Hierarchical transcriptional control regulates *Plasmodium falciparum* sexual

differentiation

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Abstract

Malaria pathogenesis relies on sexual gametocyte forms of the malaria parasite to be transmitted between the infected human and the mosquito host but the molecular mechanisms controlling gametocytogenesis remains poorly understood. Here we provide a high-resolution transcriptome of *Plasmodium falciparum* as it commits to and develops through gametocytogenesis. The gametocyte-associated transcriptome is significantly different from that of the asexual parasites, with dynamic gene expression shifts characterizing early, intermediate and late-stage gametocyte development and results in differential timing for sex-specific transcripts. The striking transcriptional dynamics suggest strict transcriptional control during gametocytogenesis in *P. falciparum,* which we propose is mediated by putative regulators including epigenetic mechanisms (driving active repression of proliferation-associated processes) and a cascade-like expression of ApiAP2 transcription factors. The gametocyte transcriptome serves as the blueprint for sexual differentiation and will be a rich resource for future functional studies on this critical stage of *Plasmodium* development, as the intraerythrocytic transcriptome has been for our understanding of the asexual cycle.

Keywords:

Malaria, *Plasmodium*, gametocyte, gametocytogenesis, transcriptome, gene expression regulation, differentiation, sexual development

Introduction

Sustained malaria prevalence is ensured through continued human-to-mosquito transmission of *Plasmodium* parasites with *Plasmodium falciparum* being the causative agent of the most severe form of the disease in humans (1). The complex life cycle of *P. falciparum* encompasses development in the liver and erythrocytes of its human host and transmission by the female *Anopheline* mosquito. Two distinct developmental phases characterize intraerythrocytic development: rapid, cyclic asexual cell division manifesting in pathology, and the stochastic (<10%) sexual differentiation into gametocytes (2,3), which produces the non-replicative, mature, transmissible forms of the parasite. Whilst the intraerythrocytic developmental cycle (IDC) is relatively rapid (~48 h) and results in massive cell number expansion, sexual differentiation and development (gametocytogenesis) is a prolonged process (~10 days) in *P. falciparum* and is characterized by the development of the parasite through five morphologically distinct gametocyte stages (stages I-V) (4).

The processes of asexual replication and sexual differentiation in *Plasmodium* are associated with distinct patterns of gene expression that are tightly controlled through complex regulatory systems (5). These patterns have been investigated to some extent for asexual replication where *P. falciparum* parasites use both transcriptional (6–8) and post-transcriptional processes (9,10) to effect a cascade of coordinated, stage-specific gene expression (11,12). Despite the identification of some putative regulators of gene expression, including the Apicomplexan-specific ApiAP2 family of transcription factors (13–15) and epigenetic regulation of particular gene families (16,17), the specific mechanisms controlling transcriptional activation in the parasite

are incompletely understood, with recent data clearly showing mRNA dynamics are

also influenced by additional post-transcriptional mechanisms (18,19).

The mechanisms regulating commitment to gametocytogenesis have been somewhat

clarified recently, with the discovery of host LysoPC restriction acting as an

environmental factor driving gametocyte commitment (20). The AP2-G transcription

factor acts as a molecular master switch of sexual commitment (21–24) and results in

the expression of genes that drive entry into gametocytogenesis (22–26). The *ap2-g*

gene is released from an epigenetically silenced state (27,28) through the antagonism

of heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) epigenetic silencing of the *ap2-g* locus by the

gametocyte development protein 1 (GDV1). (29). Commitment to gametocytogenesis

further requires stabilization of a subset of gametocyte-specific transcripts (18).

Despite these advances toward unravelling the mechanisms of commitment, the

molecular functions governing subsequent gametocyte development and maturation

remain poorly understood. Previously, deletion of certain ApiAP2 proteins has been

shown to prevent progression of gametocyte development in the rodent parasite *P.*

berghei (30) and *P. falciparum* (31). Further, a subset of transcripts are translationally

repressed by RNA binding proteins such as the Pumilio family protein (PUF2) during

gametocytogenesis and ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX6 (DOZI) and trailer hitch

homolog (CITH) that repress female gametocyte transcripts needed to complete

gametogenesis (32,33). However, systematic exploration of gene expression for *P.*

falciparum gametocytogenesis has been limited to evaluation of the transcriptome

(34–38) and proteome (35,39–41) at specific developmental timepoints. This includes

the bifurcation in committing asexual parasites to gametocytogenesis (18,20,25), and evaluation of mature gametocytes in preparation for transmission (35,40,41). Current datasets that evaluate the complete gametocyte development process are sparse (36) and preclude dynamic evaluation of the transcriptomic profile associated with the extended gametocyte development process of *P. falciparum* parasites. Therefore, a time-resolved, high-resolution dataset capturing the transcriptome of each stage of gametocyte development would greatly enhance our ability to compare gene expression levels throughout the 10 days of gametocyte development and maturation.

Here we describe a comprehensive transcriptome analysis of *P. falciparum* parasites during all stages of sexual development at daily resolution. By measuring transcript abundance pre- and post-commitment, the transcriptional profile of gametocytes can be completely distinguished from that of asexual parasites. The data show marked shifts in transcript abundance associated with morphological stage transitions, indicating that gene expression occurs on a time scale consistent with developmental decisions underlying gametocyte development. We also show that post-commitment, the gametocyte transcriptome is shaped by specific epigenetic marks and ApiAP2 transcription factors. The gametocyte transcriptome provides a quantitative baseline of gene expression throughout sexual development and constitutes a highly valuable resource that could be exploited to further understand the molecular mechanisms governing sexual differentiation and maturation of the malaria parasite.

Results

Transition between sexual and asexual stages of development defined by transcriptome

P. falciparum NF54-*pfs16*-GFP-Luc (42) parasites were induced to form gametocytes after 1.5 cycles of asexual development (3 days) and monitored for the next 13 days to capture gametocyte commitment and development to mature stage V gametocytes (Fig 1A). Tight synchronization of the asexual parasites ensured coordinated gametocyte development, and gametocytes (stage I) were observed in culture from day 0 onwards (Fig 1B). Morphological evaluation showed a shift from a predominantly asexual parasite population to >60% gametocytes by day 3 of gametocytogenesis following the removal of asexual stages (Fig 1B).

We measured mRNA abundance genome-wide using DNA microarrays at daily intervals, capturing expression values for 96-99% of the 5443 genes measured per timepoint ($P<0.01$, Supplementary File 1). Overall, the transcriptome of gametocytes is distinct from asexual parasites, as is evidenced by a clear shift in Pearson correlation between the transcriptomes of asexual parasites (day -2 to 2) and gametocytes (day 3 onward) (Fig 1C). Populations containing predominantly asexual parasites (days -2 to 2) were highly correlated across the first two 48 h cycles (r^2=0.54-0.86, Supplementary File 2) and were characterized by periodic gene expression changes between the asexual ring and trophozoite stages (Fig 1C). From Day 3 onward, the transcriptional profiles diverged indicating a switch from asexual to sexual development, evidenced by a loss of the 48 h correlation pattern (Fig 1C). During subsequent days of gametocytogenesis, peak correlations were associated with

developmental progression through stage I-II (days 3-5, r^2=0.56-0.73), stage III-IV

(days 6-9, r^2=0.51-0.92), and mature stage V gametocytes (days 10-13, r^2=0.50-0.84)

(Fig 1C, Supplementary File 2).

Progression from asexual to sexual development was also clearly detectable in the

expression profiles of individual genes required during asexual development (*e.g.*

kahrp (pf3d7_0202000)) while sexual genes were only expressed during gametocyte

development from Day 3 (43) (Fig 1D). The genes restricted to expression during

sexual development include downstream targets of PfAP2-G (23) and markers

associated with mature gametocyte sex-specificity (Fig 1D) (35) and 24 novel

gametocyte-associated transcripts (Supplementary File 2). Among these transcripts

were a putative ncRNA, three rRNAs and two tRNAs, suggesting that the expression

of non-coding RNAs may not only play a role during gametocyte commitment (18) but

also in gametocyte development and maturation in *P. falciparum.* Together, these data

comprise a high-resolution *P. falciparum* blood stage developmental transcriptome

that allows for the temporal evaluation of transcriptional abundance patterns

associated with gametocyte commitment, development and maturation.

The gametocyte-specific transcriptional program reflects the molecular

landscape of gametocyte development

To associate temporal gene expression to particular events during gametocyte

commitment and stage transitions throughout development, the full 16-day

transcriptome dataset was K-means clustered revealing 2763 transcripts with overall

decreased abundance (clusters 1-5) and 2425 with increased abundance during

gametocytogenesis (clusters 6-10, Fig 2A). Therefore, gametocytogenesis relies on a

more specialized program of gene expression compared to asexual development, with

only 45% of transcripts showing increased abundance during gametocyte

development (Fig 2A) compared to the 80-95% of transcripts increased during specific

phases of asexual development (11,19,44). Interestingly, individual clusters showed

specific patterns of gene expression throughout gametocyte development (Fig 2A),

with transcript abundance during gametocytogenesis either decreased following

asexual development (clusters 1-3, 1042 transcripts); maintained (clusters 4-5, 1721

transcripts) or increased (cluster 6-7, 1571 transcripts). Three clusters (clusters 8-10)

show transcripts with specific peaks in expression evident during development,

indicative of developmental regulation.

Cluster 1 is predominantly comprised of critical asexual stage transcripts which

showed a decline in abundance during gametocytogenesis, with up to 5 $\log_2$ fold

decreases in the expression of these transcripts between the ring and early

gametocyte stages (Fig 2A). These transcripts include Maurer's cleft proteins *e.g. rex1*

(pf3d7_0935900) and *rex2 (pf3d7_0936000)* as well as knob associated proteins that

form part of the cytoadherence complex *(kahrp (pf3d7_0202000), kahsp40*

(pf3d7_0201800)), supporting earlier observations that the gametocytes mediate

sequestration via different mechanisms than asexual parasites (45). Many of these

cytoadherence associated transcripts are associated with heterochromatin protein 1

(HP1) occupancy during gametocyte development (46), and other HP1 (46,47) and

H3K9me3 (17) repressed genes are also significantly enriched in cluster 1 (*P*<0.0001,

Fisher's exact test, genes listed in Supplementary File 3). This suggests asexual

development-specific genes are actively repressed by epigenetic regulation

throughout gametocyte development. Clusters 1-3 also contain transcripts involved in

metabolic processes that are not critical to gametocyte development including genes

encoding for enzymes of heme metabolism and glycolysis (Fig 2B, cluster 3,

Supplementary File 1) as well as regulators of egress (*pkg (pf3d7_1436600)*) and

invasion (*bdp1 (pf3d7_1033700)* and *ap2-i* (*pf3d7_1007700*)), all processes that are

not necessary for gametocyte maturation (Fig 2A, cluster 2). Beyond these examples,

clusters 1-3 also contain 214 unannotated genes that could be specifically required for

asexual development only (Fig 2B).

Some transcripts show low abundance throughout gametocytogenesis (Fig 2A,

clusters 4 and 5, average expression <0.1 $\log_2$(Cy5/Cy3), with amplitude change <0.5

$\log_2$(Cy5/Cy3)). These clusters include regulators of proliferation (*e.g.* origin of

replication complex protein *mcm4 (pf3d7_1317100),* proliferating cell antigen 1

(*pf3d7_1361900)* and cyclin dependent kinase *crk4 (pf3d7_0317200*)). By

comparison, clusters with transcripts maintained at increased levels throughout

commitment and development (Fig 2A, clusters 6 and 7, average $\log_2$(Cy5/Cy3) >0.31)

included expected gene sets involved in the constitutive processes of macromolecular

metabolism (*e.g.* DNA replication, protein modification and RNA metabolism Fig 2B,

Supplementary File 1) (36,38). Interestingly, cluster 6 (and cluster 2) showed a high

degree of cyclic oscillation in transcript abundance (Fig 2A). Many of these transcripts

relate to transport, general cellular metabolism and homeostasis, functions in which

fluctuation would not be unexpected (Fig 2B, Supplementary File 1). Importantly,

cluster 7 also contained transcripts classified by gene ontology as involved in cellular

differentiation *(caf40 (pf3d7_0507600)*, *pf3d7_0918400, pf3d7_0926800* and *speld*

(pf3d7_1137800)) (GO:0030154, *P*=0.026, Fig 2B, S1 Table).

A significant proportion (15%) of the transcriptome associated with peak expression during specific stage-transitions in gametocyte development (Fig 2A, clusters 8-10), reminiscent of the phased expression typical of the asexual transcriptome (11,12). Transcripts involved in early-stage development increased from stage I-II in cluster 8 in a transcriptional profile often associated with targets of AP2-G (22,23,25). Transcripts in cluster 9 increased in abundance in the intermediate phase of development (stage III-IV) before the expression of transcripts required for development in mosquitoes in cluster 10 (stage V, *gamer* (*pf3d7_0805200*), *mtrap* (*pf3d7_1028700*), *cht1* (*pf3d7_1252200*), Fig 2A &B). The transcripts in clusters 8-10 are thus markers of biological transitions during gametocyte development. Clusters 6 & 8 are enriched for genes that contribute to the metabolic shift to mitochondrial metabolism (*e.g.* malate dehydrogenase *(mdh, pf3d7_0618500))* and fatty acid biosynthesis (*e.g.* β-ketoacyl-ACP synthase III (*kasIII, pf3d7_0618500))* (48,49) in gametocytes, followed by the emergence of processes related to cytoskeletal formation (clusters 8 & 9, Fig 2A &B, Table S1) that lead to the construction of a rigid subpellicular microtubule array during the sequestering stages (stages I-IV) of gametocytes (50). The microtubule array results in the characteristic crescent shape of the intermediate stages before the complex depolymerizes in stage V that is accompanied by the increased transcript abundance of actin depolymerization factors 1 and 2 (Fig 2A, cluster 10, *pf3d7_0503400, pf3d7_1361400*) to allow for a more deformable erythrocyte that can re-enter circulation (50). This cluster also includes the genes encoding the serine repeat antigens (*sera*) 3 and 5 *(pf3d7_0207800, pf3d7_0207600)* that play a role in egress in asexual parasites (51,52), implying that they may retain this role during gametocyte egress from the erythrocyte in the

mosquito midgut. The striking temporal patterns of transcript abundance in clusters 8-

10 suggests strict transcriptional regulation of these genes to ensure the timing of

gametocyte sequestration, circulation and egress. Interestingly, these patterns are

exhibited by parasites that need not fulfil any of these functions when grown *in vitro* in

the absence of host-interactions, suggesting that transcription of these genes is hard-

wired*.*

Different regulatory modules enable sexual commitment and development

The time-resolved gametocyte transcriptome also allows interrogation of the

expression of genes involved in sexual commitment throughout gametocyte

development (18,20,25) (Fig 3). In total, previous reports produced a set of 1075

unique genes proposed to function as an "on switch" that characterizes gametocyte

commitment (18,20,25). Of these, 680 genes (63%) also have increased transcript

abundance during gametocyte development (Fig 3). These increased transcripts

include those encoding epigenetic regulators involved in cell cycle control such as

SIR2A (PF3D7_1328800) and SAP18 (PF3D7_0711400) that contribute to decreased

DNA synthesis and a block in proliferation (53,54) necessary for the parasite to

differentiate (Fig 3A). The remaining 395 transcripts are not increased in abundance

during gametocyte development, suggesting that these transcripts are short lived and

possibly only essential during gametocyte commitment. These short lived transcripts

include *gdv1,* whose protein product prevents epigenetic repression of *ap2-g* during

commitment (29), and *iswi* and *sn2fl*, which encode chromatin remodeling proteins

(Fig 3A)*,* that are expressed in sexually committed cells downstream of *ap2-g* (25).

From our data we also identified a specific 5' *cis*-regulatory motif (AGACA) that is

enriched upstream of 539 genes with increased transcript abundance throughout

gametocytogenesis (Fig 3B, Supplementary File 3), suggesting that transcriptional

regulation of genes containing this motif could be important for gametocyte

development. This AGACA motif has been associated with sexual commitment and

development in previous datasets (18,55). In addition, a second motif (ATGTGTA) was

also highly over-represented in the transcripts with increased abundance throughout

gametocytogenesis (Fig 3B, S3 Table). This motif has been correlated with genes

involved in DNA replication (56) and the significance of this enrichment in genes

associated with differentiation is unclear and their *trans*-acting factors have not been

identified (15,57).

Transcriptional patterns characterize distinct transitions in gametocyte

development

Apart from commitment to sexual development, the parasite also undergoes distinct

developmental and transcriptional transitions during gametocyte development. The

initial transition occurring in stage I gametocytes and regulating immature gametocyte

development is characterised by increased transcript abundance in cluster 8 (Fig 4A),

which showed a significant enrichment for genes involved in regulation of transcription

(GO:0010468, 11 transcripts, *P*=0.029) including the specific ApiAP2 transcription

factors *pf3d7_0404100, pf3d7_0516800, pf3d7_1429200* and the *myb1* transcription

factor (*pf3d7_1315800*) (Fig 4A). Other genes with potential regulatory functions

include a possible novel transcription factor, *pf3d7_0603600*, which contains an AT-

rich interaction domain (IPR001606: ARID) and an uncharacterized RNA binding

protein *(pf3d7_1241400)*. Proteins expressed by these two genes have been detected

previously during gametocyte development (Fig 4A) (34,35,40,41). These proteins,

along with the C-Myc binding protein MYCBP (PF3D7_0715100), are of interest for

further study to determine their role in controlling gene expression during gametocyte

development.

A second outcome of the initial transition into gametocytogenesis is the determination

of sex differentiation in *P. falciparum* parasites, which is proposed to be an PfAP2-G

independent process that occurs at the very onset of commitment (18,35,40,41,58).

However, sexually dimorphic gametocytes are only morphologically detectable by

microscopy from stage III onwards (59). Our data indicate that the male-enriched

transcripts from Lasonder *et al.* 2016 (35) show increased abundance earlier in

development (stage I-II; 27% of cluster 8, $P<0.0001$, two-tailed Fisher's exact test, Fig

4B, Supplementary File 3) compared to female transcripts. This observation is

particularly interesting given the low ratio of male to female gametocytes in mixed

populations (60), which suggests the rapid increase in male-enriched transcript

abundance may be important for promoting male gametocyte development. These 98

male-enriched transcripts include 3 genes containing putative RNA binding motifs

(*pf3d7_1126800, pf3d7_0414500, pf3d7_1438800*) that are highly abundant from

stage I onwards, suggesting that these transcripts may be good biomarkers of early

male differentiation as an alternative to α-tubulin II, which is expressed promiscuously

in early gametocyte populations (61). Other male transcripts code for a meiotic protein

(PF3D7_1311100),   MGET   (PF3D7_1469900),   PF3D7_1010400   and   P25A

(PF3D7_1236600), which increase in abundance following the initial transcripts.

Female-enriched transcripts (35) peak in abundance only after sexual dimorphism is clearly discernible, from stage II-III onwards (Fig 4B) and are significantly overrepresented in the intermediate development cluster 9 (Fig 4B, Supplementary File 3, 76% of the cluster, *P*<0.0001, two-tailed Fisher's exact test). Overall, this trend held true for the 158 female-enriched transcripts in cluster 9, including those encoding canonical female markers, *e.g.* osmiophilic body protein *g377* (*pf3d7_1250100*) (62,63), late-stage antigen *pfs25* (*pf3d7_1031000*) (35,63) and *ccp1-3* (*pf3d7_1475500, pf3d7_1455800, pf3d7_1407000*) (35,63) and *ccp4* (*pf3d7_0903800*) that was recently used to reliably type male and female gametocytes in late-stage gametocytes (64). We also detect a small subset of female-enriched transcripts (*pf3d7_0918700, imp2* (*pf3d7_0730400*), *pf3d7_1007800, pf3d7_1466800, pf3d7_1146800, obc13* (*pf3d7_1214800*)) that are expressed earlier in gametocyte development (Fig 4B) and could potentially be important for female development before morphological differences are apparent.

The second transcriptional transition we observed coincides with the onset of gametocyte maturation from stage IV to V (Fig 4C). These transcripts show increased abundance in sexually committed asexual parasites as well as mature stage V gametocytes but have diminished abundance during the early and intermediate stages of gametocytogenesis (cluster 10, Fig 4C). This cluster was significantly enriched for transcripts stabilized during commitment (47% of transcripts, *P*<0.0001, two-tailed Fisher's exact test) (18), as well as genes marked with H3K36me3 in asexual parasites (49% *P*<0.0001, Fisher's exact test) (16). Interestingly, the epigenetic H3K36me3 mark is abundant during the intermediate stages of gametocyte development (65) and genes overlapping in the three datasets encode transcripts associated with the

intracellular signalling machinery of the parasite (*cdpk1 (pf3d7_0217500), cdpk5*

(pf3d7_1337800) and adenylyl cyclase beta *(pf3d7_ 0802600,* (66))*,* along with cAMP-

dependent protein kinase A catalytic and regulatory subunits (*pkac (pf3d7_0934800),*

pkar (pf3d7_1223100) (Fig 4C). Of these, CDPK1 has been confirmed to function in

de-repressing female gametocyte transcripts during parasite development in

mosquitoes (67). Several of the genes in cluster 10 also have roles in invasion

including the merozoite proteins *msp1, pf3d7_0930300, msp2, pf3d7_0206800, rh4,*

pf3d7_0424200, and rh5, pf3d7_0424100, suggesting that invasion genes need to

again be expressed for transition to gametogenesis in the mosquito. Overall, the

gametocyte transcriptome reveals three major stages in gametocyte development

(differentiation (Fig 4A), intermediate development (Fig 4B), maturation (Fig 4C)) that

promote gametocyte development of *P. falciparum* parasites.

ApiAP2 transcription factors are expressed at specific intervals during

gametocytogenesis

To investigate the possible contribution of factors associated with transcriptional

regulation to the observed stage-progressions during gametocytogenesis, we

interrogated the expression of the genes encoding the ApiAP2 transcription factor

family (Fig 5). Of the 27 family members, 15 genes encoding ApiAP2 transcription

factors increased in transcript abundance during gametocyte development. Transcript

abundance for *pf3d7_0404100, pf3d7_1350900, pf3d7_1449500, pf3d7_0802100,*

pf3d7_1429200 increased consistently throughout the time course (Figure S1).

However, most ApiAP2-encoding transcripts increased in abundance at discrete

intervals (Fig 5A) throughout gametocytogenesis. As expected, *ap2-g*

(pf3d7_1222600) transcript abundance increased before the appearance of gametocytes (days -1 to 2). The target genes bound by AP2-G (23), peaked in transcript abundance directly following AP2-G peak abundance as expected, coinciding with stage I of gametocyte development (Supplementary Fig S2). Thereafter, three transcription factors *pf3d7_1408200, pf3d7_1317200* and *pf3d7_0611200* were increased during stage I to III of development (days 2-6). In the rodent-infectious malaria parasites *P. berghei* and *P. yoelii*, orthologs of the first two genes have been associated with gametocyte development through knockout studies (21,30). Three ApiAP2-encoding transcripts for *pf3d7_0516800, pf3d7_1222400, pf3d7_0934400* were increased in abundance from stage I to V of development (Fig 5A), following a pattern similar to the increased abundance of cluster 8 (Fig 4A). During the later stages, *pf3d7_1143100, pf3d7_1239200* and *pf3d7_0613800* were increased in abundance. Expression of PF3d7_1143100 is translationally repressed in *P. berghei* gametocytes (32), indicating that these transcription factors may not contribute to gene expression in *P. falciparum* gametocytes, but may instead have functional significance in subsequent development in the mosquito.

To associate functional regulation of gene sets due to the cascade-like increased abundance of the transcripts encoding the ApiAP2 transcription factors, the gametocyte transcriptome was analysed using Gene Regulatory Network Inference Using Time Series (GRENITS (68)) (Supplementary File 1) with the strongest predicted regulators shown in Fig 5B. From this analysis, *pf3d7_0611200,* which increased in abundance directly following *ap2-g,* coexpressed with 314 genes (probability linkage >0.6), 223 of which were anti-correlated for expression and functionally enriched for genes involved in host invasion (GO:0044409: entry into host,

P=2.97e^{-12}; Fig 5B). The large proportion of genes putatively repressed by this

transcription factor would point to *pf3d7_0611200* acting as a repressive ApiAP2

transcription factor during gametocyte development, either alongside or instead of the

P. falciparum ortholog of *pbap2-g2*, *pf3d7_1408200.* The second *apiap2* transcript

increased in abundance, is *pf3d7_1317200,* the *P. falciparum* ortholog of *pbap2-g3,*

coexpressed with 21 genes involved in cell cycle processes, including DNA replication

(GO:0044786, *P*=0.0061) and chromosome organization (GO:0051276 *P*=0.0046).

This ApiAP2 transcription factor has been previously associated with gametocyte

development (31,69) and could be an important driver of stage II-III development. The

two final ApiAP2 transcription factors are increased between stage I-V of development,

with the first, *pf3d7_0934400,* showing mostly negative co-expression with its target

genes (27/37 transcripts, including *pkg* and *ptex88 (pf3d7_1105600)*), suggesting this

ApiAP2 transcription factor might also act as repressor. Secondly, the transcript of

ap2-o2 is increased in abundance throughout development but peaks at stage IV (day

8-9) of development and was predicted to regulate 22 target genes. Taken together,

this data supports the involvement of successive expression of ApiAP2 transcription

factors in a regulatory cascade during gametocyte development, as has been

proposed for *P. berghei* gametocytes (21) and shows that this subsequent expression

co-occurs with stage transition during *P. falciparum* gametocytogenesis.

Discussion

We describe a high-resolution gametocyte transcriptome of malaria parasite differentiation from the asexual form through sexual commitment and all stages of development to mature stage V gametocytes. We find that gametocytogenesis in *P. falciparum* is a well-controlled process involving successive activation of regulatory processes that mediate development during stage-transition, ultimately resulting in a parasite poised for transmission. These observations emphasize that stage-specific gene expression is an essential feature of regulation of gene expression in *Plasmodium* spp. and is particularly true for the extended and morphologically diverse gametocyte development of *P. falciparum* parasites. The dynamic evaluation of the transcriptome allows for the construction of a more complete molecular roadmap for gametocyte development (Fig 6).

We propose that multiple transition points are passed during sexual differentiation and that mechanisms independent of initial sexual commitment during asexual proliferation are needed to ultimately result in completion of gametocyte development. First, committed parasites pass an initial transition point, whereby processes are initiated to drive early gametocyte development. This includes repression of genes typically associated with proliferation through epigenetic mechanisms (H3K9me3, HP1 occupancy), post-transcriptional regulation (18) and the activity of transcription factors that repress asexual-specific transcription (Fig 6). This transition point is also characterized by the increased transcript abundance of genes required during early and intermediate gametocyte development. A portion of these transcripts are expressed specifically in either sex, with an apparent delay between the peak

abundance of male-specific and female-specific transcripts (Fig 6). It is possible that

tracing the transcriptional dynamics within each sex separately would result in higher

resolution data for this observation and resolve whether this is a true delay or

underplayed by more complicated transcriptional dynamics that impact the RNA

biology of the disparate sexes. As the gametocyte then reaches the critical transition

for its pathology, the point of gametocyte maturation, a different set of genes increase

in abundance. These genes are active in important processes specific to maturation

into stage V gametocytes, including the switch from sequestration in the bone marrow

to re-entering circulation and readying for transmission to the mosquito by involving

the parasite's intracellular signalling machinery.

A particularly interesting observation is the decreased abundance of important

regulators of commitment, *ap2-g* and *gdv1,* as the parasite enters the early

gametocyte stages (Fig 6). It is possible that the limited activity of these regulators

might be essential for gametocytogenesis to occur normally, to allow the distinct

patterns of gene expression we see here. It would be of interest to test what the effect

of overexpression of one or both of these factors would be on gametocyte

development. We also add to data on the transcriptional regulation in *P. falciparum* by

the ApiAP2 transcription factor family downstream of AP2-G, affirming the presence

of a transcription factor cascade enabling passage through gametocytogenesis as

postulated for *P. berghei* (21)*.* The involvement of *ap2-g2* and *pf3d7_0611200* in

repressing transcription of asexual genes during gametocyte development (Fig 6) is

also of particular interest for investigation, bringing into question if one or both of these

factors fulfil this role in *P. falciparum* gametocytes. However, the possibility of novel

regulators of transcription in early gametocyte development cannot be overlooked,

with RNA binding proteins and the possible ARID transcription factor (Fig 6) good

candidates for functional characterization.

The high-resolution transcriptome profile of *P. falciparum* gametocytes offers a

complete molecular landscape of parasite differentiation. We identify putative

regulators of mRNA dynamics facilitating a well-timed transcriptional program that

prepares the parasite for transmission. The profile provides molecular identity to

differences and similarities in asexual and sexual development that can be exploitable

for pharmaceutical intervention. Finally, the stage-specific events that complicate

transmission-blocking drug discovery are highlighted, 1) the immediate divergence of

the gametocyte's molecular profile from asexual development, 2) the later sexual

dimorphism in intermediate stage development and 3) the apparent transcriptional

divergence between immature and mature gametocytes. The gametocyte

transcriptome further provides a valuable resource for further interrogation of the

function of gene products and regulatory mechanisms important for

gametocytogenesis in *P. falciparum.*

Material and Methods

Parasite culturing and sampling

In vitro cultivation of intraerythrocytic *P. falciparum* parasites and volunteer blood donation for human erythrocytes holds ethics approval from the University of Pretoria (EC120821-077). Asexual *P. falciparum* NF54 parasite cultures (NF54-*pfs16*-GFP-Luc,(42)) were maintained at 5-8% parasitemia 37°C in human erythrocytes at 5% hematocrit in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 25 mM HEPES, 0.2 % D-glucose, 200 µM hypoxanthine, 0.2% sodium bicarbonate, 24 µg/ml gentamicin with 0.5 % AlbuMAX® II and incubated under hypoxic conditions (90% N_2, 5% O_2, and 5% CO_2)(70). Synchronous asexual cultures (>95% synchronized ring-stage parasites) were obtained by three consecutive cycles of treatment with 5% D-sorbitol, each 6-8 h apart.

Gametocytogenesis was induced by employing a strategy of concurrent nutrient starvation and a decrease of hematocrit(70). Ring-stage parasite cultures were adjusted to a 0.5% parasitemia, 6% hematocrit in RPMI 1640 medium prepared as for growth of asexual parasites without additional glucose supplementation (day -3) and maintained under the same hypoxic conditions at 37°C without shaking. After 72 h, the hematocrit was adjusted to 3% (day 0). After a further 24 h, induction medium was replaced with medium containing 0.2% (w/v) D-glucose as the asexual parasites were removed daily with 5% D-sorbitol treatment for 15 minutes at 37°C and/or *N*-acetylglucosamine included in the culture medium for duration of the sampling.

All cultures were maintained with daily medium changes and monitored with Giemsa-stained thin smear microscopy and parasite stage distribution determined by counting ≥ 100 parasites per day. Parasite samples (30 ml of 2-3% gametocytemia, 4-6%

hematocrit) were harvested daily for microarray analysis on days -2 to 13 following

gametocyte induction. The samples harvested on days -2 to 7 were isolated from

uninfected erythrocytes via 0.01% w/v saponin treatment for 3 minutes at 22°C while

samples from day 8 to 13 were enriched for late stage gametocytes via density

centrifugation using Nycoprep 1.077 cushions (Axis-Shield). Late stage gametocyte

samples were centrifuged for 20 min at 800xg and the gametocyte containing bands

collected(70). All parasite samples were washed with phosphate-buffered saline

before storage at -80˚C until RNA was isolated.

RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and microarray hybridization and scanning

Total RNA was isolated from each parasite pellet with a combination of TRIzol (Sigma

Aldrich, USA) treatment and using a Qiagen RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Germany) as per

manufacturer's instructions. The quantity, purity and integrity of the RNA were

evaluated by agarose gel electrophoresis and on a ND-2000 spectrophotometer

(Thermo Scientific, USA). For each RNA sample, 3-12 µg total RNA was used to

reverse transcribe and dye couple cDNA as described previously (71). The reference

cDNA pool was constructed from a mixture of all the gametocyte samples used in the

experiment in a 1:4 ratio with cDNA from a 6-hourly time course of asexual *P.*

falciparum 3D7 parasites. For microarray hybridization, equal amounts of cDNA

between 150 and 500 ng of Cy5 labeled sample and Cy3 labeled reference pool were

prepared for hybridization as described previously (71). Arrays were scanned on an

Agilent G2600D Microarray Scanner (Agilent Technologies, USA) with 5 µm resolution

at wavelengths of 532 nm (Cy3) and 633 nm (Cy5). Linear lowess normalized signal

intensities were extracted using the Agilent Feature Extractor Software version

11.5.1.1 using the GE2_1100_Jul11_no_spikein protocol and data was uploaded onto

the Princeton University Microarray Database (https://puma.princeton.edu/).

Data analysis

Signal intensities loaded on the Princeton University Microarray Database were filtered to remove background and unsatisfactory spots were flagged for removal using spot filters $P<0.01$ and $\log_2$ (Cy5/Cy3) expression values were used for further analysis. Euclidean distance clustered heatmaps were generated using TIGR MeV software version 4.9.0 (http://www.tm4.org/mev.html). The R statistical package (version 3.3.2) was used to calculate Pearson correlation coefficients and these were visualized using the Corrplot package. Data were divided into 10 clusters using K-means analysis following a within sum of squares test to determine the optimal number of clusters.

For functional analysis of genes, gene ontology enrichments were obtained for biological processes with $P<0.05$ using curated evidence using PlasmoDB Release v 33 (http://www.plasmodb.org/) and supplemented with annotation from MPMP (66) and Interpro (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/). Additional supplementary datasets for translationally repressed genes (33,35), transcripts involved in commitment (18,20,25) and gametocyte transcriptomes and proteomes (35,39–41) were probed for significant association with clusters of expression using a two-tailed Fisher's exact test to calculate significant association between the datasets. For comparison between transcript abundance and histone post-translation modifications, supplementary information was sourced for ChIP-seq or ChIP-chip experiments from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) datasets for H3K56ac, H4K5/8/12ac (72) as well as Salcedo-Amaya *et al.* for H3K9me3 (17), Jiang *et al.* 2014 for H3K36me3 (16) and Flueck *et al.* 2009 and Fraschka *et al.* for HP1 occupancy in *P. falciparum* parasites (46,47). The genes associated with the specific histone marks in each of the publications were then probed for association with specific clusters of expression using two-tailed Fisher's exact tests and increased presence of the post-translational

modification in gametocytes (65). To determine the involvement of ApiAP2 transcription factors in gametocyte development, the Gene Regulation Network Inference Using Time Series (GRENITS) package in R was applied (probability threshold >0.7) using the total transcriptome as possible regulated genes (68). The package uses Dynamic Bayesian Networks and Gibbs Variable Selection to construct a linear interaction model between gene expression profiles of putative "regulators" and "regulatees" over time-correlated data. Following the identification of 5 ApiAP2 transcription factors (*ap2-g* was not included in further predictive analysis) with putative regulatory activity, these transcription factors were re-probed as regulators, using genes containing the transcription factor's binding site as possible regulated genes if the binding site had been determined (13). The number of links per model, per threshold was evaluated to determine the set probability threshold for the regulated genes of each transcription factor. The online FIRE algorithm (56) was used to identify enriched regulatory motifs in genes of interest.

Data availability

The microarray data has been submitted to the GEO with accession number GSE104889 (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/).

Author Contributions

RvB and LMB conceived the study. RvB, LO conducted experiments, HP contributed data, RvW, RvB, JR performed the analyses. RvB, RvW, JN, HP, ML and LMB interpreted results. RvB, ML, LMB wrote the paper with inputs from the other authors. All co-authors approved the final version of the paper.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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 Figure Legends

Fig 1: The developmental and associated transcriptomic profile of *P. falciparum* NF54 gametocytes from commitment to maturity. (A) Sampling and culturing strategy and stage distribution of parasites on each day of the time course. Colored lines indicate the presence of specific stages at different time points. Abbreviations indicate parasitemia (P) and hematocrit (HC) at induction, * indicate the addition of N-acetyl glucosamine (NAG) or 5% D-sorbitol. Parasite drawings were modified from freely available images (https://smart.servier.com/), under a Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Unported Licence. **(B)** Morphological development was monitored from induction (day -2) over 16 days of development using Giemsa-stained thin-smear microscopy. The stage distribution for each day was calculated by counting ≥100 parasites on each day of monitoring. Legend: I-V indicates different stages of gametocyte development, R=ring and T=trophozoite stage asexual parasites. **(C)** Pearson correlation coefficients of the total transcriptomes obtained for each day of development. Red boxes indicate localized phases of increased correlation. **(D)** Expression of "gold standard" asexual and gametocyte genes (43) are shown for the gametocyte time course in heatmaps. **(A-D)** Area plot designates the timing of appearance and abundance of specific stages throughout the time course.

Fig 2: Distinct clusters of expression link to biological development of the *P. falciparum* gametocyte. Clusters of genes expressed during gametocyte development following K10 clustering of the total transcriptome. **(A)** The 10 clusters were grouped into phases of decreased, maintained, increased or developmentally regulated transcript abundance with number of transcripts per cluster indicated in brackets and genes of interest from specific clusters highlighted next to heatmaps. Area plot designates the timing of appearance and abundance of specific stages

throughout the time course. **(B)** Biological processes of interest were selected from

GO enrichment (Supplementary File 1) of each of the clusters (P<0.05) with the

number of genes related to these functions shown for the groups of clusters in bar

graphs with generic descriptions of the gene sets used to describe their function.

Fig 3: Commitment and development are distinctly regulated processes. (A) The

genes increased in expression during commitment (18,20,25) were compared to

transcripts increased in abundance during gametocytogenesis (Clusters 6-10, 2425

transcripts) with overlapping genes of interest: *sap18 (pf3d7_0711400), sir2a*

(pf3d7_1328800) and genes only increased during commitment *gdv1*

(pf3d7_0935400), iswi (pf3d7_0624600), sn2fl (pf3d7_1104200) highlighted in

heatmaps. **(B)** The 2429 genes expressed during gametocytogenesis also contained

significantly enriched regulatory 5' motifs identified using the FIRE algorithm (56).

Fig 4: Stage-specific increases in gene expression contribute to the extended

differentiation of *P. falciparum* gametocytes. (A) During stage I-III of development

genes in cluster 8 sharply increased in expression (indicated with dotted line) with the

abundance of these transcripts indicated by ribbon plot with mean±SD. GO enrichment

of genes involved in regulation of transcription (GO:0010468, 11 transcripts, P=0.029)

is present in this cluster, with presence of protein for these genes in stage I/II and V

indicated in black (35,39–41) and the corresponding Interpro domains

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/) of proteins with unknown function indicated on the

right. **(B)** The timing of sexually dimorphic transcript profiles (35) are shown in line

graphs while the association of male-and female-enriched transcripts with specific

clusters (6-10) are shown as standardized residuals and significance of these

associations indicated (*P*<0.05*,0.001**,0.0001***, Fisher's exact test). Genes of

interest for each sex are highlighted in heatmaps next to male and female symbols.

(C) The genes expressed during maturation (cluster 10) showed a significant

association (*P*<0.0001, two-tailed Fisher's exact test) with genes stabilized post-

transcriptionally during commitment (18) and H3K36me3-associated genes in asexual

development (16,73) before a sharp increase at stage IV-V of development (dashed

line). Blocks indicate the timing of stabilization of the transcripts (18) or abundance of

the H3K36me3 mark (65) and the overlap between the 3 datasets are indicated in the

Venn diagram. Genes of interest within the three functional datasets are highlighted in

heatmap. **(A-C)** Area plot designates the timing of appearance and abundance of

specific stages throughout the time course.

Fig 5: ApiAP2 transcription factors act as regulatory elements during

gametocytogenesis. (A) ApiAP2 transcription factors increased in transcript

abundance during gametocytogenesis were evaluated for their expression throughout

gametocyte development with blocks indicating periods of increased abundance. Area

plot designates the timing of appearance and abundance of specific stages throughout

the time course. **(B)** The transcription factors were also probed for regulatory activity

using coexpression analysis by GRENITS. Transcription factors with known binding

sites (13), were probed against genes containing the transcription factor binding sites

indicated or the total transcriptome if their binding site was unknown. The targets of

each transcription factor are shown by shaded ribbons, with correlated transcripts

indicated in red and anticorrelated transcripts indicated in blue. Generic functional

terms describing enriched gene ontology terms or individual gene products are

indicated in red (increased transcripts) or blue (decreased transcripts).

Fig 6: Molecular model of regulatory modules that shape cellular differentiation

during gametocytogenesis. Specific regulatory events are mapped out over the

extended gametocyte development of *P. falciparum* parasites. Molecular regulators

are highlighted in red while specific events or epigenetic marks are shown in black.

Colored blocks indicate the span of specific phases of transcript abundance, with

dotted lines indicating transition points in gametocyte development and grey triangles

indicate the timing of repressive mechanisms in gametocyte development. Parasite

drawings were modified from freely available images (https://smart.servier.com/),

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Supporting information captions

Supplementary Fig S1. Transcript abundance of ApiAP2 transcription factors

during *P. falciparum* gametocyte development

Supplementary Fig S2. Transcript abundance of *ap2-g* and downstream genes

(identified in Josling *et al.* 2019)

Supplementary File 1. Total microarray data with GO enrichment pertaining to

Figure 1&2

Supplementary File 2. Correlation of microarray time points and gametocyte

markers pertaining to Figure 1

Supplementary File 3. Cross-dataset comparison and functional enrichment

pertaining to Figures 2-5

A

RNA extraction & gene expression analysis

Saponin isolation

Density centrifugation

0.5% P
6% HC

▼HC

I   II   III   IV   V

Sexual development

-3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 days

*   *   *   *

Asexual development

B

Parasite stage (%)

-2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Stage
■ V
■ IV
■ III
■ II
■ I
■ T
■ R

C

Gametocyte development (days)

-2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Gametocyte development (days)

Pearson correlation
1
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2
0
-0.2
-0.4
-0.6
-0.8
-1

D

Asexual proliferation genes

rex2
sbp1
rex1
etramp14.1
phistc
kahrp
emp3
clag9
sera7

Gametocyte development genes

pfg27
pfg14-748
pfg14-744
pfg377
abcg2
psop12
ccp1
nek4
ccp2
ccp5
ccp3
puf1
pfs47
nek2
mdv1
pfs48/45
p230
pf11-1
pfs16
pfs25

-2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Gametocyte development (days)

-3.0   0   3.0
Log_2 (Cy5/Cy3)

A

gdv1
iswi
snf2l

-2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Log₂ (Cy5/Cy3)
-3.0 0 3.0

ap2-g
sir2a
sap18

-2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Commitment

Development

395   680   1745

B

5' Motif	*p-value*	*z-score*	Enrichment
 bits AGACA	<1e⁻²⁰	206.5	+ (n=539)
 bits ATGTGTA	<1e⁻²⁰	85.8	+ (n=577)

A

B

pf3d7_0611200

RNA metabolism
n=91

Entry into host
rap1,2,3
msp1,2,6,9,10
msrp1
n=223

pf3d7_1317200

DNA replication
orc5
Chromosome organization
pf3d7_1130700
pf3d7_1347000
n=12

pf3d7_1464600-phosphatase
n=9

pf3d7_0934400

srp9
n=10

ptex88
pkg
n=27

pf3d7_0516800

not5
pf3d7_1475700-tubulin
n=11

sera4
n=11

Gametocyte development (days)

Expression (log$_2$ (Cy5/Cy3))

Gametocytogenesis

Commitment **Differentiation** **Intermediate** **Mature**

R

T

II

III

IV

V

I

▼lysoPC
GDV1
H3K9ac
AP2-G
mRNA
stabilization

pf3d7_1317200
pf3d7_0516800
pf3d7_0603600
pf3d7_0824000

♂ Transcripts   ♀ Transcripts

Invasion/
signaling:
cdpk1
cdpk5
pka

Repression by H3K9me3
Putative epigenetic repressors
sir2a
sap18

Repression by H3K36me3
Putative ApiAP2 repressors
pf3d7_0611200
pf3d7_0934400