Host-parasite interactions of an avian blood parasite elucidated by single-cell transcriptomics

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Abstract

To date, the intricate cellular and molecular interplay between hosts and parasites is well described for only a limited number of model systems. Recent methodological advances now allow deep insights into non-model host-parasite interactions, including intense reciprocal manipulations. We applied single cell RNA-sequencing to blood samples of wild, long-lived avian hosts, infected with the malaria-like parasite *Leucocytozoon*. We identified host cell types and the molecular toolkits involved in host immunity and parasite virulence. Comparing blood cell-type specific transcriptomic profiles between hosts with low and high parasitaemia indicates tools of parasitic immune evasion and potential modulation of the host immune response. In line with the reportedly low pathogenicity of the parasite, the response of immune cells was overall low. This lack of antagonism likely represents a result of long-lasting coevolution. Our study illuminates in rare detail a rather benign non-model host-parasite interaction and bridges the large phylogenetic gap along the evolutionary gradient from parasitism to mutualism. The cell-type specific markers identified will be useful in advancing our understanding of the evolutionary forces shaping host immunity.

Key words: Host-parasite interaction, avian malaria, scRNA-seq, transcriptomics, immunosuppression, host response, *Leucocytozoon*, *Plasmodium*

Parasites represent a significant proportion of biodiversity and have evolved to manipulate host

defences in diverse ways[1–3]. On an evolutionary scale, this variability of fitness effects ranges from

mutualism to parasitism and may be maintained by a trade-off between transmission and virulence[4–

9]. Conversely, host immune responses cause costs to parasites which vary strongly among and within

species[10]. For example, possible courses of human malaria range from clearance, over asymptomatic

and uncomplicated forms, to severe malaria and death[11].

The complex lifecycles of intracellular protozoans involve many mechanisms for the invasion of host

cells and evasion of the immune system[12–15]. In well-characterised malaria parasites of the genus

Plasmodium, some of these mechanisms include antigenic variation, dysregulation of B cells, anergy

of T-cells and concomitant immunosuppression[13,14].

Despite their long-established role as models of evolutionary ecology, many aspects of the biology of

avian malaria and malaria-like parasites remain enigmatic[16]. Here, we focus on *Leucocytozoon*, which

is phylogenetically distant from its haemosporidian sister genera *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus*[17]. A

comparatively high host specificity of *Leucocytozoon* occurs, with far more than a hundred different

Leucocytozoon species, each specialised on a small range of bird species[18]. Especially in birds of prey a

number of specialist parasite lineages occur, suggesting a long history of co-adaptation between

Leucocytozoon and their hosts[19].

Unlike other haemosporidians, *Leucocytozoon* is capable of infecting diverse hosts cell types, including

different leukocytes[18]. Furthermore, some *Leucocytozoon* species achieve high prevalence and

infection intensity, while displaying apparently low virulence[20–23]. In an intensively-studied population

of Common Buzzards in Germany *L. toddi*-infections occur at a prevalence of up to 86% (unpublished

data). With its distinct infection biology, high prevalence and evolutionary trajectory, this taxon allows

us to annotate a case of rather mutualistic co-adaptation within the wide range of host-parasite

interactions.

The *Leucocytozoon* lifecycle includes merozoite stages invading erythroblasts, erythrocytes and

mononuclear leukocytes within the host. Macro- and microgametocytes ("female" and "male"-type

precursors, respectively) then develop in the infected cells. Gametogenesis is initiated upon ingestion

by blackflies (Simuliidae)[18]. The remarkable morphological or physiological changes performed by

these parasites and the cells harbouring them throughout their lifecycle have so far never been linked

to context-dependent transcriptional changes.

Very few studies have investigated the transcriptomic responses to haemosporidian infections in wild

birds and those have so far only analysed whole blood transcriptomes, potentially convoluting cell-

type specific expression changes[24–27]. Meanwhile single cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) has become

capable of filling this potential gap, with first advances in mapping immune cells in two domestic bird

species[28–30]. We extend the approach to a wild host-parasite system and their blood parasites to

identify genes involved in intra- and intercellular interactions between cells of both organisms. By

examining the extent of virulence elicited by the parasites, we highlight potential mechanisms driving

immunosuppression, increasing host tolerance and suppressing fitness costs.

Results

Identification of 22 distinct cell populations in *L. toddi*-infected peripheral blood

A total of 38295 cells were separately sequenced and analysed, resulting in the identification of 22

transcriptional clusters via dimensionality reduction of transcriptional profiles (Fig. 1A). A comparison

of three HP (high parasitaemia) with three LP (low parasitaemia) samples allowed identification of

infected cell profiles (Fig. 1B). The proportions of peripheral blood cell types diverged between blood

smear- and scRNA-seq-derived counts (Tab. S2), indicating a potential bias introduced during cell

preparation for scRNAseq (e.g., due to density gradient centrifugation). Overall, 28337 annotated and

712 unannotated genes were detected. Transcript diversity (Fig. S1A), expression levels (normalised

UMI counts; Fig. S1B) and proportion of mitochondrial and parasite transcripts (Fig. S1C-D, Fig. S2)

varied strongly between clusters.

Absence of pronounced changes in immune cell populations

Comparing HP versus LP, expectedly strong increases in gametocytes were accompanied by slightly

decreasing proportions most other cell types (Fig. 1). Signs of adaptive immunity activation, such as

clonal expansion of lymphoid cells, were absent. Strong decreases were observed in few cell types such

as heterophils and B cells. The increase observed for red blood cells is possibly due to variation during

extraction (see methods).

Strong differential gene expression occurs in two parasite cell types

Overall, 1138 parasite DEGs, 866 host DEGs and 29 unannotated DEGs were identified (Tab. S4; cut-off

value: p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05). Subsetting the strongest DEGs (cut-off values: p-value (adjusted) ≤

0.05; $\log_2$-FC (averaged) ≥ 1) limited the pool of genes to 360 DEGs under LP versus 1165 DEGs under

HP. In the following, gametocyte-infected cells will be referred to as developing gametocytes, micro-

and macrogametocytes for simplicity. The highest number of DEGs was found in microgametocytes

and developing gametocytes, while macrogametocytes and host cells generally expressed fewer DEGs

(Fig. S5A-C). Among gametocyte clusters, we observed more shared DEGs between microgametocytes

and developing gametocytes, than with macrogametocytes (Fig. 2A). Host DEGs were largely expressed

under LP, whereas parasite DEGs were predominantly present in HP samples (Fig. 2B, S5B & S5C). Since

parasite genes dominated under HP in developing gametocytes and the unannotated genes followed

the same trend, they likely represent parasitic transcripts. The strongest parasite DEGs were exclusive

to HP, but present in all host clusters. The strongest host DEGs were slightly more expressed under LP

than under HP. This implies an overall downregulation of host transcriptomic responses under HP.

A comparison of uninfected versus infected samples was not feasible due to the high prevalence of *L.*

toddi in the wild study population during sample acquisition. In order to validate that differential

expression analysis of HP versus LP groups represented changes in gene expression related to gradual

changes in parasitaemia, we correlated gene expression with parasitaemia (infection intensity) as a

continuous variable determined from blood smears. The analysis delivered fewer genes of interest

with a higher ratio of parasite to host genes. 216 CGs (correlated genes) showed a strong correlation

with parasitaemia (Tab. S5, cut-off value: FDR ≤ 0.05). In summary, 182 parasite and 34 host CGs were

correlated with the gradient of parasitaemia. The correlations were almost exclusively positive apart

from 4 host CGs displaying a negative correlation with parasitaemia in heterophils. Out of the 216 CGs

(Tab. S5) 19 parasite genes also represented DEGs retrieved by differential expression analysis (Tab.

S4; cut-off value: p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05).

Cell-type specificity of DEGs

While we expected to observe cell-type specific host DEGs, parasite gene expression might rely on a

more homogenous transcriptomic makeup across cell types, potentially required for the initial invasion

of host cells by merozoites. The redundancy of DEGs across clusters was therefore expectedly higher

for parasite than for host DEGs (Fig. S7). The most redundant parasite DEGs under HP were expressed

in host cells but not in gametocytes, further supporting their involvement in widescale invasion of host

cells by merozoites (Tab. 1, Fig. S7 & S5).

Immune gene expression generally lacks correlation with parasitaemia

The host immune genes which ranked among the top five DEGs were largely downregulated under HP

within various cell types (Tab. 1). These genes are implicated in processes such as in T cell activation,

the inflammatory response or pathogen defence (Tab. 1). The strong downregulation of immune genes

in various cell types indicates the absence of a pronounced immune response during increasing

parasitaemia, possibly due to immunosuppression.

Immune effectors including cytokines remained largely unaffected by increased parasitaemia or even

displayed downregulation across cell types. Cytokines are crucial for the vertebrate immune response

to pathogens[31]. While generally promoting parasite elimination, an exaggerated pro-inflammatory

response via TNF-α, IL-6, or IL-8 can also favour severe malaria and pathogenicity[32]. While mostly

displaying weak ubiquitous expression, certain cytokines were highly expressed in certain clusters

(Tab. S6), but not as significant DEGs (Tab. S6). As an exception, *TGF-β* displayed differential expression

under LP in thrombocytes and monocytes.

MHC-I components were upregulated under HP in thrombocytes, erythrocytes, T cells and eosinophils

(Tab. S6). In contrast, these genes were downregulated under HP in some B cells, T cells and in

monocytes (Tab. S6). Interestingly, microgametocytes displayed upregulation of *B2M* (MHC-I

component) under HP, while developing gametocytes exhibited the opposite pattern (Tab. S6). MHC-

II components were downregulated in some B cell clusters and monocytes under HP (Tab. S6).

Among the detectable immunoglobulin mRNAs only *IgL* (*Immunoglobulin light chain λ*) expressed in B

cells was significantly diminished under HP (Tab. S6).

Opposing patterns of host gene expression in gametocyte subtypes

PPI-network analysis of host DEGs was conducted to identify pathways responding to parasitaemia.

Focusing on developing gametocytes and microgametocytes showing the highest number of DEGs (Fig.

2), we retrieved networks with genes partially reoccurring in both clusters, but displaying opposite

expression patterns (Fig. 3). The largest group of such interactors were components of the ribosome

which were downregulated in developing gametocytes, but upregulated in microgametocytes under

HP (Fig. 3).

Discussion

This study is the first to perform scRNA-seq on a free-living avian host and its unculturable

haemosporidian parasite, demonstrating both the feasibility and opportunities of the method in

evolutionary ecology. We focused on changes of host responses to different levels of parasitaemia

which are informative about gene expression linked to the severity of infection. Which general

patterns can be observed and how do these responses differ between cell types?

The annotation of the clusters comprised of *Leucocytozoon toddi* gametocytes based on marker genes

led us to subdivide them into putative developing gametocytes, micro- and macrogametocytes. This

division is also suggested by the bifurcation of macro- and microgametocyte clusters from the

progenitor cell cluster, much like the pattern observed in *P. falciparum*[33]. It is striking that gametocyte

subtypes displayed strong differences with regard to basic cellular properties. While general transcript

abundance and the ratio of parasite versus host transcripts was highest in macrogametocytes, this

cluster simultaneously exhibited the lowest proportion of parasite mitochondrial gene transcripts. The

functional differences between micro- and macrogametocytes connected to these alterations in

transcript abundance might be linked to differing mitochondrial-to-nuclear genome ratios between

Leucocytozoon gametocyte types[34]. On the other hand, they are also reminiscent of a mechanism

described in *Plasmodium* where maternally derived mRNA-pools drive zygote development[35]. The

overall weak transferability of *Plasmodium* gametocyte markers is not surprising, given the estimated

phylogenetic distance of 46-74 million years between *Leucocytozoon* and other haemosporidians but

complicated the annotation[17]. Conversely, the synergy between our study and diverse scRNA-seq

studies on *Plasmodium* can inform about cellular markers and processes which are either common or

specific to different groups of blood parasites. For instance, a certain level of conservation between

mechanisms controlling macro- versus microgametocyte differentiation in *Plasmodium* and

Leucocytozoon appears to exist, since we identified an orthologue of *DOZI*, which functions as a

translational repressor in macrogametocytes of *Plasmodium*, as a marker of macrogametocytes[35].

With the help of such markers, gametocyte ratios might become estimable based on gross blood

transcriptomic data.

Classically, gametocytes of *Leucocytozoon* are thought to develop within erythroblasts, erythrocytes,

and mononuclear leukocytes[18]. On the other hand, it has more recently been suggested that some

Leucocytozoon species solely infect thrombocytes, while other species seem to differ in their host cell

choice[36–38].The overall similarity of transcriptional profiles between gametocytes and thrombocytes

which we show also points to thrombocytes as the preferred host cell type in buzzards. Thrombocytes

were clustered into four cellular subtypes. Whether these subtypes also display different functions and

host-parasite interactions remains to be investigated. Meanwhile, parasite transcripts were also

notably expressed at low levels in several host cell types. This global expression of parasite genes

across host cell types under HP might be due to a promiscuous invasion of host cells by merozoites

under HP. The upregulation of genes required for invasion of host cells by merozoites in *P. falciparum*

such as *PfIMC1i* and *G2* supports this interpretation[39]. We also observed an expression of different

host cell-type markers in different gametocyte subtypes, which might represent residual expression of

host genes after invasion or parasite-driven ectopic expression. Hence, parasite micro- and

macrogametocytes might each preferentially develop from different host peripheral blood cell types.

In conclusion, our data suggests thrombocytes as preferred host cell types of gametocytes, while low

level expression of parasite transcripts indicates a widescale invasion of diverse blood cell types under

HP.

We found that host transcriptional profiles differed strongly between parasitaemia levels. Cells

harbouring developing gametocytes, micro- and macrogametocytes partly even displayed opposing

trends. This finding indicates that developing versus differentiated gametocytes face – and in turn

shape – very different regulatory environments within their host cells. Firstly, the bulk of DEGs

occurred in developing gametocytes which indicates that transcriptional host-parasite interactions

might peak during the onset of parasite development, when interactions are first calibrated and the

intracellular niche is established[40]. In fact, the reprogramming and restructuring of the host cell is well

known to require and elicit profound transcriptional changes by intracellular protozoa[41,42].

Secondly, we detected opposing patterns of differential expression in the different gametocyte

subtypes. This pattern was mainly observed for genes involved in host ribosome biogenesis, a process

which is also known to enhance growth and proliferation during carcinogenesis if deregulated[43]. While

these genes were downregulated under HP in developing gametocytes, they were upregulated in

microgametocytes, and no pattern was observed in macrogametocytes. This could be explained by an

unknown density-dependent mechanism favouring host ribosome biogenesis in developing

gametocytes under low parasitaemia and in microgametocytes under high parasitaemia, which would

be absent in macrogametocytes. We also observed downregulation of host RNA metabolism,

indicating allocation or hijacking of resources towards parasitic gene expression. This was connected

with a deregulation of genes linked to the host's actin cytoskeleton and is known to occur during the

early development of other intracellular protists[44–46].

A first important finding supporting the idea of immunosuppression during *L. toddi* infection was the

absence of pronounced differences in immune cell populations depending on the level of parasitaemia.

Many other intracellular parasites have been shown to prevent activation and clonal expansion of T

cells and other immune cells required for parasite clearance[12–14]. Second, the majority of differentially

expressed host genes were downregulated under HP, further supporting the notion of

immunosuppression. Concomitantly, we also found several genes involved in the immune response to

be downregulated under HP across multiple cell types. This included downregulation of calgranulin-

and avidin-encoding genes in CD4+ T cells or *NOS2* in microgametocytes. In contrast to our

observations, these genes have been shown to be transcriptionally upregulated in response to LPS-

injection in wild passerines and upon *Salmonella enterica*-infection in chicken[47–49]. A second indication

of immunosuppression was provided by the downregulation of MHC-I and -II expression, which has

been characterised as a mechanism of immune evasion in *Leishmania donovani* and *Toxoplasma gondii*

infection[50–53]. While a similar mechanism might drive the downregulation of *B2M* in developing *L. toddi*

gametocytes under HP, it remains puzzling that we found the opposite effect in microgametocytes. On

the other hand, a wide range of host cell types also displayed upregulation of MHC-I components under

HP. However, MHC-I upregulation did not seem to evoke a strong CD8+ T cell response. This is

suggested by a lack of a pronounced cytokine response and downregulation of genes involved in CD8+

T cell activation. The weak and promiscuous expression patterns of various cytokines indicate an

overall mild inflammatory response regardless of infection intensity. Additionally, this response is

downregulated under HP in the case of *IL-8 like* and *TGF-β* in thrombocytes. While the upregulation of

IL-8 like under HP in eosinophils might contribute to the inflammatory response, this effect might be

neutralised by downregulation in thrombocytes. The lack of differential expression of *IL-2, IL-16, IL-18,*

IL-7, IL-15, TNF11, TNF13B and *TNF8-like* comparing between LP and HP does not indicate a correlation

with parasitaemia. The expression of these genes might either be constitutive or induced during the

onset of infection without further increase during the course of infection. Finally, the expression of

immunoglobulins remained stable or was even downregulated under HP, which is also in agreement

with the finding that antibody titres of buzzard nestlings could not be linked to *Leucocytozoon* infection

intensity in an earlier study by our group[54].

The widescale downregulation of several immune genes indicates the presence of immunosuppressive

effects under high *Leucocytozoon* infection intensity. As this pattern can result from the inter-

individual variation of host immunity and infection trajectories it would need to be addressed by

performing experimental infections. However, such experiments are both logistically and ethically

unfeasible with *Leucocytozoon* in protected free-living raptor hosts. For this purpose, other

comparable models would need to be developed. Thus, while we cannot be secure that widescale

downregulation of immune genes is the outcome of manipulation by the parasite, this interpretation

seems likely.

Within the various peripheral blood cell-types we observed highly cell-type specific transcriptional

responses to parasitaemia, some of which might be reactions to manipulation by the parasite. A vast

body of literature on comparable host-parasite systems suggests the functions of genes which exhibit

parasitaemia-related expression changes. Although these connections remain speculative, they can

help to understand how and which mechanisms utilised by other intracellular protozoa for host

manipulation might be at play in *Leucocytozoon*. Overall, we observed a repetitive pattern of cell-type

specific downregulation of immune-related DEGs under high parasite load in various host cell types.

On the other hand, certain DEGs identified in our analysis could confer tolerance to infection by

mitigating the effects of parasite growth and load, while others may promote parasite growth. An

example of cell-type specific immunosuppression could be provided by the downregulation of *DTNA*

and of *CCDC155* in CD4+ T cells potentially affecting T cell activation. DTNA is known as a component

of the DGC (dystrophin-glycoprotein complex) found in striated muscle cells[55]. CCDC155 has been

characterised as a component of the LINC (linkers of the nucleoskeleton to the cytoskeleton)-complex

coupling chromosomes to the cytoskeleton during meiosis[56]. Interestingly, immunological synapse

formation during T cell activation involves both the LINC-complex and the DGC[57,58]. T cell activation

might also be suppressed in CD8+ T cells, since some genes known to be involved in this process were

downregulated under HP. For instance, *TXNRD1* is upregulated during activation and clonal expansion

of T cells in response to *Leishmania major* infection[59]. Consequently, *TXNRD1*-deficiency leads to

increased parasitaemia[59]. In microgametocytes the downregulation of *NOS2* under HP might play a

role in increasing host tolerance to infection. Intracellular protists are known to downregulate iNOS as

a mechanism of immune evasion as exemplified by *T. gondii* and *L. amazonensis* infections[60,61].

Inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) encoded by *NOS2* catalyses the production of anti-parasitic nitric

oxide (NO), which at excess causes cytotoxic damage to the host[62–64]. Therefore, a downregulation of

NOS2 might be beneficial, especially under high parasite burden and highlights the possibility of a

mechanism enabling tolerance to infection. As an example of a gene potentially promoting parasite

growth, *FTH1,* encoding a subunit of ferritin required for iron sequestration was upregulated under HP

in thrombocytes. Ferritin confers tolerance to malaria in humans by preventing labile iron from

activating pro-apoptotic signalling pathways in hepatocytes[65]. However, this is unlikely to be needed

during *Leucocytozoon*-infections since they do not cause haemolysis and excessive release of iron as

seen in *Plasmodium*-infections[18]. A mechanism as observed in *Leishmania amazonensis*-infected

macrophages is more likely, where FTH1 promotes parasite growth through iron scavenging[66]. This

interpretation is further supported by the notion that *FTH1* was also upregulated in microgametocytes.

Our findings indicate that the low virulence of *L. toddi* is associated with widescale immunosuppression

in peripheral blood. At the same time, the sampled individuals might differ in their susceptibility to

infection or represent different time points of infection, which may also correspond to different

immunological responses. Immunosuppression can prevent excessive immune responses, which can

be damaging to the host (e. g. excessive cytokine production[42]). Therefore, the inhibition of such

pathways during parasitic infections can be beneficial to the host under certain circumstances such as

low parasite virulence. For instance, costs of infection may be resource-dependent and thus could be

compensated by additional food provisioning as long as buzzard nestlings are provided with parental

care[22]. Accordingly, recent findings show *Leucocytozoon* infection at the nestling stage is not predictive

of strong immediate pathology or later survival[23]. Immune evasion can have a mitigating effect on

virulence and in certain contexts assist the evolution of host tolerance[3]. Vector-mediated parent-to-

offspring transmission, i.e. quasi-vertical transmission, may facilitate the evolution towards low

virulence in *L. toddi*[67,68]. This pattern of transmission might be a pervasive consequence of social niche

choice, i.e., territoriality and local confinement of parents and offspring through extended parental

care leading to transmission[68,69].

In this light, our study starts to fill a big phylogenetic gap in the knowledge on molecular tools and

strategies used by blood parasites in the wild. It provides a rare example of reduced immunopathology

in an apparently highly co-adapted host-parasite-system elucidated down to the cellular and molecular

mechanisms. It therefore contributes a valuably detailed reference within a spectrum of strategies and

levels of host-parasite antagonism that still remains to be understood in the wild nature.

Methods

Sample acquisition and preparation

Samples were collected in June 2021 in a population of Common Buzzards in eastern Westphalia, Germany (8°25'E and 52°06'N). Occupied nests had previously been located in March and April. In a first sampling event, blood samples were taken from the ulnar vein of nestlings. Air-dried blood smears were prepared in the field, fixed in absolute ethanol and stained with Giemsa[18]. Parasitaemia of *L. toddi* was estimated microscopically based on gametocyte counts. From this pool of sampled 345 buzzard nestlings from 164 territories, six individuals were chosen for further sampling based on their infection status ("low" versus "high" parasitaemia; Tab. S1). Uninfected nestlings were not available due to the extremely high prevalence of the parasite in the study population. Selected individuals originated from six different breeding territories, which were evenly distributed throughout the study area. In a second sampling event (maximum ten days after first sampling), three individuals with "low parasitaemia" (LP: 0.017%, 0.025% & 0.133% of total blood cells) and three individuals with "high parasitaemia" (HP: 0.956%, 1.384% & 1.699% of total blood cells) were brought to the Genomics & Transcriptomics Laboratory of the Heinrich-Heine-University in Düsseldorf, Germany. A blood sample with a volume of 1 mL was taken from the ulnar vein, transferred to a 15 mL centrifuge tube for Percoll (Sigma-Aldrich) density gradient centrifugation with discontinuous layers of 55%, 45%, 35%, and 25% solutions of stock isotonic Percoll (SIP) diluted with PBS at 7.4 pH. The density gradient centrifugation was performed to deplete erythrocytes (swinging-bucket centrifuge rotor, 500 x g, 15min at 20°C). The easily visible upper non-erythrocytic phases, containing larger and less dense cells compared to avian erythrocytes, were extracted, and immediately subjected to single cell processing. Variation in the extraction of leukocytes may cause differences in cell type proportions between samples as highly infected samples have less discrete layering of cell types during density gradient centrifugation. For comparison of cell type proportions with scRNA-seq all peripheral blood cell types were counted via microscopy of blood smears. Per sample approximately 30000 cells were counted within 20 random fields of view (Tab. S2). The nestlings were immediately returned to their nests after sampling and

transport. Sampling and transport of nestlings were permitted by the ethics commission of the Animal

Care and Use Committee of the German North Rhine-Westphalia State Office for Nature, Environment

and Consumer Protection (Landesamt für Natur, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz Nordrhein-

Westfalen) under the reference number 84-02.04.2017.A147.

Single Cell Library Generation

A total of ~40,000 single cells were generated on the 10X Chromium Controller system for single-cell

droplet library generation utilizing the Chromium Single Cell 3' NextGEM Reagent Kit v3.1 (10X

Genomics, Pleasanton, CA, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing was carried out

on a NextSeq550 system (Illumina Inc. San Diego, USA) with a mean sequencing depth of ~50,000

reads/cell.

Processing of 10X Genomics single cell data

Raw sequencing data were processed using the 10X Genomics CellRanger software (v7.0). Raw BCL-

files were demultipexed and processed to Fastq-files using the CellRanger *mkfastq* pipeline. A custom

reference was created by combining draft *B. buteo* and *L. toddi* genomes using the cellranger *mkref*

pipeline. Alignment of reads to the genome and UMI (unique molecular identifier) counting was

performed via the CellRanger *count* pipeline to generate a gene-barcode matrix. All samples were

aggregated and normalised for sequencing depth using the cellranger *aggr* pipeline.

Further analyses were carried out with the Seurat v4.1.1 R package[70–72]. Initial quality control consisted

of removal of cells with fewer than 200 detected genes as well as removal of genes expressed in less

than three cells. Furthermore, cells with a mapping rate of > 10% to the mitochondrial genome were

removed, as they most likely represent dead or damaged cells. Cell doublets were removed from the

dataset using DoubletFinder v2.0[73]. Normalization was carried out utilizing SCTransform. Dimensional

reduction of the data set was achieved by Principal Component analysis (PCA), based on identified

variable genes and subsequent UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection) embedding.

The number of meaningful Principal Components (PC) was selected by ranking them according to the

percentage of variance explained by each PC, plotting them in an "Elbow Plot" and manually

determining the number of PCs that represent the majority of variance in the data set. Cells were

clustered using the graph-based clustering approach implemented in Seurat. Marker genes defining

each cluster (MGs) as well as differentially expressed genes (DEGs) comparing LP and HP nestlings were

calculated using a Wilcoxon Rank Sum test implemented in Seurat. Additionally, correlated gene

expression with parasitaemia determined by blood smear cell counts (see methods above) were

performed. Linear models were fitted to the averaged expression of each gene per cluster versus the

gradient of parasitaemia values to identify correlated genes (CGs). The false discovery rate was

calculated to account for multiple testing.

Cluster annotation and downstream analyses

Literature-curated markers were used to annotate Seurat clusters with avian peripheral blood cell

types and haemosporidian gametocyte stages (Fig. 1, S3 & S4). Blood cell markers from *Gallus gallus*

and *Plasmodium falciparum* (lineage 3D7) gametocyte markers were utilised[30,74–79]. The annotation of

cell types was further aided by the overall similarity of transcriptional profiles (Fig. 1A), marker genes

with indicative functions (MGs; Tab. S3) and parasite transcript abundance (Fig. S1D, Fig. S2). Multiple

clusters could be grouped into one cell type based on the expression of marker genes, while the

identity of subtypes remained elusive. Downstream analyses were performed using R version 4.1.2 for

data processing and exploration[80].

Network analysis of DEGs

Protein-protein-interaction (PPI) network analysis of host DEGs was conducted with Cytoscape

stringApp v2 using *Aquila chrysaetos chrysaetos* as reference species to generate networks based on

DEGs with cut-off values p ≥ 0.05 (Bonferroni adjusted) and $\log_2$FC (averaged per cluster) ≥1[81–83]. Only

interactions with a confidence score of ≥ 0.9 were retrieved. Pathway enrichment analysis was

performed via the enrichment tool implemented in stringApp v2 using the referenced genome as a

background. For comparability, only enriched KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes)

pathways were highlighted.

Data and resource availability

370 The .fastq-files containing scRNA-seq sequences are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive

371 (ENA) at EMBL-EBI under accession number PRJEB73843. R-code for downstream analyses is accessible

372 via Dryad (DOI: 10.5061/dryad.sbcc2frf2).

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Author contributions

NC and OK designed the research. NC was involved in sample acquisition. NC and TL performed

laboratory procedures. TL and TMR analysed the data. TMR wrote the paper. RP and JK provided critical

feedback to the analyses and the manuscript.

Table 1: Strongest DEGs across clusters (ordered by cell type). References indicate potential gene

functions. Immune genes upregulated under HP are indicated by "↑", whereas immunosuppression

(downregulation under HP) is indicated by "↓" (see column "Function").

Cluster	Para-sitemia	NCBI accession number	Gene	Ref. species	log$_2$-FC (avg.)	p-value (adj.)	Function	References
			Host					
9	HP	XP_031958267.1	PHF10	Cm	-1.36	1.65E-09	chromatin remodelling	[85]
	LP	XP_031970858.1	TSSK6	Cm	1.00	6.51E-06	chromatin remodelling	[86]
	LP	XP_040977087.1	LOC121232750	Ac	1.23	6.40E-06	-	-
	LP	XP_015480400.1	MXD4	Pm	1.86	5.18E-07	↓ blood progenitor proliferation, T cell survival	[87,88]
	LP	XP_029888348.1	CDC42BPB	Ac	2.14	6.93E-05	regulator of the cytoskeleton	[89]
0	HP	XP_029862693.1	LOC115338306	Ac	-1.11	4.05E-71	↑ MHC-I	[90]
	LP	XP_029877109.1	ESAM	Ac	1.49	1.16E-130	↓ neutrophil extravasation	[91,92]
1	HP	XP_029851964.1	SYN2	Ac	-2.03	2.68E-108	exocytosis	[93–95]
	LP	XP_040547522.1	EYA1	Gg	1.12	1.21E-68	DNA repair	[96–98]
	LP	XP_029877109.1	ESAM	Ac	1.41	1.11E-129	↓ neutrophil extravasation	[91,92]
3	HP	XP_029851964.1	SYN2	Ac	-2.14	5.52E-84	exocytosis	[93–95]
	HP	XP_029895765.1	FTH1	Ac	-1.01	1.17E-02	iron scavenging	[65,66]
	LP	XP_029859213.1	MTMR12	Ac	1.05	2.72E-21	endocytosis	[99–101]
	LP	XP_029852971.2	ARHGAP36	Ac	1.11	1.50E-51	neural development	[102–104]
	LP	XP_040547522.1	EYA1	Gg	1.16	2.01E-26	DNA repair	[96–98]
7	HP	XP_029851964.1	SYN2	Ac	-2.13	2.19E-81	exocytosis	[93–95]
	HP	XP_029866592.1	PPDPF	Ac	-1.29	5.16E-23	implicated in cancer progression	[105,106]
	LP	XP_029852971.2	ARHGAP36	Ac	1.10	1.28E-44	neural development	[102–104]
2	LP	XP_031953757.1	CCDC155	Cm	1.23	2.88E-89	↓ T cell activation	[56,58]
	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.68	6.03E-162	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
5	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.04	8.17E-69	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
8	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.29	9.21E-67	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
11	LP	XP_031953757.1	CCDC155	Cm	1.23	3.95E-17	↓ T cell activation	[56,58]
	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.93	1.84E-40	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
16	LP	XP_029861532.1	LOC115337405	Ac	1.32	7.03E-06	↓ anti-pathogenic	[107]
	LP	XP_029879656.2	LOC115345306	Ac	1.45	1.68E-04	↓ pro-inflammatory	[108]
18	LP	XP_029896238.1	TXNRD1	Ac	1.62	2.97E-11	↓ T cell activation	[59]
	LP	XP_029886923.1	ALOX5	Ac	1.63	3.08E-10	↓ T cell activation, inflammation & cell death	[109–111]
	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.68	1.79E-08	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
19	LP	XP_040977722.1	LOC115337909	Ac	1.01	1.04E-07	↓ T cell activation (putative)	[112]
	LP	XP_018861179.1	DTNA	Pm	1.02	1.57E-05	↓ T cell activation	[55,57]
	LP	XP_031953757.1	CCDC155	Cm	1.11	3.28E-05	↓ T cell activation	[56,58]
10	LP	XP_029881352.1	S100A10	Ac	1.44	1.25E-16	↓ pro-inflammatory	[113]
12	HP	XP_040977087.1	LOC121232750	Ac	-1.05	2.52E-44	-	-
	LP	XP_029862549.1	LOC115338209	Ac	1.19	6.80E-65	↓ MHC-II	[51,53]
4	HP	XP_029897790.1	F13A1	Ac	-1.19	3.19E-25	coagulation factor	[114]
	LP	XP_029861378.1	ANXA1	Ac	1.11	2.52E-27	↓ neutrophil extravasation	[115]
	LP	XP_029879656.2	LOC115345306	Ac	2.90	3.09E-48	↓ pro-inflammatory	[108]
13	HP	XP_040978593.1	CSRNP1	Ac	-1.05	7.52E-16	↑ immune cell growth & development	[116]
	LP	XP_029897792.1	LY86	Ac	1.03	1.33E-10	↓ regulator of Toll-Signalling	[117]
15	LP	XP_029871069.1	LOC115341780	Ac	2.71	9.06E-07	↓ anti-pathogenic (putative)	[118]
20	HP	XP_029893214.2	FAM184A	Ac	-1.39	6.19E-03	associated with human malignancies	[119–121]
6	HP	XP_029895765.1	FTH1	Ac	-2.67	1.90E-13	iron scavenging	[65,66]
	HP	XP_029893758.1	LOC115351288	Ac	-2.30	6.81E-08	antioxidant	[122]
	HP	XP_040977744.1	LOC121233102	Ac	-2.02	3.62E-09	carcinogenesis (putative)	[123]
	HP	XP_031957654.1	RPS12	Cm	-1.98	2.18E-09	ribosome	[43]
	HP	XP_029860305.1	EMC4	Ac	-1.89	6.82E-08	protein folding	[124,125]
	LP	XP_029890446.1	LOC115349840	Ac	3.88	3.78E-04	↓ anti-pathogenic (putative)	[126–128]
	LP	XP_029863942.1	XRCC2	Ac	4.01	1.84E-22	DNA repair	[129,130]
	LP	XP_029856482.1	BTG2	Ac	4.28	1.15E-13	↓ pleiotropic tumour suppressor gene	[131,132]
	LP	XP_029883424.1	NOS2	Ac	5.76	6.91E-26	↓ anti-pathogenic	[62–64]
	LP	XP_029871871.1	PRKCQ	Ac	6.47	8.03E-178	↓ T cell & platelet activation	[133]
17	LP	XP_029854753.1	PRKD1	Ac	3.95	5.47E-29	↓ T cell activation, pro-inflammatory	[134,135]
	LP	XP_040980327.1	ARHGAP15	Ac	4.09	1.57E-06	regulator of the cytoskeleton	[136]
	LP	XP_029883957.1	VEZF1	Ac	4.25	3.79E-21	↓ septic shock	[137,138]
	LP	XP_029863942.1	XRCC2	Ac	4.62	1.63E-19	DNA repair	[129,130]
	LP	XP_029888348.1	CDC42BPB	Ac	4.84	1.63E-24	regulator of the cytoskeleton	[89]
			Parasite					
9	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.20	1.34E-51	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-2.93	1.04E-32	-	-
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.81	2.06E-33	-	-
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-2.75	2.72E-36	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_001350486.1	Pf41-3 precursor (PF3D7_1207700)	Pf	-2.58	1.53E-23	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
0	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-4.02	0.00E+00	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.94	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.47	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-3.36	0.00E+00	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-3.28	0.00E+00	-	-

Cluster	Para-sitemia	NCBI accession number	Gene	Ref. species	log$_2$-FC (avg.)	p-value (adj.)	Function	References
1	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-4.09	0.00E+00	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.90	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.39	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-3.29	0.00E+00	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
	HP	XP_002808700.1	PfPSOP13 (PF3D7_0518800)	Pf	-3.21	0.00E+00	host-to-vector transmission	[142]
3	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-4.19	0.00E+00	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-4.10	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.53	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-3.52	3.41E-294	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-3.51	1.17E-281	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
7	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-3.93	1.33E-231	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.77	1.32E-260	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-3.12	5.77E-159	-	-
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.10	1.10E-170	-	-
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-3.06	2.76E-145	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
2	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.73	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-2.22	0.00E+00	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.08	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-1.90	1.09E-296	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-1.89	3.03E-265	-	-
5	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.39	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-1.81	1.88E-269	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-1.71	1.89E-255	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-1.67	2.83E-243	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-1.62	9.67E-253	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
8	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.21	1.52E-263	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-1.71	2.97E-189	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-1.51	1.26E-191	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-1.46	8.34E-183	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-1.34	1.26E-170	-	-
11	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-4.12	2.69E-164	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-3.63	1.19E-131	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.28	3.98E-107	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-3.20	1.04E-105	-	-
	HP	XP_002808700.1	PfPSOP13 (PF3D7_0518800)	Pf	-2.98	7.70E-101	host-to-vector transmission	[142]
16	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-1.90	8.40E-78	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-1.38	6.61E-50	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-1.28	8.83E-66	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-1.24	1.64E-63	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-1.15	1.11E-54	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
18	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.09	1.80E-50	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-2.55	3.51E-36	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.18	4.20E-37	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-2.16	3.52E-31	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-2.13	1.44E-37	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
19	HP	XP_001350425.1	PfNEK3 (PF3D7_1201600)	Pf	-2.11	5.74E-07	cell cycle regulation	[143]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.09	9.48E-36	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-1.54	4.42E-20	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-1.50	1.24E-27	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-1.36	2.19E-22	-	-
10	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.90	8.26E-171	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.68	4.27E-128	-	-
	HP	XP_001350486.1	Pf41-3 precursor (PF3D7_1207700)	Pf	-2.60	1.04E-90	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001350425.1	PfNEK3 (PF3D7_1201600)	Pf	-2.54	1.50E-48	cell cycle regulation	[143]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-2.43	6.87E-96	-	-
12	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.05	8.31E-127	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001350486.1	Pf41-3 precursor (PF3D7_1207700)	Pf	-1.96	7.91E-58	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-1.82	3.86E-71	-	-
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-1.80	1.66E-79	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-1.69	1.99E-96	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
21	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-1.27	2.40E-11	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
4	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-4.05	0.00E+00	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.45	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-3.43	0.00E+00	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-3.25	0.00E+00	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-3.24	0.00E+00	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
13	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.63	1.65E-133	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-2.26	3.82E-111	morphological changes	[39]

Cluster	Para-sitemia	NCBI accession number	Gene	Ref. species	log$_2$-FC (avg.)	p-value (adj.)	Function	References
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.18	1.17E-95	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-2.07	1.95E-88	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-2.04	4.98E-88	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
15	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-3.15	5.74E-64	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001350486.1	Pf41-3 precursor (PF3D7_1207700)	Pf	-2.94	1.84E-35	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-2.85	1.00E-41	-	-
	HP	XP_002585477.1	PF3D7_1466500	Pf	-2.67	6.10E-41	-	-
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-2.53	2.39E-56	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
20	HP	XP_002809016.1	PF3D7_1316300	Pf	-3.04	5.49E-18	-	-
	HP	XP_001349289.1	PfIMC1i (PF3D7_0823500)	Pf	-3.01	8.78E-19	morphological changes	[39]
	HP	XP_024329154.1	PF3D7_1214500	Pf	-2.94	1.38E-19	enriched in gametocytes	[139]
	HP	XP_001352166.1	PF3D7_0929600	Pf	-2.80	1.01E-17	morphological changes (putative)	[39]
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-2.67	6.73E-17	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
6	HP	XP_012769598.1	BBBOND_0313150	Bb	-2.91	5.00E-13	ABC-transporter	[144]
	HP	XP_001348212.1	PF3D7_1404200	Pf	-2.75	1.11E-12	-	-
	HP	XP_001349319.1	PF3D7_0820600	Pf	-2.63	2.72E-12	apicoplast (putative)	[145]
	HP	XP_001348354.1	PfPLC6 (PF3D7_1418300)	Pf	-2.56	7.22E-10	host cell invasion (putative)	[140,141]
	HP	XP_001348121.1	PfRPS21 (PF3D7_1144000)	Pf	-2.46	1.03E-09	ribosome	[146]
	LP	XP_001349989.1	PfLDH (PF3D7_1324900)	Pf	2.46	5.45E-10	lactic acid fermentation	[147,148]
	LP	XP_001347965.1	PfPFK11 (PF3D7_1128300)	Pf	2.88	2.15E-44	enriched in gametocytes	[149]
	LP	XP_001351121.1	PfGLP1 (PF3D7_0304500)	Pf	3.31	3.56E-12	glutaredoxin	[150]
14	LP	XP_002585462.1	PfRPA3 (PF3D7_1442100)	Pf	1.70	6.96E-03	DNA repair	[151]
	LP	XP_001350447.1	PfUBC (PF3D7_1203900)	Pf	2.30	1.02E-03	protein degradation	[152]
17	HP	XP_001350425.1	PfNEK3 (PF3D7_1201600)	Pf	-6.49	1.25E-29	cell cycle regulation	[143]
	HP	XP_001349778.1	PfApiAP2 (PF3D7_1305200)	Pf	-5.43	2.50E-23	repressed in macrogametocytes	[35]
	HP	XP_001349787.1	PF3D7_1306000	Pf	-5.00	2.24E-14	-	-
	HP	XP_966163.1	PfH2A (PF3D7_0617800)	Pf	-4.76	9.46E-34	histone protein	[153]
	HP	XP_002808835.1	PfPPM5 (PF3D7_0810300)	Pf	-4.71	5.84E-27	oocyst development	[154]

Figure 1: Overview of scRNA-seq clusters (Seurat clusters) and their proportions. (A) UMAP of 22 identified clusters. (B) Comparison of 6 samples categorised into LP versus HP based on their parasitaemia quantified via microscopy of blood smears. (C) Relative abundance of cell types comparing samples ordered by parasitaemia as quantified via microscopy of blood smears. Abundance is colour-coded by a red colour scale (normalisation per row).

The table in panel C:

cluster	annotation	total relative abundance	0.017%	0.025%	0.133%	0.956%	1.384%	1.699%
					relative abundance per sample			
9	erythrocytes	0.049	0.005	0.016	0.012	0.046	0.100	0.141
0	thrombocytes	0.145	0.195	0.004	0.255	0.184	0.094	0.072
1		0.136	0.182	0.005	0.208	0.182	0.109	0.069
3		0.080	0.094	0.013	0.144	0.120	0.049	0.016
7		0.052	0.054	0.000	0.078	0.086	0.046	0.019
2	CD4+ T cells	0.084	0.044	0.205	0.037	0.067	0.108	0.074
5		0.068	0.058	0.181	0.023	0.047	0.061	0.064
8		0.049	0.038	0.129	0.015	0.036	0.047	0.050
11		0.032	0.020	0.069	0.012	0.023	0.054	0.022
16		0.014	0.010	0.037	0.005	0.010	0.017	0.009
18	CD8+ T cells	0.009	0.003	0.028	0.002	0.008	0.013	0.005
19		0.009	0.005	0.024	0.005	0.004	0.007	0.013
10	B cells	0.040	0.044	0.071	0.022	0.019	0.035	0.071
12		0.029	0.063	0.036	0.018	0.010	0.008	0.050
21		0.003	0.003	0.004	0.002	0.001	0.003	0.005
4	putative heterophils	0.078	0.146	0.097	0.093	0.050	0.052	0.017
13	putative eosinophils	0.026	0.013	0.050	0.029	0.037	0.014	0.010
15	putative monocytes	0.014	0.009	0.022	0.017	0.015	0.001	0.023
20	unannotated	0.005	0.006	0.002	0.014	0.005	0.002	0.001
6	putative microgametocytes	0.053	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.033	0.130	0.188
14	putative macrogametocytes	0.016	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.011	0.037	0.055
17	putative developing gametocytes	0.010	0.007	0.008	0.004	0.007	0.013	0.025

399   Figure 2: (A) Venn diagrams of DEGs in gametocyte clusters comparing LP and HP (cut-off: p-value

400   (adjusted) ≤ 0.05). (B) Differential gene expression across gametocyte clusters (top five host and

401   parasite DEGs of LP versus HP are labelled). Dotted lines delimit cut-off-values (p-value (adjusted) ≤

402   0.05; log₂-FC (averaged) ≥ 1). Negative and positive values for log₂-FC represent differential expression

403   under HP versus LP respectively.

Figure 3: String PPI-networks of host genes (p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05; $\log_2$-FC (averaged) ≥ 1) of developing gametocytes microgametocytes. Node colour intensity encodes differential expression comparing LP (blue) versus HP (red). Colouring outside nodes refers to enriched KEGG pathways

409   (yellow: "ribosome" (False discovery rate (FDR) = 4.99E-36); red: "mRNA surveillance pathway" (FDR =

410   0.0451); green: "spliceosome" (FDR = 0.0047); blue: "regulation of actin cytoskeleton" (FDR = 0.0013)).

411   Node size corresponds to number of connections.

Extended Data Figures

Figure S1: UMAPs displaying (A) number of genes expressed per cell, (B) number of UMIs detected per cell, (C) proportion of mitochondrial genes per cell and (D) proportion of parasite genes per cell (genes mapped to reference genomes of parasite species).

Figure S2: Proportion of parasite transcripts per cluster comparing low versus high parasitaemia.

Figure S3: Dotplot of host marker genes curated from literature[30,76–80]. Clusters were *o*rdered by

qualitative examination of marker gene expression under consideration of cluster distribution in Fig.

1A. Final annotations are indicated at the top of the plot. Annotations in superscript list clusters in

which a gene is differentially expressed in comparison to all clusters. Gene names in grey font

represent indirectly inferred markers (non-transcriptomic markers). Duplicates are based on two

transcript variants mapped to the same gene.

Figure S4: Dotplot of parasite marker genes from curated literature[75]. Clusters were ordered by

qualitative examination of marker gene expression under consideration of cluster distribution in Fig.

1A. Final annotations are indicated at the top of the plot. Annotations in superscript list clusters in

which a gene is differentially expressed in comparison to all clusters. Categories include commitment

to gametocytogenesis ("commitment") versus gametocytic development ("development"), early

gametocyte development and micro- and macrogametocyte specific markers. Duplicates are based on

two transcript variants mapped to the same gene.

Figure S5: (A) Differentially expressed genes comparing LP versus HP per cluster (cut-off: p-value

(adjusted) ≤ 0.05). (B) Strongly differentially expressed host genes (cut-off: p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05;

log$_2$-FC (averaged) ≥ 1) comparing LP versus HP per cluster. Unannotated genes were omitted (C):

Strongly differentially expressed parasite genes (cut-off: p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05; log$_2$-FC (averaged)

≥ 1) comparing LP versus HP per cluster. Unannotated genes were omitted. Clusters are ordered by

cell type.

Figure S6: Differential gene expression across host clusters (top five host and parasite DEGs of LP versus HP are labelled). Dotted lines delimit cut-off-values (p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05; $\log_2$-FC (averaged) ≥ 1). Negative and positive values for $\log_2$-FC represent differential expression under HP versus LP respectively. Clusters are ordered by cell type.

Figure S7: Redundancy of differentially expressed genes (cut-off: p-value (adjusted) ≤ 0.05). DEG counts

451   are plotted against the number of clusters a gene is differentially expressed in. Unannotated genes

452   were omitted.

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