- 1 The endosymbiotic origins of the apicoplast link fever-survival and artemisinin-
- 2 resistance in the malaria parasite
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ABSTRACT Background: The emergence and spread of Plasmodium falciparum parasites resistant to front-line antimalarial artemisinin-combination therapies (ACT) threatens to erase the considerable gains against the disease of the last decade. We developed a new largescale phenotypic screening pipeline and used it to carry out the first large-scale forwardgenetic phenotype screen in P. falciparum to identify genes that allow parasites to survive febrile temperatures. Results: Screening identified more than 200 P. falciparum mutants with differential responses to increased temperature. These mutants were more likely to be sensitive to artemisinin derivatives as well as to heightened oxidative stress. Major processes critical for P. falciparum tolerance to febrile temperatures and artemisinin included highly essential, conserved pathways associated with protein-folding, heat-shock and proteasome-mediated degradation, and unexpectedly, isoprenoid biosynthesis, which originated from the parasite's algal endosymbiont-derived plastid, the apicoplast. Apicoplast-targeted genes in general were up-regulated in response to heat shock, as were other *Plasmodium* genes with orthologs in plant and algal genomes. Conclusions: Plasmodium falciparum parasites appear to exploit their innate febrileresponse mechanisms to mediate resistance to artemisinin. Both responses depend on endosymbiotic cyanobacterium-related ancestral genes in the parasite's genome, suggesting a link to the evolutionary origins of *Plasmodium* parasites in free-living ancestors. Running title: Plastid metabolism enables malaria parasites to survive fever and artemisinin

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Key words: genome-wide phenotypic screens, *piggyBac*, Qlseq, heat shock, growth fitness, transposon-mediated mutagenesis, phenotypic functional profiling **INTRODUCTION** Malaria remains a leading infectious disease causing >200 million clinical cases and a half-million deaths every year. Plasmodium falciparum is the deadliest malaria parasite by far, with growing parasite resistance to front-line antimalarial artemisinin-combination therapies (ACT) threatening to erase the considerable gains against the disease of the last decade. Alarmingly, data indicate that for the first time since 2010, progress in reducing global burden of malaria cases and fatalities nearly flatlined between 2015 and 2017 [1]. New therapies, ideally informed by an understanding of basic parasite biology, are needed to confront these urgent threats to global malaria control. The study of malaria-parasite biology and gene-function has traditionally been limited, because targeted gene-by-gene approaches are laborious and fraught with difficulty due to an AT-rich (~82%) genome that limits scalability of specific targeted gene-editing methods (such as CRISPR). Despite the considerable knowledge gene-by-gene studies have enabled, and the ~two decades that have passed since the P. falciparum genome was completed [2], the limited throughput of targeted gene-editing strategies combined with evolutionary distance of P. falciparum from classical model eukaryotes has left >90% of genes untouched experimentally, and ~35% of the parasite's ~5474 genes without meaningful functional annotation (www.plasmodb.org) [3]. High-throughput methods for functionally profiling the malaria-parasite genome can hasten development of effective interventions to control a parasite proven to be an adaptable foe. Parasite-specific processes essential for parasite survival are naturally attractive as potential drug-targets, given the decreased likelihood of deleterious off-target effects to

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the host. One such process ripe for interrogation is the parasite's survival-response to the extreme conditions of the host's malarial fever. Repeating fever is a hallmark of all types of malaria and the cyclical patterns serve as key diagnostic features of infections. In malignant tertian malaria caused by P. falciparum, the 48-hour cycle corresponds to the parasite's asexual intraerythrocytic-stage life-cycle, wherein parasites invade, develop, asexually replicate and then rupture their host red blood cell (RBC) to begin the destructive blood-stage cycle anew. Host fever is triggered by a Type I shock-like response of the innate immune-system exposure to extracellular parasite debris released when infected RBCs are lysed during parasite egress. Malarial fever concomitantly attenuates and synchronizes development of blood-stage P. falciparum infections, as it is lethal to all parasite stages except for early intraerythrocytic ring stages. However, parasite tolerance of febrile temperatures is crucial for its successful propagation in human populations as well as a fundamental aspect of malaria pathogenesis. Previous research suggests parasite-specific factors play a role in modulating this tolerance for febrile temperatures, though the identities of many of these factors or the mechanisms by which they operate remain uncertain [4, 5]. We previously used random piggyBac-transposon insertional mutagenesis to uncover genes essential for P. falciparum blood-stage survival, generating a saturation-level P. falciparum mutant library containing ~38,000 single-disruption mutants [6]. We defined 2680 genes as essential for asexual blood-stage growth, including ~1000 Plasmodiumconserved genes of unknown function. Here we demonstrate the potential of this piggyBac-mutant (pB-mutant) library to systematically assign functional annotation to the P. falciparum genome by genome-wide phenotypic screens. In this study, we present the first large-scale forward-genetic functional screen in P. falciparum to identify factors linked to parasite survival of febrile temperatures. Importantly, we functionally annotate

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hundreds of parasite genes as critical for the parasite's response to heat shock (HS) but dispensable under ideal growth-conditions, ~26% of which were previously unannotated with no known function. Expression-profiling the HS-responses in two different heat shock-sensitive (HS-Sensitive) pB-mutant clones vs. the wildtype parent NF54 via RNAseg revealed concordance between (1) genes regulated in the parasite's innate response to HS. (2) the processes dysregulated in these mutants vs. wildtype responses to HS, and (3) those mutants we identified as HS-Sensitive in our pooled screens. Together these analyses identify genes and pathways essential in the HS-response, implicating oxidative stress and protein-damage responses, host-cell remodelling, and unexpectedly, apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis. Apicoplast-associated genes in general were up-regulated in response to HS, as were other *Plasmodium* genes with orthologs in plant and algal genomes. Finally, parallel phenotyping of a mutant library revealed a significant overlap between parasite pathways underlying the response to febrile temperatures and those implicated in the artemisinin mechanism of action (MOA), including oxidative stress, protein-damage responses, and apicoplast-mediated vesicular trafficking [7, 8]. Mutants in known protein-targets of artemisinin tended to be sensitive to HS [9], and expression-data from recent field-isolates directly correlates artemisininresistance with HS tolerance in our pooled screen [10]. Further, we found the K13associated parasite endocytosis pathway responsible linked to artemisinins resistance [11, 12] is also downregulated in response to HS. Together these data identify an unexpected link between artemisinin MOA, HS-survival, and algal origins of the apicoplast, suggesting the parasite exploits its innate fever-response mechanisms to gain resistance to artemisinin. This study creates a blueprint for developing a large-scale phenotypic screening pipeline of the P. falciparum pB-mutant library to enable highthroughput interrogation of phenotypes of interest to hasten further biological insight that can be weaponized against the parasite.

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RESULTS Pooled screens of an extensively characterized pB-mutant clone-library allow robust identification of heat-shock phenotypes To interrogate pathways and processes associated with parasite survival at febrile temperatures, we developed a large-scale phenotypic screening pipeline to analyze the phenotypes in pooled pB-mutant parasites exposed to HS-induced stress (Fig. S1). We previously demonstrated using individual clonal pB-mutant parasite lines that mutant growth-phenotypes can be detected and differentiated in pooled screening utilizing QIseq—"Sensitive" mutants with disruptions in genes/genomic features important for growth have lower QIseg reads, while "Neutral" disruptions in features not vital for growth under the same conditions have higher reads [13]. We therefore reasoned that mutants with mutations in genes underlying the HS-response would grow poorly in response to HS compared to mutants in genes not contributing to HS-survival. We used a pool of 128 unique, extensively characterized P. falciparum pB-mutant clones reflecting disruptions in genes spanning a range of functional categories, as well as many genes without existing functional information, as a "pilot library" for initial phenotypic screen-development ([13, 14]; Methods). An in vitro HS-screen of this pilotlibrary, adapted from a phenotype- screen of many pB-mutant-clones comprising the pilot-library [15], defined pB-mutant HS-response phenotypes to fever-like temperatures (Fig. 1A-E, Table S1, Methods). We next calculated a measure of fitness for each mutant in response to HS while also taking into account inherent differences in mutantgrowth in ideal conditions, which we termed the Phenotypic-Fitness Score in response to HS (PFS_{HS}; Methods). We classified 28 mutants of the pilot-library as HS-Sensitive (Fig. 1E-F, indicated in red; Table S1). Fourteen mutants performed poorly in both the

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Growth- and HS-Screens (Fig. 1E-F, yellow). We classified 28 mutants displaying a slight growth advantage in response to HS (Fig. 1E-F, green) as "HS-Tolerant". Mutants exhibiting neither sensitivity nor tolerance to HS were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49). QIseq-data resulting from the HS- and Growth-screens allowed robust assignment of mutant-phenotypes for both (see Methods). We primarily classified mutants sensitive to heat-shock alone as HS-Sensitive to avoid possible over-interpretation of generally-sick Growth-Sensitive mutants (Fig. 1E-G). Pooled phenotypic screens scaled up to a 1K pB-mutant library enable identification of processes driving the P. falciparum heat-shock response We next scaled our pooled HS-screen to a mutant library of 922 functionally uncharacterized mutants using the methods we established in our pilot-library screens. This 1K-library comprised mutant-pools randomly selected from our saturation library, covering genes annotated to diverse GO-categories, as well as many genes of unknown function. Mutants were ranked by fold-change growth in response to HS from HS-Sensitive to HS-Tolerant, as per cut-offs determined from our pilot-library screens. Our analysis distinguished 149 mutants growing well in ideal growth conditions but poorly in response to HS as HS-Sensitive (FC-HS < 0.5 and PFS_{HS} < 0.25; Fig. 2A, red box), while 91 mutants performed poorly in both the Growth- and HS-screens (FC-HS < 0.5) and PFS_{HS} > 0.25; yellow). Of the remaining mutants, 139 HS-Tolerant mutants had slightly better growth in HS than ideal growth-conditions (FC-HS > 1.5; green box), while 543 classified as HS-Neutral were neither sensitive nor tolerant (taupe). This larger scale of screening allowed us to assess gene functional-enrichment in HS-Sensitive and Growth-Sensitive phenotypic categories vs all other mutants in the ~1K-

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library, HS-Sensitive mutants were enriched in GO terms associated with HS-response such as protein-folding, response to DNA-damage, DNA-repair, and regulation of vesicle-mediated transport, broadly in agreement with processes identified to underlie the HS-response by more conventional gene expression-based methods [4, 5]. Growth-Sensitive mutants tended to be enriched for more general categories broadly important for survival in all conditions, such as translation- or mRNA-metabolism-related terms (Fig. 2B), as might be expected given the high essentiality of these processes in ideal growth [6, 16]. Increased transcription of the unfolded protein response (UPR), organelletargeted stress-response pathways and host-cell remodeling characterize the parasite HS-response We characterized the wildtype parent-NF54 transcriptome in response to HS to establish a baseline for comparison using an experimental design similar to a prior study to assessing transcriptional changes in response to febrile temperatures via microarray [5]. The HS assay-design mimicking parasite exposure to malarial fever was modelled after conditions we established for our pooled-screens (Methods). RNAseq was performed on heat-shocked parasites vs. a non-heat-shocked control. Genes identified as differentially expressed in response to febrile temperatures vs. 37°C were classified into three different categories based on direction of response: (1) upregulated in response to HS; (2) downregulated in HS, and (3) neutral in HS (Fig. 3A-B, Table S3A). The majority of genes expressed above threshold in our analysis were HS-neutral (1541 genes out of 2567, or ~60%) and were enriched for genes involved in general housekeeping functions such as the proteasome core complex (ubiquitin-proteasome system), the ubiquitindependent ERAD-pathway, and regulators thereof), RNA metabolism (RNA-binding, mRNA-splicing) and transport functions (e.g. protein import into nucleus, vesicle-

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mediated transport). We primarily considered genes upregulated in HS as drivers of the HS-response. Genes upregulated in HS (n = 415) tended to be enriched for processes such as proteinfolding, unfolded protein-binding, response to heat, mitochondrial processes, and hostcell remodelling-associated exported proteins localizing to the Maurer's clefts (Fig. 3B, Table S3C-D). Genes downregulated in HS (n = 611) tended to be enriched for pathogenesis-related functions and components of the parasite invasion machinery, such as entry/exit from the host cell and cell-cell adhesion, and organelles including the inner-membrane pellicle complex, micronemes, and rhoptries. These data are in general agreement with previously-reported processes expected to drive the parasite HSresponse [4, 5]. The unfolded protein response, organelle-targeted pathways are dysregulated in **HS-Sensitive mutants** We reasoned that genes dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants compared to wildtype underlie the HS-response. We chose two individual HS-Sensitive mutant clones for additional profiling via RNAseg to identify dysregulated genes responsible for this sensitivity. Both mutant lines have a single disruption in the coding region of a gene not previously implicated in the HS-response: ΔDHC (dynein heavy-chain gene PF3D7 1122900), and ΔLRR5 (leucine-rich repeat protein PF3D7 1432400). The 1298 genes which could be classified into HS-response categories across all three parasites were analyzed for functional-enrichment (Table S3B). The majority of genes were HS-neutral across all three parasites and were enriched for essential housekeeping functions (n = 615; Table S3B-D). We reasoned these non-HS-regulated

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genes have functions too important for basic survival to tolerate large stress-associated expression-changes, and these genes were not considered drivers of the HS-response. We identified 91 genes significantly upregulated in HS across all three parasites, which were functionally enriched for protein-folding, chaperone-related processes, and other processes related to heat-stress and the UPR, in agreement with previous expressionbased studies [5], as well as enrichment-results from HS-Sensitive mutants in our pooled screening, indicating the parasite increases production of heat-shock proteins (HSPs) and associated chaperones to repair the glut of proteins damaged/misfolded by heatstress (Table S3B-D). Energy-producing processes (gluconeogenesis, glycolysis) were also upregulated, suggesting the parasite reroutes anabolic metabolism to increase energy production to support ATP-dependent processes such as protein-refolding to correct heat-damaged proteins. Genes upregulated in HS were further enriched for processes involved in host-cell remodeling, including genes targeted to the Maurer's clefts, the host cell, and intracellular vesicles—all known to be important for parasiteremodeling of the host-cell to promote structural reinforcement against heat-shock damage to ensure its own survival [4, 5]. Organellar targeting to the mitochondria and apicoplast are also enriched in upregulated HS-responsive genes. The parasite's increased utilization of mitochondrial stress-response pathways may aid in degrading heat-damaged proteins that cannot be correctly refolded. Increased activity in the food digestive vacuole may allow the parasite to phagocytose and eliminate toxic misfolded protein-aggregates. The apicoplast involvement, particularly the isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway, has not been previously implicated in the HS-response. Genes downregulated in all three parasites in response to HS (n = 205) were enriched for virulence-factor and invasion-machinery-associated GO terms, suggesting the

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parasite decreases production of transcripts associated with pathogenesis, invasion and egress, lengthening its intracellular recovery-time to address global protein-damage. Both HS-Sensitive mutants share many characteristic features of the wildtype response to febrile temperatures, which likely enabled their survival (Fig. 3A-B, red, blue; Table S3C-D). We identified two primary expression categories of genes dysregulated in the HS-Senstive mutants: (1) genes upregulated in the wildtype HS-response that were otherwise dysregulated in the HS-Sensitive mutants, which we interpreted as loss-offunction changes, and (2) genes that were not regulated in response to HS in the wildtype but were upregulated in the HS-Sensitive mutants, presumably equivalent to dominant-negative gain-of-function changes (Fig. 3A-B, ochre and tan, respectively). This first category of mutant-dysregulated genes was enriched for the UPR, as well as mitochondrial and apicoplast-localized pathways (cytochrome oxidase-assembly and fatty-acid biosynthesis, respectively). Several apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes upregulated in the wildtype HS-response were additionally dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive pB-mutant clones (Fig. 3C). The second category of mutantdysregulated genes, those that are not HS-responsive in wildtype, were enriched for translation-associated processes. These data taken together suggest underlying mechanisms responsible for the HSresponse. Critically, HS-Sensitive mutants fail to upregulate mitochondrial and apicoplast stress-response pathways, as well as signal peptide-processing pathways that might enable appropriate activation of those pathways. Mutants do not increase production of transcripts associated with responding to unfolded proteins. HS-Sensitive mutants additionally upregulate translation-related processes in response to HS when translation should be paused or neutral. This increase may overwhelm the parasite's capacity to

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repair or degrade heat-damaged proteins, exacerbating the formation/accumulation of toxic misfolded-protein aggregates that increase parasite sensitivity to HS. Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for P. falciparum survival of febrile temperatures We examined our RNAseq data more closely to discern contributions of the apicoplast to HS-survival. We found that apicoplast-targeted genes tended to be increased in response to HS as compared to all non-apicoplast-targeted genes (Fig. 4A), were more likely to be essential during ideal blood-stage growth conditions (Fig. 4B), and were enriched for stress-response processes such as the UPR and oxidative-stress, and less expectedly, isoprenoid biosynthesis (Fig. 4C). As a major function of isoprenoid biosynthesis is in protein-prenylation—an important post-translational modification that regulates protein-targeting and function throughout the cell—we hypothesized that mutants in known-prenylated proteins [17, 18] would also have a phenotype in HS. We examined our 1K mutant-library for representation of isoprenoid biosynthesis, its immediate upstream-regulators (proteins responsible for modulation and import of glycolytic intermediates that serve as pathway substrates), and immediate downstreameffector proteins, and found that all eight isoprenoid biosynthesis-related pB-mutants included in the pooled screen were indeed HS-Sensitive (Fig. 4D). Based on these data we further hypothesized that proteins or pathways allowing P. falciparum survival of febrile temperatures would be absent or otherwise divergent in Plasmodium species whose hosts do not mount fever-responses. We therefore compared the apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway between P. falciparum and two rodent-infective species, P. berghei and P. yoelii. We found key thiamine-synthesis enzymes directly upstream of the pathway missing in the rodent-infective malaria

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parasites, including hydroxy-ethylthiazole kinase (ThzK): ThzK is up-regulated in the canonical parasite response to febrile temperatures and dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants (Fig. 4E). Perhaps most importantly, DOXP-Synthase (DXS), the critical enzyme marking the first step in isoprenoid biosynthesis, is upregulated in HS, dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants, and was HS-Sensitive in pooled screening, as were all four members of the prenylated blood-stage proteome represented in our screen (Fig. 4E). These data taken together strongly implicate isoprenoid biosynthesis in the HS-response. Though the apicoplast has not previously been implicated in parasite survival of febrile temperatures, there is extensive literature on the ability of plants to mount effective defenses against heat as well as other external stressors, particularly critical for nonmotile organisms at the mercy of their environments. We investigated the relationship between the parasite's HS-response and "plant-like" stress-responses by evaluating phyletic distribution of parasite HS-response genes in representative plant and algal genomes. P. falciparum genes with plant orthologs indicating potential endosymbiontancestry tended to be increased in response to HS vs. genes that do not have plant orthologs (Fig. 4F). These lines of evidence considered together present an evolutionary explanation that endosymbiosis of the apicoplast's algal progenitor enabled parasitesurvival of extreme temperatures. Processes enabling parasites to survive fever also drive resistance to artemisinin We noted similarities between processes we identified to be driving the parasite HSresponse and those implicated in parasite-resistance to artemisinin [7, 8, 10]. Therefore, we did a series of parallel phenotype- screens of our pB-mutant pilot-library using sublethal concentrations of two artemisinin compounds (dihydroartemisinin, DHA;

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artesunate, AS), heightened conditions of oxidative stress of RBCs, and exposure to a proteasome inhibitor (Bortezomib; BTZ) to investigate the possible relationship between HS-response and artemisinin MOA. HS-Sensitive mutants tended to be sensitive to both artemisinin derivatives and H₂O₂-induced oxidative stress, while HS-Tolerant mutants were less sensitive to either condition (Fig. 5A, Table S4). Also, HS-Sensitive mutants shared an increased sensitivity to the proteasome inhibitor BTZ, consistent with laboratory observations connecting artemisinin MOA to the proteasome and clinical data that proteasome-inhibitors act synergistically with artemisinins [8, 19-21]. Overall, correlation of mutant phenotypic profiles across screens varied, with 16-45% having correlating phenotypes in at least one additional screen (Fig. 5B, Fig S2A-B). We next assessed whether these laboratory-based experimental findings corresponded to 'real world' changes associated with *P. falciparum* in artemisinin-resistant (ART-R) clinical isolates [10]. Consistent with our laboratory findings linking HS- sensitivity and ART- sensitivity, the genes associated with the HS-Sensitive mutants were significantly correlated with genes linked to ART-R in recent field isolates (Fig. 5C, Table S4). We also found clear GO relationships between HS phenotype-categories and ART-R in fieldisolates, with genes driving the HS-response most positively correlated with reduced parasite clearance-rates (Fig. 5D, Table S4). Artemisinin is activated by degradation of host hemoglobin. Recent evidence has suggested two key, temporally-distinct ART-R mechanisms: (1) a multi-functional protein long associated with resistance in field-isolates, kelch13 (K13) confers resistance upstream of hemoglobin degradation by modulating an associated endocytosis pathway; and (2) downstream of hemoglobin degradation through the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS), where K13 may function as or regulate a ubiquitin ligase [10-12, 22-25].

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In upstream-resistance, endocytotic transport of hemoglobin to the digestive vacuole (DV) is down-regulated as this is the key process through which the parasite ingests, degrades, and then releases hemoglobin. K13 mutant-isolates appear to downregulate processes along this endocytosis pathway, decreasing parasite hemoglobin digestion and release of heme to activate artemisinin, thereby increasing parasite survival (Fig. S2C). We found that K13-defined endocytosis is also downregulated in response to HS (Fig. 5E). As the K13-mediated endocytosis pathway culminates in host haemoglobincargo being degraded in the DV, we further assessed our 1k HS-screen for DVassociated proteins. We found DV-associated proteins did tend to be sensitive to heatshock, including key DV resident-proteases (Plasmepsin I, M1-family alanyl aminopeptidase; Fig. S3A) [26]. We next evaluated our 1K HS-sScreen for direct K13interacting partner-proteins recently identified via immunoprecipitation [25], and found that mutants in 10 of the 24 unique putative K13-partner-proteins represented in the screen were sensitive to HS. Further, 5 of 7 known alkylation-targets of artemisinin represented in our screen had sensitivity to HS [9, 26] (Fig. S3B). We noted significant overlap in each of these categories of ART MOA-related genes and isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes (Fig. S3C). In a second downstream step post-activation of artemisinin, the parasite engages the UPS to further mitigate artemisinin-induced damage. Artemisinins mount a multi-pronged attack against the parasite by causing a global, non-specific accumulation of damaged parasite proteins, which are then polyubiquitinated/marked for degradation, while also inhibiting proteasome-function. These poly-ubiquitinated proteins ultimately overwhelm the parasite's decreased capacity for UPS-mediated protein-degradation [8]. Key ubiquitinating components of this system, including E2/E3 ligases and K13, are downregulated in response to HS, while key components of the UPR and protein folding

are increased (Fig. 5E). In contrast, components of the core proteasome were universally increased in response to HS when considered in aggregate, although the change did not meet our fold-change criteria for being HS-regulated (Fig. S4). Synthesizing these data, we present a model for the relationship between DHA MOA described recently [8] and HS-response (Fig. 5F). The canonical parasite-response to fever is to increase protein-folding and UPR while inhibiting ubiquitination to prevent accumulation of toxic, polyubiquitinated protein-aggregates. The parasite simultaneously increases its capacity for proteasome-mediated degradation—ultimately enabling it to resolve HS-instigated stress and thus survive febrile temperatures. Artemisinins kill by overwhelming these same pathways: damaging and unfolding proteins, preventing folding of newly synthesized proteins and inhibiting the proteasome, while at the same time activating ubiquitination-machinery to ensure the accumulation of toxic polyubiquitinated proteins that eventually cause cell-death. ART-R-associated mutations allow the parasite to constitutively activate unfolded-protein response mechanisms which increase its capacity for refolding or degrading those toxic proteins [27]. The overall increase in damaged-protein degradation-capacity allows ART-R parasites to keep up with the influx of artemisinin-induced protein-damage, clearing the waste and enabling parasite survival. This direct inverse relationship in activation of endocytosis, the ubiquitin-proteasome system and other pathways underlying DHA-mediated killing and febrile-temperature survival, supports a shared mechanism for artemisinin-resistance and HS-response, suggesting that ART-R parasites evolved to harness canonical HSsurvival mechanisms to survive artemisinin.

Discussion

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Our data indicate that the parasite crisis-response to HS is multi-faceted to relieve the build-up of heat-damaged proteins before it is overwhelmed by toxic, misfolded-protein aggregates. Responding to or perhaps preventing a build-up of potentially toxic heatdamaged proteins, the parasite upregulates expression of chaperones to stabilize and detoxify them, downregulating ubiquitinating enzymes to discourage their aggregation while upregulating the core proteasome and vesicular trafficking to degrade and eliminate proteins which can't be repaired. Equally important in the survival-response are changes in redox homeostasis, lipid metabolism, cellular transport, and metabolic processes associated with the endosymbiont-derived organelles. The parasite requires increased energy to mount this febrile response, which it provides by redirecting its own internal biosynthetic pathways to produce glucose. Interestingly, we confirm the parasite's protective response-mechanisms include proteins exported into the erythrocyte, suggesting that the parasite's metabolic processes exported to remodelled cytoplasm of the parasitized host cell are equally vulnerable and vital to malaria parasite survival. A high proportion of essential genes that are upregulated in response to heat stress are targeted to the apicoplast. The apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway's critical involvement in survival of febrile temperatures is nevertheless a surprise, as it has not been implicated before in the *Plasmodium* HS-response. Isoprenoids are required for myriad functions across the tree of life—plant chloroplasts, algae, some parasiticprotozoa and bacterial pathogens utilize a specialized form of this pathway absent from all metazoans (called the non-mevalonate, MEP, or DOXP pathway), which has made isoprenoid biosynthesis an attractive target for intervention against a range of pathogens [28, 29]. Most studied organisms make wide use of protein-prenylation and have large prenylated proteomes; malaria parasites, in contrast, have a very small prenylated

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blood-stage proteome (~20 proteins) consisting primarily of vesicular trafficking proteins. notably the Rab-family GTPases [17, 18]. Recent studies indicate the key essential function of isoprenoids in the parasite blood-stage is in their roles as substrate for protein-prenylation—specifically, in prenylating proteins driving vesicular transport to the digestive vacuole [30, 31]. In the absence of prenylation, Rab5 trafficking is disrupted, which leads to digestive vacuole-destabilization and parasite death [31]. Notably, artemisinin also disrupts digestive vacuole-morphology, resulting in a very similar phenotype as a consequence of its activation via hemoglobin digestion [32, 33]. Intriguingly, recent data confirm the association of key resistance-mediator K13 with Rab-GTPases [25], adding to the repertoire of proteins comprising K13-mediated endocytic vesicles, and by extension supporting the role of prenylation in K13-mediated processes associated with ART MOA. Another key parasite-defense against oxidative stress induced by pro-oxidant compounds (such as artemisinin) includes increased vitamin E biosynthesis—another exclusive function of the MEP isoprenoid-biosynthesis pathway, whose stress-related regulation has been extensively studied in plants [34, 35]. Further insights to the role isoprenoids play in the HS-response may be gleaned from plants and pathogenic bacteria, where research suggests key branchpoint-enzyme DXS, which catalyzes the first and rate-determining step of the MEP pathway [36], has a role in sensing and then facilitating adaptation to ever-changing environmental conditions, including temperature, light-exposure, chemical compounds, and oxidative stress (for example [37, 38]). Elevated levels of isoprenoids have been found to correlate with plant exposure to drought and other stressors and are considered a key component of plant-defenses against abiotic stress [39]. The DXS ortholog may play a similar role in P. falciparum,

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enabling the parasite to mount quick responses to unfavorable conditions in the hostenvironment, such as fever. Interestingly, concurrent studies now provide mechanistic insights illuminating the biochemical relationship between apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis and the parasite febrile-temperature survival response (co-submission by Mathews et al.). Farnesylation of HSP40 (PF3D7 1437900), a type of prenylation mediated by the MEP pathway, is critical for P. falciparum survival of thermal stress. In this study Inhibition of isoprenoid biosynthesis ultimately resulted in reduced association of HSP40 with critical components of the cytoskeleton, protein-export, and vesicular transport pathways without which P. falciparum could survive neither heat nor cold stress. Suppression of these cellular processes by loss of HSP40-farnesylation directly corresponds to HSsensitive pathways identified via both our forward-genetic screen and our geneexpression analyses of the HS-Sensitive LRR5- and DHC4-mutant clones. Few eukaryotes are known to be able to thrive in extreme-heat environments; most are unable to complete their lifecycles above 40°C [40]. The survival mechanism of malaria parasites could be attributed to the algal ancestral lineage of the apicoplast. Some extant red algal-lineages (genus Cyanidioschyzon) are extremophilic inhabitants of acidic hot-springs and are remarkably resistant to heat shock up to 63°C; green-algae Chlamydamonas reinhardtii was also able to survive to 42°C [41]. Responsibility for this extreme resistance to transient exposure to high temperatures was attributed to two genes of the small heat shock protein (sHSP) family (CMJ100C and CMJ101C). The P. falciparum ortholog for these genes (PF3D7 1304500) was upregulated in the wildtype HS-response and dysregulated in both our HS-Sensitive mutants, indicating its

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contribution to parasite survival in extreme temperatures. Mutations in this gene were not represented in our pooled screens. It is tempting to speculate that acquisition of the red-algal endosymbiont and its associated plant stress-response mechanisms is what enabled the ancestral parasite to survive host-fever, likely an important and early step leading to successful infection of hominid hosts. Our findings of significant overlap between parasite-responses to three disparate stressors (HS, artemisinin, oxidative stress) offers new insight into how P. falciparum exhibited artemisinin-resistance even in the initial clinical trials [42], and then further evolved resistance relatively quickly after mass-introduction of the drug by "hijacking" and repurposing the parasite's in-built fever-response pathways. Conclusion Deeper knowledge of parasite biology is expected to enable more effective and likely longer-lasting antimalarial interventions. Similarly, a better mechanistic understanding of artemisinin MOA will lead to better combination therapies to combat emerging resistance. With this first large-scale forward-genetic screen in P. falciparum, we revealed the parasite's survival responses to malarial fever and artemisinin chemotherapy share common underpinnings that heavily depend on metabolic processes of plant origin. ART-R ultimately hinges on highly efficient protein-degradation mechanisms. This mechanistic knowledge allows for the application of intelligently considered counters to ART-R, such as combinatorial therapy with proteasome-inhibitors, which has experimentally shown great promise [43]. Our current study highlights the potential of forward-genetic screens to elucidate unexpected processes and pathways, such as

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DOXP and isoprenoid biosynthesis, that are associated with the artemisinin MOA which may serve as synergistic druggable targets. Future studies can exploit a genome-wide screening approach to iteratively ascribe function to every part of the malaria-parasite genome to support targeted development of new, more-efficacious antimalarial combination therapies to limit and potentially reverse artemisinin resistance. **Declarations** Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable. Consent for publication Not applicable. Availability of data and materials The raw RNAseq dataset supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the Mendeley Data repository Malaria-parasite survival of host fever is linked to artemisinin resistance, http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/b8g3wbnd5v.1 [44]. Raw QIseq dataset accession numbers are listed in Table S5. Competing interests The authors declare that they have no competing interests. **Funding** This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health grant R01 Al094973 and R01 Al117017 (J.H.A.) and the Wellcome Trust grant 098051 (J.C.R.). Authors' contributions

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C. Pilot-library mutant growth-phenotypes at ideal temperatures, defined as fold change in Qlseg reads-count after three cycles growth at 37°C (FC-Growth; Methods) ranked from Sensitive to Tolerant. Mutants with inherently slower or faster growth under ideal conditions are shown in grey and blue, respectively. **D.** Pilot-library mutant HS-phenotypes ordered from Sensitive (red) to Tolerant (green). Mutant growth was defined as QIseg reads-count fold-change in response to HS (FC-HS) vs. non heat-shocked control (Methods). HS-Sensitive mutants have lower FC-HS (red, FC-HS < 1), while HS-Tolerant mutants have higher FC-HS (green, FC-HS > 1). E-F. HS- and Growth-phenotypes of the pilot-library mutants. HS-phenotype of each mutant (displayed as line-graph) is superimposed on its corresponding Growthphenotype (bar graph). Red = HS-Sensitive mutants (FC-HS < 0.5 and Phenotypic Fitness Score in response to heat shock (PFS_{HS}) < 0.25, n = 28). Yellow = mutants classified as both Growth-Sensitive and HS-Sensitive (FC-HS < 0.5, PFS_{HS} > 0.25, n = 14). Green = HS-Tolerant mutants (FC-HS > 1.5, n = 30). Mutants neither Sensitive nor Tolerant to HS were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49). *Known HS-Sensitive pB-mutant clones validated by individual HS-assay [15]. **Known HS-Tolerant pB-mutant clones validated by individual HS-assay [15]. **G.** Distributions of PFS_{HS} for mutant HS-phenotype classifications. HS-Sensitive mutants are assigned the lowest PFS_{HS}, while HS-Tolerant mutations are assigned the highest PFS_{HS} (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15) (Methods). Figure 2. Large-scale pooled phenotypic screens enable identification of processes driving the *P. falciparum* heat-shock response A. HS-Sensitive mutations identified in pooled screens of 922 pB-mutants. Mutant pools were screened in both ideal growth conditions and under HS and were assigned phenotypes as per methods established in the pilot-library screens (Fig. 1). Mutants are

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ranked by fold-change in response to HS (FC-HS; n = 922) from HS-Sensitive (red; n = 149) to HS-Tolerant (green; n = 139). Mean mutant fold-change in ideal growth (FC-Growth) is superimposed as a bar plot (gray, FC-Growth < 1.0; blue, FC-Growth > 1.0). Mutants performing poorly in both screens (yellow; n = 91) were classified as HS- and Growth-Sensitive and were not considered further. Mutations neither HS-Sensitive nor HS-Tolerant were classified as HS-Neutral. See Methods and Table S2. **B.** Functional enrichment of GO terms for HS-Sensitive or Growth-Sensitive *pB*-mutants vs all other mutants in the 1K-library. HS-Sensitive mutants were enriched in terms associated with HS-response such as protein-folding, response to DNA-damage, DNArepair, and regulation of vesicle-mediated transport. Growth-Sensitive mutants tended to be enriched for more general categories broadly important for survival in all conditions. such as translation- or mRNA-metabolism-related terms. Circles represent GO category, circle color represents ontology, and circle size represents number of significant genes annotated to that category. Significant terms (Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05) fall within the light-green box. Figure 3. Increased transcription of the unfolded protein response, organelletargeted stress-response pathways and host-cell remodeling characterize the parasite HS-response. A. Genes were classified based on their NF54-expression with and without HS-exposure across all three parasite lines (Methods). Genes were classified as upregulated in response to HS (FC-HS > 1; ↑), down-regulated in response to HS (FC-HS < -0.5; \downarrow), or not regulated by HS (-0.5 < FC-HS < 1; -), with upregulated genes considered to be driving the HS-response. Genes were then assigned HS expression-categories based on phenotype in NF54 vs. HS-Sensitive mutants ΔLRR5 and ΔDHC. HS-regulated genes shared between NF54 and both mutants are indicated in red $(\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow)$ or blue $(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow)$ for up- and down-regulated genes, respectively. Genes

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dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive mutants fell into two main expression-profile categories underlying mutant HS-Sensitivity phenotypes: those upregulated in NF54 that failed to be regulated in the mutants (↑✗※), and genes not regulated in response to HS in NF54 that were inappropriately upregulated in the mutants $(-\uparrow\uparrow)$. B. Functional enrichment analyses between wildtype/mutant HS-expression profiles as defined in A. Red: Shared upregulated HS-responsive GO-terms between NF54 and the two HS-Sensitive pB-mutants (↑↑↑). Blue: Shared down-regulated HS-responsive GOterms (\\\\)). Ochre: GO-terms upregulated in NF54 but dysregulated in the two pBmutant (↑スペ). Tan: GO-terms enriched in genes not regulated in the wildtype HSresponse but upregulated in the mutants (- ↑↑). Only enriched GO-terms are shown (Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05), with highest significance indicated in dark green. Fraction of significant genes mapping to a GO-term in an HS expression-profile category vs. genes mapping to that GO-term in the entire analysis is indicated by distance to the center of the circle, with the outermost position on the circle indicating 100% of genes in that GO-term are significant. See Table S3D. C. Several apicoplast and isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes have a tendency to be upregulated in the wildtype-response to HS and are dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive *pB*-mutant clones (↑スペ). * Isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes upregulated by HS confirmed in the pooled HS-Screen. Figure 4. Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for P. falciparum survival of febrile temperatures. A. Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be increased in response to HS as compared to all non apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in RNAseg. Apicoplast-targeted genes are as defined in [45] (*** Fisher-test p-value < 1e-5).

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B. Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be highly essential during blood-stage vs. all other non-apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in RNAseq. The median Mutagenesis Index Score (MIS: [6]) for apicoplast-targeted genes is much lower than median MIS for all other genes, indicating a lower tolerance for disruption and thus higher likely essentiality during blood-stage development than non-apicoplast-targeted genes (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15). C. Apicoplast pathways regulated in response to HS. GO categories enriched in up- and down-regulated apicoplast genes are shown on a scale from red to blue, respectively. The horizontal direction indicates the log ratio between up- and down-regulated apicoplast genes in each category. Circle-size represents gene-number per category. **D.** All nine pB-mutants in genes related to apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis represented in the 1K-library pooled screen were HS-Sensitive. Mutants are ranked by phenotype from HS-Sensitive (red) to HS-Tolerant (green). Circles indicate each HS-Sensitive mutant related to isoprenoid-biosynthesis. *The three isoprenoid biosynthesisgenes we identified as directly upregulated in response to HS via RNAseg (DXS, tRNA m(1)G methyltransferase and apicoplast RNA methyltransferase). See Table S3. E. Key enzymes in the P. falciparum isoprenoid biosynthesis-pathway are up-regulated in response to heat-shock (red circle), dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants (ochre) and absent in malaria-parasites of hosts that do not present fever. Pathway diagram modeled from [46]. Isoprenoid biosynthesis-genes upregulated in HS include DXS, 1deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase (DOXP), 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4cyclodiphosphate synthase (IspF), pyruvate kinase II (PyKII), triosephosphate isomerase (TIM), triose phosphate transporter (TPT), and upstream-regulator of MEP-pathway substrates HAD1-phosphotase [47]. All vesicular trafficking-proteins RAB GTP'ases, direct downstream-targets prenylated by the MEP-pathway (zigzag) represented in pooled screening were HS-Sensitive. The key thiamin-synthesis enzyme

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hydroxyethylthiazole kinase (ThzK) is absent in P. berghei and P. yoelii, malariaparasites whose rodent-hosts do not present fever. F. P. falciparum genes with plant orthologs (green circles) indicating potential endosymbiont-ancestry tend to be increased in response to HS vs. genes that do not have plant orthologs (grey circles). P. falciparum genes with potential endosymbiontancestry were derived from 1919 ortholog-pairs between Arabidopsis thaliana and P. falciparum (data from OrthoMCLv5.0). The listed processes are sorted based on the ratio of "green" to "non-green" orthologs. Figure 5. Increased sensitivity to fever is directly correlated with increased sensitivity to artemisinin in the malaria parasite. A. HS-Sensitive pB-mutants (red) are more sensitive to multiple concentrations of artemisinin derivatives Artesunate and Dihydroartemisinin, proteasome-inhibitor Bortezomib (BTZ), and conditions of heightened oxidative stress than HS-tolerant parasites (green) in all pooled screens of the pilot library, pB-mutants were cultured continuously under oxidative stress-inducing conditions for three to six cycles (T1 and T2, respectively). Apicoplast-mutants (n = 5) have phenotypes similar to all HS-Sensitive mutants (n =28) in artemisinin-derivative screens, but not to protein-inhibitors or oxidative stress (* Wilcoxon p < 0.05; *** Wilcoxon p < 1e-10. See Methods). **B.** Correlation between mutant phenotypes in all pooled screens of the pilot library. Mutants performing in the bottom 25% or top 25% of each screen were classified as having "Sensitive" and "Tolerant" phenotypes, respectively. Mutant classifications were compared pair-wise between each screen, with mutants falling into the same category in both screens considered to have correlating phenotypes. **C.** HS-Sensitive pB-mutants (red) are positively correlated with genes linked to ART-R in recent field isolates [10](* Wilcoxon test p < 0.05).

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D. HS expression-categories as determined by comparative RNAseg between NF54 and two HS-Sensitive mutant clones are positively correlated with ART-R in field-isolates. E. Both K13-mediated mechanisms of artemisinin resistance (endocytosis, ubiquitinproteasome system) are similarly regulated in HS. The K13-defined endocytosis pathway (shades of green) and key ubiquitinating-enzymes of the ubiquitin-proteasome system, E2/E3 and K13, are downregulated in the wildtype NF54 HS-response, while protein folding, stress, exported proteins, and proteasome genes are upregulated. RNAseg data are plotted for each gene by average log2 fold-change in response to HS and significance (-log2(p-value)). Circles in shades of blue and pink indicate genes significantly down- or upregulated after exposure to HS, respectively. F. Activation of pathways underlying DHA-mediated killing and febrile-temperature survival is directly inverse. Top: Model of DHA-mediated killing in P. falciparum adapted from [8], Artemisinin (ART) damages and unfolds proteins, prevents folding of newly synthesized proteins, and inhibits the proteasome while at the same time activating E1/E2/E3 ubiquitin-machinery. Accumulation of toxic polyubiquitinated protein-substrates (S) overwhelms the cell and leads to death. **Bottom**: Model of parasite fever-response. Heat-stress causes globally damaged protein. The parasite increases the UPR as it inhibits E2/E3 ubiquitination to prevent accumulation of toxic, polyubiquitinated (Ub) protein-aggregates, while at the same time increasing its capacity for proteasomemediated degradation—ultimately enabling the parasite to resolve HS-instigated stress and survive febrile-temperatures. Methods Pilot pB-mutant clone-library characteristics and validation The single piggyBac-transposon insertion sites of each pB-mutant-clone in the pilotlibrary were verified as previously described [13, 14]. Additionally, whole-genome

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sequencing performed on 23% of 128 pB-mutant-clones in the pilot-library verified that no major genomic changes occurred aside from the piggyBac insertion, ensuring any detected phenotypes are attributable to the single disruption [15]. The pilot-library was generated in a manner to ensure approximately equal representation of each of the 128 clones at thaw [13]. Generating the pilot-library of pB-mutant parasite clones The pilot-library was built as described in our previous QIseq methods-development study [13] and data are available in PlasmoDB (RRID:SCR 013331). Aliquots of the pilot-library were generated by first growing each of the 128 extensively-characterized mutant-clones individually in T25-flasks to 1-2% parasitemia. All clones were then combined equally into one large flask and gently mixed. One-hundred equal-volume aliquots of the pilot-library were then cryopreserved according to standard methods. Pooled-screen assay-design **HS-screens** We exposed pools of pB-mutant parasites to three rounds of temperature-cycling to simulate the cyclical pattern of fever characteristic of human malaria (Figure 1A). Parasites under phenotypic selection (heat-shock) and ideal-growth controls originated from the same thaw, grown at 37°C for one cycle then split equally into five flasks (three flasks for exposure to heat-shock, two for the ideal-growth controls). Experimental and control-flasks were maintained in parallel to minimize potential batch-effects. Parasites were grown for one cycle at 37°C until they reached the ring-stage of development (Time-point 0; T⁰), at which point the experimental-group were exposed to febrile temperatures (41°C) for 8 hours. Post-heat-shocked parasites were then returned to 37°C for the remainder of the 48-hour window until they again reached ring-stage.

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Parasite-qDNA was harvested for QIseq after two more rounds of temperature-cycling in successive growth cycles to ensure enough parasite-material was available for QIseq (Time-point 1; T¹). Control-parasites were harvested for gDNA before and after three cycles of pooled growth at 37°C (T⁰ and T¹, respectively) for quantification via Qlseg in technical triplicate. We used Qlseg-reads obtained for each mutant after the same number of cycles of pooled growth at 37°C as our T⁰ control as previously reported [13]. Drug-screens As with the HS-screen, parasites were split from the same thaw of the pilot-library after one cycle of growth into experimental flasks and control-flasks. Experimental flasks were exposed to three cycles of continuous drug-pressure at two different concentrations (IC10, IC25) of each artemisinin-compound (AS, DHA). Proteasome-inhibitor BTZexperiments were performed at IC10. Control-flasks were cultured continuously in parallel at 37°C without drug. Parasites were harvested immediately at the conclusion of three growth-cycles for gDNA-extraction and phenotype-analysis via QIseq. Oxidative stress screens Parasites were split after one cycle of growth from the same thaw of the pilot-library as the HS-screen. Parasites were grown one more cycle, then split into four flasks: two control-flasks to be cultured with standard, washed human red blood-cells (hRBC), and two experimental flasks to be cultured with H₂O₂-treated hRBCs to mimic conditions of oxidative stress. Experimental flasks (H₂O₂ treated-hRBC) and control-flasks (untreatedhRBC) were cultured continuously in parallel at 37°C. Parasites were harvested immediately after three growth-cycles (T1), then again after an additional three growthcycles (T2) for gDNA-extraction and phenotype-analysis by QIseq.

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Methods for oxidative pre-treatment of hRBCs were as published previously [48]. Briefly. O+ hRBCs (Interstate blood bank, packed, 100% hematocrit) were incubated with 1 mM H₂O₂ (Sigma-aldrich, Cat. no. H1009-100ML) for one hour at room temperature. After treatment, cells were washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) before dithiothreitol (DTT) was added to a final concentration of 1 mM to heal any reversible oxidative damages. Cells were then treated with menadione sodium bisulphite for one hour at room temperature (Sigma-aldrich Cat. no. M5750-100G) and washed five times. A volume of 3-4 ml of AB medium (RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 2 mM Lglutamine, 25 mM HEPES, 100 µM hypoxanthine and 20 µg ml⁻¹ gentamicin) was added on top of the cell-pellet after discarding the final wash. Pre-treated erythrocytes were stored at 4 °C before use in parasite culture. All pooled screens (HS, AS, DHA, BTZ, oxidative stress, ideal growth) were performed in biological duplicate. Qlseq QIseq, which uses Illumina next-gen sequencing technology and custom librarypreparation to enable sequencing from both the 5' and 3' ends of the piggyBac transposon out into the disrupted genome-sequence, allows quantitative identification of each pB-mutant line by its unique insertion-site within mixed-population pools of pBmutants [13] (Figure 1B). The anatomy of the piggyBac transposon and its distinct 5' and 3' inverted terminal-repeat sequences (ITRs) allows double-verification of insertion-sites: both 5' and 3' Qlseg libraries were therefore generated and seguenced for each sample. Counts per insertion-site were determined as described previously [13]. Measures indicating reproducibility for Qlseq-data for both the pilot-library and 1K-library screens are shown in Fig. S5A-B and Fig. S6, respectively. We observed high correlation

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between 5' and 3' QIseq-libraries from each pool (Fig. S5A, Fig. S6), Resulting Growth and HS phenotype-assignments were highly reproducible across three technical and two biological replicates (HS-Screen, R=0.94; Growth-Screen, R=0.89; Fig. S5B). We found only weak correlation between Growth-Sensitive and HS-Sensitive phenotypes (R = 0.44; Fig. S5B, Fig. S6), suggesting that our heat-shock exposure-conditions were sufficient to allow reproducible detection of mutants with specific selection responsephenotypes from pooled screening. Calculating mutant fold-change in pooled screening to assign HS- and Growthphenotypes We defined FC-Growth by pB-mutant fold-change after three cycles of growth at ideal temperatures (T^{1-37C}/ T^{0-37C}). FC-HS was defined as pB-mutant fold-change after exposure to heat-shock vs. the non- heat-shocked control (T^{1-41C}/ T^{1-37C}). We used changes in reads-number detected for each pB-mutant in the Growth-Screen and the HS-Screen as compared to reads-number detected for that mutant in the respective control-screen to calculate mutant Fold Change (FC) in both screens (Figure 1C-D; Methods). We then ranked mutants from lowest to highest FC, with lowest FC indicating highest sensitivity to the screened-condition. We developed a scoring-system to distinguish mutants with phenotypes specifically in the condition under selection (HS) vs. those with inherently compromised growth in ideal conditions, called the Phenotypic Fitness-Score (PFS). PFS_{HS} is the mutant fold-change in response to heat-shock (FC-HS, 41C/37C) multiplied by the ratio of FC-HS to mutant fold-change under ideal growth-conditions (FC-HS/FC-Growth), with the smallest and largest values indicating the largest mutant growth-differentials between the two screens (smallest PFS HS indicating worse mutant-fitness in the HS-Screen than the Growth-

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Screen, and largest PFS HS indicating better mutant-fitness in the HS-Screen than the Growth-screen; Fig. S6). Mutants exhibiting (1) poor growth in the HS-Screen (i.e., low FC-HS of < 0.5 based on performance of known HS-Sensitive pB-mutant-clones), and (2) comparatively much better growth in the Growth-Screen (i.e., low PFS_{HS} of < 0.25) were classified as HS-Sensitive in pooled phenotypic screens (indicated in red in Fig. 1E-F). Mutants exhibiting poor fitness in both the Growth- and HS-Screens (FC-HS < 0.5) and PFS_{HS} > 0.25) are indicated in Fig. 1E-F in yellow (n = 14). These double-sensitive mutants were not included in our "HS-Sensitive" classification to avoid overinterpretation of possibly-confounding phenotypes. We classified mutants displaying a slight growth advantage in response to heat shock (FC-HS > 1.5, n = 28, indicated in the green box, Fig.1E-F) as "HS-Tolerant". Mutants exhibiting neither sensitivity nor tolerance to heat shock were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49). Assigning drug- and oxidative stress-screen phenotypes Mutant fold-change in response to the given condition was calculated against an idealgrowth control as above. Mutants in the top 25% of reads recovered in QIseq in the screened condition were classified as Tolerant, while mutants in the bottom 25% were classified as Sensitive. Comparative RNAseg between wild-type NF54 and two HS-Sensitive mutant parasite lines in response to heat shock RNAseg experimental design is outlined in Fig. S8A. Briefly, highly synchronized ringstage cultures of wildtype NF54 and HS-Sensitive mutants LRR5 and DHC were split equally into four T75 flasks each. All parasites were grown at the normal human body temperature (37C) to early ring-stage. Two flasks of each parasite-line were then exposed to febrile temperatures (41C) for 8 hours, while the remaining two flasks were

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allowed to continue to grow at 37C for 8 hours without exposure to heat-stress. This temperature-cycling was repeated three times, just as we allowed for the pooled screen. After the third round of heat-shock (Time 1, T¹), RNA was harvested simultaneously from both conditions for RNAseg as in [19]. Parasite fold-change in response to HS was calculated at the time of sample-collection and verified mutant defects in response to HS as compared to NF54 (Fig S8B). RNA-seq was performed in-house on an Illumina MiSeq using a 300-cycle V2 MiSeq reagent kit. RNA-seg data-analysis RNA-seg reads from each sample were aligned to the P. falciparum reference genome (PlasmoDB version 28, RRID:SCR 013331). A maximum of one mismatch per read was allowed. The mapped reads from TopHat [49] were used to assemble known transcripts from the reference and their abundances were estimated using Cufflinks [50]. The expression level of each gene was normalized as FPKM (fragments per kilobase of exon per million mapped reads). We defined expressed genes as those having FPKM > 20 for at least one biological replicate at either 37°C or 41°C. The fold change of normalized gene expression between 41°C and 37°C was calculated for every biological replicate. Fold-change for genes not expressed in both temperatures was set equal to one. We conservatively filtered out genes in the top and bottom 10% of fold-change to remove outliers. We then fit a Gaussian model to the log2 fold change (log2FC) for every biological replicate using maximum log likelihood estimation to normalize the foldchange calculations and assess significance. For each gene i with positive fold-change in response to HS, we calculated the p-value as the fraction of genes g with $log 2FC_a > 1$ log2FC_i. For each gene i with negative fold-change in response to HS, p-value was calculated as the fraction of genes g with $log 2FC_q > log 2FC_i$. The false discovery rate (FDR) was calculated for each replicate. We defined genes for which FDR < 0.1 as

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having significant fold-change in response to HS. Genes were assigned HS phenotypecategories based on significance and direction of HS-response. We assigned HS phenotype-categories for 2567 genes using these criteria (Table S3). Heat-shock phenotypes as identified via pooled phenotypic screening and comparative RNAseq were highly correlated (Fig S9A-B), supporting our methodology. GO-term enrichment analyses All GO-enrichment analyses were performed testing GO-terms mapped to genes in the category of interest against a background of GO-terms mapped to all other genes in the analysis. The GO-term database was created from the latest curated *P. falciparum* ontology available at the time of analysis, downloaded from GeneDB (accessed May 2, 2019) [51]. For enrichment-analysis in the 1K-library screens: Mutants were divided into HS-phenotype categories, and each category was tested for enrichment against a background of GO-terms mapped to the genes represented by the remainder of the 922 mutants in the screen using the weighted Fisher/elim hybrid-method of the TopGO package (v 1.0) available from Bioconductor [52] (Fig. 2B). For enrichment-analysis in comparative RNAseg data: a database of all GO-terms mapped to the 1298 genes which could be assigned a HS-phenotype in all three parasites was assembled. Genes were divided into HS phenotype-categories based on direction of fold-change (Up, Down, Unchanged) in response to HS in all three parasites, then evaluated for GO-term enrichment against the background GO-term database of all other genes in the analysis using the weighted-Fisher/elim hybrid-method of the TopGO package (Fig 3B, Table S2). For enrichment of apicoplast-targeted genes by RNAseg HS-phenotype category: enrichment for each investigated GO-term g was calculated as the number of non-HSregulated apicoplast genes C annotated to g (the background-distribution) vs. the number of HS-regulated apicoplast genes C_r annotated to GO-term q. The fraction of

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HS-regulated apicoplast-genes to non-HS-regulated apicoplast genes (C_r/C) was assessed for significance using the Fisher exact test (Fig 4C). **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE and TABLE LEGENDS** Figure S1. Schematic overview of the phenotypic screening pipeline. pB-mutant library resources from small (individual, well-characterized mutant-clones) to large (the 1K-Library, comprised of pools randomly selected from the Saturation-Library) were used to design carefully validated pooled screens at increasingly large scale. High correlation between mutant-phenotypes in HS-screens and artemisinin (ART)-screens indicated mechanistic overlap in response to both stressors. Iterative rounds of pooledscreening for various phenotypes over time enables higher-throughput functionalannotation of the *P. falciparum* genome. Figure S2. Extended screening data against the pilot-library and summary. A. Full drug-screening data for artemisinin-compounds Artesunate (AS) and DHA, and proteasome-inhibitor Bortezomib (BTZ) against the pilot-library. HS-Sensitive mutants are significantly more sensitive to each drug than HS-Tolerant mutants. There is no significant relationship between pB-mutant sensitivity to any drug and mutant sensitivity in standard growth-conditions. B. HS-Sensitive (red) and HS-Tolerant (green) mutants and their phenotypes across all pooled phenotypic screens. Mutants are clustered by HS-phenotype. Figure S3. Mutants in members of the DV proteome, targets of ART alkylation, and putative interacting partners of K13 tend to be sensitive to HS.

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A. 1k HS-Screen mutants are ordered by FC-HS from HS-Sensitive to HS-Tolerant. Mutants in digestive vacuole-associated proteins as defined by [26] are indicated in lavender dots. Gene-symbols for mutants with HS-sensitivity are labeled with black text (10 of 18 genes). Gene-symbols for HS-Neutral and HS-Tolerant mutants are labeled with grey text. **B.** All mutants in ART alkylation-targets as defined by [9] included in the 1K HS-Screen. **C.** HS-screen phenotypes of mutants in putative K13-interacting proteins as defined by [25]. Figure S4. Core proteasome-components are slightly but universally upregulated in response to HS as compared to other aggregately upregulated processes which have more heterogenous expression. Fold-change for most individual proteasomecomponents did not meet our threshold to be designated "upregulated". ** Wilcoxon pvalue < 1e-5. Figure S5. Qlseq data-correlations within and between Pilot-Library Screens. A. Pearson correlations between 5' and 3' Qlseq data for 37°C ideal-growth screen and 41°C heat-shock screen indicate highly reproducible analyses across technical and biological replicates in both screens. **B.** Correlations within and between 37°C ideal growth screen and 41°C heat-shock screen QIseq data. High correlations within both HS-screens and Growth-screens (HS-Screen, R=0.94; Growth-Screen, R=0.89) and weak correlation between HS-screens and Growth-screens ($R = \sim 0.42$) suggests heat-shock exposure-conditions were sufficient to allow reproducible detection of mutants with specific selection responsephenotypes from pooled screening.

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Figure S6. Qlseq data-correlations of 1K-Library screening for P. falciparum heatshock phenotypes. 1K-Library screens were as robust and reproducible as the pilotlibrary screens. Qlseq data correlations within and between HS-screens and Growthscreens for a representative pool of the 1K-mutant library are shown. Figure S7. Phenotypic Fitness-Score in HS (PFS_{HS}) distribution across mutant HS phenotype-classifications in the 1K-Library screen. See Table S2 and Methods for PFS_{HS} calculation details. HS-Sensitive mutants (mutants displaying defective growth in response to heat shock but not in response to ideal growth conditions) are assigned the lowest PFS_{Hs}, while HS-Tolerant mutations are assigned the highest PFS_{Hs}. Figure S8. Methods and validation for comparative RNAseq. A. RNA sample-collection methods for wildtype malaria-parasite NF54 vs. two HS-Sensitive pB-mutant clones ΔDHC (PB4) and $\Delta LRR5$ (PB31) in response to febrile temperatures. Assays were performed in biological duplicate. **B.** Validation of HS-Sensitive mutant-clones during RNA-Seg Sample preparation. Both mutants grown individually had growth-defects in response to HS as compared to NF54. Figure S9. Complementary methods (pooled phenotypic screening, phenotypic transcriptional profiling of HS-Sensitive mutants vs. wildtype in response to heat stress) indicate genes driving the parasite heat-stress response. **A**. HS-Sensitive pB mutants tend to have mutations in genes that have significant changes in expression in response to heat-stress, while mutants that are neutral to or tolerant of heat-stress tend to have mutations in genes that are not regulated in response to heat-stress.

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B. pB mutants in genes normally up-regulated in response to heat-stress grow poorly in response to heat-stress (i.e., have significantly lower phenotypic fitness-scores) than mutants in genes that are neutral or down-regulated in response to heat-stress. Supplemental Tables: Table S1. Pooled HS-Screen results of the *P. falciparum pB*-mutant pilot-library (n = 128). Table S2. Pooled HS-Screen results of the 1K-Library (n = 922). Table S3. Comparative RNAseq-results between NF54 and HS-Sensitive mutantclones $\triangle LRR5$ and $\triangle DHC$ in response to heat-shock. S3A. All genes classified into HS response-categories in NF54 with or without exposure to heat-shock using RNAseg data (n = 2567). HS-classifications for each gene in two HS-Sensitive mutant-lines are indicated where available. Criteria for inclusion: NF54 expression above threshold (FPKM > or = 20 for at least one replicate in at least one temperature-condition) and FC-HS supported by two biological replicates. **S3B.** Genes included in functional enrichment-analyses. Criteria for inclusion: all genes with expression above threshold AND agreement between replicates as to HS foldchange classification for all three parasite lines (n = 1298). **S3C.** Enriched GO-terms for specified HS-response-categories as included in Figure 3B. "Annotated": the number of genes annotated to a given GO-term included in the analysis for all HS response-categories. "Significant": the number of genes annotated to a given GO-term in the HS response-category being tested for enrichment. **S3D.** Full functional enrichment-results for all HS response-categories.

1005 Table S4. Drug- and oxidative stress-screen results of the pilot library (n = 128). 1006 1007 1008 Table S5. Qlseq dataset accession numbers. 1009 References 1010 1011 1. WHO: World Malaria Report. World Health Organization 2018. 1012 2. Gardner MJ, Hall N, Fung E, White O, Berriman M, Hyman RW, Carlton JM, Pain 1013 A. Nelson KE, Bowman S, et al: Genome sequence of the human malaria 1014 parasite Plasmodium falciparum. Nature 2002, 419:498-511. 1015 3. Aurrecoechea C, Brestelli J, Brunk BP, Dommer J, Fischer S, Gajria B, Gao X, 1016 Gingle A, Grant G, Harb OS, et al: PlasmoDB: a functional genomic database for malaria parasites. Nucleic Acids Res 2009, 37:D539-543. 1017 1018 Oakley MS, Gerald N, McCutchan TF, Aravind L, Kumar S: Clinical and 4. 1019 molecular aspects of malaria fever. Trends in parasitology 2011, 27:442-449. 1020 5. Oakley MSM, Kumar S, Anantharaman V, Zheng H, Mahajan B, Haynes JD. 1021 Moch JK, Fairhurst R, McCutchan TF, Aravind L: Molecular factors and 1022 biochemical pathways induced by febrile temperature in intraerythrocytic 1023 Plasmodium falciparum parasites. Infection and immunity 2007, 75:2012-1024 2025. 1025 6. Zhang M, Wang C, Otto TD, Oberstaller J, Liao X, Adapa SR, Udenze K, Bronner IF, Casandra D, Mayho M, et al: Uncovering the essential genes of the 1026 1027 human malaria parasite Plasmodium falciparum by saturation mutagenesis. 1028 Science 2018, 360. 7. 1029 Rocamora F, Zhu L, Liong KY, Dondorp A, Miotto O, Mok S, Bozdech Z: 1030 Oxidative stress and protein damage responses mediate artemisining 1031 resistance in malaria parasites. PLoS pathogens 2018, 14:e1006930-1032 e1006930. 1033 8. Bridgford JL, Xie SC, Cobbold SA, Pasaje CFA, Herrmann S, Yang T, Gillett DL, 1034 Dick LR, Ralph SA, Dogovski C, et al: Artemisinin kills malaria parasites by 1035 damaging proteins and inhibiting the proteasome. Nature Communications 2018. **9:**3801. 1036 1037 9. Ismail HM, Barton V, Phanchana M, Charoensutthivarakul S, Wong MHL, Hemingway J, Biagini GA, O'Neill PM, Ward SA: Artemisinin activity-based 1038 1039 probes identify multiple molecular targets within the asexual stage of the 1040 malaria parasites Plasmodium falciparum 3D7. Proceedings of the National 1041 Academy of Sciences 2016, 113:2080-2085.

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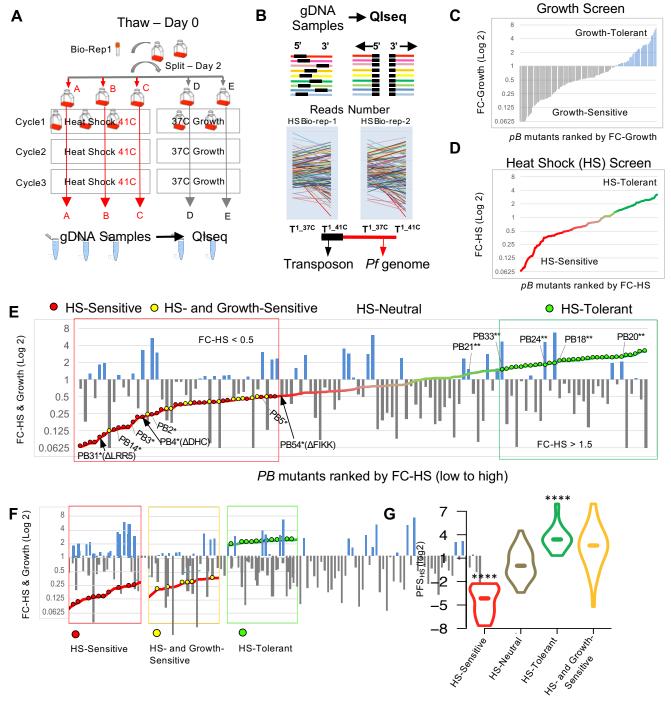
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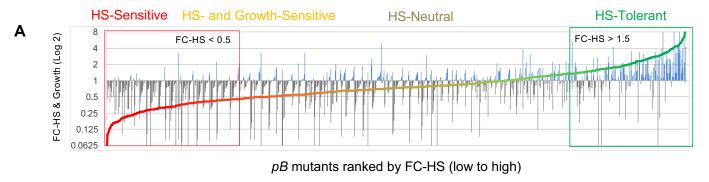
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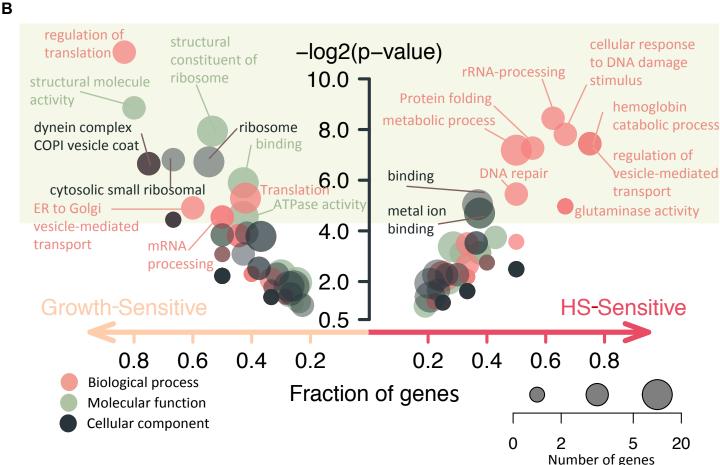
Figure 1. Pooled screens of an extensively characterized permutant clone-library allow robust identification of heat-shock phenotypes



- **A.** Experimental design for pooled heat shock (HS) phenotypic screens. The pilot-library of *pB*-mutant clones (n=128) was exposed to conditions simulating malarial fever. A pilot-library control concurrently grown continuously at 37°C established inherent growth of each *pB*-mutant.
- **B.** QIseq quantifies each *pB*-mutant in the pilot library from sequence-reads of the 5' and 3' ends of each *pB* insertion-site. Colored lines represent genes. Black boxes indicate transposon location.
- **C.** Pilot-library mutant growth-phenotypes at ideal temperatures, ranked from Sensitive to Tolerant by FC-Growth. Mutants with inherently slower or faster growth under ideal conditions are shown in grey and blue, respectively.
- **D.** Pilot-library mutant HS-phenotypes ordered from Sensitive (red) to Tolerant (green).
- **E-F.** HS- and Growth-phenotypes of the pilot-library mutants. HS-phenotype of each mutant (displayed as line-graph) is superimposed on its corresponding Growth-phenotype (bar graph). Red = HS-Sensitive mutants (n = 28). Yellow = mutants classified as both Growth-Sensitive and HS-Sensitive (n = 14). Green = HS-Tolerant mutants (n = 30). Mutants neither Sensitive nor Tolerant to HS were classified as HS-Neutral (n = 49). *Known HS-Sensitive pB-mutant clones validated by individual HS-assay [15].
- **G.** Distributions of PFS_{HS} for mutant HS-phenotype classifications (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15).

Figure 2. Pooled phenotypic active the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made phenotypic active the author/funder who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made identification of processes driving the P. falciparum heat-shock response

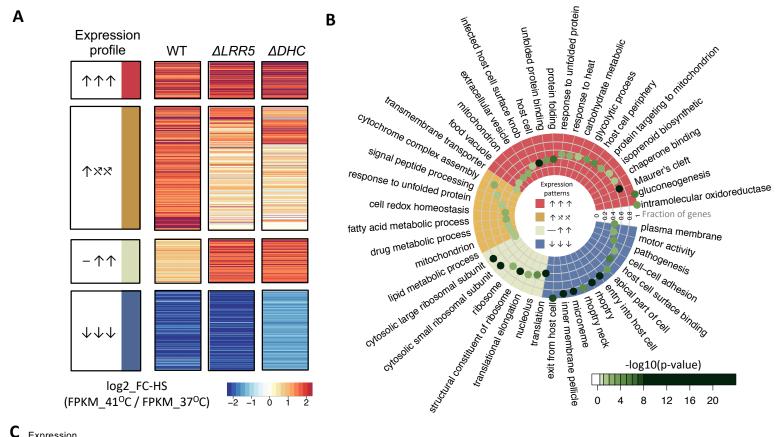




A. HS-Sensitive mutations identified in pooled screens of 922 pB-mutants. Mutants are ranked by fold-change in response to HS (FC-HS; n = 922) from HS-Sensitive (red; n = 149) to HS-Tolerant (green; n = 139). Mean mutant fold-change in ideal growth (FC-Growth) is superimposed as a bar plot (gray, FC-Growth < 1.0; blue, FC-Growth > 1.0). Mutants performing poorly in both screens (yellow; n = 91) were classified as HS- and Growth-Sensitive. Mutations neither HS-Sensitive nor HS-Tolerant were classified as HS-Neutral. See Table S2.

B. Functional enrichment of GO terms for HS-Sensitive or Growth-Sensitive pB-mutants vs all other mutants in the 1K-library. HS-Sensitive mutants were enriched in terms associated with HS-response such as protein-folding, response to DNA-damage, DNA-repair, and regulation of vesicle-mediated transport. Growth-Sensitive mutants tended to be enriched for more general categories broadly important for survival in all conditions, such as translation- or mRNA-metabolism-related terms. Circles represent GO category, circle color represents ontology, and circle size represents number of significant genes annotated to that category. Significant terms (Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05) fall within the light-green box.

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Expression profile (HS)		Gene ID	Symbol	Gene Description
		PF3D7_0708400	HSP90	heat shock protein 90
		PF3D7_0209300	IspF	2C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase
		PF3D7_1119100*	tRNA-m1G*	tRNA m(1)G methyltransferase, putative
		PF3D7_1037100	PyKII	pyruvate kinase 2
		PF3D7_1439900	TIM	triosephosphate isomerase
1		PF3D7_1115700	FP2A	cysteine proteinase falcipain 2a
$ \uparrow \uparrow$	٠个	PF3D7_0810800	PPPK-DHPS	hydroxymethyldihydropterin pyrophosphokinase
		PF3D7_1342800	PEPCK	phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase
		PF3D7_1129400	NOP2	rRNA (cytosine-C(5))-methyltransferase, putative
		PF3D7_1442500	N/A	geranylgeranyl transferase type-2 subunit
		PF3D7_0602500	N/A	geranylgeranyltransferase, putative
$\overline{}$		PF3D7 1337200*	DXS*	1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase
		PF3D7_1337200 PF3D7_0218300*		apicoplast RNA methyltransferase (apico-RNA-methyl)
		PF3D7_0210300 PF3D7_1239600	ThzK	hydroxyethylthiazole kinase
		PF3D7_1214200	SET5	histone-lysine N-methyltransferase, putative
↑※☆		PF3D7_1214200 PF3D7_1128400	FPPS/GGPPS	geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase, putative
	X'	PF3D7_1120400 PF3D7_1437400	PANK2	pantothenate kinase, putative
		PF3D7_1426200	PRMT1	protein arginine N-methyltransferase 1
		PF3D7_1420200 PF3D7_1103400	SufD	FeS cluster assembly protein SufD
		PF3D7_1103400 PF3D7_0628800	GATB	glutamyl-tRNA(Gln) amidotransferase subunit B
1		PF3D7_0020000 PF3D7_1443900	HSP90	heat shock protein 90, putative
1		PF3D7_1443900 PF3D7_1019800	N/A	tRNA methyltransferase, putative
1		PF3D7_1019000 PF3D7_1450900	N/A	acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase, putative
1		PF3D7_1430900 PF3D7_0218600	N/A	conserved Plasmodium protein, unknown function
		F1 3D1_02 10000	IN/A	conserved Flasinodium protein, unknown function

A. (Top-left) HS expression-categories based on phenotype in NF54 vs. HS-Sensitive mutants ΔLRR5 and ΔDHC with and without HS-exposure. HSregulated genes shared between NF54 and both mutants are indicated in red $(\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow)$ or blue $(\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow)$ for up- and down-regulated genes, respectively. Genes dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive mutants fell into two main expressionprofile categories underlying mutant HS-Sensitivity phenotypes: those upregulated in NF54 that failed to be regulated in the mutants ($\uparrow \times \times$), and genes not regulated in response to HS in NF54 that were inappropriately upregulated in the mutants $(- \uparrow \uparrow)$.

B. (Top-right) Functional enrichment analyses between wildtype/mutant HS-expression profiles as defined in A. Red: Shared upregulated HS-responsive GO-terms between NF54 and the two HS-Sensitive pB-mutants $(\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow)$. Blue: Shared down-regulated HS-responsive GO-terms $(\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow)$. Ochre: GO-terms upregulated in NF54 but dysregulated in the two pB-mutant ($\uparrow \times \times$). Tan: GO-terms enriched in genes not regulated in the wildtype HS-response but upregulated in the mutants ($- \uparrow \uparrow$). Only enriched GO-terms are shown (Fisher/elim-hybrid test p. value <= 0.05), with highest significance indicated in dark green. Fraction of significant genes mapping to a GO-term in an HS expression-profile category vs. genes mapping to that GO-term in the entire analysis is indicated by distance to the center of the circle, with the outermost position on the circle indicating 100% of genes in that GO-term are significant. See Table S3D.

C. (Bottom-left) Several apicoplast and isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes have a tendency to be upregulated in the wildtype-response to HS and are dysregulated in one or both HS-Sensitive pB-mutant clones (个ペズ). * Isoprenoid biosynthesis-related genes upregulated by HS confirmed in the pooled HS-screen.

of febrile temperatures

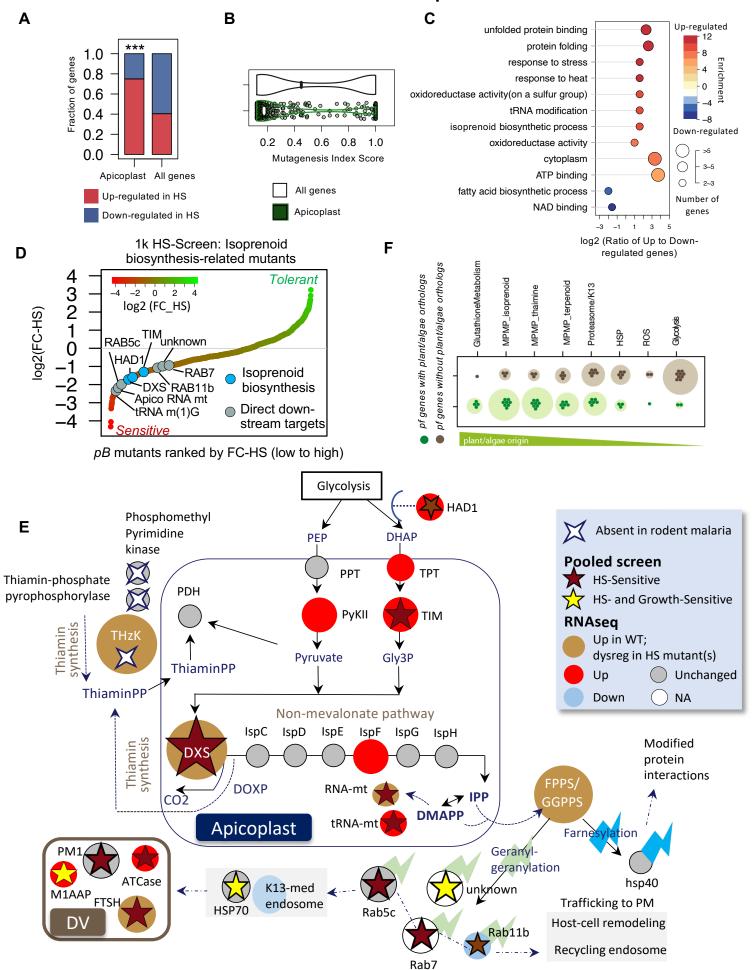


Figure 4. Apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis is critical for *P. falciparum* survival of febrile temperatures.

- **A.** Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be increased in response to HS as compared to all non apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in RNAseq. Apicoplast-targeted genes are as defined in [45] (*** Fisher-test p-value < 1e-5).
- **B.** Apicoplast-targeted genes tend to be highly essential during blood-stage vs. all other non-apicoplast-targeted genes detected above threshold in RNAseq. The median Mutagenesis Index Score (MIS; [6]) for apicoplast-targeted genes is much lower than median MIS for all other genes, indicating a lower tolerance for disruption and thus higher likely essentiality during blood-stage development than non-apicoplast-targeted genes (**** Wilcoxon-test p-value < 1e-15).
- **C.** Apicoplast pathways regulated in response to HS. GO categories enriched in up- and down-regulated apicoplast genes are shown on a scale from red to blue, respectively. The horizontal direction indicates the log ratio between up- and down-regulated apicoplast genes in each category. Circle-size represents gene-number per category.
- **D.** All 8 *pB*-mutants in genes associated with the apicoplast isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway (including direct downstream prenylated targets) represented in the pooled screen were sensitive to heat-shock. Mutants are ranked from HS-Sensitive (red) to HS-Tolerant (green). Circles indicate each HS-Sensitive mutant related to isoprenoid-biosynthesis. See Table S3.
- E. Key enzymes in the *P. falciparum* isoprenoid biosynthesis-pathway are up-regulated in response to HS (red circle), dysregulated in HS-Sensitive mutants (ochre) and absent in malaria-parasites of hosts that do not present fever. Pathway diagram modeled from [46]. Isoprenoid biosynthesis-genes upregulated in HS include DXS, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase (DOXP), 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase (IspF), pyruvate kinase II (PyKII), triosephosphate isomerase (TIM), triose phosphate transporter (TPT), and upstream-regulator of MEP-pathway substrates HAD1-phosphotase [47]. All represented Rab GTPases, vesicular trafficking-proteins that are direct downstream-targets prenylated by the MEP-pathway (zigzag) were HS-Sensitive. The key thiamin-synthesis enzyme hydroxyethylthiazole kinase (ThzK) is absent in *P. berghei* and *P. yoelii*, malaria-parasites whose rodent-hosts do not present fever.
- **F.** *P. falciparum* genes with plant orthologs (green circles; n = 1919) indicating potential endosymbiont-ancestry tend to be increased in response to HS vs. genes that do not have plant orthologs (grey circles). The listed processes are sorted based on the ratio of "green" to "non-green" orthologs.

Figure 5. Increased sensitivity to fever is directly correlated with increased sensitivity to artemisinin in the malaria parasite

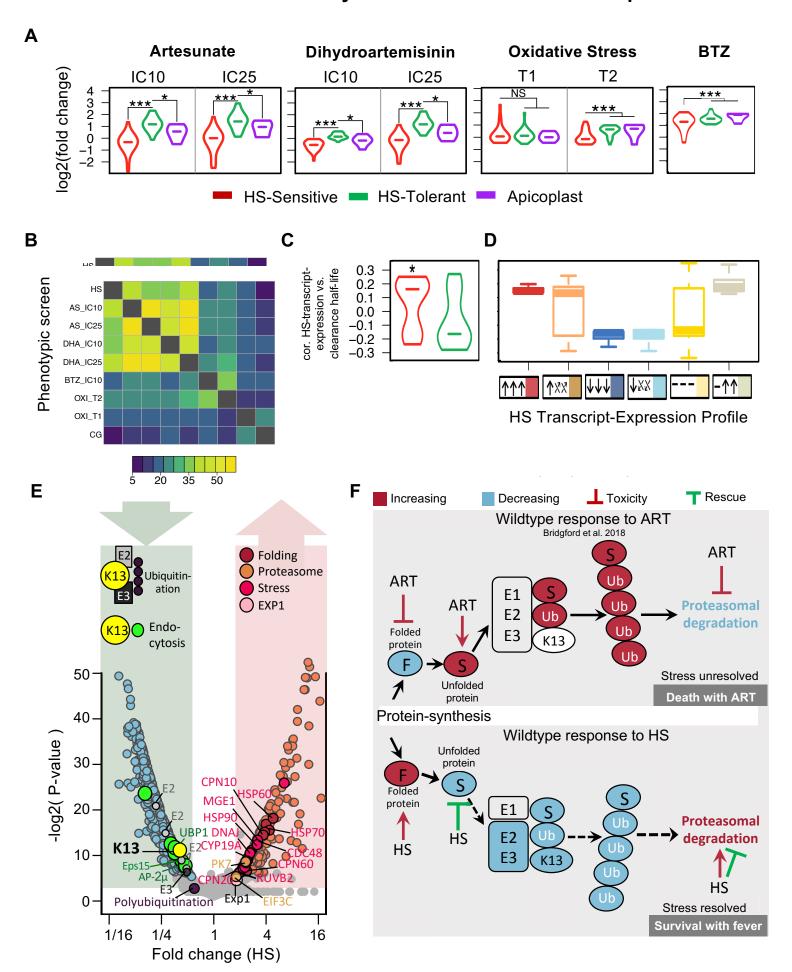


Figure 5. Increased sensitivity to fever is directly correlated with increased sensitivity to artemisinin in the malaria parasite.

- **A.** HS-Sensitive pB-mutants (red) are more sensitive to multiple concentrations of artemisinin derivatives AS and DHA, proteasome-inhibitor BTZ, and conditions of heightened oxidative stress than HS-Tolerant parasites (green) in all pooled screens of the pilot library. Apicoplast-mutants (n = 5) have phenotypes similar to all HS-Sensitive mutants (n =28) in artemisinin-derivative screens, but not to proteasome-inhibitors or oxidative stress (* Wilcoxon p < 0.05; *** Wilcoxon p < 1e-10. See Methods).
- B. Correlation between mutant phenotypes in all pooled screens of the pilot library.
- **C.** HS-Sensitive pB-mutants (red) are positively correlated with genes linked to ART-R in recent field isolates [10](* Wilcoxon test p < 0.05).
- **D.** HS expression-categories as determined by comparative RNAseq between NF54 and two HS-Sensitive mutant clones are positively correlated with ART-R in field-isolates.
- **E.** Both K13-mediated mechanisms of artemisinin resistance (endocytosis, ubiquitin-proteasome system) are similarly regulated in HS. The K13-defined endocytosis pathway (shades of green) and key ubiquitinating-enzymes of the ubiquitin-proteasome system, E2/E3 and K13, are downregulated in the wildtype NF54 HS-response, while protein folding, stress, exported proteins, and proteasome genes are upregulated. RNAseq data are plotted for each gene by average log2 fold-change in response to HS and significance (–log2(p-value)). Circles in shades of blue and pink indicate genes significantly down- or upregulated after exposure to HS, respectively.
- **F.** Activation of pathways underlying DHA-mediated killing and febrile-temperature survival is directly inverse. **Top**: Model of DHA-mediated killing in *P. falciparum* adapted from [8]. Artemisinin (ART) damages and unfolds proteins, prevents folding of newly synthesized proteins, and inhibits the proteasome while at the same time activating E1/E2/E3 ubiquitin-machinery. Accumulation of toxic polyubiquitinated protein-substrates (S) overwhelms the cell and leads to death. **Bottom**: Model of parasite fever-response. Heat-stress causes globally damaged protein. The parasite increases the UPR as it inhibits E2/E3 ubiquitination to prevent accumulation of toxic, polyubiquitinated (Ub) protein-aggregates, while at the same time increasing its capacity for proteasome-mediated degradation—ultimately enabling the parasite to resolve HS-instigated stress and survive febrile-temperatures.