Elevated *Plasmodium falciparum* sexual conversion in HbAC and HbAS red blood cells without altered IgG/IgM levels to trophozoite and stage I gametocyte-specific antigens

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ABSTRACT

Malaria transmission relies on the differentiation of *Plasmodium falciparum* asexual parasites into gametocytes, a process determined by sexual conversion. Mutations in the host hemoglobin beta (HBB) gene, are known to influence parasite growth, and disease outcome, yet their impact on sexual conversion remains unclear. We investigated the effect of HBB mutant genotypes on sexual conversion and humoral immunity in individuals from Nanoro, Burkina Faso. Sexual conversion rates were assessed with a newly developed *ex vivo* sexual conversion assay (*ev*SCA) in HBB genotypes HbAA, HbAC, and HbAS, and an *in vitro* SCA

(*iv*SCA) using the NF54-*gexp02-Tom* sexual conversion reporter line cultured in red blood

cells (RBCs) with HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbSS, and HbSC genotypes. IgG and IgM responses

against trophozoite- and stage I gametocyte-infected RBC surface antigens were quantified by

flow cytometry in plasma from individuals with HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbCC, and HbSC

genotypes. Growth in HBB mutant RBCs significantly increased sexual conversion rates in

both *ex vivo* and *in vitro* assays, while humoral responses did not differ between HBB mutant

and wild-type individuals. These results demonstrate that HBB mutations enhance sexual

conversion independently of IgG- and IgM-mediated immunity, highlighting a host-genetic

factor that may influence malaria transmission potential.

Keywords: *Plasmodium falciparum*, Malaria transmission, Gametocytes, Sexual conversion,

Hemoglobin beta (HBB), Red blood cells, Humoral immunity.

INTRODUCTION

Plasmodium falciparum (*P. falciparum*) causes over half a million deaths annually, mostly in young children from low- and middle-income countries. Despite the substantial progress in reducing the global malaria burden during the last decade, this decline has stalled, with some countries reporting a resurgence in clinical cases [1]. These trends highlight the urgent need to develop and implement innovative approaches for malaria control and elimination.

Plasmodium infections have exerted strong evolutionary pressure on the human genome, with hemoglobin mutations providing a well-documented example [2-5]. Mutations in the human hemoglobin beta (HBB) gene, specifically those giving rise to hemoglobin S (HbS) and hemoglobin C (HbC), result from a substitution of glutamic acid at position 6 with valine in HbS and lysine in HbC. Individuals can carry homozygous (HbSS or HbCC), heterozygous (HbAS or HbAC) or compound heterozygous (HbSC) forms, with HbSC individuals inheriting one copy of each mutation [6-8]. HBB mutations lead to significant changes in red blood cell (RBC) morphology and function, influencing malaria susceptibility and clinical outcomes [5, 9, 10]. HbS mutations induce hemoglobin polymerization under low oxygen, causing RBCs to reshape into sickle forms. In individuals with HbSS, extensive sickling affects approximately 60-80% of total RBCs [2], resulting in severe complications including vaso-occlusion, hemolysis, and chronic anemia [11, 12]. Early-life mortality is also markedly elevated, with estimates ranging from 50-90% among children in low-and middle income countries [13]. On the other hand, HbAS carriers are typically asymptomatic [2], with fewer sickled RBCs (~40%) under low oxygen [12, 14]. HbC mutations cause hemoglobin crystallization without sickling but increase blood viscosity and shorten RBC life span [15]. HbCC is a mild disorder with individuals typically asymptomatic while some may develop mild chronic hemolytic anemia [15]. HbAC carriers are mostly asymptomatic [2, 7]. Compound heterozygotes (HbSC) display

a mixed phenotype with ~50% sickling and ~50% crystallization [2], leading to moderate

disease severity and altered RBC shapes, such as "pita bread" or "tricorn" forms under low

oxygen [11, 16].

While HbSS and HbCC are relatively rare (~2%), likely due to the high mortality, HbAS and

HbAC can reach frequencies of 10-30% in regions such as Mali and Burkina Faso, which has

been linked to the protection they confer against *P. falciparum* malaria [4, 5, 8, 17-20]. HbAS

provides strong protection against both uncomplicated and severe malaria, significantly

reducing hospitalization risk [5, 21-23]. HbAC confers mild protection [5], while HbCC offers

substantial protection [15]. The protective mechanisms of the different HBB mutations are not

fully understood [4, 24], but include impaired parasite growth [4, 25-31], altered RBC

morphology [32, 33], disrupted trafficking of *P. falciparum* erythrocyte membrane protein-1

(PfEMP-1) with reduced cytoadherence [24, 32, 34, 35], changes in microRNA expression [26,

36], and heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) induction [37, 38]. HbS infected-RBCs (iRBCs), especially

in HbSS and to a lesser extent in HbAS, exhibit elevated heme levels linked to increased HO-

1−mediated hemoglobin digestion and oxidative stress. This disrupts the actin cytoskeleton,

alters iRBCs morphology, and impairs the surface expression of adhesins such as PfEMP-1 on

iRBCs [32, 39, 40]. In HbAS iRBCs, this altered presentation of the major adhesin PfEMP-1

reduces cytoadherence and vascular sequestration, promoting splenic clearance and controlled

parasite infection [34]. In contrast, Archer, N.M., et al., (2018) [31] proposed a mechanism in

which delayed parasite development in HbAS iRBCs arises from HbS-polymerization

following cytoadherence and sequestration of iRBCs into hypoxic microcirculatory niches (*i.e.,*

bone marrow and spleen), where polymer-induced oxidative stress impairs parasite

development.

Beyond protection from disease, HbS and HbC RBCs may influence the transmission potential

of *P. falciparum*. Host hemoglobin genetics may significantly affect gametocyte (the

transmissible stage of the parasite) carriage. Population studies have reported conflicting

evidence regarding whether HbAS influences gametocyte carriage. Gouagna, L., et. al., (2010)

[41] reported no significant association between HbAS and increased gametocyte carriage,

though they did observe associations for HbAC and HbCC. In contrast, other studies found a

significant link between HbAS and gametocyte carriage [42], while some reported only a

modest contribution of HbAS to increased gametocyte prevalence [43]. While most evidence

focuses on elevated gametocyte carriage, a few studies have also reported higher infectivity to

mosquitoes in individuals carrying HbAS [41, 44], HbAC [41, 45] and HbCC [41] HBB mutant

RBCs compared to wild-type HbAA RBCs.

Gametocyte production is initiated by a process called sexual conversion. In each asexual

replication cycle of *P. falciparum*, a variable but typically small proportion of parasites (~1%),

commit to sexual development and initiate gametocytogenesis [46-48]. The proportion of

parasites that commit to sexual development is referred to as sexual conversion rate (SCR).

Sexual commitment is marked by epigenetic activation of the master regulator *pfap2-g* [49,

50], a transcription factor that irreversibly results in sexual conversion and gametocyte

development [49, 50]. The initiation of its expression is triggered by the activation of *P.*

falciparum gametocyte development 1 (PfGDV1) protein [51], which derepresses *pfap2-g* and

which in turn leads to the initiation of the sexual transcriptional program, halting asexual

replication and inducing the expression of early gametocyte biomarkers [52, 53]. Sexual rings

are found in the circulating blood [52, 54-56], while maturation from gametocyte stages I to

IV occurs mainly in the bone marrow over ~10 days [57]. Mature male and female stage V

gametocytes are released back into peripheral blood (gametocyte carriage), and are the only

parasite stages capable of infecting *Anopheles* mosquitoes. Gametocyte carriage determines

human to mosquito transmission and correlates with infectivity to mosquitoes [58-63].

The elevated gametocyte carriage, that has been reported in individuals carrying the HbAC and

HbAS genotype, could be explained by a number of factors amongst which elevated sexual

conversion but also prolonged infection leading to gametocytes in the peripheral blood that

stem from numerous replication cycles. Given the impaired parasite growth in HbS and HbC

iRBCs [64], *P. falciparum* may prioritize transmission through increased sexual conversion

consistent with the terminal investment hypothesis [65-68]. This theory suggests that when

parasites encounter hostile conditions they increase gametocyte production to improve their

chances of being transmitted. Which has been supported by the findings that several host

related factors increase sexual conversion [69], including antimalarial treatment [70-72],

lysophosphatidylcholine depletion [73-75], and reticulocyte-rich environments [76, 77]. So far

only one study has investigated the link between sexual conversion and HBB genetics showing

that increased intracellular heme in sickle-cell anemia (HbS iRBCs) forming an impaired RBC

environment for parasite survival, increases sexual conversion [39]. Another potential driver

of elevated sexual conversion in HBB mutant RBCs is the host immunity against *P. falciparum*.

HbS and HbC mutations appear to modulate host immunity against *P. falciparum* through

increased regulatory cytokines such as IL-10 [29]), upregulated HO-1 [27], and dampened pro-

inflammatory responses (*e.g.,* TNF-α, IFN-γ) [24], which at the same time protect from severe

symptoms of malaria that are largely due to an exacerbated immune response and improve

parasite clearance. Moreover, elevated antibody levels against specific RBC antigens have been

reported in individuals carrying HBB mutant RBCs [24]. In HbAS individuals, enhanced

humoral responses have been observed, including increased IgG antibody levels against

asexual-stage antigens (*e.g.,* AMA1, EBA175, MSP1-3, CSP, and PSE) in low-transmission

areas in Burkina Faso [78], as well as elevated antibodies against RBC surface antigens such

as PfEMP-1 in multiple populations [78-81]. These immune changes impair cytoadherence and

promote clearance of HBB mutant iRBCs, potentially creating conditions that favor sexual

conversion as a parasite survival strategy.

The discrepancies in studies assessing gametocyte carriage highlight the need to investigate

upstream parasite processes, such as sexual conversion, which directly determine gametocyte

production. Demonstrating that HBB mutant RBCs, such as HbAS and HbAC, enhance *P.*

falciparum sexual conversion could improve strategies to interrupt malaria transmission [82].

This would identify individuals carrying these genotypes as important contributors to the

infectious reservoir and emphasize their relevance for targeted transmission-blocking

interventions.

In this study, we investigated the impact of host HBB mutant genotypes on sexual conversion

of *P. falciparum* and whether we observe differences in IgG- and IgM-mediated humoral

immunity that could be a potential driver of an increase in sexual conversion in these

individuals. We assessed sexual conversion rates *ex vivo* in individuals with HBB genotypes

HbAA, HbAC and HbAS infected with *P. falciparum* from Nanoro (Burkina Faso); and *in vitro*

using the *NF54-gexp02-Tom* transgenic sexual conversion reporter line [53, 70], cultured in

(non-infected) blood from individuals with HBB genotypes HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbSS, and

HbSC. Levels of IgG and IgM against trophozoite- and stage I gametocyte -infected RBCs

(Troph-Gam-iRBCs) were evaluated by flow cytometry in plasma from Burkinabé individuals

with HBB genotypes HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbCC, and HbSC. Our results show that growth

in blood with HBB mutant genotypes increases parasite sexual conversion both in *ex vivo* and

in vitro cultures. We did not find altered levels of IgG- or IgM against trophozoite and stage I

gametocyte-iRBC surface antigens in individuals with HBB mutant genotypes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Details about reagents and tools are accessible in Supplementary Table 1.

Study design.

Sample collection for the present study was embedded in a longitudinal cohort study assessing the effect of host factors on transmission potential (*InHost* study, ethical advice reference 1261/18 and 19/06/064), conducted in the Nanoro Department, a rural, malaria-hyperendemic region in Central-West Burkina Faso (Figure 1) [83] [Characterizing the *Plasmodium falciparum* infectious reservoir asymptomatic asexual and gametocyte stage across off peak and peak transmission seasons in a rural and high-transmission setting in Burkina Faso: a longitudinal 2-year cohort study, *manuscript in preparation*]. Briefly, 871 study participants of all ages from four villages (Nanoro, Nazoanga, Séguédin and Soum) were followed for two years (March 2019 - February 2021) through six cross-sectional surveys conducted during both high and low transmission season to assess asexual and sexual parasite carriage and risk factors. Active case detection was complemented by passive case detection at peripheral health centers.

Figure 1. Map of the study area. The inset map highlights the location of the Nanoro department of Boulkiemdé Province in Central Burkina Faso, with the black dot indicating the position of the capital, Ouagadougou.

For this study, from all participants of the *InHost* study (*n* = 871), 864 individuals were genotyped for their human hemoglobin beta (HBB) genotype (see section on "Hemoglobin beta sequencing"). Participants were then selected for this sub-cohort based on their genotype. A venous blood sample was collected from all selected participants. Samples were screened for *P. falciparum (Pf)* infection. Samples from *Pf*-infected individuals were used to perform *ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*ev*SCAs) and samples from non-infected individuals were preserved to perform *in vitro* sexual conversion assays (*iv*SCAs). We included all individuals carrying the HBB genotypes HbAC (*n* = 72), HbAS (*n* = 50), HbCC (*n* = 2), HbSC (*n* = 7), and a random subset of individuals with the HbAA genotype (*n* = 94) (Supplementary Figure 1). In total, 225 individuals were listed (age groups "5 - 19 years" [*n* = 166] and "more than 20 years" [*n* = 59]). Listed individuals were visited by a nurse at home (Figure 1) and were invited to the Clinical Research Unit of Nanoro (CRUN) for screening and enrolment into the study. Population screening for *P. falciparum* infections and enrolment took place over a two-month period (August-September 2022).

At CRUN, the eligibility was assessed based on inclusion and exclusion criteria for the *ev*SCAs (*Pf*-infected individuals) and *iv*SCAs (non-infected individuals). Inclusion criteria consisted of: being enrolled in the main *InHost* study, a confirmed *P. falciparum* malaria infection (for the *ev*SCAs) or a confirmed negative *P. falciparum* malaria infection (for the *iv*SCAs), willing to participate in this study and undergo additional sampling, and signed informed consent. Exclusion criteria consisted of: mixed infection with other *Plasmodium* species (only for *Pf*-infected individuals in the *ev*SCAs), antimalarial treatment within the last two weeks, signs of severe malaria (*e.g.* prostration), severe chronic illness besides hemoglobinopathies (*e.g.,* cancer, heart disease, kidney or liver disorders, HIV/AIDS, etc.), and planning to leave the study region during the research period. From 162 listed individuals, a total of 161 participants were selected as eligible and were included within this sub-cohort [with age groups "5-19

years" ($n = 122$) and "more than 20 years" ($n = 39$); with HBB genotypes HbAA ($n = 70$),

HbAC ($n = 58$), HbAS ($n = 24$), HbCC ($n = 2$), HbSC ($n = 7$)] (Supplementary Figure 1). A 15

ml venous blood sample was collected from each participant. After sample collection, blood

samples were screened for *P. falciparum* infections (see paragraph on "*P. falciparum*

diagnosis"). Samples with confirmed *P. falciparum* infection (*Pf*-infected individuals, *Pf*+) and

parasitemia by light microscopy (LM) $\geq 0.05\%$ (*i.e.* ≥ 2500 parasites/μl) were processed for

*ev*SCAs at CRUN (Table 1). Blood samples negative for *P. falciparum* infection were

processed and preserved for *iv*SCAs conducted at the Institute of Tropical Medicine (ITM),

Antwerp (Table 1, see section on "*iv*SCAs"). *Pf*-infected individuals, as detected by LM and

confirmed with *P. falciparum var* gene acidic terminal sequence (*var*ATS) quantitative PCR

(qPCR), were treated with Artemether-Lumefantrine (AL) following national guidelines and

were asked to return three days later to confirm infection clearance.

Sample size was calculated based on a power analysis assuming an expected effect size of 50%,

a 5% significance level, and 90% power. This sample size was considered sufficient to detect

differences in sexual conversion by HBB genotype, based on effect sizes reported in previous

studies [76]. To account for potential variability in HBB genotype groups, a minimum of 8

participants per HBB genotype group was required. To ensure sufficient sampling and

successful assays per HBB genotype group, the sample size was upscaled to a maximum of 15

participants per HBB genotype group.

To increase the number of HbSC and HbSS blood samples for *iv*SCA, additional blood samples

were collected from patients with hemoglobinopathies (HbSS and HbSC) visited at the

University Hospital of Antwerp (UZA), Belgium. A total of 13 adults (aged 19-37 years),

routinely followed at UZA's Hematology Unit, were invited to donate a blood sample with

exclusion criteria of fever. The inclusion period was between October 2023 and April 2024.

Table 1: Number of samples (n) per *P. falciparum* (*Pf*) infection status at the time of sample collection and

HBB genetics of the donor, for the *ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*evSCAs*), *in vitro* sexual conversion assays

(*iv*SCAs) and Immunoglobulin (Ig) detection assays. Note: *Pf+* samples used in the *ev*SCAs must have a
parasitemia $\geq 0.05\%$ (*i.e.,* ≥ 2500 parasites/µl), as the established limit of accurate assessment of sexual conversion
with these assays. Abbreviations: Hb, hemoglobin; CRUN, Clinical Research Unit in Nanoro; ITM, Institute of
Tropical Medicine in Antwerp; UZA, University Hospital in Antwerp.
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	HbAA	HbAC	HbAS	HbSC	HbCC	HbSS	Total
EvSCAs							
Pf+ (CRUN, total n)	14	12	6	-	-	-	32
IvSCAs							
Pf- (total n)	5	5	4	2	-	12	28
CRUN (n)	5	5	4	1	-	-	
UZA (n)	-	-	-	1	-	12	
Ig detection							
Pf+ (CRUN)	13	13	13	3	1	-	43
Pf- (CRUN)	5	5	5	2	1	-	18
Total n (*Pf+* and *Pf-*)	18	18	18	5	2	-	61

Plasmodium falciparum diagnosis.

P. falciparum malaria diagnosis was done by RDT using the Bioline™ malaria antigen P.f®

test (05FK50, Abbott) (recommended by the National malaria Control Programme (NMCP) in

Burkina Faso), following the manufacturer instructions. In addition, malaria parasites were

detected and quantified by LM following standard protocols at CRUN [84]. In brief, blood

smears were stained with Giemsa and examined until 200 white blood cells were counted.

Parasitemia was calculated based on the number of asexual parasites per white blood cells,

expressed as asexual parasites per microliter of blood, assuming a white blood cell count of

8,000 per microlite. The presence of gametocytes and other *P. falciparum* species (*P. ovale*

and P. malariae) was assessed in all positive blood smears [85]. Blood samples that tested

positive for *P. falciparum* by both RDT and LM were classified as *P. falciparum*-infected.

Samples that were negative by LM (regardless of the RDT result), were identified as non-

infected (Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 1). Negative infection with *P. falciparum* was

confirmed by *var*ATS qPCR, using five µL of DNA (extracted with QIAamp DNA Mini Kit,

Qiagen Germany), as previously described [83, 86] (Supplementary Figure 1). The limit of

detection of the *var*ATS-based qPCR was 0.1 parasite/µL (in our hands), with samples showing

Ct > 39.7 considered negative. DNA from the *P. falciparum* 3D7 strain served as a positive

control, while negative controls included DNA from non-infected human blood and a no-

template control (NTC).

Sample collection and processing.

At CRUN, a 15 ml venous blood sample was collected in an Acid Citrate Dextrose (ACD) tube

and was immediately transported to the laboratory for processing. Samples were centrifuged

(1,648g for 5 minutes) and washed two times with RPMI to isolate the RBC pellet. RBC pellets

from *P. falciparum*-infected blood samples were immediately put in culture for the *ev*SCAs

(see section on "*Ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*ev*SCAs)". RBC pellets from non-infected

samples were cryopreserved (1:3 with 3% sorbitol and 0.65% NaCl) and stored directly at -

80°C until shipment to ITM, where preserved in liquid nitrogen until use in *iv*SCAs. Two

hundred microliters of whole blood were used for DNA extraction and confirmation of *P.*

falciparum infection by *var*ATS qPCR (see section on "*P. falciparum* diagnosis). At UZA, 15-

20 ml of non-infected venous blood samples were collected in EDTA tubes and immediately

transported at 4°C to ITM for processing, done as described for CRUN. The resulting RBC

pellets were cryopreserved (1:3 with 3% sorbitol and 0.65% NaCl) by direct snap-freezing in

liquid nitrogen for subsequent *iv*SCAs. Additionally, ABO and Rhesus D blood groups were

determined with agglutination tests (BIO-RAD, REF: 801320, 801345, 802032).

Hemoglobin beta sequencing (HBBseq).

In samples collected at CRUN, PCR amplification of the HBB gene (NCBI_Gene:3043) was

performed to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) following the PCR conditions

of *Wittwer, C.T., et al., Clin Chem.(2003)*[87], excluding the High Resolution Melting (HRM)

step, and the PCR mix from the standard protocol for *glurp* genotyping [88]. Primer pairs

(sequences: [HBB-fwd: GGGTTGGCCAATCTACTCCC and HBB-rev: TCAAGCGTCCCA-

TAGACTCAC]) were designed to amplify a 599 bp product. PCR reactions were performed

in a total volume of 25 µl, containing 2.5 µl of DNA template, 10X Buffer B, 5mM of each

dNTP, 0.3 μM of each primer, 25 mM of MgCl₂, and FIREPol® DNA Polymerase (Solis

Biodyne, Ref: 01-01-00500). Thermal cycling conditions were as follows: an initial

denaturation at 94°C for 6 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 60.6°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C

for 1 minute, with a final extension at 72°C for 10 seconds. After Sanger sequencing,

chromatograms were analysed using BioEdit 7.2. (Informer Technologies) to identify the wild-

type and the mutant HBB codons (Table 2). In samples collected at UZA, the HBB genotype

sequences were determined by capillary hemoglobin electrophoresis at UZA [89].

Table 2: **HBB codons and genotypes identified by Sanger sequencing analysis of the HBB gene (HBB-seq).**

HBB allele	Mutation	HBB codon
HbA (wild type)	-	GAG
HbS (mutant)	c.20A>T = E (Glu)> V (Val)	GTG
HbC (mutant)	c.19G>A = E (Glu) > K (Lys)	AAG
HbSC (double mutant)	HbS mutation (Glu→Val) + HbC mutation (Glu→Lys)	AAG + GTG [90]

***Ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*ev*SCAs).**

Optimization and validation

We developed a new *ex vivo* sexual conversion assay (*ev*SCA; Figure 4A) to measure sexual

conversion in freshly collected field isolates even with low parasite densities. The assay is

based on the maturation of ring-stage parasites present in circulating blood to schizonts and

stage I gametocyte, followed by their quantification using an immunofluorescence assay (IFA)

detecting parasite DNA and the gametocyte-specific protein *Pfs16*. The sexual conversion rate

is defined as the proportion of gametocytes stage I among all parasites. For method

optimization we tested: 1) parasite purification methods for performance and field feasibility,

and 2) the minimal detectable parasite density of the infection and culture volume where we

could accurately quantify sexual conversion by IFAs. For optimization purposes, we used mock

cultures of the transgenic reporter line NF54-*gexp02-Tom* [53, 70] (see section on "*iv*SCAs"

for details).

For parasite purification, we compared the performance of the magnetic-activated cell

separation (MACS) LD and LS columns (Miltenyi Biotec) using NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites

cultured in a 10 ml volume, at 3% hematocrit (Hct), and ~11% parasitemia, containing mixed

parasite stages of ring, trophozoite, schizonts and gametocyte stage I. In brief, ~255-300 µl of

iRBC pellet was diluted 1:4 with culture medium (final volume: ~1,020-1,200 µl) to reduce

viscosity and facilitate efficient separation, and passed through the columns. We performed

two elution steps with culture medium: the first elution (6 ml) containing non-infected RBCs

and ring stages; and a second elution (6ml) with the bound fraction after removing the column

from the magnet yielding hemozoin-containing stage I gametocytes and schizonts. The first

and second elution were then pelleted (1'648 g, 5 min centrifugation). From the purified RBC

pellets, 3 µl (LD column) and 1.5 µl (LS column) were used to prepare thin blood smears to

quantify the percentage of parasite stages by LM, and to confirm the presence of ring stages

(first elution) and gametocytes stage I and schizonts (second elution). As results showed that

purification was better with MACS LD column, we next investigated the limit of detectable

parasitemia using MACS LD columns.

To determine minimal detectable parasitemia, we cultured NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites at 3%

Hct in 10 and 20 ml volumes, until a parasitemia of ~1%. Then, we performed a 10-fold serial

dilution to mimic parasite density ranges from ~1% to ~0.001%. Starting with ~8.5 ml of

culture at ~1% parasitemia (corresponding to ~255 µl-300 µl RBC pellet) from a 10 ml culture,

10-fold dilutions were prepared by mixing decreasing volumes of culture with non-infected

RBCs, until reaching a parasitemia of ~0.001% (keeping the final volume of RBC pellet fixed

at 255 µl). For a 20 ml culture, the respective volumes were doubled (510 µl of RBC pellet).

Then, for each condition (dilution point) RBC pellets were diluted 1:4 with culture medium

(end volume of ~1'020 µl) and purified with MACS LD columns. A thin blood smear per

condition was prepared from 3 µl of the purified RBC pellet without dilution, following of

IFAs to detect Pf16 to determine minimal detectable parasitemia.

Additionally, we assessed whether we could cryopreserve parasite isolates and perform sexual

conversion assays later on without losing sensitivity compared to the use of fresh isolates. For

this purpose, we compared the estimated minimal detectable parasitemia between matched

fresh and cryopreserved cultures (3% Hct, 20 ml culture). Cryopreservation and thawing was

done as described for the *iv*SCA. Volumes and parasitemias used for cryopreservation were

matched to the fresh culture samples (1% parasitemia, 600 µl RBC pellet, 100 % Hct). The

entire RBC pellet recovered after thawing was immediately put in culture following the same

procedure described before. Lastly, we aimed to achieve a homogeneous distribution of iRBCs

in a monolayer of non-infected RBCs in the thin blood smears prepared after MACS, to ensure

reliable comparison of sexual conversion across smears, independently of parasitemia. To

achieve this, we tested different dilutions of the MACS-purified iRBC pellet in non-infected

RBCs and PBS, in fresh mock cultures (3% hematocrit, 20 ml) purified by MACS with 10-fold

serial dilutions of parasitemia ranging from ~1% to ~0.01%, following the procedure described

above. The final *ev*SCA protocol was validated using *P. falciparum*-infected clinical samples

at CRUN, Nanoro (Burkina Faso).

Results indicated that the minimal detectable parasitemia could be as low as ~0.05% in patient

samples using a 20 ml fresh culture (instead of 0.01% with mock samples), which we evaluated

to be superior to using cryopreserved cultures or a 10 ml fresh cultures. The most effective

strategy for diluting the MACS-purified RBC pellet was a 1:2 dilution with non-infected RBCs,

followed by resuspension in PBS at a 1:2 ratio.

Ex vivo sexual conversion assays in fresh P. falciparum field isolates.

P. falciparum-infected venous blood samples (15 ml) collected from individuals carrying different HBB genotypes (Table 1; HbAA n = 14, HbAC n = 12, HbAS n = 6; total n = 32) were cultured *ex vivo* to measure sexual conversion. Cultures at 3% Hct and 20 ml flask volume were prepared by mixing 600 µl of *P. falciparum*-infected RBC pellet with 20 ml of RPMI 1640 medium containing 0.5% Albumax II (Gibco, 11021-029) and 2 mM choline chloride (Sigma-Aldrich, C7527) [53, 70]. Parasites at the ring stage were incubated in a gas chamber containing a lit candle inside a 37°C incubator under static conditions until ~24 hours post-culture (hpc). At this time, sexually committed rings present in the venous blood sample are expected to have developed into stage I gametocytes expressing Pf16, while asexual parasites will have progressed to the schizont stage (Figure 4A). During culture, at ~5 hpc, ML10 (80 nM), a cGMP-dependent protein kinase inhibitor, was added to prevent schizont rupture and reinvasion [50, 91]. Giemsa-stained smears were examined by LM to confirm that most parasites had reached either stage I gametocytes or schizonts stages. At ~24 hpc, parasites were harvested and purified using MACS LD columns (Miltenyi Biotec). In brief, cultured parasites are centrifuged (1,648 g, 5 min) and pelleted infected-RBCs (iRBCs) were diluted 1:4 with culture medium, loaded onto an LD-MACS column, and washed four times with 1 ml medium to separate non-infected RBCs and ring-stage-infected RBCs (first elution). The column was then removed from the magnet, and stage I gametocytes and schizonts were recovered by gravity elution, followed by gentle plunger flushing twice with 3 ml medium (second elution). Recovered parasites were pelleted (1,648 g, 5 min), resuspended 1:2 with non-infected RBCs, and diluted 1:2 in PBS. From the second elution, four thin blood smears (3 µl each) were prepared and left to air-dry; three were used for on-site IFAs, and one was Giemsa-stained for LM to verify MACS enrichment.

Immunofluorescence assays (IFAs).

IFAs were performed at CRUN (Burkina Faso) as previously described [50, 53, 70], with

modifications. Slides were stained in batches of four to eight cultures with three slides per

culture, to optimize processing and staining consistency. Primary antibody mouse anti-*Pfs16*

(1:400, kindly provided by R. Sauerwein and T. Bousema, Radboud University) [92] and

secondary antibody goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) Alexa Fluor 488 (1:1000; Abcam, ab150113)

were used, with incubations and washes under static conditions. Slides were mounted with

Aqueous Fluoroshield (Abcam, ab104139) containing DAPI (0.0002%) and stored at 4°C until

shipment to ITM (Belgium). At ITM, slides were visualized within six months of preparation

on an ECHO Revolve epifluorescence microscope (ECHO, San Diego, CA) to determine SCRs

(Figure 4F). Analysis was blinded to HBB genotype. Stage I gametocytes were identified as

Pfs16-positive cells (green) and counted among a minimum of 1,000 DAPI-positive cells (blue)

per slide (stage I gametocytes and schizonts). Slides with fewer than 1,000 DAPI-positive cells

were excluded from further analysis during the first reading. For each culture ($n = 35$), three

of the four prepared slides were stained by IFA and examined by a primary reader. Slides from

three cultures were excluded due to insufficient DAPI-positive cells. From the remaining

cultures ($n = 32$) a random subset of ~10% (4/32), with three IFA slides per culture, was

examined by a second reader to assess inter-reader reliability via intraclass correlation

coefficient (ICC) analysis, based on a two-way random effects model, absolute agreement,

single measures [ICC(2,1) [93]]. For each IFA slide, SCRs were calculated as the proportion

of *Pfs16*-positive parasites among total DAPI-positive cells. Across the three replicate IFA

slides per culture, the mean SCR (±SD) was computed and used to calculate and report the

median SCR [IQR] by HBB genotype (Figures 4A and 4B), statistical differences were assess

as described for proportions in "Data analysis" section. Fold-change in SCR for HbAC and

HbAS was calculated relative to HbAA by dividing each mutant genotype's median SCR by

that of the wild-type (Figure 4C). Statistical analysis was performed as described in the "Data

analysis" section: Differences in initial parasitemia across HBB genotypes (continuous non-

parametric variables) (Figure 4B-D) and potential confounding effect of initial parasitemia on

SCRs (non-parametric correlation across continuous data) (Supplementary Figure 2A).

Stable *Pfs16* fluorescence was confirmed by the counting of ≥1 stage I gametocyte per 10

fields. For each culture, the three replicate IFA slides were analysed to quantify SCRs. The

mean, minimum and maximum SCR were calculated across replicates. To assess inter-slide

reproducibility (technical repeatability) of SCR measurements, an ICC (2,1) analysis (two-way

random effects, single measures, consistency) was performed using SCR values from the three

replicate slides per culture (n = 32). Counts of stage I gametocytes and total parasites were

recorded for each IFA slide and summarized as median (Q1-Q3). From 5 out of 32 cultures

(15.6%) specificity controls were performed by staining one slide per culture without primary

antibody (negative controls). Stage V gametocytes (also express *Pfs16*), identified by their

shape, were excluded from the counting as they are a product of sexual conversion occurring

>10 days prior to the sexual commitment cycle under investigation. Giemsa-stained slides from

each *ev*SCA were examined by LM to estimate parasite purification by MACS and confirm

approximate parasite age/stage to assure parasites were sufficiently mature to express *Pfs16*

(starts expression at ~20 hpi [50]).

***In vitro* sexual conversion assays (*iv*SCAs).**
Determination of RBC integrity after thawing across HBB genotypes.

Cryopreserved non-infected RBC samples, collected at CRUN and UZA and stored as

described in section on "Sample collection and processing," were thawed at ITM. In total, 28

cryopreserved endemic RBC samples were used (HbAA *n* = 5, HbAC *n* = 5, HbAS *n* = 4, HbSS

n = 12, HbSC *n* = 2; Table 1 and 3). A total of six HbAA non-endemic samples, four fresh and

two cryopreserved non-endemic HbAA RBC samples, were used in the experiments as controls

(*i.e.,* HbAA CTRL). One fresh HbAA RBC sample was included per experiment to calculate

fold-changes in SCR (see sub-section on "*In vitro* sexual conversion assays"). Thawing was

performed using a three-step protocol, sequentially adding three volumes of 3.5% NaCl

solution (10x the RBC volume each time), followed by RPMI washes and centrifugation (1,648

g, 5 min) as per standard procedure [94]. The *in vitro* sexual conversion assay (*iv*SCA) used

here is based on the assay that was previously published (*Portugaliza et al., eLife (2020)* [70]);

the difference is that now, NF54-*gexp02-Tom P. falciparum* parasites [53, 70], are allowed to

invade and grow in RBCs with different HBB genotypes (Figure 5A).

To validate the experimental set-up, we first evaluated RBC integrity and recovery after

thawing across a subset of RBC samples with different genotypes ($n = 1$ for each cryopreserved

endemic RBC sample from CRUN: HbAA, HbAC, and HbAS), compared to fresh non-

endemic HbAA RBCs from ITM). Since RBCs with mutant HBB genotypes are more fragile

and lysis-prone, hemolysis was assessed across HBB genotypes on day 0 to evaluate whether

the thawing procedure led to RBC lysis and at days 0, 3 and 7 to assess for how long the RBCs

could be used for culture after thawing. The recovered RBC pellet volume (µl) at day 0 (after

thawing) was measured using a pipette and the number of RBCs per milliliter was assessed

using the hemocytometer [Scepter™ 3.0 Handheld Cell Counter, Millipore® Cat:

PHCC30000]) on day 0, 3, and 7 (after thawing). The mean recovered RBC pellet volumes at

day 0 (after thawing) were at least 30 µl after dilution with RPMI to 50% Hct in the subset of

RBC samples with different genotypes, the minimum required volume to initiate culture wells.

RBC counts per milliliter decreased by day 7 across all HBB genotypes and thawed RBCs at

day 0 appeared morphologically distressed by LM right after the thawing procedure; therefore,

we used RBCs three days after thawing for the *iv*SCAs.

Finally, as the cryopreserved RBC samples collected at CRUN and the UZA were stored in

differently (CRUN: at -80°C before transfer to liquid nitrogen at ITM, three months after

sample collection; UZA: directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen at ITM) we assessed if this

difference has an impact on RBC lysis by comparing the recovered RBC pellet volume (µl) in

three donor-matched non-endemic HbAA control samples, preserved according to either the

CRUN or UZA protocol, or used fresh. The two matched cryopreserved samples, one stored

using the CRUN protocol and the other using the UZA protocol, showed comparable yields of

recovered RBC pellet volume (~400 µl), whereas the matched fresh HbAA sample yielded

~4,000 µl. However, SCRs did not differ between cryopreserved and fresh samples, indicating

that neither differences in post-cryopreservation storage nor cryopreservation itself biased SCR

outcomes in our assay.

Table 3: **Overview of the different experiments with the number of cryopreserved RBC samples by HBB**
genotype.

| Sample by HBB genotype | Experiments | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	Total n
HbAA (CRUN)	-	1	3	1	5
HbAC (CRUN)	1	2	1	1	5
HbAS (CRUN)	2	1	1	-	4
HbSS (UZA)	-	2	2	8	12
HbSC (CRUN/UZA)	-	2	-	-	2
Total n° samples	**3**	**8**	**7**	**10**	**28**

In vitro sexual conversion assays.

The transgenic *P. falciparum* reporter line NF54-*gexp02-Tom* [53, 70], which carries a

genome-integrated tandem Tomato (tdTom) fluorescent marker under the control of the

promoter of the early gametocyte marker gene *gexp02*, was used to assess the impact of RBCs

with different HBB genotypes on sexual conversion *in vitro*. To minimize bias due to prior

culture duration, all cultures were initiated from parasites of the same cryopreserved batch of

an expanded culture. *In vitro* sexual conversion assays (*iv*SCAs) were performed as follows

(Figure 5A). NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites were routinely maintained with parasitemias of less

than 2 % in O+ RBCs (3% Hct) in RPMI 1640-based medium supplemented with 0.5%

Albumax II (Gibco, ref: 11021-029) and 2 mM choline chloride (+Choline; Sigma-Aldrich, C7527), analogous to LysoPC supplementation [51, 53, 73]. Cultures were incubated at 37°C with shaking conditions (70 rpm) in a gas mixture (5% O_2, 5.5% CO_2, balance N_2).

To obtain cultures of a well-defined age window, we used Percoll/sorbitol synchronization (Figure 5A). Percoll-purified schizonts (~40-44 hpi, Generation -1) were used to establish fresh cultures with thawed cryopreserved RBCs (day 3 post thawing) with different HBB genotypes (exposure, Generation 0), now cultured in static conditions. Approximately 5 hours later, when parasites have reinvaded the new RBCs, cultures were subjected to 5% D-sorbitol lysis [50, 53] to obtain cultures of a defined 0-5 hpi age window. Post-sorbitol initial parasitemia was then measured by flow cytometry, and parasites were cultured in two parallel subcultures (~200 µl final volume) per sample. One sub-culture was maintained in +Choline medium (non-inducing sexual conversion conditions), and the other in choline-free medium (-Choline; inducing conditions). Cultures were maintained under these respective conditions for two generations (48h, until ~35-40 hpi in Generation 1, Figure 5A, hpi calculations are based on a 44 h replication cycle empirically established for this parasite line in our lab). In each experiment we tested at least RBCs with two different HBB genotypes. Samples with different HBB genotypes were used in the experiments if the recovered RBC pellet volume after thawing was ≥ 30 µl after dilution with RPMI to 50% Hct. From a total of 20 cryopreserved non-infected RBC samples from CRUN that were confirmed to be negative for *P. falciparum* by *var*ATS qPCR (HbAA [$n = 7$], HbAC [$n = 6$], HbAS [$n = 5$], and HbSC [$n = 2$], Supplementary Figure 1), a total of 15 samples (HbAA [$n = 5$], HbAC [$n = 5$], HbAS [$n = 4$], and HbSC [$n = 1$], Supplementary Figure 1) had a RBC pellet volume after thawing of ≥ 30 µl after dilution with RPMI to 50% Hct (with mean recovered RBC pellet volumes after thawing in HbAA, 178 µl (range: 50−596 µl); HbAC, 111 µl (range: 30−320 µl); HbAS, 246 µl (range: 64−630 µl); HbSC, 558 µl (range: 35−1080 µl); and HbSS, 600 µl (range: 300−1120 µl). These samples

were included within the *iv*SCAs, in addition to non-infected, cryopreserved RBC samples

from the UZA HbSS [*n* = 12], and HbSC [*n* = 1], Supplementary Figure 1). Total numbers of

samples tested per HBB genotype and experiment are shown in Table 3 (HbAA [*n* = 5], HbAC

[*n* = 5], HbAS [*n* = 4], HbSS [*n* = 12], and HbSC [*n* = 2]). Flow cytometry (FC) analysis was

used to measure parasitemia, assess parasite stage development (*i.e.,* proportion of parasites

reaching the intraerythrocytic schizont stage or late-stage proportions), and quantify sexual

conversion at defined time points during the assay (Figure 5A). Parasitemia was determined at

~0-5 hpi (rings), together with (1) the proportion of schizont stages at ~35-40 hpi in Generation

0 and 1, and (2) sexual conversion rates (SCRs) at ~25-30 hpi (large rings/trophozoites) and

~35-40 hpi (schizonts) in Generation 1 (Figure 5A). The standard timepoint to measure sexual

conversion with this parasite line is ~25-30 hpi to ensure detection of all sexually committed

parasites, as TdTomato-expression under the *gexp02* promoter starts around ~10-15 hpi [53].

The ~35-40 hpi timepoint was included at Generation 1 to account for potential delayed stage

development in mutant HBB genotypes (see section on "Assessment of parasite stage

development in RBCs with different HBB genotypes"). Four independent experiments were

conducted, with RBC samples included in each experiment detailed in Table 3. Each

experiment included a fresh HbAA blood sample to control the effect of RBC storage after

cryopreservation.

Samples for FC analysis (using a CytoFLEX LX flow cytometer, Beckman Coulter) were

prepared by resuspending parasite cultures (1:3) in PBS containing 1% BSA, followed by

staining with Hoechst 33342 (1:500, BD Pharmingen) in a final volume of 100 µl per well.

Samples were then incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. To measure parasitemia and proportion

of schizont stages, FC analysis (with 100,000 events collected per sample) was set to detect

Hoechst 33342 (350 nm laser; 450/40 filter). RBCs were gated by plotting side scatter area

(SSC-A) versus forward scatter area (FSC-A), with singlets selected using FSC-H versus FSC-

A. Parasites were identified within the singlet gate by Hoechst fluorescence. Hoechst-positive events were defined as exceeding background levels from unstained negative controls. To quantify SCRs, Hoechst fluorescence was combined with the fluorescent reporter TdTomato (tdTom) (561 nm laser; 610/20 filter) that is integrated in the NF54-*gexp02-Tom* line to distinguish sexual (Hoechst+/tdTom+) from asexual (Hoechst+/tdTom-) parasites. SCRs were calculated as the proportion of Hoechst+/tdTom+ events among all Hoechst+ events. Samples were analyzed with FlowLogic™ version 8.7 (Inivai Technologies™).

Sexual conversion rates (SCRs) were expressed as a percentage (median [IQR]) per HBB genotype (Figure 5B, Supplementary Figures 2A, 2B and 2C). Fold-changes in SCRs were calculated per experiment (Table 3) by dividing the SCR of each cryopreserved mutant RBC sample by the SCR of a fresh, non-endemic HbAA RBC control sample. (Figure 5C, Supplementary Figure 3D). Statistical analysis was performed as described in the "Data analysis" section: differences in SCRs and post-sorbitol initial parasitemia across HBB genotypes tested as described for proportions, differences in fold-change as described for continuous data across categories (Figure 5B-D; Supplementary Figure 3A-E). Although post-sorbitol initial parasitaemia's were adjusted to ≤ 2% to avoid over-induction of SCRs, we assessed potential confounding of SCRs by initial parasitemia with Spearman correlation (Supplementary Figure 2B). Differences in median RBC counts/µl across HBB genotypes at timepoints ~35-40 hpi (Generation 0), and ~25-30 hpi and ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1) were assessed to control for hemolysis as described for continuous non-parametric variables across categorical groups in "Data analysis" section (Supplementary Table 3).

To exclude confounding factors potentially associated with higher SCR and differences in HBB genotype we assessed reticulocyte counts and ABO and Rhesus D blood groups. Reticulocyte percentages were measured for all RBC samples on the same day as Percoll synchronization (Generation -1, Figure 5A). Briefly, RBC suspensions were mixed 1:1 with reticulocyte stain

(Sigma-Aldrich), incubated 15 min at room temperature, and used to prepare a thin blood smear

for LM estimation of reticulocyte percentage. Differences in reticulocyte percentages across

all HBB genotypes (Figure 5E) were assessed as described for proportions in "Data analysis"

section. A correlation analysis of SCRs and reticulocyte percentages in HbAA, HbAC and

HbAS genotypes was performed using Spearman correlation (Supplementary Figure 3F)

(HbSS and HbSC genotypes were excluded for this analysis as they had extremely lowered

SCR compared to HbAC and HbAS but high reticulocyte counts). We determined the ABO

and Rhesus D blood groups in all samples using agglutination tests with Seraclone™ Anti-A,

Anti-B, and Anti-D (RH1) reagents (Bio-Rad). ABO and Rhesus D blood group distributions

across HBB genotypes were evaluated using Pearson's χ^2 test.

Assessment of parasite stage development in RBCs with different HBB genotypes.

To determine whether parasite development across HBB genotypes exhibited delays or arrest

in specific HBB genotypes as described by Archer, N.M., et al. (2018) [31], parasite stage

development was evaluated during the *iv*SCAs (Figure 5A) at ~35-40 hpi (Generation 0) and

~25-30 hpi/~35-40 hpi (Generation 1) using LM and FC to determine whether parasite

development across HBB genotypes was comparable or exhibited delays or arrest in specific

HBB genotypes. Delayed or arrested parasite development in the *iv*SCAs would impact SCR

measurements since NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites would start expressing *gexp02-Tom* later.

This would require measuring sexual conversion at a later time point to assure reliable

outcomes of the SCR measurements. The NF54-*gexp02-Tom* line typically has an

intraerythrocytic cycle of ~44 hpi in HbAA RBCs, and starts to express *gexp02-Tom* in

Generation 1 from ~10-15 hpi until ~96-101 hpi [53]. However, environmental changes (*e.g.,*

change from shaking to static incubation) might extend the cycle to ≥ 48 hpi.

The proportion of rings, trophozoites and early/late schizonts was quantified at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 and ~25-30 hpi/~35-40 hpi in Generation 1 by LM of Giemsa-stained thin blood smears (100 parasite counts per sample; Figure 4A) in a subset of RBC samples (HbAA $n = 1$; HbAC $n = 1$; HbAS $n = 2$; HbSS $n = 2$; HbSC $n = 2$). FC was used as described earlier to determine the percentage of "late stages". For this a distinct population of cells were gated with increased Hoechst 33342 fluorescence (increased DNA content due to multiplication of the nuclei in schizont stages), within the Hoechst+ cells (Figure 4B). Upon confirming consistent results between LM and FC after screening the same samples by FC, FC was subsequently used in all *iv*SCA samples ($n = 28$: HbAA $n = 5$; HbAC $n = 5$; HbAS $n = 4$; HbSS $n = 12$; HbSC $n = 2$; and fresh non-endemic HbAA CTRLs $n = 6$) to determine the proportion of late-stages (*i.e.,* schizonts) by HBB genotype (Figure 4B and 4C). Differences in proportion of late-stages across HBB genotypes (*i.e.,* schizonts) were evaluated as described for proportions in "Data analysis" section (Figure 4B).

From LM data we calculated: (1) the percentage of rings, trophozoites and early/late schizonts (Figure 4A), (2) the mean parasite age using the age in hpi [95] of each stage (rings, trophozoites, schizonts) and the observed proportions; and (3) the developmental delay (in hours) by subtracting mean parasite age of the mutant genotypes from the wild type HbAA genotype. Finally, for each genotype, we compared the developmental delay between Generations 0 and 1 by calculating the difference in mean parasite age at ~35-40 hpi between both generations. Then, the development of each independent NF54-*gexp02-Tom* culture was classified as: *expected development*, *delayed development* or *(partially) arrested/extremely delayed development* by assessing several parameters obtained from FC data: (1) parasite multiplication rates (PMRs), calculated as the ratio of schizont parasitemia at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 1 to that at ~35-40 hpi in the preceding cycle (Generation 0; Figure 5A), (2) late-stage proportions at three timepoints (~35-40 hpi Generation 0; ~25-30 hpi Generation 1; ~35-

40 hpi Generation 1), and (3) fold-changes in late-stage proportions between timepoints

(Supplementary Table 2). To account for potential developmental delays or arrest, sexual

conversion was also assessed at a later time point than usual (at ~35-40 hpi in addition to ~25-

30 hpi [53], Generation 1; Figure 5A).

Flow cytometry assays to assess IgG and IgM immunity against *P. falciparum*.

To study the IgG and IgM levels against *P. falciparum* in individuals with different HBB

genotypes by flow cytometry, we selected endemic human plasma samples from the *InHost*

longitudinal cohort study. We classified samples as "endemic" or "non-endemic" based on the

country of origin. An "endemic" country has consistent, stable *P. falciparum* transmission,

while a "non-endemic" country has no local transmission, with infections typically imported

[96]. As the expected variation and magnitude of potential differences among HBB genotypes

were unknown, we based the sample size on the minimum of 8 individuals per HBB genotype

used in the *ev*SCAs and *iv*SCAs. A maximum of 15-20 individuals per genotype was included

to ensure sufficient sampling. Selection criteria included equal representation of the most

frequent genotype groups (HbAA [$n = 18$], HbAC [$n = 18$], HbAS [$n = 18$], HbCC [$n = 2$], and

HbSC [$n = 5$]), *P. falciparum (Pf)* infection status with a large proportion of active *P.*

falciparum infections (*Pf*+; $n = 10$-15) and a smaller proportion of non-infected individuals

(*Pf*−; $n = 2$-5), age range (1-19 years to exclude maternal antibodies), and homogeneous

distribution amongst the ethnicity (all Mossi) and village (Nanoro, Nazoanga, Soum, and

Séguédin) groups. Table 1 shows the number of participants per HBB genotype included in the

assays. The *P. falciparum* transgenic line NF54-*gexp02*-Tom [53, 70] was cultured under the

same conditions as described in the *iv*SCAs section and Figure 5A, with the following

modifications: (1) parasites were cultured only in wild-type HbAA fresh RBCs and (2) flow

cytometry assays were performed on early trophozoite/stage I gametocyte-infected RBCs

(Troph-Gam-iRBCs) at ~20-25 hpi (Generation 1), following the protocol described in

Dantzler et al., 2019 [97] with the adaptations described below.

Human plasma samples were pre-diluted in PBS with 1% Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA, Sigma

Aldrich) and heparin (2'500U; Sigma Aldrich) (PBS-BSA-Hep) at dilutions of 1:5000 (IgG)

and 1:100 (IgM). *In vitro* generated Troph-Gam-iRBCs (25-30hpi; Generation 1) were pre-

diluted to 0.6% Hct in PBS-BSA-Hep. Pre-diluted human plasma samples were incubated at a

1:10 dilution with pre-diluted Troph-Gam-iRBCs, in separate 96-well plates for IgG and IgM

assays for 1.5 hours at room temperature. After 2 washes with PBS-BSA-Hep, secondary

antibodies were added to the Troph-Gam-iRBCs for 30 minutes at 4°C at 0.6% hematocrit.

AlexaFluor488 (AF488) mouse anti-human IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Europe) and

PerCP/Cy5.5® mouse anti-human IgM (Abcam) were used at final dilutions of 1:640 and 1:320

in PBS-BSA-Hep for the IgG and IgM assays, respectively. After 2 washes with PBS-BSA-

Hep, the DNA stain Hoechst33342 (BD Pharmingen) was added to the Troph-Gam-iRBCs at

a final dilution of 1:5000 in PBS-BSA-Hep at 0.6% hematocrit for 30 minutes at 37°C. To

verify that the Troph-Gam-iRBCs measured contained exclusively red blood cells (no white

blood cells), in each batch pre-diluted Troph-Gam-iRBCs (to 0.6% hematocrit in PBS-BSA-

Hep) were stained with APC anti-human CD236 (Glycophorin C) Recombinant Antibody

(Biolegend®) in triplicate at a 1:40 final dilution (Supplementary Figure 5C). Immunostained

samples were analyzed on the flow cytometer CytoFLEX LX (Beckman Coulter), collecting

100,000 cells per culture. We analyzed the median percentage of total, asexual and sexual-

infected red blood cells (Troph-Gam-iRBCs) that were positive for IgG and IgM binding to

surface antigens on the Troph-Gam-iRBCs (*i.e.,* α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs , α- Troph-iRBCs and

α-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM). Samples were considered positive for IgG or IgM if the levels of

α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM exceeded that of a naïve non-endemic plasma from a

volunteer (negative control with HbAA genotype with no prior *P. falciparum* infection, from a

non-endemic country [*i.e.,* Belgium] collected at the clinic of the Institute of Tropical Medicine

[ITM] in Antwerp). Three non-endemic samples from an acute *Pf*-infected traveler collected

at the ITM clinic at day 0, 21 and 23 of *P. falciparum* diagnosis (*i.e.,* acute *Pf-infected* non-

endemic plasma D0, D21 and D23) were used as positive controls. A schematic of the gating

strategy to measure the surface reactivity of asexual (tdTom-) and sexual (tdTom+) Troph-

Gam-iRBCs (Hoechst33342+) to IgG (α-Troph-iRBCs IgG: Hoechst33342+/tdTom-/AF488+

and α-Gam-iRBCs IgG: Hoechst33342+/tdTom+/ AF488+) or IgM (α-Troph-iRBCs IgM:

Hoechst33342+/tdTom-/PerCP-Cy5.5.+ and α-Gam-iRBCs IgM (Hoechst33342+/tdTom+/

PerCP-Cy5.5.+) in the analyzed endemic human plasma samples is represented in

Supplementary Figure 5B and 5C.

To determine the optimal plasma dilution factor, a pool of five endemic and hyperimmune

plasma samples from *Pf*-infected individuals in a sub-cohort within the *InHost* study (*i.e., Pf*-

infected hyperimmune endemic plasma pool of symptomatic individuals with high *P.*

falciparum parasitemia ranging from 45,667 to 175,000 parasites per µl) [71] was titrated for

the IgG and IgM assay separately. For the IgM assay, four additional plasma samples were

titrated (*i.e.,* "naïve non-endemic plasma" and "acute *Pf*-infected non-endemic plasma at D0,

D21 and D23") (Supplementary Figure 5A).

FlowLogic™ Software version 8.7 (Inivai Technologies™) was used to analyze the flow

cytometry data. The α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG (Hoechst33342+/tdTom-/+/AF488+) and α-

Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM (Hoechst33342+/tdTom-/+/PerCP-Cy5.5.+) levels for each sample

were expressed as total event counts and percentage of positive cells, and the signal as median

fluorescence intensity (MFI) per HBB genotype group. The α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG and IgM

levels and signal were compared by HBB genotype group for the total Troph-Gam-iRBCs, and

the asexual or sexual Troph-Gam-iRBCs (Figure 7 and Supplementary Figure6). To correct for

the background signal from the non-infected RBCs in the IgG and the IgM channel, the MFI

of all samples (including the positive and the negative controls) was expressed as a ΔMFI. For the asexual and sexual Troph-Gam-iRBCs, ΔMFI was calculated as ΔMFI (AF488+/PerCP-Cy5.5.+) = ("MFI IgG+/IgM+ of asexual [tdTom-]/sexual [tdTom+] Troph-iRBCs [Hoechst33342+]") - ("MFI IgG+/IgM+ of non-infected RBCs [tdTom-/Hoechst 33342-]") within each plasma sample. For the total Troph-iRBCs, ΔMFI was calculated as ΔMFI (AF488+/PerCP-Cy5.5.+) = ("MFI IgG+ or IgM+ iRBCs [Hoechst33342+]") - ("MFI IgG+ or IgM+ of non-infected RBCs [Hoechst33342-]" of trophozoite stages incubated with PBS-BSA-Hep, instead of plasma).

Data analysis.

Statistical analyses were performed in RStudio software version 2025.09.1+401(©2025 Posit Software; RRID:SCR_000432), with p-values ($p < 0.05$) considered significant. The statistical analysis type was chosen based on the nature of the variables: proportions based on counts were assessed using binomial and beta-binomial generalized linear models (GLM) and mixed models (GLMM) with Bonferroni adjustment for pairwise comparisons. We chose beta-binomial models due to (possible) violations of the assumptions of the binomial model (overdispersion), this was borderline acceptable in *ev*SCA but not in *iv*SCA. Random factors were used to account for technical replicaets. To test for the relevance of other factors we also modelled the initial parasitemia (*ev*SCA & *iv*SCA), and reticulocyte percentage (*iv*SCA). To address the liberal parametric Wald Z estimates and confidence intervals, we also computed more conservative Bayesian estimates and credible intervals using a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach when model specification and convergence allowed. GLM(M) analysis results are reported in Supplementary Table 7.

Continuous variables were first assessed for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test to guide the choice between parametric and non-parametric methods. Continuous non-parametric variables across categorical groups with ≥2 levels were analysed using the Kruskal-Wallis test, and when

significant, this was followed by Wilcoxon rank sum post-hoc tests for pairwise comparisons

with Holm correction. For normally distributed variables, one-way ANOVA was applied, with

Bartlett's F-test used to assess homogeneity of variances, followed by Bonferroni post-hoc tests

for pairwise comparisons if ANOVA was significant. Associations between categorical

variables were evaluated using Pearson's χ^2 test. Continuous non-parametric variables were

correlated using Spearman correlation.

In the *ev*SCAs and the *iv*SCAs, risk analyses stratified by HBB genotype were conducted to

examine associations with demographic and clinical variables (*e.g.,* SCRs, gender, age, village,

ethnicity, …). An additional risk analysis for factors associated with elevated basal SCRs

included the same covariates with the addition of HBB genotype (Supplementary Table 4 for

the *ev*SCAs, and Supplementary Table 5 for the *iv*SCAs).

Ethical approvals.

The *InHost* study, a longitudinal cohort in Burkina Faso, was approved by the ethical review

board of the Comité d'Éthique pour la Recherche en Santé (CERS: 2018/10/131) in Burkina

Faso, and by the IRB-ITM (1261/18) and IRB-UZA (19/06/064) in Belgium. The amendment

for our study nested in the *InHost* study was approved by CERS (N°2022000140/MSHP/

MESRI/CERS), the IRB at ITM (1261/18), and the IRB at UZA (3347) in Belgium. Ethical

approval for additional sample collection at the Hematology Unit at UZA was granted by the

IRBs at ITM (1538/21) and UZA (3215).

Role of funding source.

The funding source was not involved in the study design, data collection and analysis,

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RESULTS

HbAC and HbAS genotypes prevalences in Nanoro Department, Burkina Faso.

With Sanger Sequencing, we genotyped the hemoglobin beta (HBB) gene and measured the

population frequencies of the different HBB genotypes (HbAA, HbAC, HbCC, HbAS, HbSS,

and HbSC) of all the participants of a longitudinal cohort study (*i.e.,* InHost study) in Nanoro,

Burkina Faso (*n* = 864) (Figure 2). The wild-type genotype HbAA was the most frequent,

observed in 71.5% of the individuals. The distribution of the mutant genotypes was as follows:

HbAC was present in 20%, HbAS in 7.7%, HbSC in 0.8%, and HbCC in 0.2% of the study

participants. No individuals were identified with the HbSS genotype.

Figure 2. Genotype frequencies of the HBB gene in the study population. Pie chart depicting the sample sizes
(n) and frequencies (%) of the different HBB genotypes in the study population.

Novel *ex vivo* sexual conversion assays reveal elevated parasite sexual conversion rates in

individuals with mutant HbAS and HbAC genotypes compared to wildtype HbAA.

Ex vivo sexual conversion assays (evSCAs): assay optimization and validation

To ensure robustness and feasibility of the *ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*ev*SCAs) in a field

setting using *P. falciparum* isolates with varying parasitaemia, we first optimized key assay

parameters using mock cultures of the NF54-*gexp02-Tom* transgenic line [53]. First,

comparison of MACS LD versus LS columns for parasite enrichment demonstrated that the

MACS LD column was more efficient, yielding a larger final RBC pellet (~8 µl versus ~1.5 µl

with LS) and a higher proportion of enriched parasites (~75% versus ~58% with LS), and was

therefore selected for all subsequent experiments. Second, we evaluated detection sensitivity

across a range of parasitemias (from ~1% until ~0.001%), in two culture volumes (10-20 ml),

and assessed the impact of parasite cryopreservation. Using fresh infected RBCs, the minimal

detectable parasitemia was 0.1% for 10 ml cultures (~3 million parasites) and 0.01% for 20 ml

cultures (~600,000 parasites). In contrast, for 20 ml cultures derived from cryopreserved

iRBCs, the detection threshold increased to 0.1% (~6 million parasites), because parasitemia

after cryopreservation decreased drastically (from 1 % to ~0.17%). Based on these findings,

the optimal setup for subsequent assays consisted of 20 ml parasite cultures using fresh RBCs.

Lastly, to achieve a homogeneous distribution of iRBCs in a monolayer of non-infected RBCs,

we tested different dilutions of the MACS-enriched iRBC pellet in non-infected RBCs and

PBS. The final approach used a two-step dilution: first, a 1:2 dilution with fresh non-infected

RBCs, followed by a 1:2 dilution with 1x PBS. The final protocol was validated using patient

P. falciparum samples at CRUN, Nanoro (Burkina Faso), confirming its feasibility under field

conditions and that sexual parasites could be reliably detected at parasitemias as low as 0.05%

(instead of 0.01% with mock samples). Out of 32 clinical samples for which the *ev*SCA was

performed successfully, 13 (~41%) had a starting parasitemia between 0.05% and 0.08%; the

remaining samples presented with starting parasitemias ranging from 0.08% to 1% (n = 19

[59%]).

Inter-reader reliability was assessed by re-reading three IFA slides per culture in 12.5% of the

total cultures (4/32) by a second reader. Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) analysis of the

resulting sexual conversion rates (SCRs), demonstrated very strong agreement between readers

with an ICC(2,1) of 0.96 (95% CI: 0.543-0.998, p = 0.0055**). We observed consistent *Pfs16*

fluorescence across the IFA smears, with a median of 44 stage I gametocytes per smear (IQR:

28-64) and an average of 19 stage I gametocytes per 10 fields, confirming that each slide

contained at least one visible stage I gametocyte per 10 fields. A median of 1,009 total parasites

per smear (IQR: 1,009-1,039), and of 20 counted fields per smear (range: 14-32) were

observed. Inter-smear reproducibility of SCRs between the three IFA slide replicates was

assessed with Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) analysis (two-way random effects,

single measures, consistency). SCR measurements showed good inter-replicate consistency,

with an ICC of 0.79 (95% CI: 0.663-0.884; $p < 0.001$***), indicating reliable quantification of

sexual conversion across replicate smears from the same parasite isolate. SCR measurements

demonstrated good inter-replicate consistency, with an ICC(2,1) of 0.792 (95% CI: 0.663–

0.884; $p < 0.001$), indicating reliable quantification of sexual conversion across technical

replicates (smears) from the same parasite culture. Finally, Giemsa-stained replicate smears of

the IFA samples were examined by LM, confirming a MACS enrichment efficiency of ~70%

(when comparing to a Giemsa-stained slide performed prior to MACS enrichment) and

confirmed that ~54% of parasites observed post MACS were late schizonts with a parasite age

of ~44-48 hpi [50]. This ensured that parasites were sufficiently matured for sexual stages to

express Pfs16.

Ex vivo sexual conversion rates (SCRs).

To investigate the effect of HBB genotypes on *P. falciparum* sexual conversion we measured

sexual conversion rates (SCRs) of *P. falciparum* isolates collected from individuals with

different HBB genotypes (HbAA with n =14, HbAC with n =12 and HbAS with n = 6; total n

= 32) using an in-house *ex vivo* sexual conversion assay (*ev*SCA). Sexual conversion rates

(SCRs) were quantified by immunofluorescent staining (IFAs) detecting the number of

parasites stained positive for the *Pfs16* protein (stage I gametocytes) [92, 98, 99] out of the

number of parasites stained positive for DNA/parasite nuclei (*i.e.,* the total parasite population consisting of stage I gametocytes plus schizont stages), expressed as a percentage. The experimental set-up of the *ev*SCAs and representative immunofluorescent assay (IFA) images are shown in Figure 3A and 3F, respectively.

In non-inducing culture conditions (+Choline) the SCR (median[IQR]) was 2.65%[1.72] in *P. falciparum* isolates from HbAA genotype, 5.05%[2.55] for HbAC and 18.40%[19.70] for HbAS genotypes. SCR increased significantly in HbAC (Beta-binomial GLMM, OR[95%CI] = 1.82 [1.17-2.82], p = 0.0032** and HbAS (Beta-binomial GLMM, OR[95%CI] = 8.16 [4.34-15.37], p = < 0.0001***) genotypes compared to HbAA (Figure 3B and Supplementary Table 7). We calculated the fold change in SCRs (median [IQR]) of *P. falciparum* isolates in HbAC and HbAS compared to wild-type HbAA RBCs. The fold change was 2.04 [0.85] in HbAC and 7.07 [7.32] in HbAS, with values in HbAS RBCs significantly higher than in HbAC RBCs (Kruskal-Wallis test, overall p = 0.034*; Figure 3C). We investigated initial parasitemias in relation to SCRs to assess whether high SCRs could be attributed to differences in initial parasitemia levels (*e.g.,* higher versus lower initial parasitemias). Parasitemias did not significantly differ between mutant HBB RBCs (HbAC and HbAS) and wild-type HbAA RBCs (Kruskal-Wallis test, p > 0.05, Figure 3D). Correlation analysis between SCRs and initial parasitemia was not significant (Spearman correlation, ρ = 0.05, p > 0.05; (Supplementary Figure 2A). These results suggest that differences in initial parasitemias do not have an impact on the observed elevated SCRs.

We assessed whether higher SCR in parasite isolates with AS and AC RBCs are due to lower asexual parasite densities, reducing the denominator of the SCR thus inflating SCR without increased counts of sexual parasites. Analysis of the proportion of red blood cells infected with asexual parasites and stage I gametocytes by HBB genotype (determined by IFAs at ~24 hpc,), showed that the number of red blood cells infected with stage I gametocytes was clearly higher

in cultures with HbAS RBCs, followed by HbAC RBCs, compared to wild-type

HbAA RBCs (Figure 3E) (same trend observed in SCRs by HBB genotype, Figure 3B). The

proportion of infected red blood cells was extrapolated from Giemsa stained slides after MACS

enrichment (Figure 3E). This confirms that the higher SCRs observed are attributable to the

effect of HBB genotype, reflecting a net increase in gametocyte production rather than a

reduction in asexual parasite numbers.

Figure 3. Effect of human hemoglobin beta (HBB) HbAA, HbAC and HbAS genotypes on sexual conversion
determined with *ex vivo* sexual conversion assays (*ev*SCAs). (A) Schematic representation of the *ev*SCAs.
Parasite isolates from RBCs with different HBB genotypes were cultured *ex vivo* under basal non-inducing
(+Choline) conditions. ML10 was added at 11 hpi to block reinvasion. Stage I gametocytes and schizonts were
enriched by MACS, and sexual conversion rates were measured by IFA using Pf16 (sexual stages) and DAPI
(total parasites) staining. *Created with BioRender.* **(B-C)** Dot plots show the median (bold line), quartiles and
range indicated by whiskers. **(B)** Sexual conversion rates (SCRs) by HBB genotype determined with IFA. Sample

size n per group: HbAA $n = 14$, HbAC $n = 12$ and HbAS $n = 6$; total $n = 32$. Data presented as the median and IQR of three independent technical IFA replicates. **(C)** Fold-change SCRs in HbAC and HbAS genotypes relative to HbAA. **(D)** Initial parasitemia at 0 hpc (parasites per µl; log10 scale) by HBB genotype determined with *var*ATS qPCR. **(E)** Proportion of asexual and gametocyte stages, after MACS enrichment, within the initial parasitemia by HBB genotype. **(F)** Representative IFA images of parasites in HbAA, HbAC and HbAS RBCs. Top row with DAPI (all parasites; blue arrows: schizonts) and AF488 (white arrows: stage I gametocytes) overlay and bottom row including brightfield (BF) channel to visualize the parasite's hemozoin. Objective: 40X; Scale bar: 5µm. Images were captured with the Revolve (ECHO) camera. **Statistical tests: B,** Beta-binomial generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) with Tukey adjustment for pairwise comparisons; **D,** Kruskal-Wallis test (p-values: bold solid line), followed by the Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test with Holm correction (p-values: normal solid line) when significant. Significant p-values: $p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $p < 0.001^{***}$; and non-significant p-values as: ns. **Abbreviations:** Hpc, hours post culture; ML10, cGMP-dependent protein kinase inhibitor; hpi, hours post-invasion; AF, Alexa Fluor; DAPI, DNA stain 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; *Pfs16 antibody: Kindly provided by R. Sauerwein and T. Bousema, Radboud University*; *var*ATS qPCR, var gene acidic terminal sequence (*var*ATS) quantitative PCR (qPCR).

In vitro observations of *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites growing in RBCs with different HBB genotypes

Red blood cells with mutant HBB genotypes lead to delayed parasite development.

Archer, N.M., et al. (2018) [31] has shown that under low oxygen conditions ($\leq 5\%$ O_2, as present in the bone marrow and spleen, as well as in standard *P. falciparum* cultures as used for the *iv*SCA) *P. falciparum* in HbAS RBCs exhibit developmental arrest/delay before DNA replication. Developmental delay/arrest in a particular HBB genotype would affect the time at which sexual conversion can be measured *in vitro*. In NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites, grown in HbAA RBCs, TdTomato signal can be detected from ~10-15 hpi until ~96-101 hpi in the cycle after exposure (Generation 1), and sexual conversion is usually measured at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) when parasites are large rings/early trophozoites [53, 70]. If a HBB mutant genotype would cause a delay in development TdTomato might not yet be expressed at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1).

To determine whether parasite stage development of NF54-*gexp02-Tom* parasites differs between RBCs with wild type HbAA and mutant HBB genotypes (HbAC, HbAS, HbSS, HbSC), we first quantified the percentage of rings, trophozoites and early/late schizonts in a set of RBC samples with the different HBB genotypes (total $n = 8$: HbAA $n = 1$, HbAC $n = 1$, HbAS $n = 2$, HbSS $n = 2$, HbSC $n = 2$) using LM (Figure 4A). Parallel analysis of the proportion

of late stages (schizonts) in the same samples by flow cytometry (FC) (gating strategy in Figure 4C) revealed consistent patterns between the two approaches. We therefore applied FC to the full set of samples (total $n = 28$: HbAA $n = 5$, HbAC $n = 5$, HbAS $n = 4$, HbSS $n = 12$, HbSC $n = 2$; and fresh non-endemic HbAA CTRLs $n = 6$, Figure 4B), enabling accurate detection of genotype-specific developmental delays.

With LM, we quantified the proportions of rings, trophozoites and early/late schizonts at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 and at ~25-30 hpi/~35-40 hpi in Generation 1 (*iv*SCA set-up in Figure 5A). At Generation 0 (~35-40 hpi, Figure 4A left graph), parasites in wild-type HbAA RBCs reached the expected mean parasite age of ~43 hpi, closely matching the ~44 hpi life cycle, with parasite stage distribution dominated by schizonts (87%), with no rings and 13% trophozoites. In contrast, mutant HBB RBCs showed clear developmental delays: mean parasite ages were ~40 hpi (HbAC), ~33 hpi (HbAS), ~34 hpi (HbSS), and ~28 hpi (HbSC), corresponding to a developmental delays of ~3-15 hours. These delays were reflected in parasite stage distributions, with a marked shift toward earlier stages, increased proportions of trophozoites and rings relative to HbAA: HbAC (+7% rings, +2% trophozoites, -9% schizonts), HbAS (+20% rings, +25% trophozoites, -45% schizonts), HbSS (+32% rings, +11% trophozoites, -43% schizonts), and HbSC showed the most pronounced delay (+58% rings, +9% trophozoites, -67% schizonts). At Generation 1 (~35-40 hpi, Figure 4A right graph), mean parasite ages were further reduced compared to Generation 0, indicating continued developmental delays and prolonged life cycles. Even in HbAA, mean parasite age was ~38 hpi (*i.e.,* ~6 hours younger than the expected ~44 hpi cycle), with parasite stage proportions shifting toward earlier stages (60% schizonts versus 87% in Generation 0). Developmental delays relative to HbAA persisted in mutant genotypes: ~2 hours in HbAC, ~9 in HbAS, ~7 in HbSS, and ~13 in HbSC, again supported by parasite stage distributions showing a shift towards earlier stages and reduced schizont proportions (+6% rings, -4% trophozoites, -2%

schizonts in HbAC; +19% rings, +19% trophozoites, -38% schizonts in HbAS; +23% rings, +8% trophozoites, -31% schizonts in HbSS; +50% rings, -6% trophozoites, -44% schizonts in HbSC). Thus, while HbAA parasites displayed a modest extension of the life cycle (*i.e.,* ~1 to 6-hour delay), mutant HBB RBCs consistently showed more pronounced delays and an accumulation of early parasite stages (rings/trophozoites), most pronounced and severe in HbSC RBCs. Together, these findings demonstrate stable genotype-specific developmental delays across successive generations 0 and 1. At ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) (first timepoint for SCR measurement), parasites in HbAA RBCs are expected to be at the large ring/trophozoite stage (reference), which is indeed observed for the majority of parasites (> 95%) (Figure 4A, middle graph). A similar stage distribution was observed in HbAC and HbAS RBCs, with 24% large rings (within 40% total ring stages) and 59% trophozoites in HbAC, and 48% large rings (within 59% total ring stages) and 41% trophozoites in HbAS. In HbSS and HbSC RBCs, large rings and trophozoite stages were still detectable but in lower proportions than in HbAA, with 8% large rings (within 12% total ring stages) and 55% trophozoites in HbSS, and 25% large rings (within 42% total ring stages) and 46% trophozoites in HbAS. Notably, in HbSS and HbSC RBCs schizont stages (potentially persisting from Generation 0) were also observed at this timepoint. However, this stage distribution pattern in HbSS and HbSC mutant RBCs persists across all measured timepoints, suggesting that although some (delayed) progression occurs, a subset of parasites may remain developmentally arrested.

Complementarily, we quantified the proportions of late stages (schizonts) using FC at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 and at ~25-30 hpi and ~35-40 hpi in Generation 1 (*iv*SCA set-up in Figure 5A). At ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 and 1 we expect the majority of parasites to be at schizont stage.In Generation 1, we confirmed significantly different proportions of late stages (schizonts), between HbAA and HbSS RBCs (Beta-binomial GLMM, OR[95% CI] = 0.13 [0.03−0.60], *p* = 0.0026**; Figure 4B, right graph and Supplementary Table 7), whereas in

Generation 0 no significances were found (Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test; $p > 0.05$; Figure 4B, left graph). In mutant HbAS and HbSC RBCs median numbers of late stages are lower than in HbAA RBCs at those time points but no significant difference was detected (Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test and Beta-binomial GLMM; $p > 0.05$; Figure 4B, left and right graph). These findings support our earlier LM-based observations, pointing toward a slight developmental delay in parasites within HbAS and HbSC RBCs not prone to impact SCR measurements with the NF54-*gexp02-Tom* line and a significant delay in HbSS RBCs that could impact SCR measurements. At ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1), parasites in all HBB genotypes are predominantly at early stages (rings/trophozoites), as expected, indicated by low proportions of late stages (Figure 4B, middle graph). At this timepoint, no significant differences were observed between genotypes (Kruskal Wallis test, $p > 0.05$). The progression from predominantly late stages at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 to early stages at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) to late stages in at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 1 shows that in HbAA, HbAC and HbAS RBCs there was no complete arrest of parasite development. Notably, in mutant HbSS and HbSC RBCs at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1), a proportion of late stages was detected by LM that is absent in other HBB genotypes (Figure 4A, middle graph), yet this population is not detected by FC (Figure 4B, middle graph). This may suggest that the observed schizonts might be underdeveloped (potentially containing less DNA and thus not being detected by FC as late stages).

Additionally, we evaluated the parasite multiplication rate (PMR) by HBB genotype, comparing schizonts at ~35-40 hpi in Generation 0 and Generation 1 to confirm parasite development across cycles. All HBB genotypes had a median [IQR] PMR greater than 1 between Generation 0 and Generation 1, with median PMRs smaller in HBB mutant genotypes in comparison to HbAA: HbAA, 3.5 [2.0]; HbAC, 2.0 [1.0]; HbAS, 3.5 [1.5]; HbSS, 4.0 [2.0];

and HbSC, 2.0 [1.0] (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$). These findings show that parasites are able to multiply across all genotypes.

As the proportions of late stages showed high IQRs per genotype at the different time points, we further investigated whether delay or arrest was more pronounced in certain cultures - taking into account that other host factors may vary from participant donating the RBCs apart from HBB genotype. We analysed several parameters obtained by FC: the proportion of late stages at three timepoints (~35-40 hpi at Generation 0; ~25-30 hpi at Generation 1; and ~35-40 hpi at Generation 1), and fold change of late stages from one time point to the next (Supplementary Table 2), as well as the PMR. We defined three developmental classes based on the comparison of the median and interquartile ranges of each parameter in parasites growing in each group of mutant HBB RBCs compared to the HbAA RBCs: *expected development* (≤ one parameter outside the HbAA reference range), *delayed development* (2-3 parameters outside the HbAA reference range); (*partially) arrested/extremely delayed development* (≥ 4 parameters outside the HbAA reference range). In HbAA (5/5 [100%]) and HbAA CTRL RBCs (6/6 [100%], all cultures exhibited the expected developmental pattern. In contrast, the HBB mutant RBCs showed variable patterns: in HbAC, 40% (2/5) showed expected development, and 60% (3/5) showed delayed development; in HbAS, 50% (2/4) showed expected development, 25% (1/4) delayed development, and 25% (1/4) (partial) arrest/extremely delayed development; in HbSS, none of the samples showed expected development, 33% (4/12) showed delayed development, and 67% (8/12) exhibited (partial) arrest/extremely delayed development. In HbSC RBCs, none of the samples showed expected development, 50% (1/2) showed delayed development, and the remaining 50% (1/2) (partial) arrest/extremely delayed development (Supplementary Table 2).

In summary, parasites in HbAA RBCs progressed normally from Generation 0 to 1 with no apparent delay. In HbAC RBCs, development was slightly delayed but without arrest, whereas

in HbAS RBCs, partial developmental arrest was observed in one sample. In HbSS and HbSC

RBCs, a persistent population of schizonts, trophozoites, and late rings was seen across all

timepoints (Figure 4A), consistent with the high frequency of partially arrested/delayed

cultures (67% in HbSS and 50% in HbSC) (Supplementary Table 2). The (partial)

arrest/extreme delay in these cultures potentially makes them unsuitable for SCR measurement.

Given the observed developmental delays in all mutant genotypes, measuring sexual

conversion at a single timepoint (~25-30 hpi, Generation 1) may not be accurate. To capture

all *gexp02-Tom*-expressing sexual parasites [53], including those with delayed development,

sexual conversion rates (SCRs) were additionally quantified at ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1) (+

20 hours post-expression of *gexp02* should account for the 3-15 h delay measured).

Figure 4. *P. falciparum* **parasite development in red blood cells (RBCs) with different HBB genotypes. (A)** Microscopy-based quantification of parasite stages expressed as percentages of a total of 100 counted parasites per sample. Y-axis: percentage of parasite stages (%); X-axis: HBB groups. Sample size n per group: HbAA n=1, HbAC *n* = 1 and HbAS *n* = 2, and HbSS *n* = 2 and HbSC *n* =2; total *n* = 8. Timepoints shown are ~35-40 hpi (Generation 0; left graph), ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1; middle graph) and ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1; right graph). **(B)** Dot plots showing the proportion of late stages (*i.e.,* schizont stages) on the total infected RBCs by flow cytometry (Y-axis) by HBB genotype groups (X-axis). Timepoints shown are ~35-40 hpi (Generation 0), ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) and ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1). Datapoints show the median (bold-line) proportion of late stages and the interquartile range (IQR). Sample size n per group: endemic RBC samples with HbAA *n* = 5, HbAC *n* = 5 and HbAS *n* = 4, and HbSS *n* = 12 and HbSC *n* = 2, total n=28; and non-endemic fresh RBC samples with "HbAA CTRL" *n* = 6. **(C)** Representative flow cytometry plots showing the gating strategy for the detection of late parasite stages. Left: total RBCs gated in the SSC-A versus FSC-A plot. Right: within this population, uninfected RBCs (uRBCs) and infected RBCs (iRBCs) are identified, with iRBCs further gated into early and late parasite stages. **Statistical tests**:(B, right graph) Beta-binomial generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) with Tukey adjustment for pairwise comparisons; (B, left and middle graph) Kruskal-Wallis test with the Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test. Significant p-values are shown as: $p < 0.05*$, $p < 0.01**$, $p < 0.001***$; non-significant p-values as: ns. Overall p-values are presented with a bold solid line, and p-values after pairwise comparisons with a normal solid line.. **Abbreviations:** Hpi, hours post-invasion; SSC-A, Side Scatter-Area; FSC-A, Forward Scatter-Area; CTRL, control sample (fresh HbAA RBCs).

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In vitro sexual conversion assays (ivSCAs): RBC integrity after thawing across HBB

genotypes.

To establish *in vitro* sexual conversion assays (*iv*SCAs) in the *P. falciparum* NF54-*gexp02-*

Tom reporter line in cryopreserved, non-infected RBCs with different HBB genotypes (Figure

5A), we first assessed RBC integrity after thawing across a subset of RBC samples with

different genotypes ($n = 1$ for each cryopreserved endemic RBC sample from CRUN: HbAA,

HbAC, and HbAS), compared to fresh non-endemic HbAA RBCs from ITM). RBC lysis was

evaluated by measuring RBC counts per ml at days 0, 3 and 7 (after thawing) to assess for how

long after thawing RBCs can be used in cultures. RBC counts/ml at day 0, 3 and 7 were: fresh

non-endemic HbAA RBCs, 3.61e+09, 9.65e+09 and 3.35e+09; cryopreserved HbAA RBCs,

1.06e+10, 1.73e+09 and 3.31e+09; cryopreserved HbAC RBCs, 4.62e+09; 5.41e+09 and

2.67e+09; and cryopreserved HbAS RBCs, 7.07e+10, 1.10e+10 and 3.35e+09. RBC counts

decreased by day 7 across all HBB genotypes and thawed RBCs at day 0 appeared

morphologically distressed by LM right after the thawing procedure; thus, only thawed RBCs

at day 3 were used in the *iv*SCAs.

Lastly, as the cryopreserved RBC samples were stored differently (CRUN: at -80°C before

transfer to liquid nitrogen at ITM, three months after sample collection; UZA: directly snap-

frozen in liquid nitrogen at ITM), we evaluated whether this difference in storage had an impact

on RBC lysis by comparison of the recovered RBC pellet volume (μl) in three donor-matched

non-endemic HbAA control samples, preserved according to either the CRUN or UZA

protocol, or used fresh. No differences were found in the two cryopreserved samples as these

yielded 200 μl of recovered RBC pellet (at 100% Hct) after thawing from an input

cryopreserved volume of RBCs at 100% Hct of 500μl (40% of RBC pellet recovery after

cryopreservation), compared to 1,000 μl of RBCs at 100% Hct obtained in fresh RBCs.

Importantly, sexual conversion rates (SCRs) were similar across conditions: 8.5% in fresh

HbAA RBCs, and 7.7% versus 6.8% in the cryopreserved HbAA RBCs with storage according to CRUN and UZA, respectively. The results suggest that neither cryopreservation nor subsequent storage methods affected RBC integrity after thawing or sexual conversion rates (SCRs) in the *iv*SCA.

In vitro sexual conversion rates (SCRs).

To validate findings from the *ev*SCAs, we cultured the *P. falciparum* transgenic line NF54-*gexp02*-Tom [53, 70] *in vitro* in RBCs with different HBB genotypes. A total of 28 cryopreserved endemic RBC samples used in the *iv*SCA including HbAA ($n = 5$), HbAC ($n = 5$), HbAS ($n = 4$), HbSS ($n = 12$), and HbSC ($n = 2$) (Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 1). An overview of the number of RBC samples by HBB genotype by performed experiment is given in Table 3. A total of six HbAA non-endemic samples, four fresh and two cryopreserved non-endemic HbAA RBC samples, were used in the experiments as controls (*i.e.,* HbAA CTRL). We measured the sexual conversion rates (SCRs) by flow cytometry (FC) detecting sexual stages by the expression of the red fluorescent protein TdTomato under the promotor of the gexp02 gene, which is exclusively expressed in sexual stages [53], and the total number of infected RBCs (iRBCs) using the DNA stain Hoechst33342. The *iv*SCA experimental set-up is illustrated in Figure 5A and representative flow cytometry plots by HBB genotype are shown in Supplementary Figure 4. Parasite cultures were routinely maintained in choline-supplemented Albumax-based medium (+Choline) to mimic the natural repression of sexual conversion observed in healthy human serum. Parasite cultures were tightly synchronized by Percoll purification at the schizont stage (~40-44 hpi), followed by the addition of RBCs with different HBB genotypes to allow reinvasion. Subsequently, sorbitol lysis was performed at the ring stage to obtain a narrow developmental window of ~0-5 hpi (Figure 5A). During the assay, choline was either maintained to repress or depleted (-Choline) to induce sexual conversion, following established protocols [51, 53, 73]. Choline depletion was performed at

ring stage (~0-5 hpi) (Figure 5A). SCRs were determined as the proportion of parasites that developed into gametocytes in the cycle following exposure (Generation 1, Figure 5A). Since sexual parasites begin expressing the TdTomato reporter at ~10-15 hpi in Generation 1, and SCRs are typically measured at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1, Figure 5A) [53], we included an additional later timepoint (~35-40 hpi) within the same cycle to ensure robust TdTomato detection across all HBB genotypes. This was particularly important given observations of developmental delays (in HbAC, HbAS, HbSS, and HbSC RBCs) compared to wild-type HbAA RBCs (Figure 4).

At ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1) in cultures supplemented with choline (+Choline), the SCR (median[IQR]) increased from 10.8%[0.49] in wild-type HbAA RBC cultures to 13.30%[4.71] for HbAC and 16.5%[5.64] for HbAS RBC cultures (Beta-binomial GLM, HbAC v.s. HbAA RBCs: OR[95% CI] = 1.25 [0.81−1.92] , $p > 0.05$; HbAS v.s. HbAA RBCs: OR[95% CI] = 1.73 [1.12−2.66], $p = 0.0056$**; Supplementary Table 7). In HbSS and HbSC RBC cultures, the SCRs appeared visually lower than in wild-type control HbAA RBCs (6.96% [3.17] and 7.99% [1.83], respectively), with statistically significant differences in HbSS vs. HbAA (Beta-binomial GLM: OR[95% CI] = 0.64 [0.43−0.95], $p = 0.021$*; Supplementary Table 7) but not significant in HbSC vs. HbAA (Beta-binomial GLMM, $p > 0.05$, Supplementary Table 7 and Figure 5B). Similarly, the fold change in SCRs (median [IQR]) relative to wild-type fresh HbAA non-endemic RBC cultures showed a trend consistent with the observations above, with elevated SCRs in HbAC (1.47 [0.66]) and HbAS (2.05 [0.38]) RBCs, while remaining unchanged (~1) in HbAA (1.23 [0.31]), HbSS (0.84 [0.49]), and HbSC (1.10 [0.25]) RBCs. However, differences between HbAA and HBB mutant RBCs were not statistically significant (Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test, $p = 0.039$*; Figure 5C).

Conversely, in cultures supplemented with choline (+Choline) at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1), no differences were found in SCRs between HbAA and RBCs with mutant HBB genotypes

(Kruskal-Wallis test, *p* > 0.05) (Supplementary Figure 3A). Compared to ~35-40 hpi

(Generation 1), these results suggest that at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) a proportion of parasites

may not yet have reached the stage of TdTomato expression. This is supported by the

observation that the SCR (median [IQR]) in HbAC and HbAS increased from 9.41%[5.14] and

15.0%[6.48] at ~25-30 hpi to 13.3%[4.71] and 16.5%[5.64] at ~35-40 hpi, respectively, within

Generation 1 (Figure 5A), indicating that parasites in these RBCs were indeed developmentally

delayed.

In contrast, at ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1, Figure 5A) in cultures in which sexual conversion had

already been stimulated by choline depletion (-Choline), SCRs were induced (>10%) in HbAA,

HbAC, HbAS, and HbSS RBCs but not in HbSC RBCs (~10%). No significant differences in

SCRs were observed between HbAA vs. HbAC RBCs (Beta-binomial GLM, OR[95%CI] =

1.02 [0.66−1.59], *p* > 0.05) and HbAA vs. HbAS RBCs (Beta-binomial GLM, OR[95%CI] =

1.06 [0.66−1.69], *p* > 0.05) (Supplementary Table 7 and Supplementary Figure 3C). Similar

results were obtained at ~25-30 hpi (Generation 1) in choline depleted cultures showing no

significant differences in SCRs between HbAA vs. HbAC RBCs (Beta-binomial GLM,

OR[95%CI] = 1.03 [0.65−1.63], *p* > 0.05) and HbAA vs. HbAS (Beta-binomial GLM,

OR[95%CI] = 1.28 [0.81−2.03], *p* > 0.05) RBCs) (Supplementary Table 7 and Supplementary

Figure 3B). These findings in choline depleted cultures confirm that maximal SCR induction

following choline depletion does not vary across mutant HBB RBCs compared to HbAA

RBCs..

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Figure 5. Effect of human hemoglobin beta (HBB) HbAA, HbAC and HbAS genotypes on sexual conversion
determined with *in vitro* sexual conversion assays (*iv*SCAs). (A) Experimental design of *iv*SCAs using the
NF54-*gexp02-Tom P. falciparum* line. Tightly synchronized late-stage schizonts (Generation -1) were allowed to
reinvade RBCs of different HBB genotypes, and ring stages (~0-5 hpi) were then cultured under both non-inducing
(+Choline) and inducing (-Choline) conditions. Parasite development was assessed by flow cytometry (FC) at
timepoints: ~35-40 hpi (Generation 0) and ~25-30 hpi/~35-40 hpi (Generation 1). Sexual conversion rates (SCRs)
were assessed FC at ~25-30 hpi and ~35-40 hpi in Generation 1. *Created with BioRender.* **(B, C and E)** Dot plots
show the median (bold line), quartiles and range indicated by whiskers. **(B)** Sexual conversion rates (SCRs) by
HBB genotype determined with FC at ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1), in +Choline cultures. Sample size n per group:
endemic RBC samples with HbAA *n* = 5, HbAC *n* = 5 and HbAS *n* = 4, and HbSS *n* = 12 and HbSC *n* = 2, total
n=28; and non-endemic fresh RBC samples with "HbAA CTRL" *n* = 6. **(C)** Fold-change SCRs in cryopreserved
HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbSS and HbSC genotypes relative to fresh HbAA RBCs. **(D)** Proportion of asexual and

Notably, at both ~25-30 hpi and ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1), SCRs in HbSS and HbSC RBCs remained below 10% (not induced) in choline supplemented cultures, appearing visually lower than wild-type HbAA with only significant differences in HbSS vs. HbAA at 35-40hpi (Beta-binomial GLMM; OR[95% CI] = 0.64 [0.43−0.95] $p = 0.021$*, Supplementary Table 7 and Supplementary Figure 3A,Figure 5B). In contrast, in choline-depleted cultures, SCRs in HbSS and HbSC RBCs (10-20%), were lower at ~35-40 hpi than the >30% observed in HbAC and HbAS RBCs (Supplementary Figure 3C). The lower SCRs in HbSS and HbSC RBCs may be explained by the partial arrest and extreme delay in development observed in these cultures (Figure 4 and Supplementary Table 2).

We analyzed initial parasitemia across HBB genotypes to determine whether it contributed to variation in SCRs. Differences in SCRs could not be explained by variations in initial parasitemia at ~0-5 hpi (Generation 0), as no significant differences were found between HBB genotypes (Beta-binomial GLM, $p > 0.05$; Supplementary Table 7) and no significant correlation was observed between SCR and parasitemia (Spearman ρ = 0.10, $p > 0.05$; Supplementary Figure 2B). All cultures were started with a parasitemia below 2.0%. Next, we examined whether higher SCRs in a particular HBB genotype were not inflated by lower asexual parasitemia. Analysis of the proportion of RBCs infected with asexual parasites and stage I gametocytes by HBB genotype has shown that total gametocytemia (determined by FC at ~35-40 hpi (Generation 1) was clearly higher in cultures with HbAS RBCs, followed by HbAC RBCs, compared to wild-type HbAA RBCs, while levels in HbSS and HbSC RBCs were similar to or lower than those in HbAA RBCs (Figure 5D). Total gametocytemia at ~25-

30 hpi (Generation 1) followed the same dynamics (Supplementary figure 3E). This confirms

that the higher SCRs in HbAS and HbAC reflect enhanced gametocyte production rather than

diminished asexual parasite numbers.

Since reticulocytes have been proposed to enhance SCRs [76], and individuals with mutant

HBB genotypes often exhibit anemia-associated reticulocytosis, we assessed reticulocyte

percentages across genotypes. Including all HBB groups (HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbSS, and

HbSC), we observed significant differences in reticulocyte percentage with the highest median

percentages in HbSS compared to HbAA RBCs (Beta-binomial GLMM, OR[95%CI] = 2.56

[1.20−5.44], p = 0.008**, Supplementary Table 7 and Figure 5E). Importantly, SCR

differences in HbAC and HbAS RBCs could not be attributed to reticulocyte percentage. A

non-significant correlation between reticulocyte percentage and SCR was found (Spearman ρ

=0.10, $p > 0.05$; Supplementary Figure 3F) , reinforcing the conclusion that higher SCRs are

due to intrinsic properties of mutant RBCs rather than reticulocyte abundance. Additionally, to

control for hemolysis during FC experiments, we assessed RBC counts (RBCs/µl) across HBB

genotypes at various timepoints, as shown in Supplementary Table 3. No significant

differences were observed at any of the time points, indicating that mutant HBB RBCs did not

undergo hemolysis during the course of the experiment (Kruskal-Wallis test, overall $p > 0.05$).

HBB genotypes are uniquely associated with enhanced SCRs compared to other host factors.

To assess whether factors other than the mutant HBB genotypes influenced SCRs, we

performed a risk analysis of additional variables (*i.e.,* gender, village, ethnicity, age,

parasitaemias, etc.) stratified by HBB genotype group, in the study population in the *ev*SCAs

(n = 32). This showed that only SCRs differ amongst the HBB genotypes HbAA, HbAC and

HbAS (Kruskal-Wallis test, overall $p < 0.001$***; Supplementary Table 4). These results

suggest that mutant HBB genotypes (HbAC and HbAS), compared to the wild type HbAA,

resulted in induction of the *P. falciparum* sexual conversion.

For the same aim, we performed a risk analysis of factors in the study population in the *iv*SCAs

(*n* = 34) that may potentially impact sexual conversion rates (SCRs) in addition to the HBB

mutant genotypes (Table 4). Our analysis indicated that HBB genotypes and gender are a risk

factor for enhanced SCRs (Fisher's exact test, overall $p < 0.01$** and $p < 0.05$*, respectively).

The percentage of reticulocytes was negatively associated with SCRs, with the lowest SCR and

highest percentage of reticulocytes in HbSS and HbSC RBCs (Spearman $\rho = -0.50$, $p < 0.01$**).

Blood groups and other factors (village and ethnicity) did not show any impact on SCRs

(Fisher's exact test and Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$). We also explored which factors are

potentially associated with HBB genotype (Supplementary Table 5). We noted that the

percentage of reticulocytes is the highest in the HBB mutant genotypes HbSS and HbSC,

followed by HbAS, HbAC and HbAA (Kruskal-Wallis, overall $p < 0.001$***). Additional

factors such as age, gender, village and ethnicity showed statistically significant differences in

their distribution across HBB genotype categories (Fisher's exact test, overall $p < 0.05$),

whereas blood groups did not (Fisher's exact test, $p > 0.05$).

Table 4. Risk Analysis of factors for elevated sexual conversion rates (SCRs) at 35-40 hpi (Generation 1),
in the study participants within the *in vitro* sexual conversion assays (*n* = 34). Data from *P. falciparum* non-
infected samples collected in the Nanoro Department, Burkina Faso and the UZA (Belgium). Statistical tests
performed are shown at the bottom of the figure with correspondent p-values (with significant p-values as: $p < 0.05$*, $p < 0.01$**, $p < 0.001$***). Abbreviations: HBB, Hemoglobin beta; SCR, Sexual conversion rates; hpi,
hours post-invasion; IQR, Interquartile range.

	SCR +Choline 35–40 hpi	$p^{\$}$
+Choline n(%)	28 (100.0)	NA
HBB Genotype (median (IQR))		<0.01**
HbAA	10.8 (0.49)	
HbAC	13.30 (4.71)	
HbAS	16.50 (5.64)	
HbSS	6.96 (3.17)	
HbSC	7.99 (1.83)	
ABO blood group (median (IQR))		0.15
O+	7.57 (7.86)	
A+	8.80 (2.52)	
B+	17.80 (3.48)	
A-	9.34 (2.87)	
B-	10.90 (3.77)	

	Median (IQR)		
Gender (median (IQR))			<0.05*
Female	11.30 (5.04)		
Male	7.57 (4.09)		
Village (median (IQR))			0.30
Nanoro	11.30 (3.75)		
Nazoanga	15.40 (0.60)		
Soum	0 (0)		
Séguédin	0 (0)		
Ethnicity (median (IQR))			0.40
Gourounsi	17.80 (0.00)		
Mossi	12.30 (4.14)		
	Median (IQR)	rho°	p°
Reticulocytes (percentage)	1.50 (5.63)	−0.50	<0.01**
Age	27.00 (30.00)	−0.18	0.37

Significant p-values ($p < 0.05$*, $p < 0.01$**, $p < 0.001$***).
$Categorical variables test: Fisher's exact test.
$Continuous variables test: Kruskal Wallis test and Post-Hoc analysis with Wilcoxon Rank Sum Post-hoc Test with Holm correction.
° Continuous variables : Spearman correlation test

IgG and IgM detection assays by Flow cytometry: Demographics of study population and assay validation

The evaluation of variables in the study population ($n = 61$) such as: *P. falciparum* infection status at the time of sample collection, parasitemia (parasites per µl), presence of gametocytes in blood, age, gender and village; stratified by HBB genotype (HbAA [$n = 18$], HbAC [$n = 18$], HbAS [$n = 18$], HbCC [$n = 2$], and HbSC [$n = 5$]) revealed no significant differences between the categories (Fisher's exact test and Kruskal-Wallis test; $p > 0.05$) (Supplementary Table 6). In our study population, there is a homogeneous distribution of individuals across the categorical variables, with no observed sampling bias that could affect further analysis.

The plasma titration curves showed a clear dose-response dynamic for IgG detection with the "*Pf*-infected hyperimmune endemic plasma pool", while for IgM detection the measured percentage of positive cells was low even at the lowest plasma dilution. Therefore, four additional plasma samples were titrated for IgM detection (*i.e.,* "naïve non-endemic plasma" and "acute *Pf-infected* non-endemic plasma at D0, D21 and D23"). While the "naïve non-endemic plasma" remained under the threshold of the "hyperimmune *Pf*-infected endemic plasma pool", the "acute *Pf*-infected non-endemic plasma at D21 and D23" exceeded the values

of both the "*Pf*-infected hyperimmune endemic plasma pool" and the "naïve non-endemic

plasma", and showed a dose-response dynamic. Due to the generally low levels of IgM

measured against early trophozoite/stage I gametocyte-infected RBCs (α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs

IgM), we chose the optimal plasma dilution with highest percentage of positive cells detected

for IgM (1:320), while for IgG detection we used the dilution in the slope (1:640)

(Supplementary Figure 5A).

For robust ΔMFI values a cut-off of a minimum number of event counts per category was set

to 200 events (Supplementary Figure 5A and 5C). In each assay, positive controls (three acute

Pf-infected non-endemic plasma from a traveler at D0, D21 and D23) and a negative control

("naïve non-endemic plasma") were analyzed. The "naïve non-endemic plasma" sample

consistently did not reach the 200 event counts threshold, confirming its suitability as a

negative control. The negative control values served as a baseline for the levels of α-Troph-

Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM and were lower than those of the endemic plasma samples of all HBB

genotypes (Figure 7). Endemic plasma samples were considered positive for IgG or IgM when

both the event count and the levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG and IgM exceeded those

observed in the "naïve non-endemic plasma". All endemic plasma samples exhibited event

counts below the threshold of 200 for the levels of total α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM

(Hoechst33342+/PerCP-Cy5.5.+) and α-Troph-iRBCs IgM (Hoechst33342+/ tdTom-/PerCP-

Cy5.5.+). The number of α-Gam-iRBCs IgG (Hoechst33342+/tdTom+/ AF488+) and IgM

(Hoechst33342+/ tdTom+/PerCP-Cy5.5.+) was below 200 events for all endemic plasma

samples (n=61). Thirteen samples (21%) had no detected (*i.e.,* zero) events for α-Gam-iRBCs

IgM. Based on these parameters, the MFI could only be evaluated for total and α-Troph-iRBCs

IgG in the statistical analyses (Supplementary Figure 6B and 6D).

Importantly, the events count in α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs and α-Troph-iRBCs IgM of the positive

controls at D21 and D23 exceeded both the event counts observed in the "naïve non-endemic

plasma" and the threshold of 200 events, confirming that our flow cytometry assay can detect

α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM (Supplementary Figure 6C). The time course of the "acute *Pf*-

infected non-endemic plasma at D0, D21 and D23" generally followed the expected IgG (D0

< D21 < D23) and IgM (D0 < D21 > D23) dynamics in α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM after

a *P. falciparum* infection [100, 101].

A) IgG+ Troph-Gam-iRBCs (% cells)

B) IgM+ Troph-Gam-iRBCs (% cells)

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Figure 7. IgG and IgM mediated humoral immune response against *P. falciparum* in plasma samples from
individuals with different human hemoglobin beta (HBB) genotypes. Data from *P. falciparum* infected (n =
44) and non-infected (n = 17) plasma samples collected at the Clinical Research Unit (CRUN) in Nanoro, Burkina
Faso (total n = 61). Data points show the total percentage of IgG-positive or IgM-positive trophozoite- and
gametocyte- infected red blood cells (α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM) for each HBB genotype group, with
median (bold line), quartiles and range indicated by whiskers. **(A)** Percentage of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG: total
(left), asexual (middle) and sexual (right). **(B)** Percentage α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM: total (left), asexual (middle)
sand sexual (right). Positive controls ("*Pf*-infected non-endemic" *i.e.,* three acute *Pf*-infected non-endemic plasma
samples from a traveller at D0, D21, and D23) and a negative control *i.e.,* "Naïve non-endemic": naïve plasma
from a non-endemic volunteer with HbAA genotype) are shown as individual dots per sample. The Y-axis range
differs between graphs for visualization. No significant differences were found (Kruskal-Wallis with Wilcoxon
Rank Sum post-hoc for non-parametric variables, one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc for parametric
variables, $p > 0.05$). **Abbreviations:** IgG and IgM, Immunoglobulin G and M; Troph-Gam-iRBCs, trophozoite-
and gametocyte-infected red blood cells; *Pf, P. falciparum*. D: Day(s).
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Comparison of IgG and IgM levels in plasma from different HBB genotypes living in a malaria endemic region by flow cytometry.

In endemic human plasma samples ($n = 61$) from individuals carrying different HBB genotypes living in Nanoro (Burkina Faso), a malaria endemic region, we found no significant differences in the levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM (% of cells/MFI data only reliable for α-Troph-Gam -iRBCs IgG) (Kruskal-Wallis with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc and one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc, $p > 0.05$) (Figure 7). When stratifying the Troph-Gam-iRBCs in asexual and sexual iRBCs, there was no significant difference in the levels of α-asexual and α-sexual iRBCs IgG & IgM in endemic plasma from individuals carrying different HBB genotypes in either subgroup (% of cells/MFI data only reliable for α- Troph-iRBCs IgG) Kruskal-Wallis with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc and one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc, $p > 0.05$) (Figure 7).

We detect low levels or absence of α-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM, and low levels or absence of IgM against Throph-Gam-iRBCs, Troph-iRBCs and Gam-iRBCs in the plasma of the endemic individuals, as compared to high levels of IgG against Throph-Gam-iRBCs and Troph-iRBCs (Figure 7 and Supplementary Figure 6).

Further analysis of the levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM in the study population by "*P. falciparum (Pf)* infection status", revealed that the levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM were higher in the *Pf*-infected individuals ($n = 44$, median[IQR] for IgG: 17.90[6.30], and for IgM: 2.03[3.34]) compared to the *Pf* non-infected individuals ($n = 17$, median[IQR] for IgG: 9.10[9.66], and for IgM: 1.56[1.27]) (Kruskal-Wallis test with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test, $p = 0.0063$** [for IgG]; and $p > 0.05$ [for IgM]) (Supplementary Figure 7). These results confirm the expected IgM dynamics, where IgM levels are highest during acute or recent infections (*Pf*-infected individuals) compared to past infections (*Pf* non-infected individuals) [100, 101].

Stratification analysis of the levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG & IgM by age-group (*i.e.,*

younger age: "1 to 4 years" compared to older age: "5 to 19 years") in *Pf*-infected compared to

Pf non-infected individuals, showed that both *Pf*-infected and *Pf* non-infected individuals with

younger age had lower levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgG (*Pf*-infected *n* = 22 and

median[IQR]: 17.90[7.23]; *Pf* non-infected n=15 and median[IQR]: 9.30[10.80]) than those

with an older age (*Pf*-infected *n* = 22 and median[IQR]:18.60[5.64]; *Pf* non-infected *n* = 2 and

median[IQR]: 12.60[3.69]) (One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test [IgG]; Kruskal-

Wallis with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test [IgM], all *p* > 0.05). *Pf*-infected individuals with

younger age had slightly higher levels of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM (*n* = 22, median[IQR]:

2.19[2.33]) than those with an older age (*n* = 22, median[IQR]: 1.87[3.04]) (Kruskal-Wallis

with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test, *p* > 0.05). In contrast, the levels of α- Troph-Gam-

iRBCs IgM in *Pf* non-infected individuals with younger age were slightly lower (*n* = 15,

median[IQR]: 1.56[1.12]) than those with an older age (*n* = 2, median[IQR]: 2.18[0.00])

(Kruskal-Wallis with Wilcoxon Rank Sum post-hoc test, *p* > 0.05).

Together these results (the positive controls exceeding the 200 events threshold for α-Troph-

Gam-iRBCs IgM and IgG, the dynamic of α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM and of IgG in the time

course of the acute *Pf*-infected non-endemic plasma), show that the flow cytometry assay can

accurately detect Troph-iRBCs IgM levels despite the low level or absence in endemic

individuals (Figure 7). The increase of IgG with age (*i.e.,* exposure in endemic individuals) and

decrease of IgM with age gives insight into the reason for the low α-Troph-Gam-iRBCs IgM

levels in the endemic plasma (exposure leads to a build-up of immunity that replaces low-

affinity IgM by an affinity-matured IgG response) [101-105].

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DISCUSSION

Our study demonstrates that *P. falciparum* sexual conversion (SC) is significantly influenced by host hemoglobin genotype. Both *ex vivo* and *in vitro* assays showed that parasites growing in RBCs carrying HBB mutations HbAS and HbAC had higher sexual conversion rates than those in HbAA. This genotype-dependent modulation of sexual conversion was accompanied by a developmental delay in parasites within HbS- and HbC-infected RBCs but was not associated with differences in IgG or IgM responses against trophozoite- and early gametocyte-infected RBC surface antigens. Together, these findings indicate that host RBC intrinsic properties, rather than humoral immunity, underly altered parasite reproductive strategies in HBB mutant backgrounds.

Amoah et al., (2020) [106] analyzed the effect of HBB genotype on SC of field isolates from Ghanaian children aged 6-15 years with uncomplicated malaria, and reported a non-significant trend of decreasing sexual conversion rates (SCRs) from HbAA to HbAC and HbAS. The discrepancy with our results is most likely methodological, because quantifying sexual conversion in natural infections is challenging as parasites in freshly collected blood include morphologically indistinguishable sexual and asexual rings. The authors (similarly to Usui et al., (2019) [55]) used prolonged culture (≥4 days) to distinguish sexual stages from asexual forms. The limitation of this approach is the timing mismatch where SCRs are measured as the ratio of stage II gametocytes on day 4 (D4) by the total parasitemia on day 0 (D0). This can underestimate SCR because parasites contributing to the denominator (D0) are counted before culture adaptation affects viability, while the numerator (D4) includes only gametocytes that survive and mature after several days in *ex vivo* conditions, during which parasite loss can occur. Similarly, Usui et al., (2019) [55] faced limitations when quantifying low SCRs (<0.3%) in low-density natural infections by LM. For instance at 0.05% parasitemia and 0.3% SCRs, they would be detecting five gametocytes among 30,000 RBCs. This approach provides limited

sensitivity and resolution and could explain why up to 24% of samples were reported as

gametocyte negative.

We addressed these limitations using an adapted *ev*SCA to quantify next cycle sexual

conversion [50]. We measure whether in-host exposure in individuals with RBCs with different

HBB genotypes leads to stimulation of sexual commitment. We quantify the in-host effect by

assessing the subsequent sexual conversion (next cycle, *ex vivo*) as number of stage I

gametocytes (gamI) per number of schizonts and gamI (overall parasites) 24 hours post culture

(hpc). Quantification is done by immunofluorescence, gamI detected by Pfs16 and overall

parasites by DAPI [107]. Inclusion of PKG inhibitor ML10 prevented reinvasion, allowing

numerator and denominator measurements for the SCR at the same time point, while

enrichment using LD columns improved sensitivity. This approach reliably quantified sexual

conversion in infections with densities as low as 0.05% (~2,500 parasites/µl) an detected a

minimum of 38 stage I gametocytes per sample, with no gametocyte-negative cultures.

We validated *ex vivo* findings using an *iv*SCA with a *gexp02-reporter* line [53], allowing early

detection of sexual rings. While our SCR results in *iv*SCA were broadly consistent with those

of Flage, B., et al., (2023) [39] for HbAA and HbAS RBCs (median SCRs: 10.8% vs. 10% in

HbAA; 16.5% vs. 15% in HbAS), the results are not directly comparable due to clear

methodological differences in how SCR was measured. In our assay, SCR is defined and

measured as the proportion of *gexp02*-expressing parasites among total parasites at the next

cycle conversion (generation 1), while Flage, B., et al., (2023) [39] quantified sexual parasites

at generation 1 and total parasitaemia at generation 0 making direct comparison impossible.

We observed a partial developmental delay in parasites infecting HbAS and HbAC RBCs, and

a more pronounced arrest or extreme delay in HbSS and HbSC under low-oxygen conditions

(5% O_2), both by microscopy and flow cytometry, consistent with the findings of Archer, N.M.,

et al., (2018) [31]. Later time-point measurements (~35-40 hpi) increased SCRs in endemic

HbAA, HbAC, and HbAS RBCs compared with ~25-30 hpi, suggesting delayed sexual marker

expression and thus underestimation of SCR at the earlier time point due to developmental

delay. Of note, parasites grown in control non-endemic HbAA RBCs showed stable SCRs

across both time points. The observed differences between endemic and non-endemic HbAA

RBCs may reflect unmeasured host genetic factors (*e.g.,* blood group variants or other

erythrocytic polymorphisms). In HbSS and HbSC RBCs, we observe SCRs similar to HbAA

and lower than HbAS and HbAC, consistently across both measurement time points. This

contrasts with Flage, B., et al., (2023) [39], who reported markedly higher SCR in HbSS RBCs

(6.96% vs. 35% in Flage, B., et al., 2023) and no developmental delay at day 2 of culture,

although this was not quantitatively assessed. As noted above, differences in the timing and

approach used to quantify SCR make the results not comparable between studies.

Under choline-depleted conditions, SCRs in HbSS and HbSC increased modestly (from <10%

to 10-20%) but remained below levels in HbAA, HbAC, and HbAS RBCs (>30-40%). This is

likely due to severe developmental delay causing under-detection of sexually committed rings

at the measured time points rather than inhibited sexual commitment. Overall, our data

indicates that accurately assessing sexual conversion in HbSS and HbSC RBCs is challenging

with this approach due to developmental delay. Measuring sexual commitment one cycle

earlier, for instance through *GDV1* activation, might circumvent this issue, although this is

experimentally demanding because *GDV1* is expressed transiently and at low levels. Given the

very low prevalence of HbSS and HbSC genotypes in malaria-endemic populations, the added

value of such complex assays for transmission studies is likely limited.

We evaluated potential confounding factors that could influence sexual conversion as they

were previously linked to SC [76, 77] [70, 108-112] , including reticulocyte abundance,

parasitemia, and ABO blood group. No significant differences in reticulocyte percentages were

observed among HbAA, HbAC, and HbAS RBCs, and reticulocyte levels did not correlate with SCRs at 35-40 hpi. Similarly, neither baseline parasitemia nor ABO blood group influenced SCR in either the *ev*SCA or *iv*SCA. Together, these results indicate that the observed increase in sexual conversion is specifically associated with HBB genotype rather than these other host-related variables.

The increase in SC in RBCs with HBB mutant genotypes *in vitro*, in the absence of plasma and white blood cells, points to RBC-intrinsic effects rather than host immune responses or soluble plasma factors. HbS and HbC RBCs exhibit elevated levels of free heme [113], linked to increased oxidative stress that leads to polymerization of HbS under low oxygen conditions [114], and delays parasite development [31]. The oxidative stress inhibits actin polymerization in infected HbS and HbC RBCs [32], which alters protein trafficking and PfEMP1 display [27, 30]. This reduces cytoadherence [34], and membrane flexibility [33]. Oxidative stress also modifies RBC micro RNAs that can hybridize with parasite mRNAs [26], directly affecting parasite development and metabolism, and increasing gametogenesis [39]. Flage, B., et al., (2023) [39] showed that heme directly induces sexual conversion. Taken together, these findings suggest that the effect of HbAC and HbAS RBCs on SC *in vitro* is likely driven by oxidative stress caused by free heme within these RBCs, mediated by their specific miRNA profiles. The stronger effect *ex vivo*, particularly in HbAS (7.07- vs ~2.05- fold *in vitro*), probably reflects additional *in vivo* factors such as parasite genetic diversity [55, 107], or host factors not captured *in vitro* [115, 116].

To further investigate potential *in vivo* influences, we looked into the humoral immune response in the different HBB genotypes. Reduced antigen presentation, cytoadherence, and increased splenic clearance [34] could plausibly lead to an altered immune response in HbAC and HbAS. However, epidemiological studies examining immunity in individuals with HbAS and HbAC genotypes have yielded conflicting results. Gong et al. (2012) [28] reported that

older children with HbAS were more protected against the establishment of parasitemia, suggesting an acquired mechanism of protection. In contrast, Tan et al. (2011) [117] found no differences in antibody responses between individuals with HbAA, HbAS, and HbAC genotypes against their panel of 491 immunoreactive *P. falciparum* antigens. More recent studies have shown that serological responses tend to be lower in individuals with HbAC and HbAS when focusing on specific surface antigens [118, 119]. In a cross-sectional study conducted in Ghana, Harp et al., (2020) [120] investigated circulating inflammatory cytokines and observed that expression levels of CXCL10, TNF-α, CCL2, IL-8, and IL-6 varied by hemoglobin genotype.

Given that differences in serological responses appear specific to certain surface antigens, we chose to measure IgG and IgM levels against intact infected RBCs. This approach enables the assessment of immune responses to native surface antigens, minimizing potential artifacts arising from non-native protein folding, glycosylation, or conformation. We focused on trophozoite-infected RBCs (25-30 hpi), as surface antigen presentation (*i.e.,* PfEMP1 expression) begins around 16 hpi and plateaus at approximately 24 hpi [121]. Moreover, commitment to sexual conversion occurs between 17-37 hpi [50, 70], suggesting that any antibody-mediated induction of sexual commitment would need to occur at this stage.

We compared IgG and IgM responses to trophozoite- and gametocyte-infected RBCs (Troph-Gam-iRBCs) using plasma samples from Burkinabé individuals carrying HbAA, HbAC, HbAS, HbCC, and HbSC genotypes, assessed by flow cytometry. Our analyses revealed no significant differences in anti–Troph-Gam-iRBC IgG or IgM levels across genotypes. IgM responses, as well as responses against gametocyte-infected RBCs, were generally low or absent. Therefore, we could not confirm genotype-dependent differences in humoral responses to these parasite stages and consider it unlikely that antibodies directly drive the differential SC observed in these individuals. Nonetheless, this does not exclude the possibility that

genotype-specific antibody responses to later parasite stages –particularly during gametocytogenesis, as suggested by recent studies on gametocyte antigenicity [97, 122]– could influence transmission potential, either by promoting clearance of developing gametocytes in the human host or by inducing gametocyte sterility within the mosquito vector [123].

Overall, this study robustly demonstrates elevated sexual conversion of *P. falciparum* parasites in HbAS and HbAC RBCs both *in vitro* and *ex vivo*. These findings further support the view that *P. falciparum* can adjust its reproductive investment in response to stress-related cues. In mutant HBB RBCs, elevated levels of free heme can induce developmental delay and thereby compromise survival within the human host; increased investment in sexual conversion may thus represent a parasite survival strategy [31, 39, 68].

Previous studies have shown that microenvironmental factors such as LysoPC depletion, nutrient limitation and exposure to antimalarial drugs can modulate malaria transmission by changing the rate of parasite's sexual conversion. How factors such as free heme, are being translated into a signal received by epigenetic regulators controlling the sexual commitment gene ap2-g or gdv1 remains an open question [39, 50].

At the population level, HBB mutant genotypes have been linked to increased gametocyte carriage and higher mosquito infectivity. In Burkina Faso, Gouagna et al. (2010) [41]reported two- to fourfold higher infection rates in HbAS, HbAC, and HbCC carriers. Similar trends were observed in Mali and Cameroon, where Gonçalves et al. (2017) [45] and Ngou et al. (2023)[44] found that HbAC and HbAS individuals carried more gametocytes and were more infectious to mosquitoes than HbAA. These population-level associations are consistent with our findings, and suggest that increased sexual conversion in mutant HBB RBCs may contribute to enhanced transmission potential.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Yasmina Drissi-El Boukili, Conceptualization, Resources, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Investigation and laboratory procedures, Methodology, Writing- original draft, Writing- review and editing; Vera Kühne, Methodology, Writing- review and editing, Substantial revisions and conceptual input; Pieter Moris, Formal analysis (statistical analysis, model fitting using GLMMs); Elisabet Tintó-Font, Methodology (SCAs); Odin Goovaerts, Methodology (flow cytometry); Pieter Guetens, laboratory procedures and analysis (HBBseq and qPCR); Ana Moreno-Murillo; laboratory procedures and analysis (HBBseq); Yarno Valgaerts, laboratory procedures (IgG and IgM detection by flow cytometry); H. Magloire Natama, Supervision, Writing- review and editing; Alfred Cortés, Supervision, Writing- review and editing; Guy Caljon, Supervision, Writing- review and editing; Anna Rosanas-Urgell, Conceptualization, Resources, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing- original draft, Project administration, Writing- review and editing, Substantial revisions and conceptual input. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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