa* (p_{adj} =0.54, paired
Wilcoxon test) between paired *ex vivo* and generation 1 parasites, but *var2csa* was significantly
differentially expressed between generation 1 and generation 2 parasites (p_{adj} = 0.029, paired
Wilcoxon test) (Figure 4 – Figure supplement 3). However, *var2csa* expression previously
appeared to have decreased in some paired samples during the first cycle of cultivation (Figure 4
– Figure supplement 3).

<u>Differential expression of *var* domains from *ex vivo* to *in vitro* samples</u>
There is overlap in PfEMP1 domain subtypes of different parasite isolates which can be associated
with *var* gene groups and receptor binding phenotypes. This allows performing differential
expression analysis on the level of encoded PfEMP1 domain subtypes, as done in previous studies
(Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021). PCA on *var* domain expression (Figure 5a) showed
some patients' *ex vivo* samples clustering away from their respective generation 1 sample (patient
#1, #2, #4, #12, #17, #25), again indicating a greater *var* transcriptional change relative to the
other samples during the first cycle of cultivation. However, in the pooled comparison of the
generation 1 vs *ex vivo* of all isolates, a single domain was significantly differentially expressed,
CIDRα2.5 associated with B-type PfEMP1 proteins and CD36-binding (Figure 5b). In the generation
2 vs *ex vivo* comparison, there were no domains significantly differentially expressed, however we
observed large log_2FC values in similar domains to those changing most in the *ex vivo* vs generation
1 comparison (Figure 5c). No differentially expressed domains were found in the generation 1 vs
generation 2 comparison. These results suggest individual changes in *var* expression are not
reflected in the pooled analysis and the per patient approach is more suitable.

<u>*Var* group expression analysis</u>
A previous study found group A *var* genes to have a rapid transcriptional decline in culture
compared to group B *var* genes, however another study found a decrease in both group A and
group B *var* genes in culture (Zhang *et al.*, 2011, Peters *et al.*, 2007). These studies were limited as
the *var* type was determined by analysing the sequence diversity of DBLα domains, and by
quantitative PCR (qPCR) methodology which restricts analysis to quantification of
known/conserved sequences. Due to these results, the expression of group A *var* genes vs. group
B and C *var* genes was investigated using a paired analysis on all the DBLα (DBLα1 vs DBLα0 and
DBLα2) and NTS (NTSA vs NTSB) sequences assembled from *ex vivo* samples and across multiple
generations in culture. A linear model was created with group A expression as the response
variable, the generation and life cycle stage as independent variables and the patient information
included as a random effect. The same was performed using group B and C expression levels.

In both approaches, DBLα and NTS, we found no significant changes in total group A or group B
and C *var* gene expression levels (Figure 6). We observed high levels of group B and C *var* gene
expression compared to group A in all patients, both in the *ex vivo* samples and the *in vitro*
samples. In some patients we observed a decrease in group A *var* genes from *ex vivo* to generation
1 (patients #1, #2, #5, #6, #9, #12, #17, #26) (Figure 6a), however in all but four patients (patient
#1, #2, #5, #6) the levels of group B and C *var* genes remained consistently high from *ex vivo* to
generation 1 (Figure 6b). Interestingly, patients #6 and #17 also had a change in the dominant *var*
gene expression through culture. Taken together with the preceding results, it appears that
observed differences in *var* transcript expression occurring with transition to short-term culture
are not due to modulation of recognised *var* classes, but due to differences in expression of
particular *var* transcripts.

<u>Quantification of total *var* gene expression</u>

405 We observed a trend of decreasing total *var* gene expression between generations irrespective of
406 the assembler used in the analysis (Figure 6 – Figure supplement 1). A similar trend is seen with
407 the LARSFADIG count, which is commonly used as a proxy for the number of different *var* genes
408 expressed (Otto *et al.*, 2019). A linear model was created (using only paired samples from *ex vivo*
409 and generation 1) (Supplementary file 1) with proportion of total gene expression dedicated to
410 *var* gene expression as the response variable, the generation and life cycle stage as independent
411 variables and the patient information included as a random effect. This model showed no
412 significant differences between generations, suggesting that differences observed in the raw data
413 may be a consequence of small changes in developmental stage distribution in culture.

415 <u>Validation of *var* expression profiling by DBLα-tag sequencing</u>
416 Deep sequencing of RT-PCR-amplified DBLα expressed sequence tags (ESTs) combined with
417 prediction of the associated transcripts and their encoded domains using the Varia tool
418 (Mackenzie *et al.*, 2022) was performed to supplement the RNA-sequencing analysis. The raw
419 Varia output file is given in Supplementary file 2. Overall, we found a high agreement between the
420 detected DBLα-tag sequences and the *de novo* assembled *var* transcripts. A median of 96% (IQR:
421 93–100%) of all unique DBLα-tag sequences detected with >10 reads were found in the RNA-
422 sequencing approach. This is a significant improvement on the original approach (p= 0.0077,
423 paired Wilcoxon test), in which a median of 83% (IQR: 79–96%) was found (Wichers *et al.*, 2021).
424 To allow for a fair comparison of the >10 reads threshold used in the DBLα-tag approach, the
425 upper 75th percentile of the RNA-sequencing-assembled DBLα domains were analysed. A median
426 of 77.4% (IQR: 61–88%) of the upper 75th percentile of the assembled DBLα domains were found
427 in the DBLα-tag approach. This is a lower median percentage than the median of 81.3% (IQR: 73–
428 98%) found in the original analysis (p= 0.28, paired Wilcoxon test) and suggests the new assembly
429 approach is better at capturing all expressed DBLα domains.

431 The new whole transcript assembly approach also had high consistency with the domain
432 annotations predicted from Varia. Varia predicts *var* sequences and domain annotations based on
433 short sequence tags, using a database of previously defined *var* sequences and annotations
434 (Mackenzie *et al.*, 2022). A median of 85% of the DBLα annotations and 73% of the DBLα-CIDR
435 domain annotations, respectively, identified using the DBLα-tag approach were found in the RNA
436 sequencing approach. This further confirms the performance of the whole transcript approach
437 and it was not restricted by the pooled approach of the original analysis. We also observed
438 consistent results with the per patient analysis, in terms of changes in the dominant *var* gene
439 expression (described above) (Supplementary file 2). In line with the RNA-sequencing data, the
440 DBLα-tag approach revealed no significant differences in Group A and Group B and C groups during
441 short-term culture, further highlighting the agreement of both methods (Figure 6 – Figure
442 supplement 2).

444 **<u>Differential expression analysis of the core transcriptome between *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples</u>**
445 Given the modest changes in *var* gene expression repertoire upon culture we wanted to
446 investigate the extent of any accompanying changes in the core parasite transcriptome. PCA was
447 performed on core gene (*var, rif, stevor, surf* and rRNA genes removed) expression, adjusted for
448 life cycle stage. We observed distinct clustering of *ex vivo*, generation 1, and generation 2 samples,
449 with patient identity having much less influence (Figure 7a). There was also a change from the
450 heterogeneity between the *ex vivo* samples to more uniform clustering of the generation 1
451 samples (Figure 7a), suggesting that during the first cycle of cultivation the core transcriptomes of
452 different parasite isolates become more alike.

In total, 920 core genes (19% of the core transcriptome) were found to be differentially expressed
after adjusting for life cycle stages using the mixture model approach between *ex vivo and*
generation 1 samples (Supplementary file 3). The majority were upregulated, indicating a
substantial transcriptional change during the first cycle of *in vitro* cultivation (Figure 7b). 74 genes
were found to be upregulated in generation 2 when compared to the *ex vivo* samples, many with
log_2FC greater than those in the *ex vivo* vs generation 1 comparison (Figure 7c). No genes were
found to be significantly differentially expressed between generation 1 and generation 2.
However, five genes had a $log_2FC >= 2$ and were all upregulated in generation 2 compared to
generation 1. Interestingly, the gene with the greatest fold change, encoding ROM3
(PF3D7_0828000), was also found to be significantly downregulated in generation 1 parasites in
the *ex vivo* vs generation 1 analysis. The other four genes were also found to be non-significantly
downregulated in generation 1 parasites in the *ex vivo* vs generation 1 analysis. This suggests
changes in gene expression during the first cycle of cultivation are the greatest compared to the
other cycles.
468
The most significantly upregulated genes (in terms of fold change) in generation 1 contained
several small nuclear RNAs, splicesomal RNAs and non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs). 16 ncRNAs were
found upregulated in generation 1, with several RNA-associated proteins having large fold changes
($log_2FC > 7$) Significant gene ontology (GO) terms and Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes
(KEGG) pathways for the core genes upregulated in generation 1 included "entry into host",
"movement into host" and "cytoskeletal organisation" suggesting the parasites undergo a change
in invasion efficiency, which is connected to the cytoskeleton, during their first cycle of *in vitro*
cultivation (Figure 7 – Figure supplement 1). We observed eight AP2 transcription factors
upregulated in generation 1 (PF3D7_0404100/AP2-SP2, PF3D7_0604100/SIP2,
PF3D7_0611200/AP2-EXP2, PF3D7_0613800, PF3D7_0802100/AP2-LT, PF3D7_1143100/AP2-O,
PF3D7_1239200, PF3D7_1456000/AP2-HC) with no AP2 transcription factors found to be
downregulated in generation 1. To confirm the core gene expression changes identified were not
due to the increase in parasite age during culture, as indicated by upregulation of many schizont-
related genes, core gene differential expression analysis was performed on paired *ex vivo* and
generation 1 samples that contained no schizonts or gametocytes in generation 1. The same genes
were identified as significantly differentially expressed with a Spearman's rank correlation of 0.99
for the log_2FC correlation between this restricted sample approach and those produced using all
samples (Figure 7 – Figure supplement 2).
487
<u>Cultured parasites as surrogates for assessing the *in vivo* core gene transcriptome</u>
In the original analysis of *ex vivo samples*, hundreds of core genes were identified as significantly
differentially expressed between pre-exposed and naïve malaria patients. We investigated
whether these differences persisted after *in vitro* cultivation. We performed differential
expression analysis comparing parasite isolates from naïve (n=6) vs pre-exposed (n=7) patients,
first between their *ex vivo* samples, and then between the corresponding generation 1 samples.
Interestingly, when using the *ex vivo* samples, we observed 206 core genes significantly
upregulated in naïve patients compared to pre-exposed patients (Figure 7 – Figure supplement
3a). Conversely, we observed no differentially expressed genes in the naïve vs pre-exposed
analysis of the paired generation 1 samples (Figure 7 – Figure supplement 3b). Taken together
with the preceding findings, this suggests one cycle of cultivation shifts the core transcriptomes
of parasites to be more alike each other, diminishing inferences about parasite biology *in vivo*.
500
501 A summary describing the rationale, results and interpretation of each approach in our analysis
502 pipeline can be found in Table 4.

503
504

Table 4: Summary of the different levels of analysis performed to assess the effect of short-term parasite culturing on *var* and core gene expression, their rational, method, results, and interpretation.

Analysis level	Analysis	Rationale	Method	Results	Interpretation
var transcript	Per patient expression ranking	Relative quantification of *var* transcripts over consecutive generations of parasites originating from the same patient to reveal *var* gene switching events	Combine assembled *var* transcripts for each patient into a reference and quantify expression, validated with DBLα-tag analysis	46% of the patient samples had a change in the dominant or top 3 highest expressed *var* gene	Modest changes in most samples, but unpredictable *var* gene switching during culture in some samples
	Per patient *var* expression homogeneity (VEH)	Determine the overall diversity of *var* gene expression (number of different variants expressed and their abundance) to assess impact of culturing on the overall *var* gene expression pattern	Comparison of diversity curves based on per patient quantification of the *var* transcriptome	39% of *ex vivo* samples diversity curves distinct from *in vitro* samples	Some patient samples underwent a much greater *var* transcriptional change compared to others
	Conserved *var* variants	Assessing and comparing the expression levels of strain-transcendent *var* gene variants (*var1*, *var2csa*, *var3*) between samples	Reference of all assembled transcripts for each conserved *var* gene and quantify expression	*var2csa* expression increases in 2nd *in vitro* generation	Parasites converge to *var2csa* during short-term *in vitro* culture
var-encoded PfEMP1 domains	Differential expression of PfEMP1 domains	Identification, quantification and comparison of expression levels of different *var* gene-encoded PfEMP1 domains associated with different disease manifestations	Pool all assembled *var* transcripts into a reference and quantify expression of each domain	46% of the *ex vivo* samples cluster away from their *in vitro* samples in PCA plots, distinct clustering by *in vitro* generation was not observed; CIDRα2.5 significantly differentially expressed between *ex vivo* and generation 1	Transition to culture results in modest modulation of particular *var* domains
var group	Expression of NTS (NTSA vs NTSB) and DBLα (DBLα1 vs DBLα0+ DBLα2)	Quantification and comparison of expression levels of different *var* gene groups (group A vs. group B and C)	Create a reference of all assembled DBLα and NTS domains for each patient and quantify expression. Validated with DBLα-tag analysis	No significant changes	No preferential up or down regulation of certain *var* groups during transition to culture
Global *var* expression	LARSFADIG coverage	Assessing the overall *var* gene expression level (excluding *var2csa*)	Assemble the LARSFADIG motif and map non-core reads to quantify coverage	Trend for decrease in global *var* expression during culture, but no significant changes	Subtle reduction in global *var* gene expression may reflect increase in parasite age during culture
Core genes	Differential gene expression (DGE)	Assessing the impact of cultivation on the parasite core gene transcriptome	Differential expression analysis of core genes (*P. falciparum* 3D7 used as reference)	19% of the core transcriptome significantly differentially expressed between paired *ex vivo* and generation 1 *in vitro* samples; distinct clustering by parasite generation observed; upregulation of invasion and replication related genes *in vitro*	Parasites core gene expression changes substantially upon entering culture

Discussion

506
Multiple lines of evidence point to PfEMP1 as a major determinant of malaria pathogenesis, but
previous approaches for characterising *var* expression profiles in field samples have limited *in vivo*
studies of PfEMP1 function, regulation, and association with clinical symptoms (Tarr *et al.*, 2018,
Lee *et al.*, 2018, Warimwe *et al.*, 2013, Rorick *et al.*, 2013, Zhang *et al.*, 2011, Taylor *et al.*, 2002).
A more recent approach, based on RNA-sequencing, overcame many of the limitations imposed
by the previous primer-based methods (Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021). However,
depending on the expression level and sequencing depth, *var* transcripts were found to be
fragmented and only a partial reconstruction of the *var* transcriptome was achieved (Tonkin-Hill
et al., 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021, Andrade *et al.*, 2020, Guillochon *et al.*, 2022, Yamagishi *et al.*,
2014). The present study developed a novel approach for *var* gene assembly and quantification
that overcomes many of these limitations.

Our new approach used the most geographically diverse reference of *var* gene sequences to date,
which improved the identification of reads derived from *var* transcripts. This is crucial when
analysing patient samples with low parasitaemia where *var* transcripts are hard to assemble due
to their low abundancy (Guillochon *et al.*, 2022). Our approach has wide utility due to stable
performance on both laboratory-adapted and clinical samples. Concordance in the different *var*
expression profiling approaches (RNA-sequencing and DBLα-tag) on *ex vivo* samples increased
using the new approach by 13%, when compared to the original approach (96% in the whole
transcript approach compared to 83% in Wichers *et al.*, 2021. This suggests the new approach
provides a more accurate method for characterising *var* genes, especially in samples collected
directly from patients. Ultimately, this will allow a deeper understanding of relationships between
var gene expression and clinical manifestations of malaria.

Having a low number of long contigs is desirable in any *de novo* assembly. This reflects a
continuous assembly, as opposed to a highly fragmented one where polymorphic and repeat
regions could not be resolved (Lischer & Shimizu, 2017). An excessive number of contigs cannot
be reasonably handled computationally and results from a high level of ambiguity in the assembly
(Yang *et al.*, 2012). We observed a greater than 50% reduction in the number of contigs produced
in our new approach, which also had a 21% increase in the maximum length of the assembled *var*

transcripts, when compared to the original approach. It doubled the assembly continuity and
assembled an average of 13% more of the *var* transcripts. This was particularly apparent in the N-
terminal region, which has often been poorly characterised by existing approaches. The original
approach failed to assemble the N-terminal region in 58% of the samples, compared to just 4% in
the new approach with assembly consistently achieved with an accuracy > 90%. This is important
because the N-terminal region is known to contribute to the adhesion phenotypes of most PfEMP1
proteins.
544
The new approach allows for *var* transcript reconstruction across a range of expression levels,
which is required when characterising *var* transcripts from multi-clonal infections. Assembly
completeness of the lowly expressed *var* genes increased five-fold using the new approach. Biases
towards certain parasite stages have been observed in non-severe and severe malaria cases, so it
is valuable to assemble the *var* transcripts from different life cycle stages (Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018).
Our new approach is not limited by parasite stage. It was able to assemble the whole *var* transcript,
in a single contig, at later stages in the *P. falciparum* 3D7 intra-erythrocytic cycle, something
previously unachievable. The new approach allows for a more accurate and complete picture of
the *var* transcriptome. It provides new perspectives for relating *var* expression to regulation, co-
expression, epigenetics and malaria pathogenesis. It can be applied for example in analysis of
patient samples with different clinical outcomes and longitudinal tracking of infections *in vivo*. It
represents a crucial improvement for quantifying the *var* transcriptome. In this work, the
improved approach for *var* gene assembly and quantification was used to characterise *var* gene
expression during transition from *in vivo* to short-term culture.
559
This study had substantial power through the use of paired samples. However, many *var* gene
expression studies do not have longitudinal sampling. Future work should focus on identifying the
best approach for analysing the *var* transcripts in cross-sectional samples. Higher level *var*
classification systems, such as the PfEMP1 predicted binding phenotype or domain cassettes,
could be applied to test for over-representation of different *var* gene features in different groups
of interest, because the assumption of overlapping *var* repertoires at these levels of classification
would be more realistic. This was briefly explored in our analysis through *var* domain differential
expression analysis, which found minimal changes in *var* domain expression through short-term
culture, supporting the per patient analysis results. This could be further improved by advancing
the classifications of domain subtypes. This has recently been studied using MEME to identify
short nucleotide motifs that are representative of domain subtypes (Otto et al., 2019). Other
research could investigate clustering *var* transcripts based on sequence identity and testing for
clusters associated with specific malaria disease groups.
573
Studies have been performed investigating differences between long-term laboratory-adapted
clones and clinical isolates, with hundreds of genes found to be differentially expressed (Hoo *et*
al., 2019, Tarr *et al.*, 2018, Mackinnon *et al.*, 2009). Surprisingly, studies investigating the impact
of short-term culture on parasites are extremely limited, despite it being commonly undertaken
for making inferences about the *in vivo* transcriptome (Vignali *et al.*, 2011). Using the new *var*
assembly approach, we found that *var* gene expression remains relatively stable during transition
to culture. However, the conserved *var2csa* had increased expression from generation 1 to
generation 2. It has previously been suggested that long-term cultured parasites converge to
expressing *var2csa*, but our findings suggest this begins within two cycles of cultivation (Zhang *et*
al., 2022, Mok *et al.*, 2008). Switching to *var2csa* has been shown to be favourable and is
suggested to be the default *var* gene upon perturbation to *var* specific heterochromatin (Ukaegbu
et al., 2015). These studies also suggested *var2csa* has a unique role in *var* gene switching and our

results are consistent with the role of *var2csa* as the dominant "sink node" (Zhang *et al.*, 2022,
Ukaegbu *et al.*, 2015, Ukaegbu *et al.*, 2014, Mok *et al.*, 2008). A previous study suggested *in vitro*
cultivation of controlled human malaria infection samples resulted in dramatic changes in *var* gene
expression (Lavstsen *et al.*, 2005, Peters *et al.*, 2007). Almost a quarter of samples in our analysis
showed more pronounced and unpredictable changes. In these individuals, the dominant *var* gene
being expressed changed within one cycle of cultivation. This implies short-term culture can result
in unpredictable *var* gene expression as observed previously using a semi-quantitative RT-PCR
approach (Bachmann *et al.*, 2011) and that one would need to confirm *in vivo* expression matches
in vitro expression. This can be achieved using the assembly approach described here.
595
We observed no generalised pattern of up- or downregulation of specific *var* groups following
transition to culture. This implies there is probably not a selection event occurring during culture
but may represent a loss of selection that is present *in vivo.* A global down regulation of certain
var groups might only occur as a selective process over many cycles in extended culture.
Determining changes in *var* group expression levels are difficult using degenerate qPCR primers
bias and previous studies have found conflicting results in terms of changes of expression of *var*
groups through cultivation. Zhang *et al.*, 2011 found a rapid transcriptional decline of group A and
group B *var* genes, however Peters *et al.*, 2007 found group A *var* genes to have a high rate of
downregulation, when compared to group B *var* genes. These studies differed in the stage
distribution of the parasites and were limited in measuring enough variants through their use of
primers. Our new approach allowed for the identification of more sequences, with 26.6% of
assembled DBLα domains not found via the DBLα-tag approach. This better coverage of the
expressed *var* diversity was not possible in these previous studies and may explain discrepancies
observed.
610
Generally, there was a high consensus between all levels of *var* gene analysis and changes
observed during short-term *in vitro* cultivation. However, the impact of short-term culture was
the most apparent at the *var* transcript level and became less clear at the *var* domain, *var* type
and global *var* gene expression level. This highlights the need for accurate characterisation of full
length *var* transcripts and analysis of the *var* transcriptome at different levels, both of which can
be achieved with the new approach developed here.
617
We saw striking changes in the core gene transcriptomes between *ex vivo* and generation 1
parasites with 19% of the core genome being differentially expressed. A previous study showed
that expression of 18% of core genes were significantly altered after ~50 cycles through culture
(Mackinnon *et al.*, 2009), but our data suggest that much of this change occurs early in the
transition to culture. We observed genes with functions unrelated to ring-stage parasites were
among those most significantly expressed in the generation 1 vs *ex vivo* analysis, suggesting the
culture conditions may temporarily dysregulate stage-specific expression patterns or result in the
parasites undergoing a rapid adaptation response (Andreadaki *et al.*, 2020, Beeson *et al.*, 2016).
Several AP2 transcription factors (AP2-SP2, AP2-EXP2, AP2-LT, AP2-O and AP2-HC) were
upregulated in generation 1. AP2-HC has been shown to be expressed in asexual parasites
(Carrington *et al.*, 2021). AP2-O is thought to be specific for the ookinete stage and AP2-SP2 plays
a key role in sporozoite stage specific gene expression (Kaneko *et al.*, 2015, Yuda *et al.*, 2010). Our
findings are consistent with another study investigating the impact of long-term culture
(Mackinnon *et al.*, 2009) which also found genes like merozoite surface proteins differentially
expressed, however they were downregulated in long-term cultured parasites, whereas we found
them upregulated in generation 1. This suggests short-term cultured parasites might be
transcriptionally different from long-term cultured parasites, especially in their invasion

capabilities, something previously unobserved. Several genes involved in the stress response of
parasites were upregulated in generation 1, for example DnaJ proteins, serine proteases and ATP
dependent CLP proteases (Oakley *et al.*, 2007). The similarity of the core transcriptomes of the *in*
vitro samples compared to the heterogeneity seen in the *ex vivo* samples could be explained by a
stress response upon entry to culture. Studies investigating whether the dysregulation of stage
specific expression and the expression of stress associated genes persist in long-term culture are
required to understand whether they are important for growth in culture. Critically, the marked
differences presented here suggest the impact of short-term culture can override differences
observed in both the *in vivo* core and *var* transcriptomes of different disease manifestations.
644
In summary, we present an enhanced approach for *var* transcript assembly which allows for *var*
gene expression to be studied in connection to *P. falciparum's* core transcriptome through RNA-
sequencing. This will be useful for expanding our understanding of *var* gene regulation and
function in *in vivo* samples. As an example of the capabilities of the new approach, the method
was used to quantify differences in gene expression upon short-term culture adaptation. This
revealed that inferences from clinical isolates of *P. falciparum* put into short-term culture must be
made with a degree of caution. Whilst *var* gene expression is often maintained, unpredictable
switching does occur, necessitating that the similarity of *in vivo* and *in vitro* expression should be
confirmed. The more extreme changes in the core transcriptome could have much bigger
implications for understanding other aspects of parasite biology such as growth rates and drug
susceptibility and raise a need for additional caution. Further work is needed to examine *var* and
core transcriptome changes during longer term culture on a larger sample size. Understanding the
ground truth of the *var* expression repertoire of *Plasmodium* field isolates still presents a unique
challenge and this work expands the database of *var* sequences globally. The increase in long-read
sequencing and the growing size of *var* gene databases containing isolates from across the globe
will help overcome this issue in future studies.
661
662 ## Materials and Methods
663
664 **Table 5: Key Resources Table.**
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Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #1	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #2	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #3	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #4	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #5	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #6	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #7	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #9	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #10	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #11	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #12	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #13	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #14	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #15	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)		Naïve, severe

Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #16	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #17	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #18	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #19	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #20	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #21	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #22	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #23	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #24	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #25	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #26	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #27	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #28	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #29	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #30	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Naïve, severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #31	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #32	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
Plasmodium falciparum	Isolate #33	Patient isolate (Wichers *et al.*, 2021)	Pre-exposed, non-severe
others	Plasmodipur filter	EuroProxima	Transia Cat. #: 8011Filter25u
commercial reagent	TRIzol	ThermoFischer	Cat. #: 15596026
commercial kit	RNeasy MinElute Cleanup Kit	Qiagen	Cat. #: 74204
commercial kit	GLOBINclear kit	ThermoFischer	Cat. #: AM1980
commercial kit	NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module	NEB	Cat. #: E7490L
commercial kit	NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina	NEB	Cat. #: E7530L
commercial kit	NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Index Primers Set 1)	NEB	Cat. #: E7335L
commercial kit	KAPA HiFi plus dNTPs	Roche	Cat. #: 7958846001
software, algorithm	SoapDeNovo-Trans	SoapDeNovo-Trans	RRID:SCR_013268
software, algorithm	rnaSPAdes	rnaSPAdes	RRID:SCR_016992
software, algorithm	Oases	Oases	RRID:SCR_011896
software, algorithm	DESeq2	DESeq2	RRID:SCR_015687
software, algorithm	Salmon	Salmon	RRID:SCR_017036
software, algorithm	CAP3	CAP3	RRID:SCR_007250
software, algorithm	SSPACE	SSPACE	RRID:SCR_005056
software, algorithm	featureCounts	featureCounts	RRID:SCR_012919

Materials availability statement

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the
article and its supplementary materials. Additionally, the raw sequencing data are openly available
in National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) at BioProject ID: PRJNA679547
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA679547). The already published

laboratory dataset (3D7 time course RNA-sequencing data) was deposited in the European
nucleotide archive (ENA): PRJEB31535 (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/view/PRJEB31535)
(Wichers *et al.*, 2019) and is also available on plasmoDB. All scripts are available in the GitHub
repository (https://github.com/ClareAndradiBrown/varAssembly).
676

<u>Ethics statement</u>
The study was conducted according to the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki, 6th edition,
and the International Conference on Harmonization-Good Clinical Practice (ICH-GCP) guidelines.
All 32 patients were treated as inpatients or outpatients in Hamburg, Germany (outpatient clinic
of the University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf (UKE) at the Bernhard Nocht Institute for
Tropical Medicine, UKE, Bundeswehrkrankenhaus) (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). Blood samples for this
analysis were collected after patients had been informed about the aims and risks of the study
and had signed an informed consent form for voluntary blood collection (n=21). In the remaining
cases, no intended blood samples were collected but residuals from diagnostic blood samples
were used (n=11). The study was approved by the responsible ethics committee (Ethics
Committee of the Hamburg Medical Association, reference numbers PV3828 and PV4539).
688

<u>Blood sampling, processing and *in vitro* cultivation of *P. falciparum*</u>
EDTA blood samples (1–30 mL) were collected from 32 adult falciparum malaria patients for *ex*
vivo transcriptome profiling as reported by Wichers *et al.*, 2021 (Wichers *et al.*, 2021), hereafter
termed "the original analysis". Blood was drawn and either immediately processed (#1, #2, #3, #4,
#11, #12, #14, #17, #21, #23, #28, #29, #30, #31, #32) or stored overnight at 4°C until processing
(#5, #6, #7, #9, #10, #13, #15, #16, #18, #19, #20, #22, #24, #25, #26, #27, #33). If samples were
stored overnight, the *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples were still processed at the same time (so paired
samples had similar storage). Erythrocytes were isolated by Ficoll gradient centrifugation, followed
by filtration through Plasmodipur filters (EuroProxima) to remove residual granulocytes. At least
400 µl of the purified erythrocytes were quickly lysed in 5 volumes of pre-warmed TRIzol
(ThermoFisher Scientific) and stored at -80°C until further processing ("*ex vivo* samples"). When
available, the remainder was then transferred to *in vitro* culture either without the addition of
allogeneic red cells or with the addition of O+ human red cells (blood bank, UKE) for dilution
according to a protocol adopted from Trager and Jensen (Table S4). Cultures were maintained at
37°C in an atmosphere of 1% O_2, 5% CO_2, and 94% N_2 using RPMI complete medium containing
10% heat-inactivated human serum (A+, Interstate Blood Bank, Inc., Memphis, USA). Cultures
were sampled for RNA purification at the ring stage by microscopic observation of the individual
growth of parasite isolates, and harvesting was performed at the appropriate time without prior
synchronization treatment ("*in vitro* samples"). 13 of these *ex vivo* samples underwent one cycle
of *in vitro* cultivation, ten of these generation 1 samples underwent a second cycle of *in vitro*
cultivation. One of these generation 2 samples underwent a third cycle of *in vitro* cultivation (Table
2). In addition, an aliquot of *ex vivo* erythrocytes (approximately 50–100 µl) and aliquots of *in vitro*
cell cultures collected as indicated in Supplementary file 4 were processed for gDNA purification
and MSP1 genotyping as described elsewhere (Wichers *et al.*, 2021, Robert *et al.*, 1996).
713

<u>RNA purification, RNA-sequencing library preparation, and sequencing</u>
RNA purification was performed as described in Wichers *et al.*, 2021, using TRIzol in combination
with the RNeasy MinElute Kit (Qiagen) and DNase digestion (DNase I, Qiagen). Human globin
mRNA was depleted from all samples except from samples #1 and #2 using the GLOBINclear kit
(ThermoFisher Scientific). The median RIN value over all *ex vivo* samples was 6.75 (IQR: 5.93–7.40),
although this measurement has only limited significance for samples containing RNA of two
species. Accordingly, the RIN value increased upon cultivation for all *in vitro* samples

(Supplementary file 5). Customized library construction in accordance to Tonkin-Hill *et al.,* 2018,
including amplification with KAPA polymerase and HiSeq 2500 125 bp paired-end sequencing was
performed by BGI Genomics Co. (Hong Kong).
724

Methods for assembling *var* genes
Previously Oases, Velvet, SoapDeNovo-Trans or MaSuRCA have been used for *var* transcript
assembly (Wichers *et al.*, 2021, Andrade *et al.*, 2020, Otto *et al.*, 2019, Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018).
Previous methods either did not incorporate read error correction or focussed on gene assembly,
as opposed to transcript assembly (Schulz *et al.*, 2012, Zerbino & Birney, 2008, Xie *et al.*, 2014,
Zimin *et al.*, 2013). Read error correction is important for *var* transcript assembly due to the highly
repetitive nature of the *P. falciparum* genome. Recent methods have also focused on whole
transcript assembly, as opposed to initial separate domain assembly followed by transcript
assembly (Wichers *et al.*, 2021, Andrade *et al.*, 2020, Otto *et al.*, 2019, Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018).
The original analysis used SoapDeNovo-Trans to assemble the *var* transcripts, however it is
currently not possible to run all steps in the original approach, due to certain tools being improved
and updated. Therefore, SoapDeNovo-Trans (k=71) was used and termed the original approach.
737

Here, two novel methods for whole *var* transcript and *var* domain assembly were developed and
their performance was evaluated in comparison to the original approach (Figure 2b). In both
methods the reads were first mapped to the human g38 genome and any mapped reads were
removed. Next, the unmapped reads were mapped to a modified *P. falciparum* 3D7 genome with
var genes removed, to identify multi-mapping reads commonly present in *Plasmodium* RNA-
sequencing datasets. Any mapped reads were removed. In parallel, the unmapped RNA reads from
the human mapping stage were mapped against a reference of field isolate *var* exon 1 sequences
and the mapped reads identified (Otto *et al.*, 2019). These reads were combined with the
unmapped reads from the 3D7 genome mapping stage and duplicate reads removed. All mapping
was performed using sub-read align as in the original analysis (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). The reads
identified at the end of this process are referred to as "non-core reads".
749

Whole *var* transcript and *var* domain assembly methods
For whole *var* transcript assembly the non-core reads, for each sample separately, were
assembled using rnaSPAdes (k-mer =71, read_error_correction on) (Bushmanova *et al.*, 2019).
Contigs were joined into larger scaffolds using SSPACE (parameters -n 31 -x 0 -k 10) (Boetzer *et al.*,
2011). Transcripts < 500nt were excluded, as in the original approach. The included transcripts
were annotated using hidden Markov models (HMM) (Finn *et al.*, 2011) built on the *Rask et al.*,
2010 dataset and used in Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018. When annotating the whole transcript, the most
significant alignment was taken as the best annotation for each region of the assembled transcript
(e-value cut off 1e-5). Multiple annotations were allowed on the transcript if they were not
overlapping, determined using cath-resolve-hits (Lewis *et al.*, 2019). Scripts are available in the
GitHub repository (https://github.com/ClareAndradiBrown/varAssembly)
761

In the *var* domain assembly approach, separate domains were assembled first and then joined up
to form transcripts. First, the non-core reads were mapped (nucleotide basic local alignment tool
(blastn) short read option) to the domain sequences as defined in Rask *et al.*, 2010. This was found
to produce similar results when compared to using tblastx. An e-value threshold of 1e-30 was used
for the more conserved DBLα domains and an e-value of 1e-10 for the other domains. Next, the
reads mapping to the different domains were assembled separately. rnaSPAdes
(read_error_correction on, k-mer = 15), Oases (kmer = 15) and SoapDeNovo2 (kmer = 15) were all
used to assemble the reads separately (Bushmanova *et al.*, 2019, Xie *et al.*, 2014, Schulz *et al.*,

2012). The output of the different assemblers was combined into a per sample reference of
domain sequences. Redundancy was removed in the reference using cd-hit (-n 8-c 0.99) (at
sequence identity = 99%) (Fu *et al.*, 2012). Cap3 was used to merge and extend the domain
assemblies (Huang & Madan, 1999). SSPACE was used to join the domains together (parameters -
n 31 -x 0 -k 10) (Boetzer *et al.*, 2011). Transcript annotation was performed as in the whole
transcript approach, with transcripts < 500 nt removed. Significantly annotated (1e-5) transcripts
were identified and selected. The most significant annotation was selected as the best annotation
for each region, with multiple annotations allowed on a single transcript if the regions were not
overlapping. For both methods, a *var* transcript was selected if it contained at least one
significantly annotated domain (in exon 1). *Var* transcripts that encoded only the more conserved
exon 2 (acidic terminal segment (ATS) domain) were discarded.
781

<u>Validation on RNA-sequencing dataset from *P. falciparum* reference strain 3D7</u>
Both new approaches and the original approach (SoapDeNovo-Trans, k =71) (Wichers *et al.*, 2021,
Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018) were run on a public RNA-sequencing dataset of the intra-erythrocytic life
cycle stages of cultured *P. falciparum* 3D7 strain, sampled at 8-hr intervals up until 40 hrs post
infection and then at 4 hr intervals up until 48 hrs post infection (ENA: PRJEB31535) (Wichers *et*
al., 2019). This provided a validation of all three approaches due to the true sequence of the *var*
genes being known in *P. falciparum* 3D7 strain. Therefore, we compared the assembled sequences
from all three approaches to the true sequence. The first best hit (significance threshold = 1e-10)
was chosen for each contig. The alignment score was used to evaluate the performance of each
method. The alignment score represents $\sqrt{accuracy* recovery}$. The accuracy is the proportion of
bases that are correct in the assembled transcript and the recovery reflects what proportion of
the true transcript was assembled. Misassemblies were counted as transcripts that had a
percentage identity < 99% to their best hit (i.e. the *var* transcript is not 100% contained against
the reference).
796

<u>Comparison of approaches for *var* assembly on *ex vivo* samples</u>
The *var* transcripts assembled from the 32 *ex vivo* samples using the original approach were
compared to those produced from the whole transcript and domain assembly approaches. The
whole transcript approach was chosen for subsequent analysis and all assembled *var* transcripts
from this approach were combined into a reference, as in the original method (Wichers *et al.*,
2021).
803

804 Removal of *var* transcripts with sequence id >= 99% prior to mapping was not performed in the
805 original analysis. To overcome this, *var* transcripts were removed if they had a sequence id >= 99%
806 against the full complement in the whole transcript approach, using cd-hit-est (Fu *et al.*, 2012).
807 Removing redundancy in the reference of assembled *var* transcripts across all samples led to the
808 removal of 1,316 assembled contigs generated from the whole transcript approach.
809

This reference then represented all assembled *var* transcripts across all samples in the given
analysis. The same method that was used in the original analysis was applied for quantifying the
expression of the assembled *var* transcripts. The non-core reads were mapped against this
reference and quantification was performed using Salmon (Patro *et al.*, 2017). DESeq2 was used
to perform differential expression analysis between severe versus non-severe groups and naïve
versus pre-exposed groups in the original analysis (Love *et al.*, 2014). Here, the same approach, as
used in the original analysis, was applied to see if concordant expression estimates were obtained.
As genomic sequencing was not available, this provided a confirmation of the whole transcript
approach after the domain annotation step. The assembled *var* transcripts produced by the whole

transcript assembly approach had their expression quantified at the transcript and domain level,
as in the original method, and the results were compared to those obtained by the original
method. To quantify domain expression, featureCounts was used, as in the original method with
the counts for each domain aggregated (Liao *et al.*, 2014). Correlation analysis between the
domain's counts from the whole transcript approach and the original method was performed for
each *ex vivo* sample. Differential expression analysis was also performed using DESeq2, as in the
original analysis and the results compared (Love *et al.*, 2014, Wichers *et al.*, 2021).

<u>Estimation of parasite lifecycle stage distribution in *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* samples</u>
To determine the parasite life cycle stage proportions for each sample the mixture model
approach of the original analysis (Tonkin-Hill *et al.*, 2018, Wichers *et al.*, 2021) and the SCDC
approach were used (Dong *et al.*, 2021, Howick *et al.*, 2019). Recently, it has been determined
that species-agnostic reference datasets can be used for efficient and accurate gene expression
deconvolution of bulk RNA-sequencing data from any *Plasmodium* species and for correct gene
expression analyses for biases caused by differences in stage composition among samples (Tebben
et al., 2022). Therefore, the *Plasmodium berghei* single cell atlas was used as reference with
restriction to 1:1 orthologs between *P. berghei* and *P. falciparum*. This reference was chosen as it
contained reference transcriptomes for the gametocyte stage. To ensure consistency with the
original analysis, proportions from the mixture model approach were used for all subsequent
analyses (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). For comparison, the proportion of different stages of the parasite
life cycle in the *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples was determined by two independent readers in
Giemsa-stained thin blood smears. The same classification as the mixture model approach was
used (8, 19, 30, and 42 hours post infection corresponding to ring, early trophozoite, late
trophozoite and schizont stages respectively). Significant differences in ring stage proportions
were tested using pairwise Wilcoxon tests. For the other stages, a modified Wilcoxon rank test for
zero-inflated data was used (Wang *et al.*, 2021). *Var* gene expression is highly stage dependent,
so any quantitative comparison between samples needs adjustment for developmental stage. The
life cycle stage proportions determined from the mixture model approach were used for
adjustment.

<u>Characterising *var* transcripts</u>
The whole transcript approach was applied to the paired *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples. Significant
differences in the number of assembled *var* transcripts and the length of the transcripts across
the generations was tested using the paired Wilcoxon test. Redundancy was removed from the
assembled *var* transcripts and transcripts and domains were quantified using the approach
described above. Three additional filtering steps were applied separately to this reference of
assembled *var* transcripts to ensure the *var* transcripts that went on to have their expression
quantified represented true *var* transcripts. The first method restricted *var* transcripts to those
greater than 1500nt containing at least 3 significantly annotated *var* domains, one of which had
to be a DBLα domain. The second restricted *var* transcripts to those greater than 1500nt and
containing a DBLα domain. The third approach restricted *var* transcripts to those greater than
1500nt with at least 3 significant *var* domain annotations.

<u>Per patient *var* transcript expression</u>
A limitation of *var* transcript differential expression analysis is that it assumes all *var* sequences
have the possibility of being expressed in all samples. However, since each parasite isolate has a
different set of *var* gene sequences, this assumption is not completely valid. To account for this,
var transcript expression analysis was performed on a per patient basis. For each patient, the
paired *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples were analysed. The assembled *var* transcripts (at least 1500nt

and containing 3 significantly annotated *var* domains) across all the generations for a patient were
combined into a reference, redundancy was removed as described above, and expression was
quantified using Salmon (Patro *et al.*, 2017). *Var* transcript expression was ranked, and the
rankings compared across the generations.
872
Var expression homogeneity (VEH)

VEH is defined as the extent to which a small number of *var* gene sequences dominate an isolate's
expression profile (Warimwe *et al.*, 2013). Previously, this has been evaluated by calculating a
commonly used α diversity index, the Simpson's index of diversity. Different α diversity indexes
put different weights on evenness and richness. To overcome the issue of choosing one metric, α
diversity curves were calculated (Wagner *et al.*, 2018). Equation 1 is the computational formula
for diversity curves. *D* is calculated for *q* in the range 0 to 3 with a step increase of 0.1 and *p* in this
analysis represented the proportion of *var* gene expression dedicated to *var* transcript *k*. *q*
determined how much weight is given to rare vs abundant *var* transcripts. The smaller the *q* value,
the less weight was given to the more abundant *var* transcript. VEH was investigated on a per
patient basis.

$$\text{Equation 1} \qquad D_{(q)} = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k^q\right)^{\frac{1}{1-q}}$$

Conserved *var* gene variants

890 To check for the differential expression of conserved *var* gene variants *var1-3D7*, *var1-IT* and
891 *var2csa*, all assembled transcripts significantly annotated as such were identified. For each
892 conserved gene, Salmon normalised read counts (adjusted for life cycle stage) were summed and
893 expression compared across the generations using a pairwise Wilcoxon rank test.

Differential expression of *var* domains from *ex vivo* to *in vitro* samples

Domain expression was quantified using featureCounts, as described above (Liao *et al.*, 2014).
DESeq2 was used to test for differential domain expression, with five expected read counts in at
least three patient isolates required, with life cycle stage and patient identity used as covariates.
For the *ex vivo* versus *in vitro* comparisons, only *ex vivo* samples that had paired samples in
generation 1 underwent differential expression analysis, given the extreme nature of the
polymorphism seen in the *var* genes.

Var group expression analysis

The type of the *var* gene is determined by multiple parameters: upstream sequence (ups),
chromosomal location, direction of transcription and domain composition. All regular *var* genes
encode a DBLα domain in the N-terminus of the PfEMP1 protein (Figure 1c). The type of this
domain correlates with previously defined *var* gene groups, with group A encoding DBLα1, groups
B and C encoding DBLα0 and group B encoding a DBLα2 (chimera between DBLα0 and DBLα1)
(Figure 1c). The DBLα domain sequence for each transcript was determined and for each patient
a reference of all assembled DBLα domains combined. The relevant sample's non-core reads were
mapped to this using Salmon and DBLα expression quantified (Patro *et al.*, 2017). DESeq2
normalisation was performed, with patient identity and life cycle stage proportions included as
covariates and differences in the amounts of *var* transcripts of group A compared with groups B
and C assessed (Love *et al.*, 2014). A similar approach was repeated for NTS domains. NTSA
domains are found encoded in group A *var* genes and NTSB domains are found encoded in group
B and C *var* genes (Figure 1c).

Quantification of total *var* gene expression

918
The RNA-sequencing reads were blastn (with the short-blastn option on and significance = 1e-10)
against the LARSFADIG nucleotide sequences (142 unique LARSFADIG sequences) to identify reads
containing the LARSFADIG motifs. This approach has been described previously (Andrade *et al.*,
2020). Once the reads containing the LARSFADIG motifs had been identified, they were used to
assembled the LARSFADIG motif. Trinity (Henschel, 2012) and rnaSPAdes (Bushmanova *et al.*,
2019) were used separately to assemble the LARSFADIG motif, and the results compared. The
sequencing reads were mapped back against the assemblies using bwa mem (Li, 2013), parameter
-k 31 -a (as in Andrade *et al.*, 2020). Coverage over the LARSFADIG motif was assessed by
determining the coverage over the middle of the motif (S) using Samtools depth (Danecek *et al.*,
2021). These values were divided by the number of reads mapped to the *var* exon 1 database and
the 3D7 genome (which had *var* genes removed) to represent the proportion of total gene
expression dedicated to *var* gene expression (similar to an RPKM). The results of both approaches
were compared. This method has been validated on 3D7, IT and HB3 *Plasmodium* strains. *Var2csa*
does not contain the LARSFADIG motif, hence this quantitative analysis of global *var* gene
expression excluded *var2csa* (which was analysed separately). Significant differences in total *var*
gene expression were tested by constructing a linear model with the proportion of gene
expression dedicated to *var* gene expression as the response variable, the generation and life cycle
stage as an independent variables and the patient identity included as a random effect.

Var expression profiling by DBLα-tag sequencing

938
DBLα-tag sequence analysis was performed as in the original analysis (Wichers *et al.*, 2021), with
Varia used to predict domain composition (Mackenzie *et al.*, 2022). The proportion of transcripts
encoding NTSA, NTSB, DBLα1, DBLα2 and DBLα0 domains were determined for each sample.
These expression levels were used as an alternative approach to see whether there were changes
in the *var* group expression levels through culture.

The consistency of domain annotations was also investigated between the DBLα-tag approach and
the assembled transcripts. This was investigated on a per patient basis, with all the predicted
annotations from the DBLα-tag approach for a given patient combined. These were compared to
the annotations from all assembled transcripts for a given patient. DBLα annotations and DBLα-
CIDR annotations were compared. This provided another validation of the whole transcript
approach after the domain annotation step and was not dependent on performing differential
expression analysis.

For comparison of both approaches (DBLα-tag sequencing and our new whole transcript
approach), the same analysis was performed as in the original analysis (Wichers *et al.*, 2021). All
conserved variants (*var1, var2csa* and *var3*) were removed as they were not properly amplified by
the DBLα-tag approach. To identify how many assembled transcripts, specifically the DBLα region,
were found in the DBLα-tag approach, we applied BLAST. As in the original analysis, a BLAST
database was created from the DBLα-tag cluster results and screened for the occurrence of those
assembled DBLα regions with more than 97% seq id using the "megablast" option. This was
restricted to the assembled DBLα regions that were expressed in the top 75th percentile to allow
for a fair comparison, as only DBLα-tag clusters with more than 10 reads were considered.
Similarly, to identify how many DBLα-tag sequences were found in the assembled transcripts, a
BLAST database was created from the assembled transcripts and screened for the occurrence of
the DBLα-tag sequences with more than 97% seq id using the "megablast" option. This was
performed for each sample.

966
Core gene differential expression analysis
Subread align was used, as in the original analysis, to align the reads to the human genome and *P. falciparum* 3D7 genome, *with var, rif, stevor, surf* and *rRNA* genes removed (Liao *et al.*, 2013). HTSeq count was used to quantify gene counts (Anders *et al.*, 2015). DESeq2 was used to test for differentially expressed genes with five read counts in at least three samples being required (Love *et al.*, 2014). Parasite life cycle stages and patient identity were included as covariates. GO and KEGG analysis was performed using ShinyGo and significant terms were defined by having a Bonferroni corrected p-value < 0.05 (Ge *et al.*, 2020).

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Formal analysis: CAB
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No competing interests declared.

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1341
1342 <u>Figure Legends</u>
1343
Figure 1: Summary of the *var* chromosomal location, *var* gene, PfEMP1 protein structure, and
PfEMP1 binding phenotypes. a) Chromosomal position and transcriptional direction (indicated
by arrows) of the different *var* gene groups, designated by the respective type of upstream
sequence (Kraemer and Smith et al., 2003, Lavstsen et al., 2003). **b)** Structure of the *var* gene
which encodes the PfEMP1 protein. The *var* gene is composed of two exons, the first, around 3–
9.4 kb, encodes the highly variable extracellular region and the transmembrane region (TM) of
PfEMP1. Exon 2 is shorter with about 1.2 kb and encodes a semi-conserved intracellular region
(acidic terminal segment, ATS). The PfEMP1 protein is composed of an N-terminal segment (NTS),
followed by a variable number of Duffy binding-like (DBL) domains and cysteine-rich interdomain
regions (CIDR) (Rask et al., 2010). **c)** Summary of PfEMP1 proteins encoded in the parasite
genome, their composition of domain subtypes and associated N-terminal binding phenotype.
Group A and some B proteins have an EPCR-binding phenotype; the vast majority of group B and
C PfEMP1 proteins bind to CD36. Group A proteins also include those that bind a yet unknown
receptor, as well as VAR1 and VAR3 variants with unknown function and binding phenotype.
VAR2CSA (group E) binds placental CSA.
1359
Figure 2: Overview of novel computational pipelines for assembling *var* transcripts. The
original approach (green) used SoapDeNovo-Trans (k=71) to perform whole *var* transcript
assembly. The whole transcript approach (blue) focused on assembling whole *var* transcripts from
the non-core reads using rnaSPAdes (k = 71). Contigs were then joined into longer transcripts using
SSPACE. The domain approach (orange) assembled *var* domains first and then joined the domains
into whole transcripts. Domains were assembled separately using three different *de novo*
assemblers (SoapDeNovo2, Oases and rnaSPAdes). Next, a reference of assembled domains was
composed and cd-hit (at sequence identity = 99%) was used to remove redundant sequences.
Cap3 was used to merge and extend domain assemblies. Finally, SSPACE was used to join domains
together. HMM models built on the Rask *et al.*, 2010 dataset were used to annotate the assembled
transcripts (Rask *et al.*, 2010). The most significant alignment was taken as the best annotation for

each region of the assembled transcript (significance <= 1e-5) identified using cath-resolve-hits0.
Transcripts < 500nt were removed. A *var* transcript was selected if it contained at least one
significantly annotated domain (in exon 1). *Var* transcripts that encoded only the more conserved
exon 2 (ATS domain) were discarded. The three pipelines were run on the 32 malaria patient *ex*
vivo samples from Wichers *et al*., 2021 (Wichers *et al*., 2021).

1376

Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1: Performance of novel computational pipelines for *var*
assembly on *Plasmodium falciparum* 3D7: The three approaches (whole transcript: blue, domain
approach: orange, original approach: green) were applied to a public RNA-seq dataset (ENA:
PRJEB31535) of the intra-erythrocytic life cycle stages of 3 biological replicates of cultured *P.*
falciparum 3D7, sampled at 8-hour intervals up until 40hrs post infection (hpi) and then at 4-hour
intervals up until 48 hpi (Wichers et al., 2019). Boxplots show the data from the 3 biological
replicates for each time point in the intra-erythrocytic life cycle: **a)** alignment scores for the
dominantly expressed *var* gene (PF3D7_0712600), **b)** accuracy scores for the dominantly
expressed *var* gene (PF3D7_0712600), **c)** number of contigs required to assemble the dominant
var gene (PF3D7_0712600), **d)** alignment scores for a middle ranking expressed *var* gene
(PF3D7_0937800), **e)** alignment scores for the lowest expressed *var* gene (PF3D7_0200100). The
first best blast hit (significance threshold = 1e-10) was chosen for each contig. The alignment score
was used to evaluate the performance of each method. The alignment score represents
$\sqrt{\text{accuracy}}$* recovery. The accuracy is the proportion of bases that are correct in the assembled
transcript and the recovery reflects what proportion of the true transcript was
assembled. Assembly completeness of the dominant *var* gene (PF3D7_0712600, length = 6648nt)
for the three approaches was assessed for each biological replicate: **f)** biological replicate 1, **g)**
biological replicate 2, **h)** biological replicate 3. Dotted lines represent the start and end of the
contigs required to assemble the *var* gene. Red bars represent assembled sequences relative to
the dominantly expressed whole *var* gene sequence, where we know the true sequence (termed
"reference transcript").

1398

1399   **Figure 2 – Figure supplement 2: Histograms of the length and frequency of *var* transcripts**
1400   **produced by the different *var* assembly approaches.** Approaches were applied to *ex vivo*
1401   samples (n =32) from Wichers *et al*., 2021. Assembled *var* transcripts < 500nt and not containing
1402   a significantly annotated *var* domain were removed.

1403

Figure 2 – Figure supplement 3: Domain expression correlation between the whole transcript
approach and the original approach. Correlation plots of the original approach *var* domain
counts vs those produced by the whole transcript approach. Each plot represents a patient.
Domain counts were determined using featureCounts in both approaches and counts for each
domain aggregated. Plots show $\log_2$ transformed normalized counts. The line represents a linear
regression model fit.

1410

Figure 2 – Figure supplement 4: *Var* transcript expression differences derived from the whole
transcript approach between a) pre-exposed (n=17) (blue) vs naïve (n=15) (orange) cases and
b) severe (n=8) (orange) vs non-severe (n=24) (blue) cases. Boxplots show $\log_2$ normalized
Salmon counts adjusted for life cycle stage (derived from the mixture model approach).
Comparison of *var* transcript expression differences found in the original approach with those
assembled using the whole transcript approach. These transcripts were found to be significantly
differentially expressed in the **c)** pre-exposed (n=17) (blue) vs naïve (n=15) (orange) cases and **d)**
severe (n=8) (orange) vs non-severe (n=24) (blue) cases in the original analysis. Each box
represents a comparison of the transcript assembled using the whole transcript approach (grey

background) vs using the original approach (white background). Boxplots show log$_2$ Salmon normalized counts. RNA-sequencing reads of each patient sample were matched to *de novo* assembled *var* contigs with varying lengths and domains using the whole transcript approach. Shown are significantly differently expressed *var* transcripts. Differential expression analysis was performed using DESeq2.

Figure 3: Summary of analyses of *var* and core gene transcriptome changes in paired *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured parasites. From a total of 13 parasite isolates, the *ex vivo* samples (Wichers *et al.*, 2021) and the corresponding *in vitro*-cultured parasites of the first (n=13), second (n=10) and third (n=1) replication cycle were analysed by RNA sequencing. The expression of non-polymorphic core genes and polymorphic *var* genes was determined in different analysis streams: (1) Non-polymorphic core gene reads were mapped to the 3D7 reference genome, expression was quantified using HTSeq and differential expression analysis performed (orange); (2) Non-core reads were identified, whole transcripts were assembled with rnaSPAdes, expression of both *var* transcripts (red) and domains (light green) was quantified, and *var* domain differential expression analysis was performed. "Per patient analysis" (yellow) represents combining all assembled *var* transcripts for samples originating from the same *ex vivo* sample only. For each conserved *var* gene (*var1-3D7, var1-IT, var2csa* and *var3*) all significantly assembled conserved *var* transcripts were identified and put into a combined reference (pink). The normalised counts for each conserved gene were summed. Non-core reads were mapped to this and DESeq2 normalisation performed. *Var* type (group A vs group B and C) expression (purple) was quantified using the DBLα and NTS assembled sequences and differences across generations were assessed. Total *var* gene expression (turquoise) was quantified by assembling and quantifying the coverage over the highly conserved LARSFADIG motif, with the performance of assembly using Trinity and rnaSPAdes assessed. DBLα-tag data was used to confirm the results of the dominant *var* gene expression analysis and the *var* type analysis (dark green). *Var* expression homogeneity (VEH) was analysed at the patient level (α diversity curves). All differential expression analyses were performed using DESeq2.To ensure a fair comparison of samples, which may contain different proportions of life cycle stages, the performance of two different *in silico* approaches was evaluated by counting Giemsa-stained thin blood smears (blue).

Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1: Parasite life cycle stage estimates across the generations. Life cycle stage percentages were estimated using two approaches. **a)** The first, termed the mixture model approach, was the same as used in the original analysis with 8, 19, 30, and 42 hours post infection corresponding to ring (blue), early trophozoite (orange), late trophozoite (green), schizont (red) and gametocyte (purple) stages, respectively. **b)** The second approach, termed SCDC, used SCDC, a deconvolution tool, that uses single cell reference transcriptomes of known life cycle stages, ring (blue), trophozoite (orange), schizont (red), and gametocyte (purple). The Malaria Cell Atlas for *P. berghei* was used as the reference transcriptome due to it containing gametocyte single cells. Only *P. berghei* genes that had 1:1 orthologs with *P. falciparum* 3D7 were used. Samples are ordered by generation: *ex vivo*; yellow, generation 1; pink, generation 2; blue, generation 3; green. In panels a and b life cycle stage proportions are shown for all *ex vivo* samples (n =32), paired generation 1 samples (n=13), paired generation 2 samples (n=10) and a paired generation 3 Figure shows life cycle stage proportions for all *ex vivo* samples (n =32), paired generation 1 samples (n=13), paired generation 2 samples (n=10) and a paired generation 3 sample (n=1) **c)** Significant differences in the parasite life cycle stage estimates (derived from the mixture model approach) for the paired *ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2 (n=10)

and generation 3 (n=1) samples were tested using paired Wilcox tests (for the ring stage
comparison) and a modified Wilcox on rank test for zero inflated data on the other life cycle stages.
The numbers above the boxplots represent significant adjusted p-values observed (Benjamini-
Hochberg adjusted). **d)** Concordance of life cycle stage estimations using the mixture model
approach and counting Giemsa-stained thin blood smears. Giemsa-stained thin blood smears
counting was performed by two independent researchers. Orange boxplots represent
percentages determined using the mixture model approach and blue boxplots represent
percentages determined using Giemsa-stained thin blood smears. Data shown represents the *ex*
vivo (n=11) samples and the paired *in vitro* generations (generation 1; n=12, generation 2; n=9 and
generation 3;n=1) Numbers above the boxplots represent adjusted p-values (Benjamini-Hochberg
adjusted) from a pairwise Wilcoxon test. The same classification as the mixture model approach
was used for the Giemsa-stained thin blood smears counting (8, 19, 30, and 42 hours post infection
corresponding to ring, early trophozoite, late trophozoite and schizont stages respectively).
1480
Figure 3 – Figure supplement 2: *Var* **expression profiles across different mapping approaches.**
Different mapping approaches were used to quantify the *var* expression profiles of each sample
(*ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2 (n=10) and generation 3 (n=1). The pooled
sample approach in which all significantly assembled *var* transcripts (1500nt and containing 3
significantly annotated *var* domains) across samples were combined into a reference and
redundancy was removed using cd-hit (at sequence identity = 99%) (**a–c**). The non-core reads of
each sample were mapped to this pooled reference using **a)** Salmon, **b)** bowtie2 filtering for
uniquely mapping paired reads with MAPQ >0, and **c)** bowtie2 filtering for uniquely mapping
paired reads with a MAPQ > 20. **d)** The per patient approach was applied. For each patient, the
paired *ex vivo* and *in vitro* samples were analysed. The assembled *var* transcripts (at least 1500nt
and containing 3 significantly annotated *var* domains) across all the generations for a patient were
combined into a reference, redundancy was removed using cd-hit (at sequence identity = 99%),
and expression was quantified using Salmon. Pie charts show the *var* expression profile with the
relative size of each slice representing the relative percentage of total *var* gene expression of each
var transcript. Different colours represent different assembled *var* transcripts with the same
colour code used across a-d.
1497
Figure 4: Rank *var* **gene expression analysis.** For each patient, the paired *ex vivo* (n=13) and *in*
vitro samples (generation 1: n=13, generation 2: n=10, generation 3: n=1) were analysed. The
assembled *var* transcripts with at least 1500nt and containing 3 significantly annotated *var*
domains across all the generations for a patient were combined into a reference, redundancy was
removed using cd-hit (at sequence identity = 99%), and expression was quantified using Salmon.
Var transcript expression was ranked. Plots show the top 10 *var* gene expression rankings for each
patient and their *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured parasite samples. Group A *var* transcripts
(red), group B or C *var* transcripts (blue), group E *var* transcripts (green) and transcripts of
unknown *var* group (orange).
1507
Figure 4 – Figure supplement 1: Rank *var* **gene expression analysis.** For each patient, the paired
ex vivo (n=13) and *in vitro* samples (generation 1: n=13, generation 2: n=10, generation 3: n=1)
were analysed. The assembled *var* transcripts with at least 1500nt and containing 3 significantly
annotated *var* domains across all the generations for a patient were combined into a reference,
redundancy was removed using cd-hit (at sequence identity = 99%), and expression was quantified
using Salmon. *Var* transcript expression was ranked. Plots show the top 10 *var* gene expression
rankings for each patient and their *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured parasite samples. Group

B/C *var* transcript (blue), group A *var* transcript (red), group E *var* transcript (green) and unknown
(orange).

1517

1518 **Figure 4 – Figure supplement 2: *Var* expression homogeneity (VEH).** α diversity curves were
1519 determined on a per patient basis using Equation 1. *D* is calculated for *q* in the range 0 to 3 with a
1520 step increase of 0.1 and *p* in this analysis represented the proportion of *var* gene expression
1521 dedicated to *var* transcript *k*. *q* determined how much weight is given to rare vs abundant *var*
1522 transcripts. The smaller the *q* value, the less weight was given to the more abundant *var* transcript.

Equation 1 $$D_{(q)} = (\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k^q)^{\frac{1}{1-q}}$$

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Figure 4 – Figure supplement 3: *Var2csa* expression through short-term *in vitro* cultivation. All
significantly annotated *var2csa* transcripts had their $\log_2$ Salmon normalised count summed.
Significant differences in expression levels between generations were assessed using a paired
Wilcoxon test and adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Numbers above the boxplots
represent significant differences observed (FDR <=0.05). Coloured lines connect paired patient
samples through the generations.

1531

Figure 5: *Var* domain transcriptome analysis through short-term *in vitro* culture. *Var*
transcripts for paired *ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2 (n=10) and generation 3
(n=1) were *de novo* assembled using the whole transcript approach. *Var* transcripts were filtered
for those >= 1500nt in length and containing at least 3 significantly annotated *var* domains.
Transcripts were annotated using HMM models built on the Rask et al., 2010 dataset (Rask *et al.*,
2010). When annotating the whole transcript, the most significant alignment was taken as the
best annotation for each region of the assembled transcript (e-value cut off 1e-5). Multiple
annotations were allowed on the transcript if they were not overlapping, determined using cath-
resolve-hits. *Var* domain expression was quantified using FeatureCounts and the domain counts
aggregated **a)** PCA plot of $\log_2$ normalized read counts (adjusted for life cycle stage, derived from
the mixture model approach). Points are coloured by their generation (*ex vivo*; purple,
generation 1; red, generation 2; green and generation 3; blue) and labelled by their patient
identity **b)** Volcano plot showing extent and significance of up- or down-regulation of *var* domain
expression in *ex vivo* (n=13) compared with paired generation 1 cultured parasites (n=13) (red
and blue, *P* < 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment for FDR; red and green, absolute
$\log_2$ fold change $\log_2$FC in expression >= 2). Domains with a $\log_2$FC > = 2 represent those
upregulated in generation 1 parasites. Domains with a $\log_2$FC <= -2 represent those
downregulated in generation 1 parasites. **c)** Volcano plot showing extent and significance of up-
or down-regulation of *var* domain expression in *ex vivo* (n=10) compared with paired generation
2 cultured parasites (n=10) (green, absolute $\log_2$ fold change $\log_2$FC in expression >= 2). Domains
with a $\log_2$FC >= 2 represent those upregulated in generation 2 parasites. Domains with a $\log_2$FC
<= -2 represent those downregulated in generation 2 parasites. Differential expression analysis
was performed using DESeq2 (adjusted for life cycle stage, derived from the mixture model
approach).

1556

Figure 6. *Var* group expression analysis through short-term *in vitro* culture. The DBLα domain
sequence for each transcript was determined and for each patient a reference of all assembled
DBLα domains combined. Group A *var* genes possess DBLα1 domains, some group B encode
DBLα2 domains and groups B and C encode DBLα0 domains. Domains were grouped by type and
their expression summed. The relevant sample's non-core reads were mapped to this using

Salmon and DBLα expression quantified. DESeq2 normalisation was performed, with patient
identity and life cycle stage proportions included as covariates. A similar approach was repeated
for NTS domains. Group A *var* genes encode NTSA compared to group B and C *var* genes which
encode NTSB. Boxplots show $\log_2$ normalised Salmon read counts for **a)** group A *var* gene
expression through cultured generations assessed using the DBLα domain sequences, **b)** group B
and C *var* gene expression through cultured generations assessed using the DBLα domain
sequences, **c)** group A *var* gene expression through cultured generations assessed using the NTS
domain sequences, and **d)** group B and C *var* gene expression through cultured generations
assessed using the NTS domain sequences. Different coloured lines connect paired patient
samples through the generations: *ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2 (n=10) and
generation 3 (n=1). Axis shows different scaling.
1573
Figure 6 – Figure supplement 1: Total *var* gene expression through short-term *in vitro* culture.
Boxplots show data from paired *ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2 (n=10) and
generation 3 (n=1) parasite samples. The RNA-sequencing reads were blastn (with the short-blastn
option on and significance = 1e-10) against the LARSFADIG nucleotide sequences (142 unique
LARSFADIG sequences) to identify reads containing the LARSFADIG motifs. Once the reads
containing the LARSFADIG motifs had been identified, they were used to assemble the LARSFADIG
motif. rnaSPAdes and Trinity were used to assemble the LARSFADIG motif. The sequencing reads
were mapped back against the assemblies using bwa mem, and coverage over the middle of the
motif (S) determined. These values were divided by the number of reads mapped to the *var* exon
1 database and the 3D7 genome (which had *var* genes removed) to represent the proportion of
total gene expression dedicated to *var* gene expression (similar to an RPKM). % total gene
expression dedicated to *var* gene expression quantified using LARSFADIG motifs assembled **a)** by
Trinity, **b)** by rnaSPAdes, or **c)** # assembled LARSFADIG motifs, assembled using rnaSPAdes.
1587
Figure 6 – Figure supplement 2: Verification of RNA-sequencing results using DBLα-tag
sequencing. Amplified DBLα-tag sequences were blasted against the ~2400 genomes on varDB to
obtain subclassification into DBLα0/1/2 and prediction of adjacent head structure N-terminal
segment and cysteine-rich interdomain region domains and their related binding phenotype.
Proportion of each NTS and DBLα subclass were calculated, and group A and group B and C
expression proportions determined. Group A *var* genes encode NTSA and DBLα1 and groups B and
C encode NTSB and DBLα0. Group B *var* genes encode DBLα2. **a)** Group A transcript proportions
determined by the DBLα1 domain. **b)** Group B and C transcript proportions determined by DBLα0
and DBLα2 domains. **c)** Group A transcript proportions determined by the NTSA domain. **d)** Group
B and C transcript proportions determined by the NTSB domain.
1598
Figure 7: Core gene transcriptome analysis of *ex vivo* and short-term *in vitro* cultured samples.
Core gene expression was assessed for paired *ex vivo* (n=13), generation 1 (n=13), generation 2
(n=10) and generation 3 (n=1) parasite samples. Subread align was used, as in the original analysis,
to align the reads to the human genome and *P. falciparum* 3D7 genome, *with var, rif, stevor, surf*
and *rRNA* genes removed. HTSeq count was used to quantify gene counts. **a)** PCA plot of $\log_2$
normalized read counts. Points are coloured by their generation (*ex vivo*: purple, generation 1: red,
generation 2: green, and generation 3: blue) and labelled by their patient identity. **b)** Volcano plot
showing extent and significance of up- or down-regulation of core gene expression in *ex vivo* (n=13)
compared with paired generation 1 cultured parasites (n=13) and **c)** in *ex vivo* (n=10) compared
with paired generation 2 cultured parasites (n=10). Dots in red and blue represent those genes
with $P < 0.05$ after Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment for FDR, red and green dots label genes with
absolute $\log_2$ fold change $\log_2$FC in expression >= 2). Accordingly, genes with a $\log_2$FC $> = 2$

represent those upregulated in generation 1 parasites and genes with a $\log_2FC <= -2$ represent
those downregulated in generation 1 parasites. Normalized read counts of the core gene analysis
were adjusted for life cycle stage, derived from the mixture model approach.

1614

Figure 7 – Figure supplement 1: Top 20 enriched pathways in the core genes found to be
significantly upregulated in generation 1 parasite samples (n=13) compared to *ex vivo* parasite
samples (n=13). The 902 genes found significantly upregulated in generation 1 parasite samples
underwent pathway analysis. Gene ontology and KEGG analysis was performed using ShinyGo and
significant terms were defined by having a Bonferroni corrected p-value < 0.05. **a)** Network of
enriched pathways. Two pathways (nodes) are connected if they share 20% or more genes. Darker
nodes are more significantly enriched gene sets. Bigger nodes represent larger gene sets. Thicker
edges represent more overlapped genes. **b)** Fold enrichment, significance level and the number
of genes found in the pathways.

1624

Figure 7 – Figure supplement 2: Verification of core gene expression analysis excluding
schizont and gametocyte stage parasite samples. Core gene expression was assessed for paired
ex vivo (n=6) and generation 1 (n=6) parasite samples where there were no schizont or gametocyte
stage parasites, as determined using the mixture model approach. Subread align was used, as in
the original analysis, to align the reads to the human genome and *P. falciparum* 3D7 genome, *with*
var, rif, stevor, surf and *rRNA* genes removed. HTSeq count was used to quantify gene counts. **a)**
Volcano plot showing extent and significance of up- or down-regulation of core gene expression
in *ex vivo* compared with paired generation 1 cultured parasites (red and blue: *P* < 0.05 after
Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment for FDR, red and green: absolute $\log_2$ fold change $\log_2FC$ in
expression >= 2). Genes with a $\log_2FC > = 2$ represent those upregulated in generation 1 parasites.
Genes with a $\log_2FC <= -2$ represent those downregulated in generation 1 parasites. **b)** Spearman's
rank correlation analysis of the $\log_2FC$ values for the *ex vivo* vs generation 1 core gene differential
expression analysis using all paired *ex vivo* (n=13) and generation 1 (n=13) samples vs *ex vivo* (n=9)
and generation 1 (n=9) samples containing no schizont or gametocyte stage parasites.

1639

Figure 7 – Figure supplement 3: Short-term *in vitro* cultured parasites as surrogates for
assessing *the in vivo* core gene transcriptome. Core gene expression was assessed for paired *ex*
vivo (n=13) and generation 1 (n=13) parasite samples. Subread align was used, as in the original
analysis, to align the reads to the human genome and *P. falciparum* 3D7 genome, *with var, rif,*
stevor, surf and *rRNA* genes removed. HTSeq count was used to quantify gene counts (Anders et
al., 2015). **a)** Volcano plot showing extent and significance of up- or down-regulation of core gene
expression in malaria naïve patient *ex vivo* samples (n=6) compared with previously exposed
malaria patient *ex vivo* samples (n=7) (red and blue: *P* < 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment
for FDR; red and green: absolute $\log_2$ fold change $\log_2FC$ in expression >= 2). Genes with a $\log_2FC$
> = 2 represent those upregulated in malaria naïve patients. Genes with a $\log_2FC <= -2$ represent
those downregulated in malaria naïve patients. **b)** Volcano plot showing extent and significance of
up- or down-regulation of core gene expression in malaria naïve patient samples that underwent
one cycle of *in vitro* cultivation (n=6) compared with previously exposed malaria patient samples
that underwent one cycle of *in vitro* cultivation (n=7) (red and blue, *P* < 0.05 after Benjamini-
Hochberg adjustment for FDR; red and green, absolute $\log_2$ fold change $\log_2FC$ in expression >=
2). Genes with a $\log_2FC > = 2$ represent those upregulated in malaria naïve patients. Genes with a
$\log_2FC <= -2$ represent those downregulated in malaria naïve patients. Differential expression
analysis was performed using DESeq2 (adjusted for life cycle stage, derived from the mixture
model approach).

1659

Supplementary file 1: Output of the linear model to quantify total *var* gene expression during the transition of parasites into *in vitro* culture. *Var* gene expression as a proportion of total gene expression was used as a response variable, generation and life cycle stage as independent variables and patient information as a random effect. Only paired samples of *ex vivo* parasites and generation 1 parasites were used.

Supplementary file 2: Varia results output. For each patient sample, the corresponding paired cluster is labelled (e.g., #6_1st_invitro_cluster_154=cluster 90ev shows cluster 154 of patient #6 generation 1 sample corresponds to cluster 90 of patient #6 *ex vivo* sample. Identical cluster sequences across paired samples were defined as having % sequence ID = > 99%.

Supplementary file3: Differentially expressed core genes in the *ex vivo* vs generation 1 paired analysis. Log2FoldChange represents the log2 fold change for the *ex vivo* and generation 1 analysis. Values >0 represent genes up-regulated in generation 1 samples and values <0 represent genes down-regulated in generation 1 samples. pvalue and padj represent the p-value and adjusted pvalue (Benjamini Hochberg) respectively.

Supplementary file 4: MSP1 genotyping results from *ex vivo* and *in vitro*-adapted *P. falciparum* isolates.

Supplementary file 5: Quality of the RNA samples analyzed in this study. To characterize the overall RNA quality prior to library synthesis, the Bioanalyzer automated RNA electrophoresis system was used to visualize the samples and calculate the RIN values. The measurement of the RIN value for samples from mixed species (*H. sapiens*, *P. falciparum*) is not very meaningful, as the RIN increases the higher the proportion of a single species. This can be observed by the increase in the RIN value during *in vitro* cultivation of the parasites, as the parasite RNA content increases over time. Of the four rRNA peaks visible in particular in the *ex vivo* samples, the inner peaks represent the 18S and 28S rRNA of *P. falciparum*, the outer peaks are of human origin.

a.

b.

c.

	Binding phenotype	*Var* group	Position			
			1	2	3	4–9
'Regular' *var* genes	Unknown	A	NTSA	DBLα1	CIDRδ/β/γ	DBLβ, DBLγ, DBLδ, CIDRδ/β/γ, DBLζ, DBLε
	EPCR	A	NTSA	DBLα1	CIDRα1.4–7	
	EPCR	B	NTSB	DBLα2	CIDRα1.1/8	
	CD36	B & C	NTSB	DBLα0	CIDRα2–6	
Conserved *var* genes	CSA	E, *var2csa*	NTSpam	DBLpam1	DBLpam2	CIDRpam, DBLpam3, DBLεpam4, DBLεpam5, DBLεpam6
	Unknown	A, *var1-3D7*	NTSA	DBLα1.4	CIDRα1.3	DBLβ1, DBLγ15, DBLε1, DBLγ8, DBLζ1, DBLε5
	Unknown	A, *var1-IT*	NTSA	DBLα1.1	CIDRα1.2	DBLβ11, DBLγ1, DBLε1, DBLγ8, DBLζ2, DBLε5
	Unknown	A, *var3*	NTSA	DBLα1.3	–	DBLε8

a.

b.

Spearman's rank ρ = 0.99