The Clp proteolytic system acts as an essential nexus for *Plasmodium*

plastid biogenesis

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Abstract

The human malaria parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum,* contains a plastid called the apicoplast that functions to produce essential metabolites. Most of apicoplast proteins are encoded by the nuclear genome and it is unclear how the apicoplast controls its own proteome. Here, we investigated the prokaryotic caseinolytic-protease (Clp) system and how it regulates organelle proteostasis. Our data show that interfering with expression, activity or interactions of the Clp protease (PfClpP), chaperone (PfClpC), non-catalytic subunit (PfClpR), or substrate adaptor molecule (PfClpS) results in apicoplast loss. Using null-mutants, we demonstrated that PfClpP is essential due to its role in apicoplast biogenesis. Conditional mutants of PfClpP revealed the robustness of its proteolytic activity and its interaction with the chaperone PfClpC. Expression of a PfClpC variant with a mutation in the protease binding site demonstrated its role as an essential regulator of complex activity. A combination of several tagged Clp proteins was used for affinity purification and enabled us to determine complex composition. A CRISPR/Cas9 based system was developed and used for the expression of a catalytically-dead form of PfClpP in the background of PfClpP conditional mutants. These double-mutant parasites were used to determine the mechanisms of PfClpP oligomerization and maturation, and revealed its trans-autocatalytic properties. Further, we investigated the functions of the substrate adaptor molecule, PfClpS, and showed that it is essential for plastid biogenesis. This comprehensive study reveals the molecular mechanisms driving the function of the apicoplast PfClpP/R/C/S system and demonstrates its central role in the biogenesis of the plastid in malaria parasites.

Introduction

The deadly malaria parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum*, has developed resistance to all currently available therapies, making the discovery of new drug targets a top priority. Like most other apicomplexans, the parasite contains a plastid called the apicoplast[1]. This unique organelle evolved via a two-step endosymbiosis[2]; in the primary endosymbiotic event, a cyanobacterium was incorporated into a eukaryotic cell to form the modern chloroplast. During the secondary endosymbiotic event, a photosynthetic red alga was further taken up by a protist and led to the formation of a secondary plastid[3]. Although not photosynthetic, the apicoplast harbors essential prokaryotic metabolic pathways that are essential to the parasite throughout its complex life cycle[4]. In a sharp contrast with its human host, the *Plasmodium* apicoplast shares molecular features with prokaryotes, plants and parasites, and therefore has the potential to encompass multiple parasite-specific drug targets[5,6]. Indeed, drugs that target apicoplast biology are in clinical use[7,8]. Most of those drugs (e.g. Doxycycline, Clindamycin) target the prokaryotic protein synthesis machinery in the apicoplast[9,10]. However, less than 10% of the apicoplast proteome is encoded by its own genome. The vast majority of hundreds of apicoplast proteins are encoded in the nuclear genome and are transported to the organelle via the secretory pathway[11-13]. There are no data to suggest that the apicoplast controls the translation of these nuclear encoded proteins, and, in fact, parasites without an apicoplast continue to express and accumulate these proteins in vesicle-like structures in the cytoplasm[14,15].

An alternative way for the apicoplast to maintain protein homeostasis is through an organelle specific proteolytic machinery. In bacteria and chloroplasts this function is executed by Clp (<u>C</u>aseino<u>l</u>ytic <u>p</u>rotease) proteins. This conserved family of proteins consists of ClpP proteases that form multi-subunit proteolytic complexes, though their exact compositions vary widely between different species and organelles[16,17]. The ClpP proteases are typically associated with Clp ATPase chaperones that unfold and feed substrates into the ClpP barrel-like cavity for degradation[18,19]. Together, they act as key regulators that not only maintain protein homeostasis but also play pivotal roles in bacterial cell division, transport, stress response and virulence[20]. In plants, Clp proteins regulate the levels and activities of numerous metabolic enzymes and thus control chloroplast metabolism and differentiation[21]. Some of these metabolic pathways, such as

isoprenoids biosynthesis, are conserved and essential in the apicoplast. Several putative Clp

genes have been localized to the apicoplast of *P. falciparum*. *In vitro* studies revealed some of

the structural features of the *Plasmodium* ClpP protease[22], the non-catalytic subunit ClpR[23] and

a potential substrate adaptor molecule termed ClpS[24].

Nevertheless, little is known about the *in vivo* function of *Plasmodium* Clps, their roles in

apicoplast biology or their essentiality for parasite asexual life cycle. We have previously shown

that the *Plasmodium* ClpC chaperone (PfClpC) is essential for parasite viability and apicoplast

biogenesis[15]. Here, we report the development and application of advanced molecular genetic

tools in a clinically important non-model organism to gain detailed mechanistic insights into

plastid Clp function and how this drives parasite biology. We have shown that the protease PfClpP

is essential and, in its absence, the entire organelle disappears. Likewise, the molecular

interaction between the chaperone and the protease is crucial for the complex function and

organelle biogenesis. A combination of several tagged Clp genes was used for affinity purification

and enabled us to determine complex composition and identify putative interactors, regulators

and substrates. A PfClpP dead-protease mutant was used for functional analysis of the proteolytic

activity, complex assembly and maturation. Finally, we report the biological role of PfClpS, a

potential Clp substrate-adaptor protein, and showed genetic and physical interactions with other

Clp proteins. Collectively, these data demonstrate that the Clp complex and interactions within

this proteolytic system acts as an essential nexus regulating apicoplast biogenesis.

Results and Discussion

PfClpP is essential for apicoplast biogenesis and survival of malaria parasites

In order to assess the biological role of the *Plasmodium* ClpP homolog, PfClpP, and test its potential as a drug target, we attempted to generate a null mutant, replacing the *pfclpp* gene with a drug marker using CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing (Figure 1A). Despite PCR evidence for successful integration into the *pfclpp* locus (Supplementary Figure 1), we repeatedly failed to retrieve live parasites following drug selection. This suggested that PfClpP is essential for parasite viability and we therefore decided to repeat the transfection in the presence of isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP). IPP is a small metabolite produced by the apicoplast which was shown to be the only essential function of the organelle during the asexual blood stages[14]. Transfection in the presence of IPP yielded live PfClpP knockout parasites (PfClpP[KO]) on the first attempt, and integration was confirmed by PCR (Figure 1B). Using an anti-PfClpP antibody we verified that PfClpP[KO] mutants do not express PfClpP (Figure 1C). Removal of IPP from the culturing media resulted in the rapid death of the PfClpP[KO] parasites (Figure 1D). Immuno-fluorescence assays (IFA) revealed that apicoplast proteins such as Acyl Carrier Protein (ACP) and Chaperonin 60 (Cpn60) lost their typical apicoplast localization, and instead appear in vesicle-like structures (Figure 1E). Such structures are indicative of damage to organelle integrity. Indeed, quantitative Real Time PCR (qRT-PCR) showed that the entire apicoplast genome disappeared in PfClpP[KO] mutants, while the mitochondria genome was unaffected (Figure 1F). Collectively, these data demonstrate that PfClpP is essential for parasite viability, and its function is required for the biogenesis of the apicoplast organelle.

PfClpP knockdown reveals robust enzymatic activity *in vivo*

Next, we wanted to investigate the molecular mechanisms of PfClpP function. To do that, we tagged the gene with a V5 tag and the *tetR*-aptamer conditional knockdown (KD) system, enabling translational repression of PfClpP expression when anhydrotetracycline (aTc) is removed from the culturing media[25]. Using CRISPR/Cas9, we incorporated the *tetR*-aptamer regulatory cassette at the 3'end of the *pfclpp* gene, creating the PfClpP[apt] parasite line (Figure 2A). Using PCR analysis, we verified correct integration into the *pfclpp* locus (Figure 2B), and by

IFA we confirmed its apicoplast localization (Figure 2C). Western blot analysis revealed the

expected processing pattern of PfClpP; cytoplasmic fraction (I); apicoplast-localized zymogen (II)

and a mature protease after proteolytic removal of the pro-domain (III) (Figure 2D)[15,22]. Inducing

knockdown by removing aTc resulted in a significant reduction (>95%) in PfClpP protein levels,

however this reduction had no effect on parasite growth (Figure 2D and E). This indicated that

residual PfClpP protein levels were sufficient to maintain biologically functional enzymatic

activity without any deleterious effects. The fact that PfClpP is essential for apicoplast function,

and its maturation is proteolytically controlled, raised the possibility that it is post-translationally

regulated.

The PfClpP and PfClpR bind each other and share common interacting partners

Another putative member of the plastid Clp complex and a potential regulator of PfClpP activity

is PfClpR, a potential non-catalytic subunit in the Clp complex[22,23]. We therefore attempted to

tag PfClpR with the V5 tag and the *tetR* aptamer knockdown system (Supplementary Figure 2A).

Tagging *pfclpr* locus has been challenging[15] and after multiple attempts, we finally succeeded in

tagging the locus with the *tetR* aptamer. However, PCR analysis of the aptamer repeats region in

PfClpR[apt] parasites, revealed that the number of aptamer repeats decreased during drug selection

from 10 to 7 (Supplementary Figure 2B). This significantly compromised knockdown efficiency

and prevented us from evaluating its effect on parasite replication (Supplementary Figure 2C).

We concluded that tagging this locus confers a fitness cost and that, like PfClpP, PfClpR may be

essential for plastid biogenesis. Nevertheless, the PfClpR gene was correctly tagged with the V5

epitope and, like PfClpP, was localized to the apicoplast (Supplementary Figure 2D). It is

interesting to note that the non-catalytic PfClpR comprises an inactive Clp protease domain, but

does not have a pro-domain, and migrates similarly on SDS-PAGE as the mature PfClpP

(Supplementary Figure 2E).

In order to identify other potential Clp interactors and regulators, we performed

immunoprecipitation (IP) of PfClpP[apt] and PfClpR[apt] parasites using the V5 tag. For large scale

proteomic analyses, potential Clp interactors were isolated from non-synchronized PfClpP[apt] and

PfClpR[apt] parasites using anti-V5 antibody-conjugated beads. The parental line (3D7) was used as

a control, and all samples were analyzed by mass spectrometry. All detected proteins were

filtered for predicted apicoplast localization and the abundance of each apicoplast-predicted

protein was calculated and averaged between biological replicates. Using individual peptide

abundance values, we calculated a ratio between protein abundance in IP (PfClpP or PfClpR) and

the parental control and set a threshold of ≥5-fold enrichment (Figure 2F and G). This resulted

in a list of proteins that were either detected exclusively in the Clp IP or were at least 5- fold or

more abundant than in the control. PfClpP IP yielded 45 proteins that are predicted to localize to

the apicoplast, and 29 out of these passed the threshold and were considered high-confidence

PfClpP interactors (Figure 2F and supplementary table 1). For PfClpR, out of 29 apicoplast-

predicted proteins, only 8 passed the threshold and were considered probable PfClpR interactors

(Figure 2G and supplementary table 1). Importantly, PfClpR appeared as a high-confidence

interactor for PfClpP and vice versa, suggesting a physical interaction between the two

components of the Clp complex. Moreover, 7 out of the 8 PfClpR positive hits were also found in

the PfClpP interactors list, further reinforcing them as high-confidence interactors (Figure 2H).

One of these seven proteins is chaperonin 60 (Cpn60), which functions in folding of proteins

transported to plastids[26]. The interaction of Cpn60 with the Clp complex suggests that these

proteins together may function as a protein quality control mechanism in the apicoplast to

degrade damaged and misfolded proteins.

PfClpC interacts with mature PfClpP in the apicoplast

The IP approach relied primarily on strong protein-protein interactions and could not detect

weaker or transient interactions with potential biological significance. For example, the mass

spectroscopy results did not identify PfClpC, the only apicoplast AAA+ ATPase with a conserved

tripeptide ClpP binding sequence[15,22]. Moreover, we have previously shown that inhibition of this

essential apicoplast chaperone destabilizes PfClpP[15]. In order to study factors such as PfClpC, we

wanted to express potential PfClpP regulators *in vivo* in PfClpP[apt] parasites. For this purpose, we

developed a novel tool for stable expression in *P. falciparum*, that avoids the inconsistent

overexpression that occurs when using episomal plasmids. In this method, we use CRISPR/Cas9

editing to insert the gene of interest into a specific genomic locus, where it can be expressed

under an endogenous promoter. We chose the *pfhsp110c* locus, that encodes an essential

cytoplasmic protein that is consistently expressed throughout the parasite life cycle[27]. To test

whether the Hsp110 system can drive expression of apicoplast localized proteins, we introduced

a 2A skip peptide at the end of the gene, followed by a GFP reporter with an apicoplast transit

peptide (tp) derived from acyl carrier protein (ACP)[11] (tp^{ACP}-GFP, Figure 3A). Transfection and

integration into the into *the pfhsp110c* locus were efficient, and using IFA we confirmed robust

GFP expression in the apicoplast of all clones isolated (Figure 3B). Western blot analysis revealed

the typical double-band, consisting of a weak upper band of the cytoplasmic fraction and a more

prominent lower band of the apicoplast localized GFP after removal of the transit peptide (Figure

3C). We concluded that this method works well for expression of apicoplast proteins, and can be

used to study PfClpP-PfClpC interactions.

Using the Hsp110 expression system, we designed and expressed two isoforms of PfClpC in

PfClpP^{apt} parasites (Figure 3A). The first was a copy of wild type PfClpC (PfClpC^{wt}) with a C-terminal

3xTy tag. We transfected PfClpC^{wt}, and confirmed its co-expression with PfClpP-V5 by western

blot (Figure 3D, left lane) and their co-localization in the apicoplast by IFA (Figure 3F, upper

panel). Importantly, PfClpP pulldown resulted in the co-immunoprecipitation of PfClpC^{wt},

indicating a physical interaction between the chaperone and the protease (Figure 3E, left). The

reciprocal PfClpC pulldown revealed that the chaperone interacts with the mature protease (III)

but not with the zymogen form (II) or the full length PfClpP with the transit peptide (I) (Figure 3E,

right). This indicates that PfClpC and PfClpP interact only upon co-localization in the apicoplast

and after the proteolytic maturation of the protease.

The Clp chaperone-protease interaction is essential for plastid biogenesis

The second PfClpC variant that we expressed via the Hsp110 system had a single point mutation

in the 3rd amino acid of the Leu-Gly-Phe motif (aa 1101-1103) that is required for binding PfClpP

(F1103W, Figure 3A). The same mutation in a bacterial Clp chaperone abolished the binding to

the bacterial ClpP protease without affecting its folding or other chaperone activities[19]. Aside

from that mutation, this construct, termed PfClpC^{F1103W}, was identical to the first (PfClpC^{wt}) and

was similarly tagged with 3xTy and expressed from the *pfhsp110c* locus in PfClpP^{apt} parasites,

without interfering with the endogenous *pfclpc* gene (Figure 3A). Nevertheless, multiple

attempts to express the PfClpC[F1103W] variant failed, suggesting that the mutated allele has a

dominant negative effect on parasite viability. To rule out a general cytotoxic effect of

transfection or any putative lethal consequences of interfering with PfHsp110c expression, we

repeated transections in the presence of IPP. Since IPP is the only plastid-synthesized metabolite

that is essential for blood stage growth, adding IPP should enable us to express PfClpC[F1103W] only

if the observed toxicity was due to specific apicoplast damage. Transfection of PfClpC[F1103W] in the

presence of IPP has enabled us to retrieve live parasites. Western blot analysis revealed that in

these parasites, all processing of PfClpP was abolished and the only observed band was the full-

length cytoplasmic fraction (Figure 3D, right lane). Using microscopy, we observed that both

PfClpP[apt] and PfClpC[F1103W] did not appear in their typical apicoplast localization, and instead form

vesicle-like structures indicative of apicoplast damage (Figure 3F, lower panel). Clones were

isolated but their growth was entirely dependent on IPP, and removing it led to parasites death

(Figure 3G). Subsequently, quantitative real time PCR analysis revealed that the apicoplast

genome disappeared from PfClpC[F1103W] parasites (Figure 3H). These results indicate that

interfering with the interaction between the PfClpC chaperone and the PfClpP protease inhibits

complex function. Further, these data suggest that the essentiality of PfClpC[15] is linked to its

function with PfClpP. Plant chloroplasts express several copies of ClpC chaperones, which have

been suggested to dynamically bind and feed different ClpP substrates into the ClpP protease[28].

Our data suggest that PfClpC dynamically interacts with PfClpP and this essential interaction may

be required for degradation of substrates to ensure apicoplast biogenesis. To our knowledge, this

is the first time that this interaction has been shown to be required for any plastid biogenesis.

PfClpP oligomerizes as a zymogen and matures via trans-autoprocessing

The *Plasmodium* ClpP differs structurally from its bacterial orthologues primarily because it

contains a transit peptide and a pro-domain (Figure 2D), both of which are removed at

subsequent maturations steps. Like other proteins that are transported to the plastid, PfClpP

possesses a transit peptide that is cleaved by a putative stromal peptide peptidase in the

apicoplast[12]. A second cleavage event is required for the removal of the pro-domain through an

unknown mechanism. It is possible that another protease is responsible for PfClpP pro-domain

cleavage or that this is an autocatalytic event. It also is unclear how these processing events

influence complex assembly and maturation of the protease. To address all of these questions

and to understand the mechanism of PfClpP oligomerization, we specifically interfered with the

proteolytic activity of PfClpP *in vivo*.

For this purpose, we designed a PfClpP dead-protease mutant (termed PfClpP[DEAD]) based on

bacterial ClpP mutants[29]. The PfClpP[DEAD] variant had a point mutation in the protease active site

(Ser264Ala) that renders it catalytically inactive (Figure 4A). It also includes the swapping of two

residues (Glu308Arg/ Arg285Glu) of an ion pair at the interface of the ClpP subunits[30]. The

purpose of this switch is to reduce the affinity between PfClpP[DEAD] and the endogenous PfClpP in

order to minimize a potential dominant negative effect which may prevent us from studying

PfClpP maturation and oligomerization. We used the Hsp110 expression system to express this

Ty-tagged PfClpP[DEAD] mutant in PfClpP[apt] parasites (Figure 4A). The PfClpP[DEAD] mutant co-localized

in the apicoplast with PfClpP[apt] (Figure 4B). Western blot analysis showed that the PfClpP[DEAD] is

processed similarly to the wild type PfClpP[apt] to produce the cytoplasmic fraction (I); apicoplast-

localized zymogen (II) and active protease without the pro-domain (III) (Figure 4C). However, a

close examination revealed that the proteolytic maturation of the endogenous PfClpP[apt] was

reduced in the presence of the PfClpP[DEAD] variant. In the parental PfClpP[apt] parasite line, the

majority of the apicoplast localized PfClpP zymogen was cleaved (fraction III, see 'parental' in

Figure 4C). In contrast, the processing of the same endogenous V5 tagged PfClpP was inhibited

in the PfClpP[DEAD] parasites (Figure 4C). Quantification of the ratio between the processed (III) and

the zymogen (II) fractions, revealed a decrease of about 70% in the proteolytic processing of

PfClpP[apt] (Figure 4D).

The shift in the processing rate could be explained by competitive binding between the two

PfClpP alleles. To test this model, we co-immunoprecipitated the endogenous PfClpP[apt] (V5 tag)

and the PfClpP[DEAD] (Ty tag). These experiments revealed that the two PfClpP alleles bind each

other, indicating that they hetero-oligomerize into a mixed complex (Figure 4E). This was

unexpected due to the swapping of the two residues (Glu308Arg/ Arg285Glu) of the ion pair at

the interface of the ClpP subunits. Unlike *B. subtilis*, where the resulting cross mutant did not

form heterooligomers with the wild type ClpP[30], the orthologous in PfClpP mutations potentially

weakened, but did not abolish cross-binding. This cross-binding revealed several molecular

features of PfClpP activation; the ability of each protease variant to co-immunoprecipitate not

only the mature form (III) but also the zymogen (II) suggests that complex assembly precedes the

final processing step of removing the pro-domain (Figure 4E and 4H).

PfClpP protease activity is essential for complex function

The implication of the interaction between the wild-type and dead protease mutant became

apparent during PfClpP[apt] knockdown; reducing the levels of the endogenous active protease did

not affect PfClpP[DEAD] expression levels but it drastically inhibited its processing (Figure 4F). The

inability of the parasites to remove the pro-domain from the dead protease in the absence of an

active PfClpP, suggests that *in vivo* the PfClpP zymogen matures through trans-autoprocessing

(Figure 4H). These data further suggest that the PfClpP zymogen (II) is inactive and this trans-

autoprocessing is essential for PfClpP activation. These data support the model that PfClpP

zymogen forms oligomers and this may be required for trans-autoprocessing. Further, since the

pro-domain in the zymogen plays a role in oligomerization of PfClpP, swapping the ion pair

(Glu308Arg/ Arg285Glu) on the ClpP oligomer failed to prevent hetero-oligomerization of PfClpP

but prevents it in bacterial ClpP. These data suggest the mechanism of maturation and

oligomerization for plastid Clp proteases differs from their bacterial counterparts.

Importantly, the robust activity of PfClpP enabled the PfClpP[DEAD] parasites to grow normally

despite the presence of the mixed complexes. However, the presence of the PfClpP[DEAD] mutant

rendered them more sensitive to perturbations in PfClpP levels, and under these settings,

knockdown of endogenous PfClpP[apt] via removal of aTc resulted in parasite death (Figure 4G).

Thus, the expression of PfClpP[DEAD] under normal PfClpP levels revealed the mechanisms of PfClpP

oligomerization and maturation (Figure 4H). Upon PfClpP knockdown, the lethal effects of the

dead-protease proved that it is the capacity to degrade substrates that is required for organelle

biogenesis and parasite survival (Figure 4H).

The adaptor protein PfClpS is essential for plastid biogenesis and parasite survival

Our data show that the proteolytic activity of the apicoplast Clp complex is central to its essential

role in regulating plastid biogenesis. Therefore, it is essential to understand the mechanisms by

which the apicoplast ClpP/R/C complex recognizes its substrates. In cyanobacteria and

chloroplasts, an adaptor protein termed ClpS, plays a vital role in selecting substrates destined

for degradation, and delivers them to the Clp complex[31-33]. Bioinformatic analysis has identified

a putative ClpS ortholog in *P. falciparum*, but its localization and physiological functions have not

yet been determined[24].

Therefore, we tagged PfClpS with a V5 tag and the *tetR*-aptamer knockdown system to generate

PfClpS[apt] parasites, and confirmed integration by PCR (Figure 5A). We observed co-localization of

PfClpS and the apicoplast marker ACP (Figure 5C). Removal of aTc from PfClpS[apt] parasites led to

a significant protein knockdown (Figure 5B). As a consequence, aTc removal inhibited parasites

growth, demonstrating that PfClpS is essential for parasite asexual replication (Figure 5D).

Importantly, this growth inhibition was completely rescued by addition of IPP, linking the

essential function of PfClpS to the apicoplast (Figure 5D). Microscopy revealed that apicoplast

proteins such as ACP accumulated in vesicle-like structures, and quantitative Real Time PCR

confirmed that the apicoplast genome disappears upon PfClpS knockdown (Figure 5C and E).

Collectively, these data show that PfClpS activity is essential for parasite viability and, similar to

other Clp proteins, it is required for apicoplast biogenesis.

PfClpS associates with the Clp complex and putative substrates

To examine the functional interaction between PfClpS and the Clp complex, we used the PfClpS[apt]

parasites to pull down potential interactors. The immunoprecipitation and proteomics analysis

were performed as described earlier for PfClpP and PfClpR. Out of 39 identified potential PfClpS

interactors, 20 hits passed the high-confidence threshold, including PfClpR (Figure 5F and

Supplementary Table 1). Due to the predicted function of PfClpS, this list may be enriched with

putative Clp substrates. The PfClpS phenotypic data suggest that the substrates selected for

degradation by PfClpS are essential for apicoplast biogenesis. Including the 20 PfClpS binding

proteins to the PfClpP and PfClpR interactors that were identified earlier, resulted in a list of 35

potential Clp interactors (Supplementary table 1). Interestingly, we found a high degree of

overlap between hits, with roughly 50% of them shared between at least 2 different IPs

(PfClpP/R/S) (Figure 5G). Of a specific interest, was a small group of 5 high-confidence hits that

were common between all 3 IPs (Figure 5G, Supplementary table 1). These predicted apicoplast

proteins include a thioredoxin peroxidase, a putative RNA methyltransferase and a putative acyl

transferase (Figure 2H and Supplementary table 1). Interestingly, similar ClpS affinity screens in

Arabidopsis have identified substrates involved with central plastid metabolic functions[33].

Similarly, the parasites Clp interactors are potentially involved in very distinct metabolic

pathways (protein folding, RNA metabolism and lipid biosynthesis), thus emphasizing the role of

the *Plasmodium* Clp complex as a master regulator of apicoplast biology.

A model for proteostasis regulation by the apicoplast Clp complex

To conclude, we propose a model in which the apicoplast organelle maintains a stable proteome

via protein degradation. This central function is required, among other things, for organelle

biogenesis, and is executed and regulated by the proteolytic Clp complex (Figure 6A). As a

consequence, interfering with the function of different subunits of the complex leads to organelle

loss and parasite death. In the core of the Clp complex is PfClpP, a conserved potent serine

protease (Figure 6B). PfClpP is transported to the apicoplast as a zymogen, which hetero-

oligomerizes into a complex, and then matures into the active protease through trans-

autocatalytic processing. PfClpR is a non-catalytic subunit that physically interacts with other

complex subunits and may play a regulatory role. PfClpC is the chaperone that unfolds proteins

and feed them into the proteolytic core. It interacts with the mature PfClpP but not with the

zymogen, suggesting that it binds at a later step during complex assembly. Nevertheless, this

interaction is crucial for complex activity. This is supported by our previous observation that, as

in some bacterial Clp systems[34], PfClpC also functions as a stabilizer of the active PfClpP

complex[15]. Finally, a small adaptor molecule, PfClpS, binds specific substrates and deliver them

to the complex.

Targeting protein synthesis in the apicoplast is clinically effective, as manifested by the clinical

use of antibiotics such as doxycycline as antimalarials. However, such drugs directly affect only a

very small fraction of apicoplast proteins, as the majority of them are transcribed by the cell

nucleus and translated by the eukaryotic ribosomes in the parasite cytoplasm. Thus, a broader

and potentially more efficient way to disrupt the apicoplast proteome would be to target its

prokaryotic Clp degradation system. Indeed, due to their central function in prokaryotes, the

bacterial ClpP homologs lie in the center of various drug discovery programs that identified

potent inhibitors[35-39]. Ongoing work testing the effectiveness and specificity of these bacterial

inhibitors against PfClpP may lead to the identification of antimalarials[15]. Our data and model

suggest that small molecules inhibiting PfClpP activity will have a dual effect of reducing substrate

cleavage as well as preventing the further production of the mature and active PfClpP. Future

work is required to identify such potent inhibitors because our data show, similar to its bacterial

orthologs, the *Plasmodium* Clp complex is an excellent drug target.

Materials &Methods

Plasmids construction

Genomic DNA was isolated from *P. falciparum* using the QIAamp DNA blood kit (QIAGEN). All constructs utilized in this study were confirmed by sequencing. PCR products were inserted into the respective plasmids using Sequence and Ligation Independent Cloning (SLIC). Briefly, insert and cut vector were mixed with a T4 DNA polymerase and incubated for 2.5 minutes at room temperature, followed by 10 minutes incubation on ice and then transformed into bacteria. All restriction enzymes used for this study were purchased from New England Biolabs. All oligonucleotides used in this study are in Supplemental Table 2.

For the generation of PfClpP[KO] donor plasmid, 500 bp from the 5'UTR of *pfclpp* (PF3D7_0307400) were amplified using primers 1+2 and 500 bp from the 3'UTR of *pfclpp* were amplified using primers 3+4. The human dihydrofolate reductase (hDHFR) drug selection cassette was amplified from pL6 vector using primers 5+6. All three pcr products were inserted into a TOPO cloning vector (ThermoFisher). Primer 7 was used in combination with primer 6 or 4 to test for accurate integration in the parasite following transfections. To increase efficiency of CRISPR/Cas9 mediated-integration, two guide RNAs were used, targeting both ends of the PfClpP gene. For expression of a C-term PfClpP guide RNA, oligos 8+9 were inserted into pUF1-Cas9-guide, and for expression of the N-term PfClpP guide RNA, oligos 10+11 were independently inserted into pUF1-Cas9-guide as previously described[15,40].

For the generation of the PfClpP[apt] conditional mutant, 500 bps from the 3'UTR and from the C-term of *pfclpp* gene were amplified pClpP-glmS vector[15] using primers 18+19 and 20+21, respectively. The two products were conjugated together using PCR-sewing and inserted as one piece into pMG74-tetR-Dozi vector[25]. For expression of a C-term ClpP guide RNA, oligos 8+9 were inserted into pUF1-Cas9-guide.

For the generation of the PfClpR[apt] conditional mutant, 500 bps from the 3'UTR and from the C-term of *pfclpr* gene (PF3D7_1436800) were amplified from pClpR-glmS vector[15] using primers 33+34 and 35+21, respectively. The two products were conjugated together using PCR-sewing and inserted as one piece into pMG74-tetR-Dozi vector[25]. Primer 36 was used in combination with primer 34 or 38 to test for accurate integration in the parasite following transfections.

Evaluating aptamer repeats numbers was done using primers 37+38. For expression of a C-term

PfClpR guide RNA, oligos 39+40 were inserted into pUF1-Cas9-guide.

For the generation of the PfClpS^{apt} conditional mutant, 500 bps from the 3'UTR and from the C-

term of *pfclps* gene (PF3D7_1320100) were amplified from gDNA using primers 41+42 and 43+44,

respectively. The two products were conjugated together using PCR-sewing and inserted as one

piece into pMG74-tetR-Dozi vector[25]. Primer 45 was used in combination with primer 42 or 38 to

test for accurate integration in the parasite following transfections. For expression of a C-term

PfClpS guide RNA, oligos 46+47 were inserted into pUF1-Cas9-guide. Primers 24+25 and 25+26

were used to test for accurate integration in the parasite following transfections.

For the generation of the Hsp110 expression system, we designed a repair plasmid that contains

homology sequences from the *pfhsp110c* gene (PF3D7_0708800). The repair sequences include

the last 429 bp from *pfhsp110c* gene, followed by a 2A skip peptide, a modular tagging cassette

with a multiple cloning site, and the first 400 bps from *pfhsp110c* 3'UTR. The entire cassette was

created using gene synthesis (GeneScript) and was cloned into a puc57 backbone to create the

puc57-Hsp110 vector. For expression of a PfHsp110c guide RNA, oligos 22+23 were inserted into

pUF1-Cas9-guide.

For the generation of tp^{ACP}-GFP parasites, tp^{ACP}-GFP was amplified from pCEN-tp^{ACP}-GFP using

primers 27+28, and was inserted into puc57-Hsp110 vector (cut with MfeI and SpeI) using SLIC.

For the generation of PfClpC^{wt} parasites, PfClpC (PF3D7_1406600) was amplified from gDNA using

primers 29+32. To introduce the point mutation required for the generation of PfClpC^{F1103W}

parasites, PfClpC was amplified from gDNA in two pieces, using primers 29+30 and 31+32. The

two pieces were PCR-sewed together and inserted into puc57-Hsp110 vector (cut with MfeI and

NheI) using SLIC.

For the generation of PfClpP^{DEAD} parasites, we introduced the following point mutations into the

Open Reading Frame of PfClpP: Ser264Ala, Glu308Arg and Arg285Glu. The gene was synthesized

(GeneScrpit) and was inserted into puc57-Hsp110 vector (cut with MfeI and NheI) using SLIC.

Cell culture and transfections

Parasites were cultured in RPMI medium supplemented with Albumax I (Gibco) and transfected

as described earlier[15,41,42].

To generate PfClpP^{KO} parasites, a mix of three plasmids was transfected into 3D7 parasites in the

presence or absence of 200uM Isopentynyl Pyrophosphate (IPP, Isoprenoids LC). The plasmid mix

contained the PfClpP^{KO} donor plasmid and the two pUF1-Cas9-PfClpP-guide (N-terminal and C-

terminal guides). Drug pressure was applied 48 hours post transfection using 2.5 nM WR99210

(Sigma) to select for parasites expressing hDHFR.

To generate PfClpP^{apt}, PfClpR^{apt} and PfClpS^{apt} parasites, a mix of two plasmids was transfected

into 3D7 parasites in the presence of 0.5 uM anhydrotetracycline (aTc, Cayman Chemicals). The

plasmid mix contained 50 ug of pUF1-Cas9-guide (expressing the relevant guide: PfClpP/R/S) and

50 ug of the pMG74 based donor plasmid (with the related homology regions). Drug pressure

was applied 48 hours post transfection using 2.5 ug/ml Blasticidin (BSD, Sigma). For each

transfection, at least 2 clones were isolated via limiting dilution and used for subsequent

experiments.

To generate tp^{ACP}-GFP, PfClpP^{DEAD}, PfClpC^{wt} and PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites, a mix of two plasmids was

transfected into PfClpP^{apt} parasites. For each different transfection the primers mix contained 2

plasmids; 50 ug of pUF1-Cas9-PfHsp110c-guide and 50 ug of the relevant marker-less puc57-

Hsp110 repair plasmid (puc57-Hsp110-tp^{ACP}-GFP/ puc57-Hsp110-PfClpP^{DEAD}/ puc57-Hsp110-

PfClpC^{wt}/ puc57-Hsp110-PfClpC^{F1103W}, respectively). For PfClpC^{F1103W}, transfections were

performed in the presence or absence of 200μM IPP (Isoprenoids LC). Drug pressure was applied

48 hours post transfection, using 1 μM DSM1 (BEI Resources), selecting only for Cas9 expression.

DSM1 was removed from the culturing media once parasites clones were isolated using limiting

dilution.

Growth assays

For PfClpP^{apt}, PfClpP^{DEAD}, PfClpR^{apt} and PfClpS^{apt}, asynchronous parasite cultures were washed 5

times and incubated without aTc. For PfClpP^{KO} and PfClpC^{F1103W}, parasite cultures were washed

once and incubated without IPP. Throughout the course of the experiment parasites were sub-

cultured to maintain the parasitemia between 1-5% and parasitemia was monitored every 24

hours via flow cytometry. Relative parasitemia at each time point was back calculated based on

actual parasitemia multiplied by the relevant dilution factors. Parasitemia in the presence of aTc

or IPP at the end of each experiment was set as the highest relative parasitemia and was used to

normalize parasites growth. Data were analyzed using Prism (GraphPad Software, Inc.)

For IPP rescue (PfClpS^{apt}, PfClpP^{KO} and PfClpC^{F1103W}) media was supplemented with 200 µM of IPP

(Isoprenoids LC) in PBS.

Western blot

Western blots were performed as described previously[43]. Briefly, parasites were collected and

host red blood cells were permeabilized selectively by treatment with ice-cold 0.04% saponin in

PBS for 10 min, followed by a wash in ice-cold PBS. Cells were lysed using RIPA buffer, sonicated,

and cleared by centrifugation at 4°C. The antibodies used in this study were mouse anti GFP, JL8

(Roche, 1:3000), mouse anti Ty1 SAB4800032 (Sigma, 1:1000), rabbit anti-V5, D3H8Q (Cell

Signaling, 1:1000), mouse anti-V5, TCM5 (eBioscience^{TM}, 1:1000), mouse monoclonal anti-PMV

(from D. Goldberg, 1:400), rabbit polyclonal anti-EF1α (from D. Goldberg, 1:2000) and rabbit

polyclonal anti-PfClpP (from W. Houry, 1:4000). The secondary antibodies that were used are

IRDye 680CW goat anti-rabbit IgG and IRDye 800CW goat anti-mouse IgG (LICOR Biosciences,

1:20,000). The Western blot images and quantifications were processed and analyzed using the

Odyssey infrared imaging system software (LICOR Biosciences).

Microscopy and image processing

For IFA cells were fixed using a mix of 4% Paraformaldehyde and 0.015% glutaraldehyde and

permeabilized using 0.1% Triton-X100. Primary antibodies used are mouse anti Ty1 SAB4800032

(Sigma, 1:500), rabbit anti-V5, D3H8Q (Cell Signaling, 1:100), mouse anti-V5, TCM5

(eBioscience^{TM}, 1:100), rabbit anti-Cpn60 (from B. Striepen, 1:1,000) and rabbit anti-ACP (from

G. Mcfadden, 1:5,000). Secondary antibodies used are Alexa Fluor 488 and Alexa Fluor 546 (Life

Technologies, 1:100). Cells were mounted on ProLong Diamond with DAPI (Invitrogen). For live

cell imaging of tp^{ACP}-GFP parasites were incubated with 8 µM Hoechst (ThermoFisher Scientific)

in PBS. The imaging was performed using DeltaVision II microscope system with an Olympus IX-

71 inverted microscope using a 100X objective. All images were collected as Z-stack, were

deconvolved using the DVII acquisition software SoftWorx and displayed as maximum intensity

projection. Image processing, analysis and display were preformed using SoftWorx and Adobe

Photoshop. Adjustments to brightness and contrast were made for display purposes.

Flow cytometry

469 Aliquots of parasite cultures (5µl) were stained with 8 µM Hoechst (ThermoFisher Scientific) in
470 PBS. The fluorescence profiles of infected erythrocytes were measured by flow cytometry on a
471 CytoFlex S (Beckman Coulter, Hialeah, Florida) and analyzed by FlowJo software (Treestar, Inc.,
472 Ashland, Oregon). The parasitemia data were fit to standard growth curve using Prism (GraphPad
473 Software, Inc.).

Quantitative Real Time PCR

Asynchronous parasites (PfClpP^{KO} and PfClpC^{F1103W}) or Synchronized ring stage parasites
(PfClpS^{apt}) samples were collected and genomic DNA was purified using QIAamp blood kits
(Qiagen). Primers that amplify segments from genes encoded by nuclear or organelles genomes
were designed using RealTime qPCR Assay Entry (IDT). The following primer sequences were
used: *cht1* (nuclear)- 12+13; *tufA* (apicoplast)- 14+15; *cytb3* (mitochondria)- 16+17. Reactions
contained template DNA, 0.5 uM of gene specific primers, and IQ^{TM} SYBR Green Supermix
(BIORAD). Quantitative real-time PCR was carried out in triplicates and was performed at a 2-step
reaction with 95°C denaturation and 56°C annealing and extension for 35 cycles on a CFX96 Real-
Time System (BIORAD). Relative quantification of target genes was determined using Bio-Rad CFX
manager 3.1 software. Standard curves for each primers set were obtained by using different
dilutions of control gDNA as template, and were used to determine primers efficiency. The
organelle: nuclear genome ratio of mutant parasites was calculated relative to that of the control.
Unpaired t-test (Benjamini, Krieger, Yekutieli) was used to calculate significance between control
and mutants.

Immunoprecipitation

For the pull-down proteomic analysis of PfClpP^{apt}, PfClpR^{apt} and PfClpS^{apt} parasites, the parental
line (wild type clone 3D7) was used a control and all pulldown experiments were done in
duplicates using two different clones. Immunoprecipitation protocols were performed using anti-
V5 antibody as previously described[44]. Briefly, pellets from 10^9 parasites were isolated using cold

saponin and were lysed and sonicated in Extraction Buffer (40 mM Tris HCL pH 7.6, 150 mM KCL,

and 1 mM EDTA) supplemented with 0.5% NP-40 (VWR) and HALT protease inhibitor (Thermo).

10% of the sample was kept for later analysis (input sample). Rabbit anti-V5 (Cell Signaling,

D3H8Q) antibody was crosslinked to DynabeadsTM protein G (Invitrogen) beads using 5 mM BS3

crosslinker (CovaChem) and then incubated with the supernatant at 4°C. Washes were

performed using a magnetic rack (Life technologies). Samples were run on SDS-page and gel slices

were sent to mass spectrometry analysis.

For the co-Immunoprecipitation of PfClpP^{DEAD} and PfClpP^{apt}, 2 samples of PfClpP^{DEAD} clone C9,

each containing 10^8 parasites were isolated as described above. Pellets were incubated with

either anti-Ty antibody (SAB4800032, Sigma) or with anti-V5 antibody (Cell Signaling, D3H8Q).

Input and IP samples were loaded on SDS-page and blotted with anti-Ty antibody (SAB4800032,

Sigma) or with anti-V5 (Cell Signaling, D3H8Q).

For the co-Immunoprecipitation of PfClpC^{wt} and PfClpP^{apt}, 2 samples of PfClpC^{wt}, each containing

10^9 parasites were isolated as described above. Pellets were incubated with either anti-Ty

antibody (SAB4800032, Sigma) or with anti-V5 (Cell Signaling, D3H8Q) antibody. Input and IP

samples were loaded on SDS-page and blotted with Ty antibody (SAB4800032, Sigma) or with

anti-V5 (Cell Signaling, D3H8Q).

Mass spectrometry and data analysis

PfClpP^{apt}, PfClpR^{apt} and PfClpS^{apt} samples were sent to the proteomics shared resources in Fred

Hutchinson Cancer Research Center and were run on the OrbiDEAD Elite. The data were searched

using Proteome Discoverer 2.2 against the UP000001450 *Plasmodium falciparum* (Uniprot Nov

2018) database including common contaminants using Sequest HT and Percolator for validation.

The search results were filtered for high confidence, with a strict 1% false discovery rate.

All detected proteins were analyzed for predicted apicoplast localization using four different

bioinformatic algorithms: (i)PATS[45]; (ii)ApicoAP[46]; (iii)PlasmoAP[13]; and (iv) PlastNN[47]. We then

compared results from all four algorithms and used known apicoplast proteins (such as Clp

proteins) to estimate false-negative and false-positive rates for each algorithm. Based on these

data, we chose to filter for apicoplast prediction using PlasmoAP, since it had a lower false-

negative rate than PlastNN (higher sensitivity) and higher accuracy than the first two algorithms.

The abundance of each apicoplast-predicted protein was calculated by summing the total

intensities (MS1 values) of all matched peptides for each selected protein, and normalizing by

the total summed intensity of all matched peptides in the sample, as previously described[47]. The

resulted calculated value was then averaged between replicates. To filter for high confidence

hits, we calculated the abundance ratio between Clp IP (PfClpP/ PfClpR/ PfClpS) and the parental

control, and set a threshold of ≥5 fold enrichment.

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Figure 1

Figure 1

A. Generation of PfClpP knockout (PfClpP^{KO}) parasites. CRISPR/Cas9 and two guide RNAs (gRNA)

targeting the N- and the C-termini of PfClpP were used to facilitate integration. The repair

plasmid contained 500bps homology regions to the 5'UTR and the 3'UTR of the *pfclpp* locus

flanking the human dihydrofolate reductase selection marker (hDHFR). Through double

crossover integration and drug selection, the gene was replaced with the drug marker. This

strategy failed to retrieve live parasites unless IPP was added during drug selection.

B. PCR test confirming hDHFR integration at the *pfclpp* locus in the presence of IPP. Genomic

DNA was purified from transfected parasites. Primers 1+2 (see methods) were used to

amplify an integration specific product. Primers 1+3 were used to amplify the region between

the 5'UTR and 3'UTR of *pfclpp*, as illustrated in A. A shift of 1 KB corresponds to the integration

of the hDHFR cassette.

C. Western blot of parasite lysates from parental line and PfClpP^{KO} parasites probed with

antibodies against PfClpP and Plasmepsin V (PMV, loading control), confirming loss of PfClpP

expression in the null mutants. The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed

protein are shown on the left.

D. IPP was removed from PfClpP^{KO} parasites and parasitemia was monitored every 24 hours over

4 days via flow cytometry. Data are represented as mean ± S.E.M. (n=3 technical replicates).

One representative experiment out of three biological replicates is shown.

E. Immunofluorescence imaging of fixed PfClpP^{KO} parasites stained with antibodies against ACP

(Acyl Carrier Protein), and DAPI (upper panel) or Cpn60 (Chaperonin 60) and DAPI (lower

panel). Both ACP and Cpn60 lose their typical apicoplast localization in PfClpP^{KO} and appear

in vesicle-like structures. Z-stack images were deconvolved and projected as a combined

single image. Representative images from biological replicates are shown. Scale bar, 5μm.

F. Genomic DNA samples were collected from PfClpP^{KO} and control parasites for quantitative

Real Time PCR analysis. Apicoplast: nuclear genome ratio was calculated for each sample.

Mitochondria: nuclear genome ratio served as a control. Genome ratios were normalized to

control parasites. Apicoplast genome is completely lost in PfClpP^{KO} mutants, while the

mitochondria genome was unaffected. One representative experiment (out of 3 biological

replicates) is shown. Data are represented as mean ± S.E.M (n=3 technical replicates,

unpaired t-test, P value =0.00013)

Figure 2

Figure 2

A. Diagram showing integration of the *tetR*-aptamer system into the *pfclpp* locus. The Cas9
nuclease together with a PfClpP-specific gRNA introduces a double-stranded break at the C-
terminus of the *pfclpp* gene. The repair plasmid provides the template for double-crossover
homologous recombination, introducing a 3xV5 tag and the *tetR-Dozi* cassette, including 10
aptamer repeats.

B. PCR test confirming *tetR-Dozi* integration at the *pfclpp* locus. gDNA was purified from 2
independently selected mutant clones (1B7 and 2H1). Primers 1,2,3 (see methods) were used
to amplify the native locus (1+2) or an integration specific product (1+3), as illustrated in the
diagram in A.

C. Immunofluorescence imaging of fixed PfClpP^{apt} parasites clone 1B7 stained with antibodies
recognizing PfClpP (αV5, red), ACP (αAcyl Carrier Protein, green), and DAPI. Z-stack images
were deconvolved and projected as a combined single image. Representative images from
three biological replicates are shown. Scale bar, 5μm.

D. PfClpP^{apt} parasites were incubated without aTc for 2 days, and lysates were isolated every 24
hr. Western blot shows parasite lysates probed with antibodies recognizing PfClpP (αV5) and
Plasmepsin V (αPMV, loading control). The expected processing pattern of PfClpP is depicted:
cytoplasmic fraction (I); apicoplast-localized zymogen (II) and mature protease after removal
of the pro-domain (III). A significant reduction in PfClpP protein levels in achieved after 24
hours. The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed protein are shown on the
left.

E. Two independent mutant clones (1B7 and 2H1) of PfClpP^{apt} parasites were grown with or
without 0.5 μM aTc, and parasitemia was monitored every 24 hr over 11 days via flow
cytometry. 100% of growth represents the highest value of calculated parasitemia (final
parasitemia in the presence of aTc). Data are fit to an exponential growth equation and are
represented as mean ± SEM (n= 3 technical replicates). One representative experiment out
of three biological replicates is shown.

F. Mass spectrometry analysis of PfClpP Immunoprecipitate, isolated from PfClpP^{apt} parasite
lysates using anti V5 antibody-conjugated beads. The parental line 3D7 was used a control

and pulldown experiments were done in duplicates using two independent PfClpP^{apt} clones;

1B7 and 2H1. All proteins detected in both biological replicates were filtered for predicted

apicoplast localization. The abundance of each apicoplast-predicted protein was calculated

and averaged between replicates. To filter for high confidence hits, we set a threshold of ≥ 5

folds enrichment in Clp IP vs. parental control. For PfClpP, 29 out of 45 proteins have passed

the threshold and were defined as high-confidence hits, including PfClpR.

G. PfClpR was immunoprecipitated from lysates of PfClpR^{apt} parasites using anti V5 antibody-

conjugated beads. Biological replicates were performed for both parental control and

PfClpR^{apt} parasites (Clones A10 and B5). The sample analysis and data were processed as in F

and 8 out of 29 hits passed the threshold, including PfClpP.

H. Venn diagram and a table showing the overlap between proteins identified in PfClpP and

PfClpR pulldowns. Out of the 8 PfClpR positive hits, 7 were also found in the PfClpP list,

outlining them as high confidence interactors.

Figure 3

Figure 3

A. Diagram showing integration and expression through the Hsp110 expression system. Cas9

nuclease together with a gRNA targeting the *pfhsp110c* locus, introduces a double-stranded

break at the c-terminus of the *pfHsp110c* gene. The repair plasmid provides two homology

regions for homologous recombination, flanking a 2A skip peptide and a tagged gene of

interest. Using this method, we introduced an apicoplast-localized GFP, a copy of wild type

PfClpC tagged with 3xTy (PfClpC^{wt}) and a PfClpC variant with a mutation in the putative PfClpP

binding site (PfClpC^{F1103W}).

B. Live fluorescence microscopy visualizing the apicoplast localized GFP (tp^{ACP}-GFP) expressed

through the *pfHsp110c* locus in PfClpP^{apt} parasites. Parasite DNA was stained with Hoechst.

Representative image from biological replicates is shown.

C. Western blot of parasite lysates from tp^{ACP}-GFP parasites probed with antibodies against GFP

and EF1α (loading control). The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed

protein are shown on the left.

D. Western blot of parasite lysates from PfClpC^{wt} and PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites probed with

antibodies against V5 (PfClpP, red) and Ty (PfClpC, green). Loss of all processing of PfClpP in

PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites is due to apicoplast loss. The protein marker sizes that co-migrated

with the probed protein are shown on the left.

E. Co-Immunoprecipitation of PfClpP and PfClpC in PfClpP^{apt}; PfClpC^{wt} parasites. 10^9 parasites

were isolated and pellets were incubated with either anti-V5 antibody-conjugated beads

(PfClpP pulldown, left) or anti-Ty antibody-conjugated beads (PfClpC pulldown, rights). Input

and IP samples were loaded on SDS-page and blotted with anti-Ty (PfClpC) and anti-V5

(PfClpP) antibodies. An interaction between the protease and the chaperone is observed. The

residual heavy chain of the anti-Ty antibody that eluted with the IP sample despite the cross

linker is also denoted (*).

F. Immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed PfClpC^{wt} and PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites stained with

antibodies against V5 (PfClpP, red), Ty (PfClpC, green), and DAPI (DNA). The two proteins co-

localize in the apicoplast in PfClpC^{wt} parasites but appear in vesicle-like structures in

PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites. Z-stack images were deconvolved and projected as a combined single

image. Representative images from one of two biological replicates are shown. Scale bar,
5μm.

G. IPP was removed from PfClpC^{F1103W} parasites and parasitemia was monitored every 24 hours
over 3 days via flow cytometry. 100% of growth represents the highest value of calculated
parasitemia (final parasitemia in the presence of IPP). Data are represented as mean ± S.E.M.
(n=3). One representative experiment out of two biological replicates is shown.

G. Genomic DNA samples were collected from PfClpC^{F1103W} and control parasites for
quantitative Real Time PCR analysis. Apicoplast: nuclear genome ratio was calculated for each
sample. Mitochondria: nuclear genome ratio served as a control. Genome ratios were
normalized to control parasites. Data are represented as mean ± S.E.M (n=3 technical
replicates, unpaired t-test, P value=0.00025). One representative experiment out of two
biological replicates are shown.

Figure 4

Figure 4

A. Diagram showing integration and expression of 3xTy-tagged PfClpP^{DEAD} variant into the
pfHsp110c locus. Cas9 nuclease in complex with a gRNA targeting this locus introduces a
double-stranded break at the C-terminus of the *pfHsp110c* gene. The repair plasmid provides
two homology regions for homologous recombination, flanking a 2A skip peptide and the
3xTy-tagged PfClpP^{DEAD}. This catalytically-inactive PfClpP variant has a point mutation in the
protease active site (Ser264Ala).

B. Immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed PfClpP^{apt}; PfClpP^{DEAD} parasites stained with
antibodies against V5 (endogenous PfClpP^{apt}, red), Ty (PfClpP^{DEAD}, green) and DAPI (DNA). The
two proteins co-localize in the apicoplast. Z-stack images were deconvolved and projected as
a combined single image. Representative image from one of two biological replicates is
shown. Scale bar, 5μm.

C. Western blot of parental PfClpP^{apt} and PfClpP^{apt};PfClpP^{DEAD} parasite lysates probed with
antibodies against V5 (endogenous *wild type* PfClpP, red) and Ty (PfClpP^{DEAD}, green). The
identical migration pattern indicates that PfClpP^{apt} and PfClpP^{DEAD} are similarly processed. The
protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed protein are shown on the left.

D. The ratio between the mature and zymogen forms of endogenous PfClpP (V5-tagged) is
decreased upon PfClpP^{DEAD} expression, indicating that the dead variant interferes with the
processing of the endogenous protease. Quantification of the ratio of V5 tagged PfClpP II and
III fractions from 3 biological replicates (p-value =0.0007, unpaired t-test).

E. Co-Immunoprecipitation of PfClpP^{apt} (V5-tagged) and PfClpP^{DEAD} (Ty-tagged). 10^8 parasites
were isolated and pellets were incubated with either anti-V5 antibody-conjugated beads
(left) or anti-Ty antibody-conjugated beads (right). Input and IP samples were loaded on SDS-
page and blotted with anti-Ty and anti-V5 antibodies. The robust interaction between the
two Clp protease variants suggests that they hetero-oligomerize into a mixed complex.

F. PfClpP^{apt};PfClpP^{DEAD} parasites were incubated without aTc for 24 hours, and lysates were
isolated. Western blot of these lysates was probed with antibodies against V5 (endogenous
PfClpP, red) and Ty (PfClpP^{DEAD}, green). PfClpP^{apt} knockdown results in the disappearance of

the processed form of PfClpP^{DEAD}, suggesting that the protease matures through trans-
autoprocessing.

G. PfClpP^{apt};PfClpP^{DEAD} parasite clones (C9 and D10) were grown with or without aTc, and
parasitemia was monitored every 24 hr over 11 days via flow cytometry. 100% of growth
represents the highest value of calculated parasitemia (final parasitemia in the presence of
aTc). Data are represented as mean ± SEM (n=3 technical replicates). One representative
experiment out of two biological replicates is shown.

H. A model illustrating the mechanisms of PfClpP oligomerization and maturation. PfClpP
oligomerizes as a zymogen and subsequently matures by removing its pro-domain (denoted
with *) via trans-autoprocessing. In the presence of the PfClpP^{DEAD} variant, a mixed complex
is assembled and due to the robustness of PfClpP proteolytic activity, there is no effect on
parasite growth. Upon aTc removal expression levels of endogenous PfClpP are dramatically
reduced, and predominantly PfClpP^{DEAD} zymogen complexes are formed. Consequently,
substrate degradation is inhibited and the parasites die.

Figure 5

Figure 5

A. Upper panel: Diagram showing integration of the *tetR*-aptamer cassette into the *pfclps* locus. Cas9 nuclease with the gRNA introduces a double-stranded break at the beginning of the C-terminus of the *pfclps* gene. The repair plasmid provides homology regions for double-crossover homologous recombination, introducing a 3xV5 tag and the *tetR*-aptamer cassette. Lower panel: PCR test confirming *tetR*-aptamer integration at the *pfclps* locus. gDNA was purified from transfected parasites. Primers 1+2 or 1+3 (see methods) were used to amplify the native locus or an integration specific band, as illustrated in the diagram.

B. PfClpS^{apt} parasites were incubated without aTc for 4 days, and lysates were isolated every 24 hr. Western blot of parasite lysates probed with antibodies against V5 (PfClpS, red) and Plasmepsin V (PMV, loading control, green). A significant reduction in PfClpS protein levels in apparent after 72 hours. The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed protein are shown on the left.

C. Quantification of PfClpS knockdown (as shown in B, n= 3 biological replicates). Values were normalized to PfClpS levels in the presence of aTc.

D. Immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed PfClpS^{apt} parasites that were incubated for 8 days with aTc (upper panel) or without aTc and supplemented with IPP (lower panel). Parasites were stained with antibodies against V5 (PfClpS, red), ACP (Acyl Carrier Protein, green), and DAPI (DNA). PfClpS localizes to the apicoplast when aTc is present. Upon aTc removal, PfClpS disappears and ACP appears in vesicle-like structures. Z-stack images were deconvolved and projected as a combined single image. Representative images from one of two biological replicates are shown. Scale bar, 5μm.

E. PfClpS^{apt} parasites (Clone A2) were grown with or without aTc and IPP, and parasitemia was monitored every 24 hr over 7 days via flow cytometry. Parasites grown without aTc exhibit a growth defect by day 4, and they die in the following days. Addition of IPP rescues the growth defect, indicating an apicoplast damage. 100% of growth represents the highest value of calculated parasitemia (final parasitemia in the presence of aTc). Data are represented as mean ± SEM (n= 3 technical replicates). One representative experiment out of three biological replicates is shown.

F. Synchronized PfClpS^{apt} parasites were grown in the absence of aTc and presence of IPP.
Genomic DNA samples were taken at the beginning of each replication cycle for real-time
qPCR analysis. Apicoplast: nuclear genome ratio was calculated every 48h. Mitochondria:
nuclear genome ratio served as a control. Genome ratios were normalized to parasites grown
in the presence of aTc. Data are represented as mean ± SEM (n= 3 technical replicates). One
representative experiment out of three biological replicates is shown.

G. Mass spectrometry analysis of PfClpS immunoprecipitated from PfClpS^{apt} parasites using anti
V5 antibody-conjugated beads. The parental line 3D7 was used a control and pulldown
experiments were done in duplicates. 10^9 parasites pellets were isolated and incubated with
anti-V5 crosslinked-beads. Samples were analyzed by mass spectrometry. All detected
proteins detected in biological replicates were filtered for predicted apicoplast localization.
The abundance of each apicoplast-predicted protein was calculated and averaged between
replicates. To filter for high confidence hits, we set a threshold of ≥5 folds enrichment in
PfClpS vs. parental control. PfClpS IP yielded 30 apicoplast-localized proteins, out of which 20
have passed the threshold and were defined as high-confidence hits, including PfClpR.

H. Venn diagram showing the overlap between PfClpS, PfClpP and PfClpR high-confidence
interactors. Out of the 35-total high-confidence hits, 17 are shared between more than one
Clp IP and 5 proteins were identified in all 3 proteomic experiments

Figure 6

Figure 6

A. The Clp complex is a master regulator of apicoplast biology. Most of apicoplast proteins are
encoded by the cell nucleus, and are transported to the organelle via the secretory pathway.
According to this model, the apicoplast does not control their synthesis, and therefore a
stable proteome in the organelle is maintained via protein degradation. This central function
is required, among other things, for organelle biogenesis, and is executed and regulated by
the proteolytic Clp complex. As a consequence, interfering with the function of different
subunits of the complex leads to organelle loss and parasite death.

B. Molecular function of the apicoplast Clp system. In the core of the Clp complex is PfClpP, a
conserved potent serine protease. PfClpP oligomerizes as a zymogen and then matures
through trans-autoprocessing. PfClpR is a non-catalytic subunit that interacts with other Clp
proteins and may have a regulatory role. PfClpC is the chaperone that unfolds proteins and
feed them into the PfClpP proteolytic core. A transient interaction between PfClpC and the
mature PfClpP is crucial for complex stability and function. A small adaptor molecule, PfClpS,
binds and selects specific substrates for delivery to the complex.

Supplementary Figure 1

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Supplementary Figure 1

A diagram depicting the generation of PfClpP knockout (PfClpP^{KO}) parasites. Cas9 nuclease

and two guide RNAs targeting the N- and the C-termini of PfClpP were used to facilitate

integration. The repair plasmid contained 500bps homology regions to the 5'UTR and the

3'UTR of the *pfclpp* locus flanking a drug marker (hDHFR, human Dihydrofolate Reductase).

Through double crossover integration and drug selection, the gene was replaced with the

drug marker. Despite evidence for integration into the genomic locus (bottom), this strategy

failed to retrieve live parasites in the absence of IPP, indicating the PfClpP is essential to

parasite viability due to its apicoplast function.

 Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 2

A. Diagram showing integration of the *tetR*-aptamer system into the *pfclpr* locus. Cas9 nuclease

with a specific guide RNA introduces a double-stranded break at the C-terminus of the *pfclpr*

gene. The repair plasmid provides homology regions for double-crossover homologous

recombination, introducing a 3xV5 tag and the *tetR*-aptamer cassette.

PCR test confirming *tetR-aptamer* integration at the *pfclpr* locus. Genomic DNA was purified

from 2 mutant clones (A10 and B5). Primers 1,2,3 (see methods) were used to amplify the

native locus (1+2) or an integration specific product (1+3), as illustrated in the diagram.

B. PCR test to evaluate aptamer repeat numbers in *tetR*-aptamer cassette in genomic DNA

isolated from PfClpP^apt^, PfClpR^apt^, and PfClpS^apt^ clones. The original plasmid contained 10

aptamer repeats, each 100pb long. Reduction in repeats numbers implies decreased binding

by the *tet*-Repressor which compromises knockdown efficiency. While PfClpP^apt^ and PfClpS^apt^

clones show the expected 1 kb PCR product which corresponds to 10 aptamer repeats, all

PfClpR^{apt} clones show a 0.7 kb product, indicating the loss of 3 aptamer repeats.

C. Two PfClpR^{apt} clones (A5 and B10) were grown with or without 0.5 uM aTc, and parasitemia

was monitored every 24 hr over 11 days via flow cytometry. 100% of growth represents the

highest value of calculated parasitemia (final parasitemia in the presence of aTc). Data are

represented as mean ± SEM (n= 3 technical replicates). One representative experiment out

of two biological replicates is shown.

D. Immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed PfClpR^{apt} parasites stained with antibodies against

V5 (PfClpR^{apt}, red), ACP (Acyl Carrier Protein, green), and DAPI (DAPI). Z-stack images were

deconvolved and projected as a combined single image. Representative images from one of

two biological replicates are shown. Scale bar, 5μm.

E. PfClpR^{apt} lysates were isolated and probed with antibodies against V5 (PfClpR^{apt}, red), and

PMV (loading control). The doublet observed for PfClpR is typical for apicoplast proteins and

include a cytoplasmic fraction (I) and an apicoplast-localized protein after the transit peptide

had been removed (II). The protein marker sizes that co-migrated with the probed protein

are shown on the left.

    Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 3

Immunoprecipitation of PfClpP^{apt}, PfClpR^{apt} and PfClpS^{apt} for proteomic analysis. 10^9 parasites

were isolated and 10% of the volume was saved as an input sample. Immunoprecipitation of the

tagged proteins from respective parasite lysates were performed using anti-V5 antibody-

conjugated beads. Input, IP and unbound samples were separated on SDS-PAGE and blotted with

anti-V5 antibodies and anti-PMV (Plasmpesin V, loading control). The heavy chain of the antibody

that eluted with some of the IP samples, despite cross linking is shown (*).

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