Plasmodium falciparum diacylglycerol acyltransferase maintains phospholipid homeostasis to regulate sexual differentiation, ER stress, and cytoadhesion

Minako Yoshida[1,2,3], Junpei Fukumoto[4,*], Shinya Miyazaki[5,#], Megumi Tanaka[1,#], Suzumi M. Tokuoka[6,#], Hideru Obinata[7,#], Takaya Sakura[1,2,8], Yoko Onizuka[9], Daniel Ken Inaoka[1,2,8,10], Kiyoshi Kita[2,8,10], Kazuhide Yahata[11], Eizo Takashima[4], Hideo Shindou[12,13], Fuyuki Tokumasu[8,9,*]

[1]Department of Molecular Infection Dynamics, Shionogi Global Infectious Diseases Division, Institute of Tropical Medicine (NEKKEN), Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
[2]Department of Infection Biochemistry, Institute of Tropical Medicine (NEKKEN), Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
[3]Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
[4]Division of Malaria Research, Proteo-Science Center, Ehime University, Ehime 790-8577, Japan
[5]Department of Protozoology, Institute of Tropical Medicine (NEKKEN), Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
[6]Department of Lipidomics, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan
[7]Core Facility Management and Technical Collaboration Center, Gunma University, Gunma 371-8511, Japan
[8]School of Tropical Medicine and Global Health, Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
[9]Department of Laboratory Sciences, Graduate School of Health Sciences, Gunma University, Gunma 371-8514, Japan
[10]Department of Biomedical Chemistry, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan
[11]Division of Molecular Parasitology, Proteo-Science Center, Ehime University, Ehime 791-0295, Japan
[12] Department of Lipid Life Science, National Institute of Global Health and Medicine, Japan Institute for Health Security, Tokyo 162-8655, Japan
[13]Department of Medical Lipid Science, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-8654, Japan

*Corresponding Authors: Junpei Fukumoto, Ph.D.

Division of Malaria Research,
Proteo-Science Center,
Ehime University,
Ehime 790-8577, Japan
TEL: +81-89-927-8277
Email: fukumoto.jumpei.fk@ehime-u.ac.jp

*Corresponding Authors: Fuyuki Tokumasu, Ph.D.

Department of Laboratory Sciences,
Graduate School of Health Sciences,
Gunma University,
Gunma 371-8514, Japan
TEL: +81-27-220-8915

42   Email: ftokumasu@gunma-u.ac.jp

45   #Equally contributing authors.

47   Keywords: *Plasmodium falciparum*; Diacylglycerol acyltransferase; Lipid droplet; Sexual

48   differentiation; ER stress; Cytoadhesion; DiCre recombinase-based conditional knockout

Abstract

Plasmodium falciparum is the causative agent of human malaria, a life-threating infectious

disease that imposes a major global health burden. Lipid metabolism is indispensable for

this parasite's replication and survival, yet most of the molecular components and

mechanisms involved remain poorly understood. In eukaryotes, lipid droplets (LDs) serve as

dynamic organelles that store neutral lipids (NLs), buffer lipotoxic stress, and regulate

signaling pathways, with their biogenesis controlled by diacylglycerol o-acyltransferases

(DGATs). Although *P. falciparum* encodes a putative DGAT, its role in the parasite life cycle

has not been elucidated. We generated conditional PfDGAT-knockout parasites to

investigate the enzyme's functional significance. PfDGAT deficiency led to parasite death,

accompanied by reduced LD formation, elevated phospholipid levels, and induction of ER

stress. Moreover, PfDGAT deletion altered protein trafficking, resulting in the decreased

cytoadherence of parasite-infected erythrocytes to human brain microvascular endothelial

cells, and suppressed parasite sexual differentiation. Thus, PfDGAT deletion affected

multiple aspects of the parasite's life cycle, highlighting its critical role in parasite survival

and pathogenesis. Our findings provide new insights into parasite lipid homeostasis and

highlight DGAT as a potential target of antimalarial intervention.

Introduction

Malaria parasites invade erythrocytes and undergo exponential proliferation during

intraerythrocytic developmental cycles, producing dozens of daughter merozoites within a

single round. This proliferative process greatly expands the parasite membrane surface area,

necessitating a large supply of phospholipid species. Although the parasites can incorporate

certain lipids from the host and external environment, the availability of de novo-synthesized

and stored phospholipids is essential for their ability to adapt to rapid fluctuations in lipid

content while maintaining an appropriate lipid composition[1-3]. The sexual differentiation of

the parasite into the gametocyte stage also requires a characteristic lipid profile. Therefore,

lipid synthesis is important for their survival in the bloodstream, subsequent uptake by

mosquitos, and adaptation to the new environment within the mosquito[4-6].

The relative composition of lipid species directly determines both the biophysical properties

and biological functions of cellular membranes, including the maintenance of membrane

integrity, the formation of vesicles and their fusion to a target membrane, and the functional

activities of membrane proteins. Lipid species with various acyl chain lengths and head

groups have distinct molecular shapes and exhibit different intermolecular interactions, and

thereby generate membrane lipid heterogeneities characteristic to specific cell types and

organelles. In vesicular protein trafficking, the budding and fusion of small vesicles involve

the formation of an intermediate structure ("hemifusion") characterized by negative

membrane curvature[7,8]. To generate and maintain such curvature, phospholipids with small

head groups, such as phosphatidylserine (PS), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE),

phosphatidic acid, and the more rectangular diacylglycerol (DAG), must be present at

defined concentrations to enable efficient hemifusion[9,10]. A comprehensive understanding of

the enzymes that synthesize these lipid classes, which are critical determinants of vesicle

formation, is crucial, as proper protein trafficking cannot otherwise be explained.

Triacylglycerols (TAGs), a major group of NLs, constitute the core of lipid droplets (LDs),

together with cholesteryl esters[11,12]. Although LDs primarily function as reservoirs of NLs,

they also protect against lipotoxicity by ameliorating ER stress, serve as principal sites of

metabolite flux, act as nutrient sensors through LD-localizing proteins, and form membrane

contact sites (MCSs) with other organelles[13]. These functions are essential for maintaining

cellular homeostasis[14]. In eukaryotes, TAGs are synthesized in two ways: acyl chain

incorporation into DAG from the *de novo* phospholipid synthesis (Kennedy) pathway,

catalyzed by diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT), and (acyl-CoA-independent) acyl chain

transfer from phospholipids to DAG by phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferase[15].

Mammals possess two DGAT enzymes, DGAT1 and DGAT2, which share no sequence

homology but compensate for each other functionally. Both enzymes are localized to the ER,

while DGAT2 is also localized to LDs[16]. DGAT1 has relatively broad substrate specificity,

enabling it to act on several substrates[17], whereas DGAT2 functions primarily as the

canonical DGAT enzyme catalyzing TAG synthesis. DGAT2-knockout mice exhibit impaired

skin barrier function, leading to postnatal death, and display a decrease in carcass TAG

levels of up to 90%[18]. By contrast, DGAT1-knockout mice survive, maintain a lean body

mass, and are resistant to high-fat-diet-induced obesity[19]. In murine embryonic fibroblasts,

DGAT1 deficiency, which impaired TAG synthesis, promotes oleate-induced lipotoxicity[20].

P. falciparum database homology searches have identified a single putative DGAT gene,

designated *Pfdgat* (PF3D7_0322300). The PfDGAT protein shares sequence similarity with

human DGAT1 at the amino acid level, but not with DGAT2. It has been predicted to be

essential based on a double-crossover recombination study and piggyBac genome-wide

screening[21,22]. In addition, ghosts of *P. falciparum*-infected erythrocytes, as well as the

heterologous expression of PfDGAT in CHO cells, demonstrated diacylglycerol

acyltransferase activity, suggesting that PfDGAT may function as a DGAT enzyme in

malaria parasites[21,23]. However, the detailed role of PfDGAT in parasite biology remains

unexplored.

We therefore generated a conditional PfDGAT-knockout parasite and demonstrated that this

enzyme is essential for asexual proliferation. Loss of PfDGAT led to elevated phospholipid

levels, which likely suppressed parasite sexual differentiation. In addition, PfDGAT

dysfunction triggered ER stress, impaired protein trafficking, and prevented parasite

cytoadherence to brain microvascular endothelial cells. The broad impacts of this

single-gene knockout highlight the importance of the coordinated maintenance of both

glycerol backbones and fatty acid chains in *P. falciparum* biology.

Results

PfDGAT possesses conserved DGAT1 motifs and the membrane bound

***O*-acyltransferase motif**

The amino acid sequence of PfDGAT was shown to share 24%–30% similarity with DGAT1s

from mammals, flies, nematodes, and plants, but no significant similarity to the DGAT2s

from these organisms[21]. To assess the spatial similarity between PfDGAT and human

DGAT1 (HsDGAT1), we superimposed the predicted three-dimensional conformations (Fig.

1a). Multiple structural regions overlapped between the two proteins, including the

FYXDWWN and the SXXXHEY motifs, both of which are highly conserved among DGAT1

enzymes and essential for catalytic function[24,25,26]. By contrast, the N-terminal intrinsically

disordered region (IDR) of HsDGAT1 (residues 1–94) had no corresponding region in

PfDGAT, which instead possessed its own distinct IDR between residues 158 and 220 (Fig.

1a). The FYXDWWN and SXXXHEY motifs are conserved in DGATs from *Plasmodium*

species but absent in those from the other apicomplexan parasites *Toxoplasma gondii* and

Cryptosporidium parvum (Fig. 1b). This suggests that these organisms either possess

unidentified DGAT(s) or their DGATs feature unique catalytic motifs.

DGAT1 is a member of the membrane-bound *O*-acyltransferase (MBOAT) family

characterized by distinct sequence motifs[27,28]. In mammals, DGAT1 contains the MBOAT

motif B, characterized by the conserved amino acid sequence "WNI", whereas the other

MBOAT motifs (A, C, and D) are not present[27]. PfDGAT was found to possess WNL at the

corresponding position (Fig. 1b), suggesting that PfDGAT belongs to the MBOAT family,

similar to mammalian DGAT1.

PfDGAT is essential for asexual replication and stage transition in *P. falciparum*

To investigate the physiological roles of PfDGAT, which is predicted to function in the

Kennedy pathway (Fig. 2a), we generated conditional knockout parasite lines

(*Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA) with the dimerizable Cre recombinase (DiCre) system (Fig. 2b)[29,30]. We

constructed a plasmid to conditionally remove the *Pfdgat* sequences, including regions

encoding the FYXDWWN and SXXXHEY motifs, in a rapamycin-dependent manner by

flanking them with LoxP sites. The plasmid was incorporated into the parasite genome

utilizing the selection-linked integration (SLI) method,[31] and its incorporation was verified by

diagnostic PCR (Fig. 2c). To confirm whether the conditional knockout system would

function in the established parasite lines, PCR and western blotting were performed (Fig.

2d,e). DNA band shifts were observed in rapamycin-treated *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12

clonal lines, which indicated that the *Pfdagt* locus flanked by LoxP sites was excised from

the genome (Fig. 2d). Western blot analysis revealed a substantial decrease in PfDGAT

expression levels after 24 hours of rapamycin treatment in both clonal lines (Fig. 2e). The

loss of PfDGAT in the two synchronized clonal lines resulted in significantly slower growth

from day 6 after rapamycin treatment (Fig. 2f). This demonstrated that *Pfdgat* is essential for

parasite growth in the erythrocytic stages, consistent with previous reports[21,22]. The

Pfdgat:LoxPint:HA B10 clonal line was used for further analyses, as no obvious differences

were observed between B10 and G12 clones in terms of gene knockout efficiency or growth

kinetics.

To investigate the stage-dependent effect of PfDGAT deficiency, we tightly synchronized

parasites within a 0–4 hour window and monitored their growth over time following

rapamycin treatment (Fig. 2g–i). At 96 hours post-infection (hpi), slightly condensed and

pyknotic parasites were observed in the rapamycin-treated (+Rap) group, and their

proportion had increased to approximately 50% by 168 hpi. No obvious shifts in parasite

stages were observed, even at 192 hpi, suggesting that *Pfdgat* deletion had negative effects

on all parasite stages or no specific stage-dependent effects.

In mammalian cells and yeast, DGAT family proteins localize at the ER membrane.

Ectopically expressed PfDGAT was shown to colocalize with ER-resident chaperone

proteins calnexin on the ER[1], but it is not clear if PfDGAT naturally localizes at the ER. This

encouraged us to investigate the subcellular localization of PfDGAT in *P. falciparum*.

Immunofluorescence assay (IFA) showed that PfDGAT colocalized with the ER-resident

chaperone protein BiP on the ER of the parasite throughout the asexual stage (Fig. 2j),

indicating that PfDGAT functions at the ER, as seen for the other DGAT family proteins, in

processes such as LD biogenesis.

PfDGAT deficiency led to a reduction in NL level and induced ER stress in the parasite

Previous reports have described that erythrocytes parasitized with *P. falciparum* and

mammalian cells expressing humanized PfDGAT exhibit DGAT activity, synthesizing TAGs

from DAGs[1,21]. To determine whether PfDGAT is functionally involved in TAG synthesis

within the parasite, we stained NL-rich compartments, such as LDs, with LipidTOX and

monitored NL levels in PfDGAT-deficient parasites at 96, 144, and 192 hpi. As sterol esters

are absent in malaria parasites[32], the LipidTOX signal primarily reflects the TAG content. At

96 and 144 hpi, +Rap and rapamycin-untreated (−Rap) parasites showed comparable levels

of NL; however, +Rap parasites exhibited a significant reduction in NL levels at 192 hpi (Fig.

3a, b). This suggests that PfDGAT is capable of synthesizing TAG within the parasite during

its asexual stage.

Following the decrease in TAG levels in PfDGAT-deficient parasites, available acyl-CoAs

are no longer used for TAG synthesis. This shift results in an abnormal phospholipid-to-NL

ratio or a disruption of the equilibrium between free fatty acids (FFA) and acyl-CoAs,

ultimately leading to an elevated FFA level in the ER, as reported elsewhere[33] (Fig. S1, S2).

This may trigger ER stress, which could ultimately lead to parasite death, as demonstrated

by the growth assay (Fig. 2f). To confirm whether ER stress is induced in *Pfdgat*-deleted

parasites, we investigated the phosphorylation levels of *Plasmodium falciparum* eukaryotic

initiation factor 2α (PfeIF2α), a marker of ER stress[34,35]. At 216 hpi, +Rap parasites showed

higher levels of phosphorylated PfeIF2α (P-PfeIF2α) than –Rap (Fig. 3c), suggesting

PfDGAT deficiency promoted ER stress in the parasite.

PfDGAT deficiency altered the triacylglycerol and phospholipid profiles in the

parasite

To investigate the effect of PfDGAT on triacylglycerol and phospholipid profiles, we

performed lipidomic analyses on +Rap and –Rap *Pfdgat*:LoxPint:HA parasites at 78 hpi. The

relative fractions of TAG species were altered in +Rap parasites. Specifically,

TAG(49:0)–FA(16:0) and TAG(50:1)–FA(18:0) were present in reduced proportions relative

to the total TAG levels, while 11 other TAG species were present in increased proportions

(Fig. 4a–c). The elevated TAG species contained at least one polyunsaturated fatty acid

(PUFA), suggesting that PUFAs were less susceptible to hydrolysis than saturated fatty

acids in the PfDGAT-deficient parasites, although TAG lipase activity has not yet been

characterized in terms of its function and substrate preference. In contrast, total TAG levels

were comparable between +Rap and –Rap parasites at 78 hpi (Fig. S1a), consistent with the

NL staining (Fig. 3a, b).

Seven classes of phospholipids were detected in our analysis: lysophosphatidylcholine

(LPC), phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylserine (PS),

phosphatidylinositol (PI), sphingomyelin (SM), and hydroxysphingomyelin (hSM). We

analyzed the relative abundance of individual species within each phospholipid class in

relation to the total amount of that class, thereby identifying which species were altered by

Pfdgat deletion. In +Rap parasites, most PC species showed an increased relative

abundance compared with total phospholipids (Fig. S1a), a trend also observed in SM and

hSM species (Fig. S1e). By contrast, PE species containing fatty acids with a total carbon

number of 32 to 38 (PE(32–38:n)) were depleted, except for PE(38:2) and PE(38:7),

whereas PE(40:n) species increased (Fig. S1b). Similarly, PS species abundance was

reduced in +Rap parasites (Fig. S1d). The relative abundance of PI species was largely

unaffected, although the number of detectable PI species was lower than in other

phospholipid classes.

Following our investigation of relative abundance, we next examined the total abundance of

each lipid class, including TAG. The total abundance of all phospholipid classes was

markedly elevated in +Rap parasites, whereas TAG levels remained unchanged (Fig.

S2a–h). These results indicate that PfDGAT deficiency exerts an impact on phospholipid

metabolism before influencing TAG.

PfDGAT deficiency abolished gametocytogenesis without effecting gametocyte

development

Our previous study demonstrated that NL levels were elevated in *P. falciparum*

gametocytes[4]. This prompted us to investigate the physiological function(s) of PfDGAT in

the gametocyte. To explore the effect of PfDGAT on gametocyte development,

gametocytemia was monitored between days 12 and 15 (mid- to late-gametocytogenesis

period) following rapamycin treatment on day 9 (Fig. 5a). Although *Pfdgat* was successfully

excised from the genome (Fig. 5b), gametocytemia in +Rap parasites remained comparable

to that of –Rap parasites (Fig. 5c). Additionally, no obvious differences in gametocyte stage

distribution were observed between +Rap and –Rap parasites (Fig. 5d). This suggests that

PfDGAT is dispensable for the maturation of gametocytes.

Given the elevated levels of intracellular LPC and other phospholipids in +Rap parasites (Fig.

S2b), we investigated gametocyte conversion in the PfDGAT-deficient parasite, as

extracellular LPC is known to suppress this process[36]. Highly synchronized ring-stage

parasites were maintained in the presence or absence of rapamycin for 24 hours (Fig. 5e).

Following this treatment, trophozoite- and schizont-stage parasites were collected using

magnetic columns, and *Pfdgat* excision was confirmed by diagnostic PCR at day 0 (Fig. 5f).

Parasitemia was quantified on day 1, and N-acetylglucosamine (NAG) treatment was

initiated and maintained until day 4. From days 5–9, gametocytemia was assessed. We

observed that most PfDGAT-deficient parasites failed to develop into gametocytes (Fig. 5g)

and that gametocytemia was significantly reduced in +Rap parasites on days 5–9 (Fig. 5h).

We quantified the relative expression of AP2-G, a master transcriptional regulator of

gametocytogenesis[37,38], but no differences in transcriptional levels were observed on days 0

and 1 in our quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis (Fig S3).

PfDGAT deficiency impaired cytoadhesion of parasites to human brain endothelial

cells

Cerebral malaria is primarily attributed to the cytoadherence of parasite-infected

erythrocytes to endothelial cells lining the brain microvasculature, a process mediated by the

transport of *Plasmodium falciparum* erythrocyte membrane protein 1 (PfEMP1)—a family of

adhesive proteins encoded by approximately 60 *var* genes[39]—to the surface of the infected

erythrocyte membrane. Given that ER stress has been shown to impair protein trafficking,

we investigated the potential role of PfDGAT in parasite adhesion to human brain

microvascular endothelial cells (HBMECs). We evaluated the ability of PfDGAT-deficient

parasites to adhere to HBMECs under both static and flow conditions (Fig. 6a). +Rap and

–Rap parasites were maintained from days 1–6, followed by sorbitol treatment for ring-stage

synchronization. Subsequently, one of the two –Rap groups was treated with brefeldin A

(BFA), a protein-trafficking inhibitor, to serve as a negative control for cytoadhesion[40,41].

After 18 hours of the treatment, the parasites were transferred either to culture dishes or

microfluidic chambers containing cultivated HBMECs. In both conditions, +Rap parasites

exhibited significantly reduced cytoadhesion than –Rap, with levels comparable to those of

BFA-treated parasites (Fig. 6b, c). This suggests that PfDGAT is involved in parasite

cytoadhesion to HBMECs. To elucidate the underlying mechanism responsible for the low

cytoadhesive ability of PfDGAT-deficient parasites, protein trafficking was observed in +Rap

and –Rap parasites by analyzing the localization of skeleton binding protein 1 (SBP1), a

protein exported to Maurer's clefts[42], using IFA (Fig. 6d). On days 6 and 8, SBP1 abundance

was significantly reduced in PfDGAT-deficient parasites, indicating that PfDGAT plays a

potential role in protein trafficking and influences the parasite's cytoadhesive propensity,

possibly through altered PfEXP1 exposure.

Discussion

Although PfDGAT has been implicated in LD biogenesis, its biological functions in malaria

parasites remain largely uncharacterized. Because the parasite is thought to lack

β-oxidation activity[43,44], which converts the fatty acids released from TAGs into energy

sources, it remains unclear how TAGs stored in LDs through PfDGAT activity contribute to

the parasite life cycle. In this study, we demonstrated that PfDGAT deficiency results in

parasite death, completely blocks sexual differentiation, and severely impairs the

cytoadhesive ability of the parasite (Fig. 2e–h, Fig. 5g, h, and Fig. 6b, c), underscoring the

pivotal role of this enzyme in the malaria parasite life cycle.

PfDGAT has the potential to become a highly promising drug target in malaria parasites

because PfDGAT deficiency adversely affects various aspects of the parasite's life cycle, as

shown in this study. However, a comparative analysis of the amino acid sequences and

superimposed structures of PfDGAT and HsDGAT demonstrated that their catalytic motifs

and spatial arrangements are similar (Fig. 1a,b). These findings indicate that their substrate

preferences and catalytic specificities are likely comparable, suggesting that inhibitors

targeting these enzymatic sites would be effective against both enzymes. Indeed, treatment

with T863, a selective HsDGAT1 inhibitor targeting the acyl-CoA-binding pocket[45], resulted

in decreased lipid formation and growth arrest in *P. falciparum*[46], although it remains unclear

whether T863 specifically targets PfDGAT. A recent study showed that the N-terminal IDR of

HsDGAT1 is essential for dimerization and DGAT activity[25]. While PfDGAT does not

possess an discernable IDR at the N-terminus, such a region is predicted to reside between

amino acid residues 158 and 220 (Fig. 1a). Although dimerization of PfDGAT was not

detected by western blotting under reducing conditions, this IDR may nevertheless play a

crucial role in intermolecular interactions and enzymatic activity within the parasite,

suggesting that this region could serve as a potential target for PfDGAT-specific drug

development.

PfDGAT deficiency probably led to elevated FFAs in the parasite. As excess FFAs cannot

be incorporated into DAG in the form of acyl-CoA, this ultimately resulted in reduced TAG

levels and fewer LDs (Fig. 3a,b). FFAs are normally either degraded as energy sources via

β-oxidation, which is likely inactive in the malaria parasite, or used for phospholipid

synthesis as components of the cellular membrane. In PfDGAT-deficient parasites,

increased phospholipid levels suggest that the acyl-CoAs not incorporated into DAG are

diverted to phospholipid synthesis (Fig. S2). We reasoned that the parasite senses elevated

levels of phospholipids, particularly LPC, as a signal of a replication-favorable environment,

and thus halts its sexual differentiation, even under gametocytogenesis-inducing conditions

(Fig. 5g, h). Excess FFAs have been demonstrated to trigger ER stress[47-49], as was also

observed in PfDGAT-deficient parasites (Fig. 3c). Given that palmitate (16:0) and stearate

(18:0) are known to strongly induce ER stress-mediated cell death in RINm5F pancreatic

β-cells[50], this suggests that the decrease in the proportions of TAG(49:0)–FA(16:0) and

TAG(50:1)–FA(18:0) compared to total TAG levels may play a role in triggering ER stress

(Fig. 4a). ER stress also elicits adaptive responses, such as the unfolded protein response,

which is mediated by the membrane perturbation sensors IRE1 and PERK[51] and serves to

alleviate stress. Because phospholipid levels have been shown to increase under ER

stress[52-54], the increased levels of phospholipid observed in PfDGAT-deficient parasites may

reflect not only a diversion of metabolic flux but also a parasite response to ER stress.

However, prolonged ER stress ultimately leads to parasite death in PfDGAT-deficient

parasites (Fig. 2e–h), as reported previously[55].

PfDGAT-deficient parasites showed reduced binding to HBMECs in our cytoadherence

analysis. Given the decreased levels of SBP1 observed in the Maurer's clefts of infected

erythrocytes, this reduction was likely due to ER stress (Fig. 3c, d), which as previously

reported, may impair protein vesicular trafficking in malaria parasites[56,57]. Notably, DGAT1

deficiency has been shown to cause aberrant protein trafficking in human enterocytes[58],

although the underlying mechanism remains still unclear and warrants further investigation.

One possible explanation for these observations is that alterations in the balance between

TAG and DAG, as well as in the phospholipid composition, under ER stress may contribute

to defective protein trafficking. This is plausible because membrane compositions,

particularly the levels of PE, PS, and DAG, are known to influence membrane and vesicle

fusion processes[9]. In addition, the mislocalization of PfEMP1 may also hinder

cytoadherence by disrupting the cellular membrane architecture required for PfEMP1

assembly, possibly due to the excess generation of phospholipids resulting an abnormal

phospholipid supply to the membrane (Fig. S1, S2).

Recently, LDs, generated primarily by DGAT1, have been shown to participate in multiple

aspects of cellular metabolism, including the formation of MCSs with other organelles to

exchange fatty acids and glycerophospholipids[59-61]. It has been observed that LDs in *P.*

falciparum form MCSs with nuclei, digestive vacuoles, the ER, mitochondria, and

cytostomes, although their precise functions and associated proteins remain unresolved[46].

Therefore, further investigations of PfDGAT may help reveal unknown aspects of malaria

parasite biology.

Methods

Ethics statement

The experiments with human erythrocytes were approved by the ethics committee of

Nagasaki University (Approved#: 191226226). Human erythrocytes were purchased from

the Japan Red Cross Society (Tokyo, Japan) (No: R030027). Informed consent was

obtained by the Japan Red Cross Society before the blood samples were purchased (donor

information was not disclosed to the purchaser). All ethical regulations relevant to human

research participants were followed.

Parasite culture

Plasmodium falciparum NF54::DiCre strain (kindly gifted from Moritz Treeck) was cultured in

O^+ erythrocytes at 5% hematocrit in RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA, USA) supplemented with 5.95 mg/mL HEPES, 0.05 mg/mL hypoxanthine

(Sigma-Aldrich, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), 2 mg/mL sodium bicarbonate (Fujifilm Wako

Chemical Corporation, Osaka, Japan), 10 µg/mL gentamicin (Gibco), and 0.5% Albumax II

(Gibco) (RPMI-1640 complete media) and maintained at 37 °C in a gas mixture of 5% O_2,

5% CO_2, and 90% N_2, as previously described[4].

Generation of *Pfdgat*:LoxPint:HA line

To conditionally knock out *Pfldgat*, we generated a pSLI-*Pfdgat*-LoxP-3×2A-HA plasmid to

introduce LoxP sites into *Pfldgat* utilizing an SLI method[31]. To create

pSLI-*Pfdgat*-LoxP-3×2A-HA, pSLI-*Pflplat1*-LoxP-3×2A-HA[62] was linearized at the *Bgl*II and

*Xma*I restriction sites. Synthetic DNA containing a LoxP site followed by 3′ recodonized

Pfdagt, triple influenza hemagglutinin (HA) sequences, a 2A self-cleaving peptide sequence,

a neomycin resistance gene cassette, a LoxP site, and a GFP reporter gene was obtained

(Azenta Life Sciences, Burlington, MA, USA). The 5' genomic *Pfdgat* was amplified from the

genomic DNA of NF54::DiCre strain with CloneAmp HiFi PCR Premix (Takara Bio, Shiga,

Japan) using the primers listed in Table S1. These sequences were introduced into

linearized pSLI-*Pflplat1*-LoxP-3x2A-HA using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Takara Bio).

For plasmid DNA transfection, trophozoite and schizont-stage parasites were collected

using MACS magnetic columns (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany). Plasmids

were electroporated into erythrocytes using a GenePulser Xcell (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA,

USA) with cuvettes (Bio-Rad). Collected parasites were incubated with electroporated

erythrocytes in RPMI-1640 complete medium for 48 hours. After 48 hours, parasites were

selected with 1 nM WR99210 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 3–4 weeks followed by 400 µg/mL G418

(Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Corporation) for 2 weeks. Clonal parasites were obtained by

limiting dilution of drug-selected transgenic parasites. To confirm plasmid integration into the

genome of clonal parasites, genomic DNA was extracted using a DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit

(QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and a diagnostic PCR was performed using the primers listed

in Table S1.

Three-dimensional construction of PfDGAT and HsDGAT1

For the structural overlay of PfDGAT and HsDGAT1, Protein Data Bank files were retrieved

from the AlphaFold Protein Structure Database (https://alphafold.ebi.ac.uk/) (PfDGAT;

AF-O97295-F1-model_v4, HsDGAT1; AF-O75907-F1-model_v4). The proteins were

visualized and superimposed using PyMOL (v3.1.4.1) (Schrödinger, USA).

Multiple sequence alignment of DGAT1

For multiple alignment of DGAT1 sequences, amino acid sequences were obtained from the

NCBI database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) (*Homo sapiens* DGAT1 [HsDGAT1],

NP_036211.2; *Plasmodium falciparum* 3D7 DGAT [PfDGAT], XP_001351293; *Plasmodium*

vivax P01 DGAT [PvDGAT], XP_001614490; *Plasmodium knowlesi* strain H DGAT

[PkDGAT], XP_002258826; *Plasmodium berghei* ANKA DGAT [PbDGAT], XP_678753;

Toxoplasma gondii ME49 DGAT [TgDGAT], XP_018638224; *Cryptosporidium parvum*

IowaII DGAT [CpDGAT], XP_625364). The alignment was carried out using CLUSTALW

(v2.1).   Sequence   logos   were   created   using   WebLogo   (v2.8.2)

(https://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi).

Growth assay

For growth assays, parasites were synchronized with 5% D-sorbitol (Fujifilm Wako Pure

Chemical Corporation) and seeded into 24-well plates. Synchronized parasites were

maintained in 1 mL of RPMI-1640 complete medium at 5% hematocrit and treated with

either 100 nM rapamycin (Sigma-Aldrich) or an equivalent volume of dimethyl sulfoxide.

Parasitemia was monitored daily using a Sysmex XN-30 hematology analyzer (Sysmex

Corporation, Hyogo, Japan)[63] and maintained below 5% by serial passaging. For analysis,

membranes of parasitized erythrocytes were permeabilized with CELLPACK DCL (Sysmex

Corporation), and parasite nucleic acids were stained with Fluorocell M and Lysercell M

(Sysmex Corporation). Growth curves were generated using GraphPad Prism v10.5.0

(GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA).

Quantification of parasite stage distribution

For the quantification of parasite stage distribution, trophozoite- and schizont-stage

parasites were collected using MACS magnetic columns (Miltenyi Biotec). Pelleted samples

were resuspended at 2% hematocrit in RPMI-1640 complete medium for 4 hours under

continuous agitation at 40 rpm to reduce multiple infections of parasites within a single

erythrocyte. After 4 hours of incubation, parasites were tightly synchronized with 5%

D-sorbitol (0–4 hours post invasion) and seeded into 6-well plates. Thin blood smears were

prepared at each time point and stained with Giemsa's azur eosin methylene blue solution

(Sigma-Aldrich). Parasite staging was performed manually under light microscopy.

Immunofluorescence assay

Infected erythrocytes were immobilized on poly-D-lysine–coated coverslips (Thorlabs, NJ,

USA; poly-D-lysine from MP Biomedicals, CA, USA). After immobilization, samples were

fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences, PA, USA) in

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for 10 minutes, followed by crosslinking with 50 mM

dimethyl suberimidate dihydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich) in borate buffer for 20 minutes, and

quenched with 10 mM glycine in PBS for 30 minutes. Fixed samples were permeabilized

with 0.3% Triton X-100 (Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Corporation) in PBS and blocked with

1% skim milk in 0.05% Tween 20 (Tokyo Chemical Industry, Tokyo, Japan) in PBS for 60

minutes. Samples were incubated with primary antibodies overnight and with secondary

antibodies for 60 minutes, followed by mounting in VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting

Medium with DAPI (Vector Laboratories, CA, USA). Immunostained samples were observed

using a 100× objective on an LSM780 confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss,

Oberkochen, Germany).

Western blot

For western blot analysis, parasites were collected using MACS magnetic columns (Miltenyi

Biotec) and lysed in 0.03% saponin solution for 5 minutes. Collected samples were

dissolved in lysis buffer (4% SDS, 0.5% Triton X-100, 25–75 U DNase I [Takara Bio] and

cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail [Roche, Basel, Switzerland] in 0.5% PBS) and

denatured with SDS sample buffer containing dithiothreitol. Lysates were boiled at 50 °C for

3 minutes (PfDGAT-HA) or at 95 °C for 10 minutes (Phospho-PfeIF2α), separated on

4%–12% polyacrylamide gels (Invitrogen), and transferred to PVDF membranes.

Membranes were blocked with Bullet Blocking One (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan),

incubated overnight with primary antibodies, then incubated for 30 minutes with horseradish

peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibodies. Signals were detected using

chemiluminescent HRP substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and visualized with WSE-6100

LuminoGraph I (ATTO, Tokyo, Japan).

For internal control detection of PfAldolase, membranes were stripped with WB Stripping

Solution Strong (Nacalai Tesque) for 30 minutes, re-blocked with Bullet Blocking One,

incubated with HRP-conjugated anti-*Plasmodium* aldolase antibody for 30 minutes, and the

signal was developed with chemiluminescent HRP substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 5

minutes.

Gametocytogenesis

Gametocyte production was induced by initiating cultures at 6% hematocrit in complete

RPMI medium supplemented with 10% human serum (Japan Red Cross, lot #28J0058) and

0.1% parasitemia[4] (day 1). Hematocrit was reduced to 3% on day 4. Asexual parasites were

eliminated by treatment with 50 mM N-acetyl glucosamine (Sigma-Aldrich) to remove

asexual parasites on days 9–11 and treated with 100 nM rapamycin (Sigma-Aldrich) from

day 10 onward to induce conditional knockout. Gametocytemia and parasite stage

distribution were assessed manually from Giemsa-stained blood smears on days 12–15.

Media were replaced with pre-warmed and fresh media every day up to day 15. To

investigate the gametocyte conversion rate, parasites were synchronized with 5% D-sorbitol

and incubated with 100 nM rapamycin for 24 hours. After treatment, trophozoite- and

schizont-stage parasites were collected using MACS magnetic columns (Miltenyi Biotec)

and maintained with 10–15 times the volume of erythrocytes to parasite for 24 hours (day 0).

The parasites were treated with 50 mM NAG (Sigma-Aldrich) on days 1–4. Giemsa-stained

blood films were created to count ring-stage parasitemia on day 1 and gametocytemia on

days 5–8. The gametocyte conversion rate was calculated by dividing the gametocytemia

count on day 5 by the parasitemia count on day 1. For the extraction of genomic DNA from

gametocytes, parasites were enriched at the interface between 40% and 60% Percoll layers

and subsequently collected using MACS magnetic columns (Miltenyi Biotec). Genomic DNA

was extracted using a DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen), and PCR was performed using

the primers listed in Table S1.

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR

For quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR), infected erythrocytes were

suspended in 10 volumes of TRIzol (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA) relative to erythrocyte volume and stored at −80°C until use. From the suspension,

RNA was extracted with a PureLink RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen), and cDNA was synthesized

from 0.1–1 µg of the RNA using a ReverTra Ace qPCR RT kit (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan).

Specific DNA regions of *AP2-G* and the housekeeping gene seryl-tRNA synthetase

(PF3D7_0717700) were amplified from the cDNA using a KAPA SYBR Fast qPCR kit (Kapa

Biosystems, MA, USA) and a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with the primers listed in Table S1[64]. Relative

quantification of the gene expression was performed using the comparative CT method.

Neutral lipid quantification

For neutral lipid (NL) quantification, parasites were synchronized at 0–4 hpi and maintained

in the presence or absence of 100 nM rapamycin until 96, 144, and 192 hpi. NLs were

stained with HCS LipidTOX Red (Invitrogen; 1:1000 dilution) for 30 minutes at 37 °C,

washed with RPMI-1640 without Phenol Red (Nacalai Tesque), and counterstained with

Hoechst 33342 nuclear stain (Sigma-Aldrich) for 5 minutes. Stained samples were observed

under a Leica DMi8 inverted microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany).

Fluorescence signal intensity was analyzed using ImageJ software (National Institutes of

Health, MD, USA).

SBP1 quantification

For SBP1 quantification, the parasite was synchronized with 5% D-sorbitol and maintained

in the presence or absence of 100 nM rapamycin. Six and 8 days after the treatments, the

infected erythrocytes were immunostained with rabbit anti-SBP1 antibody[42], followed by

Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated goat anti-rabbit antibody. The immunofluorescence signal for

SBP1 was visualized using an LSM780 confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss)

equipped with a Plan-Apochromat 100×/1.40 Oil DIC M27 (numerical aperture = 1.40). The

scanned micrographs were processed using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health).

The SBP1 signal was defined using the Mean method on Threshold menu, and

subsequently quantified using the Analyze Particles function after applying Dilate to

enhance signal continuity and the Watershed algorithm to separate continuous particles.

Cytoadherence assay

For the static cytoadherence assay, immortalized human brain microvascular endothelial

cells (HBMEC) (P10361-IM; Innoprot, Dario, Spain) were cultivated on 13-mm coverslips

(Matsunami Glass, Osaka, Japan) in 24-well plates containing Endothelial Cell Medium

(P60104; Innoprot, hereafter referred to as HBMEC medium) supplemented with 5% fetal

bovine serum (175012; Nichirei Biosciences, Tokyo, Japan). They were maintained at 37 °C

in a humidified 5% CO_2 atmosphere and used at 80%–90% confluence on day 7.

HBMEC-panned parasites, obtained as previously reported[65,66], were maintained at 4%

hematocrit with or without 100 nM rapamycin on day 6, followed by their synchronization

with D-sorbitol. On day 7, HBMEC-panned parasites were adjusted to 1%–2% parasitemia

at 4% hematocrit across groups. Parasite suspension (200 µL per well) was seeded onto

HBMEC monolayers in RPMI-1640 complete medium and incubated at 37 °C for 75 minutes.

During incubation, the plate was gently agitated every 30 minutes to resuspend the settled

red blood cells. After 75 minutes, the medium was removed from each well, and HBMECs

were gently washed with RPMI medium. This washing step was repeated five times in total.

After the second or third wash, the coverslips were transferred to a new 24-well plate, and

the remaining washes were performed. After removing the medium, 2.5% glutaraldehyde

(400 μL per well, Sigma-Aldrich) in 1% PBS was added to each well and incubated overnight

for fixation. The fixative was then removed, and the samples were stained with Giemsa's

azur eosin methylene blue solution (Sigma-Aldrich) for 15 minutes. The coverslips were

covered and air-dried for about 2 days. Finally, they were mounted onto glass slides with the

cell-adherent side facing down and secured for microscopic observation.

For the flow cytoadherence assay, HBMECs were seeded onto μ-Slide VI 0.1 microfluidic

channel slides (80666; Ibidi, Gräfelfing, Germany). They were maintained at 37 °C in a

humidified 5% CO_2 atmosphere and used at 80%–90% confluence on day 7. On day 7,

synchronized HBMEC-panned parasites were adjusted to 1%–2% parasitemia at 2%

hematocrit across groups. After replacing the HBMEC medium in the channel slides, the

parasites were maintained at 38 °C on a hot plate. The parasite suspension was then

continuously perfused through the slides at a shear stress of 6 dyn/cm² (flow rate: 6.33

mL/min) for 20 minutes per lane using a peristaltic pump (AC-2110II-3; ATTO), followed by

flushing with RPMI-1640 medium for an additional 20 minutes per lane. The suspension was

introduced through one inlet connected to silicone tubing (3 mm diameter), while RPMI-1640

medium was simultaneously perfused through the other. After parasite perfusion was

completed in each lane, the channel was immediately washed with RPMI-1640 medium.

Prior to the introduction of a new sample, RPMI-1640 was perfused through the tubing to

wash it. After all lanes had been washed, 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 1% PBS was gently

perfused through the slides to achieve fixation, and 20–30 images were acquired per lane.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis

For liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis, parasites were purified at 78 hpi

with a magnetic column, and total lipids were extracted with 50 volumes of 2-propanol

relative to the volume of parasite pellets. The extracted lipids were first analyzed for

phospholipids using a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer coupled to a Nexera liquid

chromatography system (LCMS-8050 system, Shimadzu). Briefly, the extracted lipids were

separated on an Acquity UPLC BEH C8 column (1.7 μm, 2.1 x 100 mm, Waters) with a

gradient of mobile phase A (5 mM NH_4HCO_3 in water), mobile phase B (acetonitrile), and

mobile phase C (isopropyl alcohol) at a flow rate of 0.35 ml/min. The gradient program (time

(A:B:C%)) was as follows: 0 minutes (75:20:5), to 20 minutes (20:75:5), to 40 minutes

(20:5:75), to 45 minutes (5:5:90), to 50 minutes (5:5:90), and to 55 minutes (75:20:5). The

column oven temperature was set at 47 °C. The eluent was ionized by electrospray

ionization, then analyzed in the mass spectrometer in selected reaction monitoring (SRM)

mode. The SRM transitions (Q1 and Q3) for the head group of phospholipids were ([M + H]+,

184) for PC, ([M + H]+, neutral loss of 141) for PE, ([M – H]–, neutral loss of 87) for PS, and

([M – H]–, 241) for PI. Peak identification and peak area integration were performed using

LabSolutions software (Version 5.99 SP2, Shimadzu) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The peak area of each phospholipid species was divided by the sum of the total

peak area for all detected phospholipids with the same head group and presented as the

area ratio.

Statistics and data reproducibility

Data normality was checked using the Shapiro–Wilk test. Statistical significance is shown in

each graph via a P value. A P value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Statistical tests were performed using GraphPad Prism (v10.5.0).

Data availability

All source data and uncropped gel and blotting images are included in a Source Data file.

Acknowledgments

This work was partially supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (KAKENHI), grant

numbers 17K08805 (F.T.), 23K06518 (F.T.), 21K15429 (J.F.), and 25K18790 (J.F.); the

Japan Institute for Health Security (JIHS) Intramural Research Fund (22T001 to HS); and by

a foundation from Shionogi and Co., Ltd. These funders were not involved in the design,

experiments, or data analyses in this study. We thank Suzanne Leech, Ph.D., from Edanz

(https://jp.edanz.com/ac) for editing a draft of this manuscript.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: M.Y., J.F., S.M., S.M.T., H.O., and F.T. Data collection: J.F., M.Y., S.M.,

M.T., S.M.T., and H.O. Data analysis: J.F., M.Y., S.M., M.T., S.M.T., H.O., and F.T. Funding

acquisition: J.F., and F.T. Supervision: J.F., and F.T. Writing – original draft: M.Y., J.F., and

F.T. Writing – review & editing: M.Y., J.F., S.M., S.M.T., M.T., H.O., T.S., Y.O., K.Y., E.T.,

D.K.I., K.K., and F.T. Resources: F.T., K.Y., and K.K.

Competing interests

No competing interests are declared.

 Figure legends

 Fig. 1. PfDGAT contains conserved DAGT1 functional motifs and the characteristic

MBOAT motif

(a) Superimposed three-dimensional structures of PfDGAT and HsDGAT1. Structural data

were obtained from the AlphaFold Protein Structure Database. The FYXDWWN and

SXXXHEY motifs are shown as the sticks, and the other regions as the cartoon; the motifs

are magnified in the right insets. (b) Multiple sequence alignment of DGAT1 orthologs from

humans and apicomplexan parasites. Amino acid residues shared in ≥ 50% of the analyzed

organisms are highlighted in yellow. The FYXDWWN and SXXXHEY motifs, as well as the

MBOAT motif B, are enclosed in black rectangles. Acidic, basic, polar, nonpolar, aromatic,

and sulfur-containing amino acids are shown as magenta, red, green, blue, orange, and

purple letters, respectively, in the upper sequence logo.

Fig. 2. Establishment of PfDGAT conditional knockout *P. falciparum* lines

(a) Putative phospholipid metabolic pathways in *P. falciparum.* PfLPLAT1, *P. falciparum*

lysophospholipid acyltransferase 1; the first LPLAT identified in this parasite, functions in

both the Kennedy pathway and the Lands' cycle[62]. G3P, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; LPA,

lysophosphatidic acid; PA, phosphatidic acid; CDP-DAG, cytidine diphosphate

diacylglycerol; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PS, phosphatidylserine;

PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; LPG, lysophosphatidylglycerol;

LPI, lysophosphatidylinositol; LPS, lysophosphatidylserine; LPE,

lysophosphatidylethanolamine; LPC, lysophosphatidylcholine; PfGPAT1 and PfGPAT2, *P.*

falciparum glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase 1 and 2; PfLPLAT1, *P. falciparum*

lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferase 1; and PLA2, phospholipase A2. (b) Design of *Pfdgat*

conditional gene knockout with the DiCre system. The 5' homologous region of *Pfdgat*

contains 654 base pairs, beginning from the start codon. Upon rapamycin treatment, the

recodonized region, flanked by LoxP introns and containing the FYXDWWN and SXXXHEY

motifs, was excised from the parasite genome. Arrows indicate the transcription initiation site

and the primer binding sites for PCR-based tests. (c) Diagnostic PCR showed that the target

gene was successfully replaced with the targeting constructs: DNA segments were correctly

amplified with f1/r1 (NF54::DiCre, not amplified; *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12 clones,

3704 bp), f2/r2 (NF54::DiCre, not amplified; *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12, 756 bp), and

f1/r2 (NF54::DiCre, 1077 bp; *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12, not amplified) primer sets. (d,

e) Conditional gene knockout of *Pfdagt* was confirmed by PCR and western blotting. (d) The

size of DNA amplicons for the 5' segment shifted from 3704 bp to 1089 bp in

Pfdagt:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12 after 24 hours of rapamycin treatment. (e) Decreased

expression of PfDAGT was detected in *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12 with anti-HA

antibody after 24 hours of rapamycin treatment. PfAldolase was used as an internal protein

control. Theoretical molecular masses (kDa) of HA-tagged PfDAGT and PfAldolase are 81.6

and 40.0, respectively. Experiments were repeated three times with similar results. (f)

Growth curve of +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 and G12. Data are shown as mean ±

SD from n = 3 independent biological replicates. P values were calculated using two-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test. *P < 0.0001 (–Rap vs. +Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA

B10); [#]P < 0.0001 (–Rap vs. +Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA G12). Experiments were repeated

twice with similar results. (g–i) Stage distributions of +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10.

(g) Representative images of Giemsa-stained blood films at described time points. (h, i) Bar

charts showing the parasite stage distributions (h) and parasitemia of each stage (i) at the

described time points (24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144, 168, and 192 hours of post-infection [hpi]).

Data are shown as mean ± SD from n = 3 independent biological replicates. (j)

Representative confocal microscope images of *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA B10 co-stained for

PfDAGT and ER-resident protein BiP. Samples were immunostained for PfDAGT using an

anti-HA antibody (yellow) and for ER with an anti-BiP antibody (magenta). Scale bars = 2 µm.

Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Fig. 3. PfDGAT deficiency reduced NL levels and triggered ER stress in parasites

(a) Representative images of LipidTOX-stained +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA at the

described time points. Scale bars = 2 µm. (b) Boxplots showing the fluorescence intensity of

681 LipidTOX NL staining per area in +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA at 96, 144, and 196 hpi.

682 Vertical lines range from the minimum to the maximum values. Horizontal lines represent the

683 25th percentile (bottom), median (middle), and 75th percentile (top). P values were

684 calculated using Mann–Whitney U test. Experiments were repeated twice. (c) Western blot

685 analysis of phospho-PfeIF2α (P-PfeIF2α) expression in +Rap and –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA

686 after 216 hours of rapamycin treatment. PfAldolase was used as an internal control for the

687 total amount of proteins. Theoretical molecular masses (kDa) of P-PfeIF2α and PfAldolase

688 are 38.0 and 40.0, respectively. Experiments were repeated three times. (d) Bar charts

689 showing the relative expression levels of P-PfeIF2α in +Rap and –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA

690 after 216 hours of rapamycin treatment. Expression levels in the –Rap group were set to 1,

691 and those in the +Rap group were normalized accordingly. P value was calculated using a

692 paired, two-tailed *t*-test. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

694 **Fig. 4. PfDGAT deficiency led to altered TAG profiles in the parasites.**

695 (a–c) Bar graphs showing normalized fractions of triacylglycerol (TAG) species against the

696 total area values of TAGs in +Rap and –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA at 78 hpi. On the x-axis,

697 TAGs are denoted as TG. The numbers following an underscore ("_") indicate the total

698 number of carbon atoms and double bounds (e.g., TG_46:0), and the values following "FA"

699 specify the identified acyl chain among the three (e.g., FA_16:0). Data are shown as mean ±

SD from n = 3 independent biological replicates. P values were calculated using unpaired

two-tailed t-test (*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.005, ****P < 0.001). Source data are

provided as a Source Data file.

Fig. 5. PfDGAT deficiency abolished gametocytogenesis without any effects on

gametocyte development

(a) Schematics of experimental procedure to investigate the effect of PfDGAT deficiency on

gametocyte development in *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA. (b) Conditional knockout of *Pfdagt* in

gametocytes was confirmed by PCR on day 14. The size of DNA amplicons shifted from

3704 bp to 1089 bp. (c) Gametocytemia of +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA on days 12–15.

Data are shown as mean ± SD from n = 3 independent biological replicates. (d) Bar charts

showing the gametocyte stage distributions of +Rap or –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA on days

12–15. Data are shown as mean from n = 3 independent biological replicates. (e)

Schematics of experimental procedure to investigate the effect of PfDGAT deficiency on

sexual conversion rate in *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA. (f) Conditional knockout of *Pfdagt* in

trophozoites and schizonts was confirmed by PCR on day 0. The size of DNA amplicons

shifted from 3704 bp to 1089 bp. (g) Comparison of sexual conversion rates between +Rap

and –Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA parasites on day 5. P values were calculated using

Mann–Whitney U test. Data are shown as mean ± SD from n = 4 independent biological

replicates. Experiments were repeated three times with similar results. (h) Comparison of

gametocytemia in +Rap and −Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA parasites on days 5–9. P values were

calculated using two-way ANOVA followed by Šídák's multiple comparison test. *$P < 0.0001$

(−Rap vs. +Rap *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA). Data are shown as mean ± SD from n = 4 independent

biological replicates. Experiments were repeated three times with similar results. Fig. 5a and

e were created with Biorender.com. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Fig. 6. PfDGAT deficiency impaired cytoadhesion of parasites on human brain

endothelial cells

(a) Schematics of cytoadhesion assay under static and flow conditions. (b, c) Dot plots

showing the number of erythrocytes infected with *Pfdgat*:LoxPint:HA parasites that adhered

to 100 human brain microvascular endothelial cells (HBMECs) under static (b) and flow (c)

conditions after 6 days of rapamycin treatment. Data are shown as mean ± SD from n = 3

independent biological replicates (b) and from n = 2 independent biological replicates from 3

independent experiments (c). P values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by

Tukey–Kramer test. BFA, brefeldin. (d) Dot plots showing the number of SBP1 puncta on

infected erythrocytes with *Pfdagt*:LoxPint:HA on 6 and 8 days of rapamycin treatment. P

values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey–Kramer test.

Representative immunofluorescence images are shown above the corresponding plots.

Samples were stained for SBP1 with rabbit anti-SBP1 antibody (red) and for nuclei with

DAPI (blue). Scale bars = 2 μm. Fig. 6a was created with Biorender.com. Source data are

provided as a Source Data file.

Fig. 7. Schematic diagram illustrating the proposed effects of *Pfdgat* deletion on

parasites

(1) Deletion of PfDGAT results in elevated free fatty acid (FFA) levels and/or acyl-CoAs due

to the decreased incorporation of acyl-CoAs into diacylglycerols (DAGs). (2) Elevated

acyl-CoA levels lead to increased phospholipid synthesis. (3) The parasite senses high

phospholipid levels as a favorable environment for its asexual replication and therefore

suppresses gametocyte differentiation. (4, 5) An excess of FFAs, possibly resulting from

increased unused acyl-CoAs, triggers ER stress. A reduction in LDs further exacerbates this

stress and ultimately leads to parasite death. (6) ER stress and alterations in membrane lipid

composition adversely affect vesicular protein trafficking. (7) Impaired vesicular trafficking

reduces the surface presentation of cytoadhesive molecules, such as PfEMP1, thereby

diminishing the capacity of parasites to adhere to human endothelial microvascular cells.

Created with BioRender.com.

References

1   Vielemeyer, O., McIntosh, M. T., Joiner, K. A. & Coppens, I. Neutral lipid synthesis
     and storage in the intraerythrocytic stages of Plasmodium falciparum. *Mol Biochem
     Parasitol* **135**, 197-209 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molbiopara.2003.08.017

2   Mitamura, T., Hanada, K., Ko-Mitamura, E. P., Nishijima, M. & Horii, T. Serum factors
     governing intraerythrocytic development and cell cycle progression of Plasmodium
     falciparum.   *Parasitol   Int   **49**,   219-229   (2000).
     https://doi.org/10.1016/s1383-5769(00)00048-9

3   Hsiao, L. L., Howard, R. J., Aikawa, M. & Taraschi, T. F. Modification of host cell
     membrane lipid composition by the intra-erythrocytic human malaria parasite
     Plasmodium   falciparum.   *Biochem   J   **274   (Pt   1)**,   121-132   (1991).
     https://doi.org/10.1042/bj2740121

4   Tanaka, T. Q. *et al.* Polyunsaturated fatty acids promote Plasmodium falciparum
     gametocytogenesis. *Biol Open* **8** (2019). https://doi.org/10.1242/bio.042259

5   Tran, P. N. *et al.* Changes in lipid composition during sexual development of the
     malaria   parasite   Plasmodium   falciparum.   *Malar   J   **15**,   73   (2016).
     https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-016-1130-z

6   Gulati, S. *et al.* Profiling the Essential Nature of Lipid Metabolism in Asexual Blood
     and Gametocyte Stages of Plasmodium falciparum. *Cell Host Microbe* **18**, 371-381
     (2015). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2015.08.003

7   Chernomordik, L. V., Zimmerberg, J. & Kozlov, M. M. Membranes of the world unite! *J
     Cell Biol* **175**, 201-207 (2006). https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.200607083

8   Joardar, A., Pattnaik, G. P. & Chakraborty, H. Mechanism of Membrane Fusion:
     Interplay   of   Lipid   and   Peptide.   *J   Membr   Biol* **255**,   211-224   (2022).
     https://doi.org/10.1007/s00232-022-00233-1

9   Torng, T. & Wickner, W. Phosphatidylinositol and phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate
     activate HOPS to catalyze SNARE assembly, allowing small headgroup lipids to
     support the terminal steps of membrane fusion. *Mol Biol Cell* **32**, ar19 (2021).
     https://doi.org/10.1091/mbc.E21-07-0373

10   Callan-Jones, A., Sorre, B. & Bassereau, P. Curvature-driven lipid sorting in
     biomembranes.   *Cold   Spring   Harb   Perspect   Biol*   **3**   (2011).
     https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a004648

11   Choudhary, V., Ojha, N., Golden, A. & Prinz, W. A. A conserved family of proteins
     facilitates nascent lipid droplet budding from the ER. *J Cell Biol* **211**, 261-271 (2015).
     https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201505067

790	12	Fujimoto, T., Ohsaki, Y., Cheng, J., Suzuki, M. & Shinohara, Y. Lipid droplets: a
791		classic organelle with new outfits. *Histochem Cell Biol* **130**, 263-279 (2008).
792		https://doi.org/10.1007/s00418-008-0449-0

12 Fujimoto, T., Ohsaki, Y., Cheng, J., Suzuki, M. & Shinohara, Y. Lipid droplets: a
classic organelle with new outfits. *Histochem Cell Biol* **130**, 263-279 (2008).
https://doi.org/10.1007/s00418-008-0449-0

13 Olzmann, J. A. & Carvalho, P. Dynamics and functions of lipid droplets. *Nat Rev Mol*
Cell Biol **20**, 137-155 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41580-018-0085-z

14 Pressly, J. D. *et al.* Adaptive and maladaptive roles of lipid droplets in health and
disease. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* **322**, C468-C481 (2022).
https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpcell.00239.2021

15 Chen, G., Harwood, J. L., Lemieux, M. J., Stone, S. J. & Weselake, R. J.
Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase: Properties, physiological roles, metabolic
engineering and intentional control. *Prog Lipid Res* **88**, 101181 (2022).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plipres.2022.101181

16 Kuerschner, L., Moessinger, C. & Thiele, C. Imaging of lipid biosynthesis: how a
neutral lipid enters lipid droplets. *Traffic* **9**, 338-352 (2008).
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0854.2007.00689.x

17 Yen, C. L., Monetti, M., Burri, B. J. & Farese, R. V., Jr. The triacylglycerol synthesis
enzyme DGAT1 also catalyzes the synthesis of diacylglycerols, waxes, and retinyl
esters. *J Lipid Res* **46**, 1502-1511 (2005).
https://doi.org/10.1194/jlr.M500036-JLR200

18 Stone, S. J. *et al.* Lipopenia and skin barrier abnormalities in DGAT2-deficient mice. *J*
Biol Chem **279**, 11767-11776 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M311000200

19 Smith, S. J. *et al.* Obesity resistance and multiple mechanisms of triglyceride
synthesis in mice lacking Dgat. *Nat Genet* **25**, 87-90 (2000).
https://doi.org/10.1038/75651

20 Listenberger, L. L. *et al.* Triglyceride accumulation protects against fatty acid-induced
lipotoxicity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **100**, 3077-3082 (2003).
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0630588100

21 Palacpac, N. M. *et al.* Evidence that Plasmodium falciparum diacylglycerol
acyltransferase is essential for intraerythrocytic proliferation. *Biochem Biophys Res*
Commun **321**, 1062-1068 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2004.07.070

22 Zhang, M. *et al.* Uncovering the essential genes of the human malaria parasite
Plasmodium falciparum by saturation mutagenesis. *Science* **360** (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aap7847

23 Palacpac, N. M. *et al.* Developmental-stage-specific triacylglycerol biosynthesis,
degradation and trafficking as lipid bodies in Plasmodium falciparum-infected
erythrocytes. *J Cell Sci* **117**, 1469-1480 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1242/jcs.00988

24   Guo, Z., Cromley, D., Billheimer, J. T. & Sturley, S. L. Identification of potential
substrate-binding sites in yeast and human acyl-CoA sterol acyltransferases by
mutagenesis of conserved sequences. *J Lipid Res* **42**, 1282-1291 (2001).

25   Wang, L. *et al.* Structure and mechanism of human diacylglycerol O-acyltransferase 1.
Nature **581**, 329-332 (2020). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2280-2

26   Xu, J. *et al.* Cloning and characterization of an acyl-CoA-dependent diacylglycerol
acyltransferase 1 (DGAT1) gene from Tropaeolum majus, and a study of the
functional motifs of the DGAT protein using site-directed mutagenesis to modify
enzyme activity and oil content. *Plant Biotechnol J* **6**, 799-818 (2008).
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7652.2008.00358.x

27   Shindou, H., Eto, M., Morimoto, R. & Shimizu, T. Identification of membrane
O-acyltransferase family motifs. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **383**, 320-325 (2009).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2009.04.013

28   Hofmann, K. A superfamily of membrane-bound O-acyltransferases with implications
for   wnt   signaling.   *Trends   Biochem   Sci*   **25**,   111-112   (2000).
https://doi.org/10.1016/s0968-0004(99)01539-x

29   Collins, C. R. *et al.* Robust inducible Cre recombinase activity in the human malaria
parasite Plasmodium falciparum enables efficient gene deletion within a single
asexual   erythrocytic   growth   cycle.   *Mol   Microbiol*   **88**,   687-701   (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12206

30   Tiburcio, M. *et al.* A Novel Tool for the Generation of Conditional Knockouts To Study
Gene Function across the Plasmodium falciparum Life Cycle. *mBio* **10** (2019).
https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01170-19

31   Birnbaum, J. *et al.* A genetic system to study Plasmodium falciparum protein function.
Nat Methods **14**, 450-456 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4223

32   Nawabi, P., Lykidis, A., Ji, D. & Haldar, K. Neutral-lipid analysis reveals elevation of
acylglycerols and lack of cholesterol esters in Plasmodium falciparum-infected
erythrocytes.   *Eukaryot   Cell*   **2**,   1128-1131   (2003).
https://doi.org/10.1128/EC.2.5.1128-1131.2003

33   Chitraju, C. *et al.* Triglyceride Synthesis by DGAT1 Protects Adipocytes from
Lipid-Induced ER Stress during Lipolysis. *Cell Metab* **26**, 407-418 e403 (2017).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2017.07.012

34   Zhang, M. *et al.* PK4, a eukaryotic initiation factor 2alpha(eIF2alpha) kinase, is
essential for the development of the erythrocytic cycle of Plasmodium. *Proc Natl Acad*
Sci U S A **109**, 3956-3961 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1121567109

35 Zhang, M. *et al.* Inhibiting the Plasmodium eIF2alpha Kinase PK4 Prevents
Artemisinin-Induced Latency. *Cell Host Microbe* **22**, 766-776 e764 (2017).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2017.11.005

36 Brancucci, N. M. B. *et al.* Lysophosphatidylcholine Regulates Sexual Stage
Differentiation in the Human Malaria Parasite Plasmodium falciparum. *Cell* **171**,
1532-1544 e1515 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2017.10.020

37 Sinha, A. *et al.* A cascade of DNA-binding proteins for sexual commitment and
development in Plasmodium. *Nature* **507**, 253-257 (2014).
https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12970

38 Kafsack, B. F. *et al.* A transcriptional switch underlies commitment to sexual
development in malaria parasites. *Nature* **507**, 248-252 (2014).
https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12920

39 Flick, K. & Chen, Q. var genes, PfEMP1 and the human host. *Mol Biochem Parasitol*
134, 3-9 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molbiopara.2003.09.010

40 Crary, J. L. & Haldar, K. Brefeldin A inhibits protein secretion and parasite maturation
in the ring stage of Plasmodium falciparum. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* **53**, 185-192
(1992). https://doi.org/10.1016/0166-6851(92)90020-k

41 Wickham, M. E. *et al.* Trafficking and assembly of the cytoadherence complex in
Plasmodium falciparum-infected human erythrocytes. *EMBO J* **20**, 5636-5649 (2001).
https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/20.20.5636

42 Omoda, A. *et al.* Skeleton binding protein 1 localizes to the Maurer's cleft and
interacts with PfHSP70-1 and PfHSP70-x in Plasmodium falciparum
gametocyte-infected erythrocytes. *Parasitol Int* **100**, 102864 (2024).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.parint.2024.102864

43 Oppenheim, R. D. *et al.* BCKDH: the missing link in apicomplexan mitochondrial
metabolism is required for full virulence of Toxoplasma gondii and Plasmodium
berghei. *PLoS Pathog* **10**, e1004263 (2014).
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1004263

44 Olszewski, K. L. & Llinas, M. Central carbon metabolism of Plasmodium parasites.
Mol Biochem Parasitol **175**, 95-103 (2011).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molbiopara.2010.09.001

45 Cao, J. *et al.* Targeting Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase 1 (DGAT1) with small
molecule inhibitors for the treatment of metabolic diseases. *J Biol Chem* **286**,
41838-41851 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M111.245456

46 Lee, J., Matuschewski, K., van Dooren, G., Maier, A. G. & Rug, M. Lipid droplet
dynamics are essential for the development of the malaria parasite Plasmodium
falciparum. *J Cell Sci* **137** (2024). https://doi.org/10.1242/jcs.262162

47   Cui, W. *et al.* Free fatty acid induces endoplasmic reticulum stress and apoptosis of
beta-cells by Ca2+/calpain-2 pathways. *PLoS One* **8**, e59921 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0059921
48   Cho, H. *et al.* Signaling dynamics of palmitate-induced ER stress responses mediated
by ATF4 in HepG2 cells. *BMC Syst Biol* **7**, 9 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1186/1752-0509-7-9
49   Wang, D., Wei, Y. & Pagliassotti, M. J. Saturated fatty acids promote endoplasmic
reticulum stress and liver injury in rats with hepatic steatosis. *Endocrinology* **147**,
943-951 (2006). https://doi.org/10.1210/en.2005-0570
50   Baldwin, A. C., Green, C. D., Olson, L. K., Moxley, M. A. & Corbett, J. A. A role for
aberrant protein palmitoylation in FFA-induced ER stress and beta-cell death. *Am J*
Physiol Endocrinol Metab **302**, E1390-1398 (2012).
https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpendo.00519.2011
51   Volmer, R., van der Ploeg, K. & Ron, D. Membrane lipid saturation activates
endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response transducers through their
transmembrane domains. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110**, 4628-4633 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1217611110
52   Velazquez, A. P., Tatsuta, T., Ghillebert, R., Drescher, I. & Graef, M. Lipid
droplet-mediated ER homeostasis regulates autophagy and cell survival during
starvation. *J Cell Biol* **212**, 621-631 (2016). https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201508102
53   Schuck, S., Prinz, W. A., Thorn, K. S., Voss, C. & Walter, P. Membrane expansion
alleviates endoplasmic reticulum stress independently of the unfolded protein
response. *J Cell Biol* **187**, 525-536 (2009). https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.200907074
54   Soltysik, K., Ohsaki, Y., Tatematsu, T., Cheng, J. & Fujimoto, T. Nuclear lipid droplets
derive from a lipoprotein precursor and regulate phosphatidylcholine synthesis. *Nat*
Commun **10**, 473 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-08411-x
55   Unal, S., Kina, U. Y., Kamil, M., Aly, A. S. I. & Palabiyik, B. Drug-induced ER stress
leads to induction of programmed cell death pathways of the malaria parasite.
Parasitol Res **123**, 263 (2024). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-024-08281-3
56   Amodio, G. *et al.* Endoplasmic reticulum stress reduces COPII vesicle formation and
modifies Sec23a cycling at ERESs. *FEBS Lett* **587**, 3261-3266 (2013).
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2013.08.021
57   Ota, T., Gayet, C. & Ginsberg, H. N. Inhibition of apolipoprotein B100 secretion by
lipid-induced hepatic endoplasmic reticulum stress in rodents. *J Clin Invest* **118**,
316-332 (2008). https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI32752

58   Schlegel, C. *et al.* Reversible deficits in apical transporter trafficking associated with
deficiency   in   diacylglycerol   acyltransferase.   *Traffic*   **19**,   879-892   (2018).
https://doi.org/10.1111/tra.12608
59   Miner, G. E. *et al.* PLIN5 interacts with FATP4 at membrane contact sites to promote
lipid droplet-to-mitochondria fatty acid transport. *Dev Cell* **58**, 1250-1265 e1256
(2023). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2023.05.006
60   Hong, Z. *et al.* Mitoguardin-2-mediated lipid transfer preserves mitochondrial
morphology   and   lipid   droplet   formation.   *J   Cell   Biol*   **221**   (2022).
https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.202207022
61   Chang, C. L. *et al.* Spastin tethers lipid droplets to peroxisomes and directs fatty acid
trafficking   through   ESCRT-III.   *J   Cell   Biol*   **218**,   2583-2599   (2019).
https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201902061
62   Fukumoto, J. *et al.* Pivotal roles of Plasmodium falciparum lysophospholipid
acyltransferase 1 in cell cycle progression and cytostome internalization. *Commun
Biol* **8**, 142 (2025). https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-025-07564-4
63   Tougan, T. *et al.* An automated haematology analyzer XN-30 distinguishes
developmental stages of falciparum malaria parasite cultured in vitro. *Malar J* **17**, 59
(2018). https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-018-2208-6
64   Josling, G. A. *et al.* Dissecting the role of PfAP2-G in malaria gametocytogenesis.
Nature Communications **11** (2020). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-15026-0
65   Azasi, Y. & Rowe, J. A. Selecting Plasmodium falciparum Infected Erythrocytes for
Adhesion   to   Cell   Lines.   *Methods   Mol   Biol*   **2470**,   91-100   (2022).
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-0716-2189-9_9
66   Claessens, A. & Rowe, J. A. Selection of Plasmodium falciparum parasites for
cytoadhesion   to   human   brain   endothelial   cells.   *J   Vis   Exp*,   e3122   (2012).
https://doi.org/10.3791/3122

a

HsDGAT1
PfDGAT

FYXDWWN motif

SXXXHEY motif

b

HsDGAT1	FGDRE FYRDWWN SESVTYFWQN WNI PVHKWCI RHFYKPMLRRGSSKWMARTG VFLA SAFFHEY L
PfDGAT	FGDRL FYKDWWN ASSFA EYWRK WNL PIYYF IHNINKPLIYYG ISHRNVS MIIV FF ISAM LHEY L
PvDGAT	FDDRL FYKDWWN ASSFA DYWRK WNL PIHYF IHRHINKPLIYYG FNRNFS MVIV FF ISALLHEY L
PkDGAT	FDDRL FYKDWWN ASSFA EYWRK WNL PIHYF VHRHINKPLIYYG FNRSFS MIIV FF ISALLHEY L
PbDGAT	FGDRL FYKDWWN ASSFA GEYWRK WNL PIYYF VVYRHVNKPLIYYG VSRKLS MIII FFISALLHEY L
TgDGAT	KTENL LLKDRQGLLRL ALQTGSDVVP VYVC FGNSETFK - - LVKASTKLQPLARF RVAL LL FFGR
CpDGAT	FGECL SFHQFQHFKR FRWILNDFSL PSVIF CGETWWNPLL PLRNVPYLIVIGKPINS DIINNSY

FYXDWWN motif   MBOAT motif B   SXXXHEY motif

a

b

c

d

a

Static condition

Flow condition

Day 1 → +DMSO → Day 6 Sorbitol synchronization → +BFA → 18 h → Day 7 Cytoadhesion assay

Day 1 → +Rap → Day 6 Sorbitol synchronization

b

Static

The number of infected RBCs/ 100 HBMECs

P = 0.0006

P = 0.0015

−Rap   +Rap   −Rap + BFA

c

Flow

The number of infected RBCs/ 100 HBMECs

P = 0.0025

P = 0.0018

−Rap   +Rap   −Rap + BFA

d

DAPI
α-SBP1

The number of SBP1 punctum

P < 0.0001

P < 0.0001

−   +   −   +
Day6   Day8