A *Plasmodium falciparum* molecular mechanism of heme binding and sensitivity to

artemisinins.

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Abstract

Heme is critical to activating artemisinins (ARTs), drugs essential for malaria control. *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria Kelch13 (K13) binds heme *in vitro,* but the consequences for *in vivo* functions remain unknown. As taut regulation of free-heme levels is not feasible in infected erythrocytes, we developed human Du145 cells as a model to study molecular properties of K13 at biological heme concentrations. We show that K13 levels are exquisitely responsive to nanomolar amounts of heme. Heme stabilizes K13 with molecular specificity, raises its oxidative-stress responses and association with autophagic-endosomes. Targeted disruption of lysosomal autophagy further increases K13 levels to fuel ART-induced redox-cell death that is proportional to K13 intensities at physiological heme levels. K13's kelch-domain confers both heme and ART responsiveness to its mammalian orthologue KEAP1. These data suggest a novel molecular mechanism of K13-heme binding regulating ART-sensitization and power of models to study frontiers of pro-oxidant stress.

Introduction

Artemisinins (ARTs) are highly effective in curing blood-stage infection of *Plasmodium falciparum,* the

deadliest of human malaria parasites[1]. These drugs are critical components of artemisinin-based

combination therapies (ACT) that have played a key role in reducing the global burden of malaria and

remain the cornerstone of its control worldwide[2]. Heme increases their potency because it cleaves

the ART-endoperoxide bridge yielding highly reactive oxy-centered and C4-centered radicals[3] that

alkylates a wide range of cellular components causing oxidative damage, which results in parasite cell

death[4,5]. When malaria parasites infect red blood cells, they digest the host hemoglobin to actively

produce heme in the parasite's food vacuole (FV). High levels of heme are presumed to confer the

exquisite sensitivity of ARTs in killing malaria parasites[6], although whether other parasite factors

potentiate heme activity remains unknown[7].

Despite the prevalent model that ART kills through indiscriminate alkylation and damage of parasite

lipids, proteins and DNA[8–10], robust clinical resistance has been ascribed to one major gene *Pfkelch13*

(K13; PlasmoDB ID: PF3D7_1343700)[11], which has been shown to be causal for resistance[12].

Artemisinin resistance (ART-R) poses a significant threat to malaria control[13,14]. Consequently, K13

has been intensely studied over the last decade[15–19]. The consensus data suggest that it is a

cytoplasmically synthesized protein associated with vesicular structures, including the parasite's

digestive endosomes, apicoplast, mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum as well as vesicles enriched in

Rabs, ATG18 and phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate (PI3P)[9–11]. At the parasite's trophozoite stage,

when hemoglobin uptake and digestion are most active, K13 regulates endocytosis *via* structures

called cytostomes, and resistance mutations suppress this process[20,21]. But notably, these very

trophozoite stages remain highly susceptible to ARTs in K13 mutant parasites, suggesting that while

the process of hemoglobin uptake maybe regulated by K13, it may not be the major target of

resistance.

We have recently reported that recombinant and parasite-derived K13 directly bind molecular heme

with a dissociation constant (K_d) of 61.5 nM[22]. Heme binds to many proteins[23,24]. This includes

albumins with a K_d range of 2-40 µM[25], explaining their ready capacity to transfer heme to wide range

of acceptors[26]. In contrast heme-oxygenases which degrade heme, bind it with nanomolar (3-300

nM) affinity[27]. This suggests that with a K_d of 61.5 nM, K13 engages in at least moderately tight heme-

binding. Heme binding is known to effect profound structural changes in proteins[28] and heme is

implicated in oxidative stress metabolism[29]. However, the consequences of heme binding for K13's

stability and turnover, and whether heme-binding induces K13-mediated redox-controlled responses

remain entirely unknown. Furthermore, K13's engagement of antioxidant and detoxification systems,

as regulated by its closest mammalian orthologue Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1

(KEAP1)[11,30,31], is also unstudied. Finally, whether and how heme, bound with significant affinity to

K13, is dislodged and the associated implications for mechanisms of ART-based killing remain to be

discovered.

Since *in vitro* studies suggest that K13 binds heme with a K_d of 61.5 nM[22], regulation of associated

cellular mechanisms may be expected to be initiated at nanomolar to low micromolar concentrations.

However, carefully controlling heme levels in this range remains unfeasible in blood-stage parasites.

This is because the host erythrocyte contains high levels of hemoglobin (3.2-3.6 mM)[32], whose

digestion is a major source of parasite heme. Erythrocytes also contain high levels (21 ± 2 µM) of free

heme[33] which may translocate through passive and facilitated pathways[24,34]. Since mature human red

cells are enucleated and terminally differentiated, these host sources of heme cannot be genetically

'turned off' post infection. Moreover, their reduction compromises parasite health[35]. Genetic or

chemical targeting of parasite's *de novo* heme biosynthesis in infected erythrocytes appears to have

no effect on parasite growth[36,37], suggesting that heme provided by exogenous pathways can be

supplemented from host-derived sources. Notably, free heme levels in most non-erythroid cells are in

the nanomolar range (25-300 nM)[34], but in *P. falciparum* they are reported to be considerably higher

(at 1-2 µM or higher)[38,39], suggesting that throughout blood-stage infection the parasite may reside in

a high intracellular heme environment.

We desired a cell system to study the molecular functions of K13 and their regulations by nanomolar

concentrations of heme. We therefore used a model non-erythroid mammalian cell line Du145[40] with

reduced levels of KEAP1, adapted to grow in heme-depleted media, and whose free heme levels

were tightly regulable by blocking endogenous heme biosynthetic enzymes. These Du145 cells were

otherwise capable of an active redox response[41]. Our goal was to query whether K13 and heme

engaged protective responses against oxidative stress, as well as obtain mechanistic understanding

of how K13, heme or both components triggered sensitization of cells to killing by ARTs. The lessons

learned maybe applicable across a broad range of cellular systems.

Results

Heme increases cellular levels of K13 through binding and stabilization

Human Du145 cells (HTB-81, ATCC, *www.atcc.org*) contain a full length wild-type *Keap1* gene, but

CpG dinucleotide methylation of its core promoter results in low *keap1* mRNA expression[42], making

them suitable for ectopically expressing kelch domain proteins with minimal interference from the

native KEAP1 protein. Sequence comparison clearly revealed that K13 is a homologue of KEAP1

(**Supplementary Fig. 1a**). We generated three stable transgenic lines expressing: (i) K13 as a C-

terminus fusion to GFP; K13-GFP, (ii) GFP alone, as well as (iii) a C-terminus fusion of flag-strep tag

KEAP1 (see *Materials and Methods*). Indirect immunofluorescence assays (IFA) with quantitative

analyses, suggested cellular distribution of K13-GFP, GFP and KEAP1, at comparable levels in

transgenic Du145 cells (**Supplementary Fig. 1b**). K13-GFP, GFP and flag-strep tag KEAP1

respectively appeared as fusion proteins at expected sizes of 105-kDa, 27-kDa and 80-kDa

(**Supplementary Fig. 1c, d**).

We recently showed that *in vitro* heme bound recombinant K13 protein (TrK13-WT) with high

affinity[22], but action of heme in cells was not known. Since the K_d for heme binding to K13 protein was

61.5 nM, we wanted to measure the effects at low nanomolar concentrations of heme. This required

growing Du145 cells under conditions where available heme was substantially depleted from the

extracellular sources, and the production of biosynthetic heme was blocked by inhibitors. Fetal bovine

serum (FBS) is the largest extracellular donor of heme and contributed median concentration of 3.2 ±

0.06 µM heme to culture media. We reduced FBS concentrations of heme to <850 nM

(**Supplementary Fig. 2a, b**) to create heme-depleted media (HDM; *Material and Methods*). Since the

K_d of heme for albumins is >1 µM, this was expected to dramatically reduce the transfer of

extracellular heme to cells. We also added succinylacetone [SA; an inhibitor of the second enzyme of

heme biosynthesis pathway, δ-aminolevulinic acid (ALA) dehydratase] to the culture media, which

restricted intracellular *de novo* heme synthesis. Our overall goal was to achieve culture conditions that

would be responsive to nanomolar concentrations of exogenously added heme. Accordingly, under

HDM conditions, the parental Du145, transgenic GFP and K13-GFP cells all showed intracellular

concentrations of ~60 nM heme. Addition of extracellular heme at 5 µM, raised intracellular heme to

400-450 nM. When extracellular concentrations were raised to 50 µM, the intracellular levels

plateaued at ~750 nM (**Supplementary Fig. 2c**). Together these data suggested that in the course of

all experiments intracellular heme concentrations ranged from ~60-750 nM.

K13-GFP cells cultured in HDM (K13-GFP[HDM]) were subsequently exposed to different concentrations

of exogenously added heme (0-5 µM) in the media (referred to as heme-replenished media). As

shown in **Fig. 1a**, concentrations of 10 nM heme induced detectable increase in K13-GFP levels.

Progressive increase of K13-GFP levels were seen at 50 nM, 100 nM, 1 µM and 5 µM heme. At 5 µM

heme, K13-GFP levels were restored to those seen in K13-GFP 'control' cultures (**Fig. 1b**). There was

no effect on the cellular viability of K13-GFP (or GFP) expressing cells at 5 µM heme;

(**Supplementary Fig. 2d:** the IC_{50} for heme was ~25-fold higher for all cells). Notably, there was no

detectable change in the relative intensity of GFP or KEAP1 proteins when cells were subjected to

heme depletion or when supplemented with 5 µM heme (**Supplementary Fig. 2e, f**).

We next investigated the specificity of heme action. As shown in **Fig. 1c,** PPIX alone or when

complexed with Zn, had no effect even at 50 µM. However, increasing heme levels from 5 to 50 µM

continued to steadily increase levels of K13-GFP. Together, the data suggest that heme at

extracellular concentrations of 10 nanomolar or higher (and up to 50 µM) increase cellular levels of

K13-GFP (but not GFP or KEAP1), suggesting it is specific for K13. Increases in K13 were only

mediated by heme (not PPIX or Zn-PPIX) and likely due to heme's directly binding to K13 (since we

have previously shown that heme binds K13 with nanomolar affinity *in vitro*[22]).

Amongst heme binding proteins, hemopexin, a serum glycoprotein (which displays highest affinity for

heme   at K_d ~ 1 pM[43,44]) has been reported to show heme-dependent resistance to protease

digestion[43]. We therefore investigated if the protease sensitivity of K13 was altered in its heme-bound

state. For *in vitro* assay, we used the affinity purified 61-kDa recombinant TrK13-WT protein as K13

representative, described in our previous studies[22,45]. Recombinant TrK13-WT protein (10 µM) was

incubated with or without equimolar concentrations of heme and desalted to remove excess unbound

heme (see *Materials and methods*). Heme-bound TrK13-WT protein was subsequently treated with

trypsin under optimal buffer and pH conditions for varied incubation times. For trypsin (a serine

protease that cleaves between the carboxyl group of arginine or lysine and the amino group of the adjacent amino acid), we also included commercially procured BSA, a confirmed heme-binding protein[46] (but with substantially lower affinity) as a control. As shown in **Fig. 1d**, Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE revealed full-length (FL) TrK13-WT protein at 61-kDa. Treatment with trypsin yielded additional low molecular weight fragments (doublets at 30-kDa and at 12-kDa; blue arrowheads) in the absence of heme, whose appearance was blocked when the TrK13-WT protein was pre-incubated with heme. Heme-binding only conferred partial resistance of BSA to trypsin (**Supplementary Fig. 2g**). In absence of heme, multiple small protein fragments were detected (from 22-40 kDa; green arrowheads), while in its presence, larger fragments were observed at 45-55-kDa (red arrowheads). The effects of heme on trypsin digestion of both TrK13-WT protein and BSA were likely because of changes in the 3-dimensional conformation of these proteins (which is consistent with previous reports in the literature[46] and observed in our earlier CD studies[22]). As shown in **Fig. 1e**, resistance to trypsin digestion was not seen when the TrK13-WT protein was incubated with PPIX or Zn-PPIX or iron salts (ferrous ammonium sulfate, FAS or ferric ammonium sulfate, FES, although these salts are known to bind K13)[22]. Together, these data suggest that heme binding to K13 shows chemical and molecular specificity, may induce confirmational change and thereby induce stabilization of K13 in cells.

Heme alters K13-regulated oxidative stress responses

Nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) is a major redox-regulated transcription factor controlled by KEAP1[47], the closest mammalian orthologue of K13. We therefore assessed whether Nrf2 was regulated by K13 and the impact of heme, a known, major redox regulator[48]. First, we investigated changes in Nrf2 levels in GFP or KEAP1 expressing cells under HDM or heme-replenished culture conditions *i.e.,* GFP[HDM] *versus* GFP[HEME] or KEAP1[HDM] *versus* KEAP1[HEME] cells. Relative intensities of both GFP and KEAP1 proteins remained unaffected by heme (**Supplementary Fig. 3a, b**). Consequently, we investigated only K13-GFP cells, cultured in the absence or presence of increasing concentrations of heme, and followed by immunoprecipitations from cellular lysates using anti-GFP antibodies. Western blot (**Fig. 2a**) and quantitative densitometric analysis (**Fig. 2b**) of band intensities revealed increasing amounts of immunoprecipitated K13-GFP with increased heme concentrations (**2a i** and **2b i**). In contrast, levels of co-immunopurified Nrf2 decreased with increasing

heme (**Fig. 2a i**), although there was increase in the overall cellular Nrf2 levels (**Fig. 2a ii** and **2b ii-**

iii). These results strongly implied that interactions between K13 and Nrf2 were negatively affected by

heme. To investigate whether these reflected direct protein-protein interactions, we co-incubated

recombinant Nrf2-6×his protein with either heme-free or heme-bound recombinant TrK13-WT (that

was desalted to remove excess unbound heme). As shown in **Fig. 2c**, after incubation with heme for

1 h, there was ~26% reduction in Nrf2-6×his binding to TrK13-WT, suggesting heme may directly

prevent/disrupt Nrf2 binding to K13.

We next performed immunolocalization studies to determine subcellular distribution of Nrf2 in K13-

GFP^HDM and K13-GFP^HEME cells (**Fig. 2d**). Here, data revealed predominantly cytoplasmic localization

of Nrf2 with K13-GFP under HDM conditions (left panel). In contrast, the K13-GFP^HEME cells displayed

prominent nuclear localized Nrf2 protein (right panel). Moreover, in the presence of heme, levels of

K13 were higher than under HDM conditions. Subcellular fractionation confirmed that under

conditions of HDM, a vast majority (~83%) of Nrf2 protein was detected in the cytoplasmic fraction

(**Fig. 2e**; second blot). However, in the K13-GFP^HEME cells, ~87% of the Nrf2 protein was detected in

the nuclear fraction. As expected, the K13-GFP protein was present exclusively in the cytoplasmic

fraction independent of the absence or presence of heme. Furthermore, the intensity of K13-GFP was

much higher under heme-replenished condition (top blot). The GFP expressing cells revealed no

changes in the relative nuclear/cytoplasmic fractionation of the Nrf2 protein or intensities of GFP

(**Supplementary Fig. 3c**). As Nrf2 is a redox-controlled transcription factor, we also compared the

expression of stress-response genes *heme oxygenase* (*ho-1*), *NAD(P)H quinone oxidoreductase 1*

(*nqo1*) and *thioredoxin reductase 1* (*txnrd1*) in K13-GFP^HDM and K13-GFP^HEME cells. As shown in **Fig.**

2f, RT-qPCR data confirmed increased expression of these stress-response genes as a consequence

of increased Nrf2 translocation to the cell nucleus.

Chaperone mediate autophagy is a major pathway of K13 degradation.

A recent study implicated chaperone-mediated autophagy (CMA) in the lysosomal degradation

KEAP1 in mouse midbrain progenitor cell line SN4741[49]. Since K13 shares structural and sequence

identity with KEAP1, we investigated if similar degradation pathway was involved in the proteolysis of

K13-GFP under HDM conditions. Our analyses of the primary sequence of K13, suggested it

contained 'KFERQ-like' motifs as recognized by an online algorithm KFERQ finder v0.8

(*https://rshine.einsteinmed.edu*)[50]. These motifs are targeting signals of CMA. In CMA the chaperone

heat shock 70-kDa (cognate) protein 8 (also known as HSPA8) binds 'substrate' proteins bearing

'KFERQ-like' motifs[51,52]. LAMP2A acts as a receptor on the lysosomal membrane. HSPA8 binds the

cytosolic tail of LAMP2A[53]. This in turn unfolds the substrate and enables its translocation into

lysosomes where it is subsequently degraded[54]. As shown in **Fig. 3a**, K13 contains eighteen 'KFERQ-

like' motif, strongly suggesting it may be targeted to lysosomes. Immunolocalization studies using

indirect IFA suggested moderate association between K13 and LAMP2A with Pearson's correlation

coefficient (PCC) of 0.59. Notably, heme raised the PCC to 0.79, suggesting it induced a high level of

co-association of K13-GFP with LAMP2A (**Fig. 3b**). We therefore concluded that although heme

induces conformational change in K13, this does not obscure targeting of K13-GFP to LAMP2A

labeled lysosomes. But since heme increases levels of K13, it is not likely to promote degradation of

K13-GFP within the lysosome. We therefore propose (as schematic in **Fig. 3b**) that the heme-induced

conformational stability may prevent unfolding of the K13-GFP substrate and its translocation into the

lysosome, thereby limiting its degradation in cells**.**

Since LAMP2A is an exclusive CMA marker, we investigated the effects of a previously reported

CMA-inhibitor, *i.e.*, the RARα (retinoic acid receptor alpha) activator ATRA (*all-trans* retinoic acid),

known to be a potent inhibitor of LAMP2A expression[55]. As expected, under HDM conditions, there

was moderate co-association of K13 and LAMP2A, with a PCC of 0.58 (**Fig. 4a i**). Treatment with

ATRA elevated levels of K13-GFP as well as its co-association with LAMP2A (raising the PCC to

0.90; **Fig. 4a ii**). As expected, heme also increased K13-GFP levels and the PCC with LAMP2A rose

to 0.77 (**Fig. 4a iii**). Notably, ATRA markedly increased K13-GFP in HDM to levels far higher than

those seen with heme replenishment (**Fig. 4b i** and **4b iii**). ATRA also significantly reduced LAMP2A

levels compared to controls, both in K13-GFP^{HDM} and K13-GFP^{HEME} cells (**Fig. 4b i** and **4b ii**).

Together these data strongly suggested ATRA-mediated reduction of LAMP2A prevented the

degradation of K13, explaining why it increased K13 levels more than heme.

To further confirm the role of LAMP2A-mediated degradation of K13-GFP, we obtained stable

transgenic cell lines expressing K13-GFP or GFP in the HeLa *lamp2a* knockout (Δ*lamp2a*; Abcam;

ab255402) and the corresponding parental HeLa cells (Abcam, ab255928). HeLa cells have

previously been reported to inherently express very low levels of native KEAP1 protein and

correspondingly have high basal Nrf2 activity[56]. We designated them as $\Delta lamp2a^{K13-GFP}$, HeLa$^{K13-GFP}$,

$\Delta lamp2a^{GFP}$ and HeLa^{GFP}, cells, respectively. As shown in **Supplementary Fig. 4a**, LAMP2A protein

was undetectable in $\Delta lamp2a$ cells both by fluorescence microscopy and in western blots. Moreover,

there was no difference in levels of K13-GFP in the transgenic $\Delta lamp2a^{K13-GFP}$ cells regardless of

whether they were cultured under HDM or 5 µM heme-supplemented conditions (**Fig. 4c**). In contrast,

significant reduction in the K13-GFP level was evident in the parental HeLa$^{K13-GFP}$ cells in HDM

(compare lanes 3 and lane 4). In $\Delta lamp2a^{GFP}$ cells, we observed no changes in the level of GFP

(**Supplementary Fig. 4b**) when compared to the HeLa^{GFP} cells irrespective of HDM or heme-

replenished conditions. Thus, the absence of LAMP2A adversely affected the proteolysis of K13-GFP,

but not GFP, which further substantiated the involvement of CMA pathway in proteolysis of K13-GFP

under HDM conditions.

K13's kelch domain transfers heme-dependent stability and heme binding property to KEAP1

We next investigated if the heme-regulated stability of K13 was due to its kelch repeat (KRP) domain

and could be transferred to KEAP1. As shown in **Fig. 5a**, we made chimeras of the N-terminus of

KEAP1 and the kelch domain of K13 fused to GFP (KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP) as well N-terminus of K13

and the kelch domain of KEAP1 fused to GFP (K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP). Stable expression of

KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP and K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP proteins in Du145 cells was confirmed by western

blots (**Fig. 5b**). As shown in **Fig. 5c**, immunolabeling assays revealed significant (72%) reduction in

KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP cells under HDM conditions when compared to respective counterparts in 5 µM

heme-supplemented media. In contrast K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP cells were reduced by only 30%.

Supplementing HDM with the heme precursor ALA had no significant effect, but heme largely restored

levels of KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP expression (**Fig. 5d**). K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP showed much less heme-

responsive expression (**Fig. 5e**). Together, these results suggested that the kelch domain of K13

conferred robust heme-stimulated expression of the KEAP1-K13 chimera which was closely

comparable to the wild-type K13-GFP. The NTR, CCD and BTB-POZ domains of K13 also made a

minor contribution in transferring heme-dependent phenotype to the KEAP1 chimera.

In addition, we investigated the relative affinity of recombinant K13 (also known as TrK13-WT),

KEAP1, KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} and K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP} proteins for hemin-agarose. Recombinant proteins

expressed and purified from *E. coli* were incubated with hemin-agarose beads and percentage

binding was determined (see *Materials and Methods*). As shown in **Fig. 5f**, K13/TrK13-WT, KEAP1,

KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP} proteins respectively showed 30.1%, 5.9%, 32.5% and 10.3% binding

to hemin-agarose, respectively. Again, this suggested that the kelch domain of K13 could confer the

same efficiency of heme binding to KEAP1 as seen associated with K13/TrK13-WT protein. When

soluble cellular extracts from stable transgenic Du145 cells ectopically expressing the K13-GFP,

KEAP1 and their chimera proteins were used, we again found that K13-GFP, KEAP1,

KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP and K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP bound hemin-agarose beads with efficiencies of

58.9%, 3.1%, 64.5% and 29.3%, respectively (**Fig. 5g**). Cumulatively, the results in **Fig. 5** strongly

support that the kelch domain of K13 transfers robust heme binding capacity and heme-based

stabilization to KEAP1. The N-terminal domains of K13 may also contribute a minor role consistent

with our prior studies suggesting a subset of heme binding motifs are also detected outside of K13's

Kelch domain[22].

K13 and its chimeras confer sensitivity to heme-dependent ART-killing of Du145 cells

Since heme is implicated in the activation of ART, we next assessed the ART sensitivity of Du145

cells expressing K13-GFP and its chimeras (as well as GFP alone) in a standard killing MTT [3-(4,5-

dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide] assay (see *Materials and Methods*) comparing

outcomes in HDM or media replenished with 5 µM heme. Du145 cells expressing control GFP

showed an IC$_{50}$ of 117.7 ± 0.9 µM in the absence of added heme (**Fig. 6a i**), thereby indicating that

they are intrinsically highly resistant to ART. The addition of 5 µM heme minimally reduced the IC$_{50}$ by

2.6%. Expression of KEAP1 also showed a small effect inducing approximately 6.1% reduction.

However, K13-GFP and the KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} cells had a greater effect, which translated into increasing

heme-dependent sensitivity to ART by 18.2% and 23.7%, respectively (**Fig. 6a i-ii**). K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-

GFP had lesser effect showing ART sensitivity increase of 13.5%. The relative order of conferring

increased ART sensitivity was KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP > K13-GFP > K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP > KEAP1 >

GFP, which matched the heme binding properties reported for these transgenes in **Fig. 5**. Together,

these data suggested that the presence of K13, particularly its kelch domain, conferred sensitivity to

ART in the presence of 5 µM heme.

Since the K13 also binds Nrf2 (which is antagonized by heme), we examined the effects of ART on

the dynamics of K13 and Nrf2 in HDM as well as after heme supplementation. As shown in **Fig. 6b i-**

ii, ART had no sizeable effect on K13-GFP levels in the presence or absence of heme. However, Nrf2

levels were reduced by 50% in the presence of both ART and heme. This reduction was due to the

depletion of Nrf2 in the cytoplasm (**Fig. 6c i-ii**), suggesting it was through regulation by K13. These

data support a model shown in **Fig. 6d**, where heme plays a major role in binding K13 to displace

Nrf2, which in turn is targeted to the nucleus to induce a protective redox (or pro-survival) response.

Heme bound to K13 activates ART to generate toxic heme-ART adducts. K13's renewed ability to

regulate Nrf2 suggests that these toxic heme-ART adducts do not inactivate K13. Rather, the adducts

dislodge from K13 and disperse to mediate damage which occurs in absence of a protective redox

response, resulting in cell death (or pro-death) responses. Thus, ART-induced killing reconstituted in

Du145 cells may arise from the dual effect of inducing toxic ART-heme adducts as well as preventing

a protective redox response to render an overall 'pro-death response (**Fig. 6d**).

ART sensitivity is increased proportional to the K13 intensity

Our findings in **Fig. 6** strongly supported that expression of K13 or chimeras, containing its kelch

domain in presence of 5 µM heme, increased sensitivity to ART. We wanted to gain better

understanding on whether increasing K13 at sub-micromolar heme concentration also played a role.

Since our studies in **Fig. 4** established that ATRA increased levels of K13, we separately evaluated

the effects of heme and ATRA. As shown in **Fig. 7a, b**, in cells expressing GFP, 5 µM heme

increased sensitivity to ART by ~ 6%, while ATRA had no effect. In K13-GFP cells, heme alone

stimulated ART-sensitivity by 18%, ATRA by 25%, and the combination of two stimulated ART-

sensitivity by 36% (**Fig. 7a, b**). These data strongly suggested that elevation in levels of K13-GFP by

ATRA even under HDM conditions increased sensitivity to ART. But heme at 5 µM provided additional

sensitization effect possibly by (i) increasing K13 levels (ii) providing substrate to form toxic heme-

ART adducts, whose disassociation from K13 suppression of pro-survival responses (as hypothesized

in **Fig. 6d**).

We were therefore interested in determining whether ART sensitivity was proportional to K13

intensity. To do so, we compared the sensitivity to killing by ART to levels of K13 (or its kelch chimera)

normalized to GAPDH (a control cytoplasmic protein). As shown in **Fig. 7c**, we observed an overall

linear relationship between increase in ART sensitivity and the K13/GAPDH (R^2 value = 0.97).

Notably, cell lines designated as 1, 2 and 4 reflected measurements generated in HDM, and all

showed lower degree of ART sensitivity and K13/GAPDH levels than counterpart measurements

generated in the presence of 5 μM heme. Also, the presence of ATRA increased K13 levels, thereby

boosting K13/GAPDH ratio and correspondingly showed increased ART sensitivity of K13-GFP cells

under HDM conditions (as cell line #3 in **Fig. 7c**). Moreover, combination of heme and ATRA in these

cells (designated as 3H) further elevated K13/GAPDH ratio and showed highest sensitivity to ART

(38%). Comparisons in HeLa cells revealed that knockout of LAMP2A, which increased K13/GAPDH

by three-fold raised ART sensitivity by one-third. However, 5 μM heme further raised the K13/GAPDH

ratio four-fold and doubled ART-sensitivity (compared to parental HeLa in HDM).

When we separately compared the effects of extracellular 5 μM *versus* 50 μM heme (**Fig. 7d**), the

higher concentration of heme further augmented killing. In GFP cells, this could be easily interpretable

as increasing intracellular heme alone from ~400 to 750 nM directly sensitized ART-killing, increasing

it from ~2 to ~6%. However, as we have previously shown for K13 kelch domain proteins, heme may

also act by raising levels of the transgene alone. We therefore tracked transgene expression at 50 μM

heme (**Fig. 7d**, black bars). This revealed that even at 50 μM, increasing K13-GFP and K13 chimeras

stimulated ART-killing to much higher levels. Taken together, these data suggest that heme alone (at

intracellular concentrations of 400 nM to 1 μM), is comparatively weak stimulator of ART's killing

activity but can be potentiated by expression of K13 and its appropriate chimeras.

Discussion

The Du145 cell model enabled assessment of the effects of K13 binding to heme in the nanomolar to

micromolar range. The intrinsic concentration of heme in Du145 cells is 60 nM. Supplementing with

extracellular heme at 5 μM, resulted in maximal intracellular concentrations of 0.45 μM which is lower

than the physiological range (1-5 μM) reported for *Plasmodium*[38,39]. Although kelch proteins bind a

wide range of protein-partners[20,57–59], this is first report that a small molecule like heme can bind a

member of this evolutionary conserved family. Whether kelch proteins of other apicomplexans bind

heme is not known. Remarkably, the kelch domain of K13 is necessary and sufficient to confer heme

binding to its closest mammalian orthologue KEAP1. Whether and how heme is released from K13

under physiological conditions is not known. Heme, as a small molecule bound to K13 cannot be

ubiquitinylated and degraded, which is a hallmark of protein substrates and their cellular regulation by kelch proteins. But our studies suggest that when K13-bound heme activates ART, the kelch structure may protect against self-oxidation by heme-ART adducts. This is consistent with prior studies showing that alkyne-ART analog despite being highly active against a wide range of malarial cellular targets failed to alkylate K13[60,61]. Moreover, the heme-ART adducts are known to show low affinity for recombinant K13[22], suggesting a mechanism for their release and a new model where a single molecule of K13 may catalyze multiple cycles of ART-heme activation (**Fig. 8a**; K13 cycle 1). Since heme is known to be a strong oxidant[29], it is highly likely that upon its binding to K13, a protective redox response will be elicited as a compensatory response (that is expected for cycles 2 and 3 shown in **Fig. 8a**) but whether *Plasmodium* encodes for functional orthologue of Nrf2 (the transcription factor that induces the stress-induced protective response in Du145 cells) remains unknown.

The model in **Fig. 8a** is informative for ring as well as trophozoite stage death of malaria parasites. As in the Du145 model, for both parasite stages we propose a pro-death response induced by addition of ART to K13-heme, which releases activated and toxic ART-heme adducts. In rings, heme is likely to be derived from parasite mitochondrial sources as well as host *milieu*, while trophozoite stages may have an additional source, namely hemoglobin-derived heme (although most of this is converted to hemozoin). That intracellular heme concentrations of 400- 750 nM alone showed low sensitization to ART counters prevailing models that suggest that heme alone is sufficient to activate ART at the trophozoite stages (**Fig. 8b**). Yet we found that even at the lowest intensities, K13 (expected not to exceed nanomolar levels) was more effective than heme alone and in addition, the extent of sensitization was directly proportional to the level of K13. This is consistent with our findings that raising K13 (by ATRA treatment) in HDM (with 60 nM heme), increased ART-sensitivity more than an eight-fold elevation in free heme concentrations (to 400 nM). This strongly supports the idea that K13 acts as 'catalyst' to facilitate assembly of ART-heme complexes, and once the activated toxic adducts are released, K13 may facilitate successive rounds of ART-based killing. We therefore propose that rather than heme alone at the trophozoite, heme and K13 act together to effect sensitization to ART (**Fig. 8c**). These stages are known to be more sensitive than rings, which is consistent with their higher levels of both K13 and heme.

Our finding of K13 localization to late endosomes in Du145 cells is noteworthy because K13 has been

found on *P. falciparum* vesicles and endosomes and is best characterized in the FV of *P. falciparum*

trophozoites. These stages also express increased levels of K13 which concentrate on the

cytoplasmic face of electron dense 'cytostomes'[62] at the FV. Genetic depletion of K13 disrupts the

cytostome structure as well as endocytic uptake of hemoglobin[21]. Apicomplexan endosomes are

broadly classified as 'micropores and the malarial FV develops from a Type II micropore. All

apicomplexans (including *Plasmodium*) contain a 'Type I' micropore seen on 'apical' stages. Recently,

the *T. gondii* K13 orthologue was localized to Type I micropores and shown to regulate plasma

membrane endocytosis[63]. Plasmodial K13 is expressed in merozoite and ring stages, but whether it

localizes on parasite's Type I micropores is not yet established. By virtue of evolutionary conservation

of mechanisms of apical organelles, we have proposed that K13 localizes to *P. falciparum* Type I

micropores[64]. Endosomal location in Type I and Type II micropores of rings and trophozoites,

respectively may enable concentration of K13-heme, possibly to stabilize these structures which then

also create cellular foci to efficiently activate ART at all stages of intracellular parasite development.

That heme binding, endosomal concentration and ART-based killing are not properties of mammalian

KEAP1, suggests they are parasite evolutionary adaptations conferred by the K13 kelch domain. Yet,

orthologues of LAMP2A (a receptor for K13 in Du145 and HeLa cells that controls its autophagic

degradation), have not been reported in *P. falciparum* or *T. gondii.* Nonetheless, autophagic systems

exist in both parasites[65,66] and additional studies are needed to determine their influence on heme-

dependent K13 stability, as well as endosomal degradation turnover of K13 and its orthologues

across apicomplexans. Another key priority is identification of K13- coupled parasite redox factors that

remain unidentified because a lack of conservation at the level of primary sequences prevents easy

prediction from nucleotide sequence comparisons. While our studies establish that K13 is an

important determinant in ART sensitization, other oxidative factors may also contribute. Our present

study suggest Du145 may continue to provide a powerful model system for future functional screens

for endosomal effectors as well as novel parasite pro-oxidant responses, regulated by both heme and

K13 and targeted in killing by ART. The lessons learned may also reveal mechanisms to sensitize a

wider range of infectious agents as well as chronic disorders (like cancer) to killing by ARTs.

Materials and methods

Generation of plasmid constructs

The pPR-IBA101 (TrK13-WT) plasmid was generated as described in earlier studies[22,45]. For the generation of pPR-IBA101 (KEAP1), the full length (1875 base pairs) transcript of *keap1* was amplified from cDNA library prepared from human cell line (HEK293T) using the primer pairs (Hs-Keap1-BsaI-Fwd (5'-CAAATGGGAGACCTTATGCAGCCAGATCCCAGGC-3') and Hs-Keap1-BsaI-Rev (5'-CCAAGCGCTGAGACCAGCAGCACAGGTACAGTTCTGCTGGTCAATCTG-3'). The PCR product was digested with BsaI and cloned at corresponding sites in similarly-digested pPR-IBA101. For the generation of pPR-IBA101 (KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}), nucleotide sequences coding for the N-terminus region of KEAP1 was amplified from pPR-IBA101 (KEAP1) plasmid using (Hs-Keap1-BsaI-Fwd and KEAP1toK13-KRP-Rev (5'-AAATCCACCGGCAGCAGCGCGGCCCACCTTGGG-3') primers. Nucleotide sequence encoding for the KRP region of K13 was amplified using the pPR-IBA101 (TrK13-WT) plasmid as template and KEAP1toK13-KRP-Fwd (5'-GTGGGCCGCGCTGCTGCCGGTGGATTTGATGGTGTAGAATATTTAAATTCG-3') and PfKelch13-BsaI-Rev (5'-GGAGGACAAAATGGCAATGTTCTAAATTCATGTGGATTCTTTTCACCAGATACAAATGAATGGC-3') primer pairs. The two PCR products were used as templates to reconstitute KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} by overlapping PCR, which was then digested with BsaI and cloned into pPR-IBA101. Similarly, to generate pPR-IBA101 (K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}), nucleotide sequences encoding for the N-terminus of K13 was amplified from pPR-IBA101 (TrK13-WT) plasmid as template and PfKelch13-BsaI-Fwd (5'-CAAATGGGAGACCTTATGGAAGGAGAAAAGTAAAAACAAAAGCAAATAGTATCTCG-3') and K13toKEAP1-KRP-Rev (5'-GTAGATCAGGGCAGCAGCTATACAAATACTAATGGGAATGGTAAAAATTTAATACC-3') primers. Overlapping PCR, using the above two PCR products as templates, generated K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP} which then introduced to pPR-IBA101 after digestion with BsaI.

For generating recombinant Nrf2-6×his, the full length (1626 bp) transcript was amplified from cDNA library prepared from human cell line (Du145) using the primer pairs HsNrf2-XbaIFwd (5'-CACGTGTCTAGAATGATGGACTTGGAGCTGCCG-3') and HsNrf2ns-XhoIRev (5'-CCTAGGCTCGAGGTTTTTCTTAACATCTGGCTTCTTACTTTTGGG-3') and the PCR product was then digested with XbaI-XhoI and clone into similarly digested pET303-ct-his plasmid (ThermoFisher, USA) for in-frame fusion with C-terminus 6×his tag. To generate GFP expressing constructs for

mammalian cells, pAcGFP1-C1 (Addgene, USA) was used and AgeI and NheI sites considered for

inserting the gene of interest. To generate pAcGFP1-C1 (K13-GFP), pAcGFP1-C1 (KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP})

and pAcGFP1-C1 (K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}) plasmids, their pPR-IBA101 plasmids were used as

corresponding templates. For K13-GFP, the primers pairs were PfKelch13-NheI-Fwd (5'-

AAGCTTGCTAGCATGAACAGCGAGGTGTGTTCGCG-3') and PfKelch13-AgeI-Rev (5'-

AGCGCTACCGGTAGCAGCCAAATTTGCCAAGAGAATGCCGTG-3'), for generating

KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}GFP, the primer pairs were KEAP1-NheI-Fwd (5'-

AGATCTGCTAGCATGCAGCCAGATCCCAGGC-3') and PfKelch13-AgeI-Rev (5'-

AGCGCTACCGGTAGCAGCCAAATTTGCCAAGAGAATGCCGTG-3'); and for generating

K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}, PfKelch13-NheI-Fwd (5'-AAGCTTGCTAGCATGAACAGCGAGGTGTGTTCGCG-3')

and KEAP1-AAA-AgeIRev (5'-GGATCCACCGGTAGCTGCTGCACAGGTACAGTTCTGC

TGGTCAATC-3') primers were used. To generate the KEAP1 construct, pPR-IBA101 (KEAP1)

plasmid was used as the template to amplify nucleotides encoding for KEAP1-strep using KEAP1-

NheI-Fwd and Strep-XhoI-Rev (5'-GGATCCCTCGAGCTTTCTCGAACTGCGGGTGGCTCCAA-3').

The PCR amplified product was subjected to NheI-XhoI digestion and inserted into similarly digested

pAcGFP1-C1.

All constructs generated for this study were confirmed by Sanger's sequencing prior to further

experiments.

Cell culture, generation of transgenic lines and their treatments

The Du145 cell line was the kind gift from Prof. Rana Pratap Singh, SLS, JNU, India. The parental

HeLa (ab255928) and HeLa-Δ*lamp2a* (ab255402) were procured from Abcam, USA and cultured

according to the manufacturer's instructions in complete media RPMI (Gibco, USA). Cells were

transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen, USA) following the manufacturer protocol. Stable

transgenic lines were generated by G418 (0.5 mg/ml, Sigma, USA) selection. For the heme depleted

(HDM) conditions, the cells were grown in RPMI media supplemented with heme-depleted FBS and

succinyl acetone (0.5 mM, Caymanchem, USA) for 48 h. For heme-replenished media 5 μM hemin

chloride (Merck, USA) was added to the HDM. To assess *in vivo* stability of K13 protein upon heme

binding, the cells were treated with heme analogs PPIX (50 μM, Merck, USA) or Zn-PPIX (50 μM,

Merck, USA) for 48 h. Cells were also subjected to treatment either with for 48 h with ART (50 μM,

Caymanchem, USA) in presence or absence of heme.

Preparation of the heme-depleted FBS

Commercially-purchased FBS (Gibco, USA) was incubated with ascorbic acid (10 mM, SRL, India) at 37°C in a shaking incubator at 200 rpm for overnight. Spectral scans of the pre- and post-treated FBS measured to check the presence or absence of soret peak at 410 nm, respectively using JASCO UV660 spectrophotometer. Finally, the ascorbate-treated FBS was dialyzed against PBS, pH 7.4, with at least three periodic changes for 24 h at 4°C. Dialyzed FBS was filter-sterilized using 0.2 μm polyether sulfone filter (Sartorius, USA).

Assessment of cellular viability

Cell viability was assessed using 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT, Merck, USA)-based colorimetric assay. Cells at 50-60% confluency and within 72 h incubation in the 96-well cell culture plate were only considered. Following treatment, the cells incubated with 20 μl of 5 mg/ml MTT solution for 2h at 37° in the dark. Finally, the culture media was discarded and formazan crystal was dissolved with 200 μl of DMSO, and absorbance was recorded at 570 nm using a microplate reader (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Cell viability was calculated and expressed as percentage in comparison to the untreated controls. For MTT assay, the viability was calculated for six different concentrations (0, 40, 80, 120, 160 and 200 μM) in three replicates to generate the IC_{50} values for ART.

Estimation of total cellular heme content

Cells were grown up to 90-95% confluency and dislodged from the plate by treating with trypsin and were washed twice with saline PBS. Cell count was recorded prior to lysis using hemocytometer. Cells were then solubilized in five volumes of RIPA buffer for 2 h at 4°C. After a brief centrifugation, the supernatant was diluted ten times and subjected for spectrophotometric scanning at 410 nm. The absorbance was plotted against the standard curve of hemin chloride to calculate the total cellular heme content. The standard curve has been generated using gradually increasing concentration (0, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1 and 10 μM) of hemin chloride.

Nuclear and cytoplasmic fractionation of transgenic cells

Cellular fractionation into nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions was performed following previously described protocol[67]. Briefly, the cells from the 60 mm culture plates were scrapped and washed twice

with ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) pH 7.4. The cell pellets were washed, resuspended in

250 µl of ice-cold 0.2% (v/v) NP40 (HiMedia Labs, India), minced with micro-pestle, vortexed and kept

on rocker shaker for 15 mins. The resuspended pellets were then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 min

and the supernatant was collected as the cytoplasmic fraction. The pellet was then resuspended in 1

ml ice-cold 0.2% (v/v) NP40 to remove remnant cytoplasmic debris and centrifuged at same speed.

Finally, the pellet was resuspended in 200 µl ice-cold PBS and designated as the nuclear fraction.

The nuclear fraction was also briefly sonicated using micro pulser (Sonics, USA).

Indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA)

IFA was performed using the parental or transfected cell lines. Briefly, cells were initially grown on

poly-L-lysine coated coverslips and fixed using 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde/ 0.0075% (v/v)

glutaraldehyde followed by permeabilization with 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 and neutralized with 50 mM

NH_4Cl. Blocking was done using 3% (w/v) BSA. The coverslips were incubated with respective

primary antibodies (10 µg/ml) at 4°C for overnight followed by incubation in FITC- or TRITC/

Rhodamine-conjugated secondary IgG antibodies (1:200; MP biomedicals, USA). Cellular nuclei were

stained with 5 µg/ml Hoechst 33342 (Molecular Probes) and slides were mounted with DABCO. The

slides were finally visualized by SP8 confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica, Germany).

Fluorescence intensity was calculated using Image-J software (*https://imagej.net/ij/*) software by

considering 3 biological replicates for each set and each replicate containing 30 individual cells. The

RGB intensity plot and Person's correlation coefficient (PCC) was generated from the Image-J

graphics and JaCop, respectively.

SDS-PAGE and western blotting

The induced bacterial cell pellet was directly solubilized in Laemmli's sample buffer and heat

denatured for 15 min at 95ºC. For mammalian cells, following scrapping from plates, cells were

washed twice with saline PBS and solubilized in five volumes of RIPA buffer for 2 h at 4ºC. After a

brief centrifugation, the supernatant was considered as whole protein pool and boiled for 15 min at

95ºC using Laemmli's sample buffer and resolved by 8-10% SDS-PAGE followed by Coomassie or

silver staining. For subsequent western blots, resolved proteins were transferred into nitrocellulose

membrane (MDI, USA) followed by blocking with ice cold 5% (w/v) fat-free skim milk (SRL, India) for 2

h at RT. The membranes were incubated with specific primary antibodies (1:3000 to 1:5000 dilution)

for overnight at 4ºC on a platform shaker followed by subsequent washing and incubation with

respective HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:7000 to 1:10000 dilution). Blots were finally

developed by ECL assay and detected using gel imager (Bio-Rad, USA). The primary antibodies are

used in this study were: anti-GFP (Invitrogen, USA; Cloud clone, China), anti-UBQ, anti-Lamp2 and

anti-GAPDH (Cloud clone, China), anti-k13 (Custom generated, Biobharati Life Sciences[45]), anti-

Histone 3 (kind gift from Prof. Suman Kumar Dhar, SCMM, JNU, India), anti-Nrf2, anti-KEAP1, anti-

HO1, anti-NQO1, anti-MCM3, anti-DPP3 and anti-TRAF2 (ABclonal, Woburn), anti-His and

streptavidin-HRP (BioBharati Life Sciences, India), and anti-HA. The subsequent HRP conjugated

secondary antibodies used in this study were goat anti-rabbit (Bio-Rad, USA), goat anti-mouse, goat

anti-rat (MP biomedicals, USA). Band intensity was calculated from Image-J (*https://imagej.net/ij/*)

software by considering 3 individual blots for each data set.

530 Purification of recombinant protein and *in vitro* trypsin digestion

Recombinant Trk13-WT, KEAP1, $K13^N KEAP1^{KRP}$ and $KEAP1^N K13^{KRP}$ proteins as C-terminus fusion

with strep tag and Nrf2-6×his were purified from isopropyl-1-thio-β-D-galactopyranoside (IPTG, SRL,

India) and arabinose (0.2%, SRL, India) induced bacterial pellet. Briefly, the induced bacterial pellet

was lysed using lysozyme (SRL, India), sonicated and washed thrice with 2% (w/v) sodium

deoxycholate (SRL, India) to purify inclusion bodies (IBs). The IBs was dissolved into 2 M urea, 50

mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 12.5 and then dialyzed against buffer W (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH

8). Dialyzed solution was kept for binding to StrepTactin XT Superflow resin (IBA, Germany) for

Trk13-WT, KEAP1, $K13^N KEAP1^{KRP}$ and $KEAP1^N K13^{KRP}$ and Ni-NTA resin (Thermo, USA) for Nrf2-

6×his. Purified proteins were dialyzed overnight at 4°C against buffer W with at least three periodic

changes. Purity of each protein was checked by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie staining and further

confirmed by western blotting using commercial antibodies against the 6×his tag, strep tag (Biobharati

Life Sciences) or custom-generated anti-K13.

For *in vitro* trypsin digestion, 10 µg of recombinant TrK13-WT or commercially procured BSA (A3294,

Sigma, USA) was incubated with or without equimolar concentrations of heme in buffer W for 1 h.

Samples were desalted as described in our earlier study[22], and treated with 0.5 µg trypsin (T6567,

Sigma-Aldrich) for different incubation times. Following digestions, Laemmli's sample buffer was

immediately added to each sample, boiled for 15 min at 95°C and processed for SDS-PAGE and

Coomassie staining.

In vitro **protein-protein interactions**

The purified recombinant Nrf2-6×his (10 µM) was incubated with Ni-NTA beads for overnight and

washed thrice with buffer W containing 30 mM imidazole. The Ni-NTA bound recombinant Nrf2-6×his

was then incubated with purified recombinant TrK13-WT (10 µM) in buffer W for 4 h at RT. The beads

were thoroughly washed with buffer W, and Ni-NTA-bound proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE

followed by Coomassie staining or western blot using antibodies against the 6×his tag, strep-tag

(Biobharati Life Sciences) or custom-generated anti-K13. For experiments involving the interactions

between heme-bound or heme-free recombinant TrK13-WT and Nrf2-6×his, the TrK13-WT was

preincubated with heme (0 or 10 µM) at RT for 1 h at room temperature (RT) and desalted using PD

Spintrap™ G-25 columns (Cytiva) to remove excess unbound heme.

Hemin agarose binding

Affinity-purified recombinant Trk13-WT, KEAP1, K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}and KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} proteins (10 µM)

were incubated with 50 µl suspensions of 50% v/v hemin-agarose (Merck, USA) beads for 1 h at RT

in buffer W, pH 8, under rotating conditions, followed by five washes with ten volumes of buffer W to

remove unbound proteins. The hemin-agarose beads were then solubilized in Laemmli's sample

buffer, resolved by SDS-PAGE, and visualized by Coomassie staining. For assessing hemin-agarose

binding from transgenic cellular lysates, the total cell pellet was resuspended in 5 volumes of ice-cold

RIPA buffer complemented with 1X protease inhibitor cocktail (cOmplete, Roche) and incubated at

rotating wheel for 1 h. After centrifugation (15 mins, 21,100 × g, 4°C), the supernatant containing

soluble proteins fractions was incubated with hemin agarose beads for 4 h. Unbound proteins in the

lysates were washed with ten volumes of RIPA buffer and bound fractions were then solubilized in

Laemmli's sample buffer and subjected to western blotting using anti-strep tag antibody (Biobharati

Life Sciences).

Co-immunoprecipitation

Protein A beads (IBA Life Sciences, Germany) were incubated with 10 µg of respective primary

antibodies for 4 h at 4 ˚C under rotating conditions and unbound antibodies were removed by

extensive washes with pre-cooled PBS. Mammalian cells were harvested, lysed with five volumes of

RIPA buffer supplemented with 1 mM PMSF (Thermo, USA) and protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)

and centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 15 min at 4ºC to remove the cell debris. Clarified lysates were then

incubated with antibody-coated protein A beads (30-50 µl, 50% v/v resuspension) for overnight at 4ºC

under rotating conditions. Following binding, unbound lysates were removed and the beads washed

twice with RIPA buffer and twice with ice-cold saline PBS. Beads were boiled with Laemmli's sample

buffer for 15 min at 95°C and processed for western blotting.

Total RNA, cDNA synthesis, and real time RT qPCR

The total RNA was isolated by Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, USA). Briefly, cell pellets was washed twice

with PBS and homogenized using 500 µl of Trizol reagent. The supernatants were isolated after a

brief centrifugation, mixed with 300 µl chloroform and incubated at RT. After centrifugation at 13,000 ×

g for 15 min at 4ºC, the upper aqueous phase was removed and 500 µl isopropanol added. Following

incubation for 30 min at RT, the tubes were centrifuged at 13,000 × g for 15 min at 4ºC. The pellet

was washed twice with 70% ethanol and finally dissolved in TE. Samples were treated with DNase I

enzyme (Thermo scientific, USA) to remove genomic DNA contamination. The quantity and quality of

RNA was estimated using Bio spectrophotometer (Eppendorf, Germany) and agarose-formamide gel

electrophoresis. Approximately 1 µg of total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis using PrimeScript 1st

strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara-Bio, Japan) following manufacturer's protocol. For real time RT-

qPCR analyses, 2 µl of ten-fold diluted stock solution of cDNA samples was used. To perform RT-

qPCR analyses, primers were designed based on the coding sequence of specific genes using Oligo

Analyzer software (*https://eurofinsgenomics.eu/en/ecom/tools/oligo-analysis/*). Primers pairs were

HsHO1_RT_Fwd (5'-ATGACACCAAGGACCAGAGC-3') and HsHO1_RT_Rev   (5'-

GCATAAAGCCCTACAGCAACT-3'); HsNQO1_RT_Fwd (5'-CCTTCCGGAGTAAGAAGGCAG-3') and

HsNQO1_RT_Rev (5'-TCCAGGCGTTTCTTCCATCC-3'); HsTXNRD1_RT_Fwd   (5'-

GGAACTAGATGGGGTCTCGG-3') and HsTXNRD1_RT_Rev   (5'-TCTTGCAGGGCTTGTCCTAA-

3'). RT-qPCR analyses were performed by using HOTFIRE Pol EvaGreen qPCR Mix Plus (ROX)

(Solis BioDyne, USA) and Step one plus system (Applied biosystem, USA). To confirm the absence of

any primer dimers in the amplified products, a standard melting curve analysis was conducted.

Primers for *gapdh*   included HsGAPDH_RT_Fwd (5'-CAGGAGGCATTGCTGATGAT-3') and

HsGAPDH_RT_Rev (5'-GAAGGCTGGGGCTCATTT-3') as reference. Relative fold change was

calculated by $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Statistical validation

607   One-way ANOVA was carried out to test significance in difference considering at least three biological

608   replicates using GraphPad prism 10. The adjusted p values (p.adj $\leq$ 0.001) were obtained via Tukey's

609   HSD.

Author contributions

Conceptualization Ideas: S.D., K.H., S.B.[1] and S.B.[2].

Methodology: S.D., M.F.

Validation: S.D.

Investigation: S.D.

Resources: S.B.[1], S.B.[2], K.H.

Writing: S.D., K.H., S.B.[1]

Supervision: K.H., S.B.[1]

Project Administration: S.B.[1]

Funding acquisition: S.B.[1]

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Funding sources and disclosure of conflicts of interest

628   The authors declare that the funding source(s) had no role in the study design, data collection,

629   analyses, and interpretation, and in the decision to submit the article for publication. The authors also

630   declare that they have no competing interests related to this manuscript.

Data availability

The authors declare that the source data supporting the findings of this study are available within the

paper and the associated supplementary information files (Supplementary Figures 1-4).

Materials & Correspondence

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Figure and figure legends

Fig. 1

Fig. 1. Heme stabilizes K13-GFP and confers *in vitro* resistance to trypsin digestion. a. Western

blots (top) and densitometric analysis (bottom) for K13-GFP under HDM condition or when

supplemented with increasing concentrations of heme. GAPDH is the loading control. **b.** IFA images

(left) and mean fluorescence intensity plot (MFI, right) of K13-GFP cells under control, HDM or 5 µM

heme-supplemented conditions. Scale bar, 5 µm. **c.** Western blot (left) and quantitative densitometric

analysis (right) of K13-GFP band intensity under HDM condition (lane 1), or upon supplementation

with heme analogs PPIX (lane 2), Zn-PPIX (lane 3) or increasing concentrations (µM) of heme (lanes

4-7). Values in parenthesis indicate concentrations (in µM). **d.** Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE

showing trypsin-digested fragments (blue arrowheads) derived from the full length (FL, black

arrowhead) recombinant K13 (TrK13-WT) in heme-free (lanes 2-4) and heme-bound TrK13-WT (lanes

6-8) protein. The heme-free and heme-bound TrK13-WT protein without trypsin treatment are shown

in lanes 1 and 5, respectively. **e.** Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE showing trypsin-digested fragments

(blue arrowheads) derived from the recombinant FL TrK13-WT protein (black arrowhead) when

preincubated with heme analogs PPIX, Zn-PPIX, FAS or FES (lanes 4, 6, 8 and 10, respectively) and

not by the heme-bound TrK13-WT (lane 2) protein. Lanes 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9 represent samples with no

trypsin treatment. Molecular weight standards (M) for all SDS-PAGE and western blots (in kDa) are as

indicated. Graphs represent mean from three biological replicates ± SE. Statistical significance

calculated by one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent significant difference at p.adj ≤ 0.05.

Fig. 2

Fig. 2. Heme alters the level and dynamics of the redox reporter Nrf2 in K13-GFP-expressing

cells. a. i. Western blots showing immunoprecipitated K13-GFP (top) and the co-associated Nrf2

(bottom) protein from K13-GFP cells cultured in HDM or in the presence of different concentrations of

heme. **ii.** Total Nrf2 (top) and GAPDH (bottom, as loading control) in the cellular lysates for conditions

in a. **b.** Graphical densitometric analyses of K13-GFP, total Nrf2 and co-purified Nrf2 for data shown

in a. **c.** Western blots (left) and graphical densitometric analysis (right) showing reduced co-

purification of the heme-bound (lane 4) recombinant K13 (TrK13-WT) by the recombinant Nrf2-6×his

protein (pre-bound to Ni-NTA beads) as compared to the heme-free TrK13-WT protein (lane 3) .

Lanes 1 and 2 indicate TrK13-WT input and the Ni-NTA bound Nrf2-6×his protein, respectively. Lanes

5 and 6 show no nonspecific binding of heme-free or heme-bound TrK13-WT protein to the Ni-NTA

beads, respectively. **d.** IFA images showing increased levels of K13-GFP (green) fluorescence and

nuclear localization of Nrf2 (red; right panel) in the K13-GFP[HEME] cells (right). In K13-GFP[HDM] cells

(right), the Nrf2 fluorescence distribution was predominantly cytoplasmic. Scale bar, 5 μm. **e.**

Western blots and graphical densitometric quantitation for cytoplasmic and nuclear fractionation of

Nrf2 in K13-GFP[HDM] and K13-GFP[HEME] cells. **f.** RT-qPCR data showing relative expression of stress-

response genes in K13-GFP[HDM] cells and K13-GFP[HEME] cells. Molecular weight (in kDa) are as

indicated. Error bars represent mean of three technical replicates ± SE. Statistical significance was

calculated by one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent significant difference at p.adj ≤ 0.05.

Fig. 3

Fig. 3. Signature motifs of autophagy in K13 and heme-dependent co-association with LAMP2A. a. Schematic showing the distribution of 18 putative KFERQ-like motifs in different domains of K13, as identified by KFERQ finder v0.8 (*https://rshine.einsteinmed.edu*). NTR, N-terminus domain; CCD, coiled-coil domain; BTB-POZ, Broad-complex, tramtrack and bric-a-brac (BTB)-poxvirus and zinc-finger (POZ) domain. b-c. IFA images (left) and RGB intensity plots (right) showing the extent of colocalization between K13-GFP (green) and LAMP2A (red) in K13-GFP[HDM] (b) and K13-GFP[HEME]

684   cells (c). Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) values for the selected region (white bar) is indicated

685   in red text. Magnified image of the white-dotted boxed region for respective cell is also shown.

686   Schematic in b represents proposed association of K13 with lysosomes based on the inset

687   magnification. Scale bar, 5 µm is shown at the bottom of each image. Cell nucleus (blue) stained with

688   Hoechst 33342.

Fig. 4

Fig. 4. Reduction or knockout of LAMP2A decreases degradation of K13-GFP under HDM

conditions. a. In Du145 cells, IFA images and RGB intensity plots (with PCC values) showing relative

colocalization between K13-GFP (green) and LAMP2A (red) in K13-GFP^{HDM} cells in the absence (i) or

presence (ii) of ATRA (inhibitor of LAMP2A expression) compared to K13-GFP^{HEME} cells (iii).

Corresponding fluorescence and merged images were acquired under identical optics and exposure

conditions. **b.** Western blots (i) and fold change (ii-iii) for LAMP2A (top), K13-GFP (middle) in the

absence or presence of ATRA in cells expressing K13-GFP^{HDM} (lanes 1-2) or K13-GFP^{HEME} (lanes 3-

4). GAPDH (bottom) was the loading control. **c.** In HeLa cells, IFA images (left), and graphical MFI

(right) of K13-GFP fluorescence (green) in transgenic $\Delta lamp2a^{K13\text{-}GFP}$ and parental HeLa$^{K13\text{-}GFP}$ cells

under HDM (-) or heme-supplemented (+) conditions. **d.** Western blots (top) and graphical fold

change of K13-GFP (top) in transgenic $\Delta lamp2a^{K13\text{-}GFP}$ (lanes 1-2) and parental HeLa (lanes 3-4) cells

under HDM (lanes 2 and 4) or heme-supplemented (lanes 1 and 3) conditions. GAPDH was the

loading control. Scale bar for IFA images, 5 µm. Boxed (white dotted) images are magnified in sub-

panel. For all statistical analyses, each bar denotes the mean from three technical replicates ± SE.

Statistical significance was calculated by one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent difference at

p.adj ≤ 0.05. Molecular weight (in kDa) for all blots are as indicated.

Fig. 5

Fig. 5. The K13 KRP domain confers heme-dependent stability and heme-binding characteristics to KEAP1. a. Schematics for domain organization in K13, KEAP1, K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP} and KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP} chimeric proteins. NTR, N-terminus domain; CCD, coiled-coil domain; BTB-POZ, Broad-complex, tramtrack and bric-a-brac (BTB)-poxvirus and zinc-finger (POZ) domain; IVR, intervening region. b. Western blot detecting K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP and KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP (arrowhead) chimeras in transgenic Du145 cells. Loading control is GAPDH. c. IFA images and mean

fluorescence intensity (MFI) of K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP}-GFP and KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP cells cultured under

HDM or heme-repleted conditions. Nuclei stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue), scale bar, 5 μm.

Respective boxed (white dotted) regions are magnified and shown below. **d-e.** Western blots (left)

and densitometric fold change (right) in KEAP1^{N}K13^{KRP}-GFP (d) and K13^{N}KEAP1^{KRP} (e) protein band

intensities under HDM, heme-repleted or heme precursor aminolevulinic acid (ALA)-containing HDM

conditions. **f-g.** Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE (f) and western blots (g) showing hemin agarose

binding by indicated KEAP1-K13 recombinant proteins or chimeras (f) or from respective transgenic

Du145 cellular lysates (g). Percentage binding (as compared to the total input) is shown graphically.

Molecular weights (in kDa) for SDS-PAGE and western blots are as indicated. Error bars in the

graphs represent mean of three technical replicates ± SE. Statistical significance was calculated by

one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent significant difference at p.adj ≤ 0.05.

Fig. 6

Fig. 6. Dynamics of heme, Nrf2, ART and redox sensitivity in Du145 cells expressing K13. a.
IC$_{50}$ values (μM, i) and change in percentage sensitivity to ART (right, ii) in respective transgenic
Du145 cell lines on supplementation with 5 μM heme. **b.** Western blots (i) and quantitative
densitometric analysis (versus GAPDH, ii) for K13-GFP (top) and Nrf2 (middle) in K13-GFP^{HDM} (lanes

1 and 2) and K13-GFP^{HEME} (lanes 3 and 4) cells in the absence (lanes 1 and 3) or presence (lanes 2

and 4) of ART. GAPDH (bottom) is the loading control. **c.** Western blots (i) and graphical

densitometric quantitation (ii) for cytoplasmic and nuclear fractionation of K13-GFP and Nrf2 in K13-

GFP^{HDM} and K13-GFP^{HEME} cells in the presence of ART. Molecular weight (in kDa) are as indicated.

Error bars in a-c represent mean of three technical replicates ± SE. Statistical significance was

calculated by one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent significant difference at p.adj ≤ 0.05. **d.**

Model for dynamics of Nrf2 binding by free K13, its displacement by heme and K13-heme mediated

activation of ART to induce (i) a pro-survival and (ii) pro-death responses in K13-expressing Du145

cells.

Fig. 7

Fig. 7. ART sensitivity is increased proportional to K13 intensity. a. IC$_{50}$ values (µM) for GFP and K13-GFP cells in presence or absence of ATRA or heme (5 µM). **b.** Effect of heme (5 µM) and ATRA on percentage change in ART sensitivity in cells expressing GFP (grey bars) or K13-GFP (black bars). **c.** Graph showing the percentage change in ART sensitivity as a function of K13/GAPDH intensity ratio under HDM (solid black circles) or 5 µM heme-repleted (solid red circles) conditions in transgenic Du145 and HeLa cells. Black dotted trendline and R-squared values are indicated. Description of cells is shown at the bottom. Numbers only and numbers followed by initial 'H' indicate cells cultured under HDM or 5 µM heme-repleted conditions, respectively. **d.** Graph showing change in percentage sensitivity to ART at extracellular 5 µM (grey) and 50 µM (black) heme in the repleted media. Error bars in a, b and d represent mean of three technical replicates ± SE. Statistical

752   significance was calculated by one-way Anova. Distinct alphabets represent significant difference at

753   p.adj ≤ 0.05.

Fig. 8

Fig. 8. Models for K13-heme binding and ART activation with implications for *P. falciparum*. a.
ART induced pro-death mechanisms and their possible modulation in rings and trophozoites. Our
primary conclusion is for **K13 in cycle 1** (bold lines), where K13 binds heme and becomes stabilized
at cytoplasmic face of endosomal (Type I, rings; or Type II, trophozoites) micropore membranes. For
both stages, heme may come from mitochondrial and extracellular sources, while in trophozoites, the
food vacuole may also contribute. K13-heme activates (ART*) to heme-ART* adducts, which
dissociate from K13 and whose toxicity to a wide range of cellular targets, triggers a pro-death
response in the parasite. Heme-free K13 may re-cycle back to resume heme binding and re-initiate

cycle 1 and reinforce death outcomes. **K13 cycle 2** may be initiated if a (yet hypothetical) parasite redox factor (PRF) binds K13 and becomes suppressed until heme-binding dislodges the PRF to activate ART and pro-death effects, acting additively with cycle 1. **K13 cycle 3** may be initiated upon K13 displacement of PRF to trigger pro-survival responses and reduce pro-death effects of cycles 1 and 2. **b-c.** K13-heme is catalytic for ART activation in trophozoites. K13 (dark blue) concentrates at cytostome structures that enable hemoglobin digestion and liberation of free heme (filled red circles) in the food vacuole, b. Existing models propose that free heme (red circle) activates ART (black star) to toxic heme-ART adducts (dark brown hybrid star-circle) in the food vacuole (see red box). In c, we propose that heme (red circles) from the food vacuole and other sources (like the mitochondria) transported to the parasite bind K13 (solid blue spheres) concentrated at the cytostome, which greatly stimulates formation of activated ART (ART*), and toxic heme-ART adducts (brown complexes in bold red box) compared to encounters of ART with free heme in the food vacuole.

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