

The AMA1-RON complex drives Plasmodium sporozoite invasion in the mosquito and mammalian hosts

Priyanka Fernandes, Manon Loubens, Rémi Le Borgne, Carine Marinach, Beatrice Ardin, Sylvie Briquet, Laetitia Vincensini, Soumia Hamada, Bénédicte Hoareau-Coudert, Jean-Marc Verbavatz, et al.

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1	The AMA1-RON complex drives <i>Plasmodium</i> sporozoite invasion in the mosquito and
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4 Running head: AMA1-RON complex in *Plasmodium* sporozoites

- Keywords: *Plasmodium*; malaria; sporozoites; conditional mutagenesis; AMA1; RONs.
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29 Abstract

Plasmodium sporozoites that are transmitted by blood-feeding female Anopheles mosquitoes 30 31 invade hepatocytes for an initial round of intracellular replication, leading to the release of 32 merozoites that invade and multiply within red blood cells. Sporozoites and merozoites share 33 a number of proteins that are expressed by both stages, including the Apical Membrane 34 Antigen 1 (AMA1) and the Rhoptry Neck Proteins (RONs). Although AMA1 and RONs are 35 essential for merozoite invasion of erythrocytes during asexual blood stage replication of the 36 parasite, their function in sporozoites was still unclear. Here we show that AMA1 interacts with 37 RONs in mature sporozoites. By using DiCre-mediated conditional gene deletion in P. berghei, we demonstrate that loss of AMA1, RON2 or RON4 in sporozoites impairs colonization of the 38 39 mosquito salivary glands and invasion of mammalian hepatocytes, without affecting 40 transcellular parasite migration. Three-dimensional electron microscopy data showed that 41 sporozoites enter salivary gland cells through a ring-like structure and by forming a transient vacuole. The absence of a functional AMA1-RON complex led to an altered morphology of the 42 43 entry junction, associated with epithelial cell damage. Our data establish that AMA1 and RONs 44 facilitate host cell invasion across *Plasmodium* invasive stages, and suggest that sporozoites 45 use the AMA1-RON complex to efficiently and safely enter the mosquito salivary glands to 46 ensure successful parasite transmission. These results open up the possibility of targeting the 47 AMA1-RON complex for transmission-blocking antimalarial strategies.

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50 Author summary

Malaria is caused by *Plasmodium* parasites, which are transmitted by mosquitoes. Infectious 51 52 stages of the parasite known as sporozoites colonize the mosquito salivary glands and are injected into the host when the insect probes the skin for blood feeding. Sporozoites rapidly 53 54 migrate to the host liver, invade hepatocytes and differentiate into the next invasive forms, the merozoites, which invade and replicate inside red blood cells. Merozoites invade cells through 55 56 a specialized structure, known as the moving junction, formed by proteins called AMA1 and 57 RONs. The role of these proteins in sporozoites remains unclear. Here we used conditional 58 genome editing in a rodent malaria model to generate AMA1- and RON-deficient sporozoites. 59 Phenotypic analysis of the mutants revealed that sporozoites use the AMA1-RON complex 60 twice, first in the mosquito to safely enter the salivary glands and ensure successful parasite transmission, then in the mammalian host liver to establish a replicative niche. Our data 61 62 establish that AMA1 and RONs facilitate host cell invasion across Plasmodium invasive stages, and might represent potential targets for transmission-blocking antimalarial strategies. 63

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66 Introduction

67 Host cell invasion is an obligatory step in the *Plasmodium* life cycle. There are several 68 invasive stages of *Plasmodium*, each equipped with its own set of specialized secretory 69 organelles and proteins that facilitate invasion into or through host cells. Invasive stages of 70 Apicomplexa typically invade target host cells actively by gliding through a structure known as 71 the moving junction (MJ), which consists of a circumferential zone of close apposition of 72 parasite and host cell membranes. Studies with Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoites and 73 Plasmodium falciparum merozoites have shown that formation of the MJ involves the export 74 of rhoptry neck proteins RONs into the host cell, where RON2 is inserted into the host cell 75 membrane and serves as a receptor for the Apical Membrane Antigen 1 (AMA1), that is 76 secreted from the micronemes onto the surface of the parasite [1–3]. Formation of the MJ is 77 associated with active penetration inside the parasitophorous vacuole (PV), which is essential 78 for further development and replication of the parasite.

79 Although the AMA1-RON2 interaction seems to be conserved across the phylum of 80 Apicomplexa, its role in Plasmodium sporozoites is controversial. Plasmodium sporozoites 81 express AMA1 and the RON proteins RON2, RON4 and RON5 [4-10]. Two studies reported 82 that AMA1 is not essential for development in the mosquito and during hepatocyte invasion in 83 P. berghei, while RON4 in contrast was shown to be essential for hepatocyte invasion, 84 suggesting independent roles for AMA1 and RON proteins in sporozoites [7,11]. However, 85 both polyclonal antibodies against AMA1 [4] and the R1 peptide inhibitor of AMA1 [12], 86 effectively reduced hepatocyte invasion by P. falciparum sporozoites [13]. More recently, a 87 promoter swap strategy was employed to knockdown RONs in *P. berghei* sporozoites, 88 uncovering an unexpected role of these proteins during invasion of the mosquito salivary 89 glands [14,15]. Owing to these conflicting data, the precise role of AMA1 and RONs in 90 Plasmodium sporozoites is uncertain.

As conventional reverse genetics cannot be used to target AMA1 and RONs, due to their
essential nature in asexual blood stages, previous studies relied on conditional approaches
such as the Flippase (FLP)/Flp recombination target (FRT) system [7] or promoter swap

strategies [14] to target these genes. The rapamycin inducible DiCre recombinase system, first 94 95 introduced to apicomplexan research in T. gondii [16] and P. falciparum [17], has recently 96 emerged as a potent method of gene inactivation in different developmental stages of P. 97 falciparum [18] and P. berghei [19]. We recently described a fluorescent DiCre-expressing parasite line in *P. berghei* and showed that efficient and complete gene excision can be 98 99 induced in asexual blood stages and also sporozoites [19]. In this study, we used the DiCre 100 system to achieve conditional deletion of ama1, ron2 and ron4 genes in P. berghei sporozoites. 101 Our data reveal that sporozoites rely on AMA1 and RONs to invade salivary glands in the 102 mosquito and hepatocytes in the mammalian host, implying a conserved feature of the invasion 103 process across invasive stages of *Plasmodium*.

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106 Results

107 Deletion of ama1 3'UTR is not sufficient to abrogate AMA1 expression in P. berghei

108 To ablate AMA1 protein expression in *P. berghei*, we first decided to conditionally delete 109 the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of ama1 using the DiCre method, as previously reported with 110 the FLP/FRT system [7]. We floxed the 3'UTR of *ama1*, together with a GFP and an hDHFR 111 marker, to generate the *ama1* dutr parasite line in the mCherry-expressing PbDiCre parasite 112 background [19] (Figs 1A and S1A). To exclude any unspecific effects arising from 113 modification of the ama1 locus, we also generated a control parasite line (ama1Con) where 114 we introduced the LoxN sites downstream of the 3' UTR (Figs 1B and S2A). After transfection 115 and selection with pyrimethamine, pure populations of recombinant parasites were sorted by flow cytometry and genotyped by PCR to confirm correct genomic integration of the constructs 116 117 and to exclude the presence of any residual unmodified PbDiCre parasites (S1B and S2B 118 Figs).

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121 Fig 1. Deletion of the 3' UTR of *ama1* has no phenotypical impact in *P. berghei*

122 **A-B.** Strategy to generate *ama1*∆utr (A) and *ama1*Con (B) parasites by modification of the wild type ama1 locus in PbDiCre parasites. C-D. Blood stage growth of untreated and rapamycin-123 124 treated ama1∆utr (C) or ama1Con (D) parasites. Rapamycin was administered at day 2. The 125 graphs represent the parasitaemia (mean +/- SEM) in groups of 3 mice. E. 126 Immunofluorescence staining of rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1Autr blood stage 127 schizonts with anti-AMA1 antibodies (blue). The right panels show mCherry (red), GFP (green) 128 and AMA1 (blue) merged images. Scale bar = 10 μ m. F. Immunofluorescence images of 129 rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1∆utr sporozoites after staining with anti-AMA1 antibodies (magenta). The right panels show Hoechst (blue) and AMA1 (magenta) merged 130 131 images. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

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We next analyzed the effects of rapamycin on *ama1*Con and *ama1*Autr parasites during 134 blood stage growth (Figs 1C and 1D), by guantifying the percentage of excised 135 136 (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻) and non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺) parasites by flow cytometry (**S1C** and 137 **S2C Figs**). In the *ama1*Con infected group, rapamycin treatment induced complete excision 138 of the floxed GFP cassette (S2C Fig), which, as expected, had no significant effect on parasite 139 growth and multiplication in the blood, which was comparable to the untreated group (Fig 1D). 140 Excision of the GFP cassette was also confirmed by genotyping PCR (S2B Fig). Surprisingly, 141 rapamycin treatment of the ama1 Autr infected group also had no effect on both parasite growth 142 and multiplication in the blood (Fig 1C), despite efficient DNA excision based on 143 disappearance of the GFP cassette after rapamycin treatment (S1C Fig). Genotyping of 144 mCherry⁺/GFP⁻ parasites by PCR and sequencing of the locus after excision confirmed that 145 the 3'UTR had been excised in rapamycin-treated ama1_{dutr} parasites, excluding any 146 contamination with parental PbDiCre (S1B Fig).

147 We next examined rapamycin-treated *ama1*Con and *ama1*Autr blood-stage schizonts by 148 immunofluorescence staining with anti-AMA1 antibodies. Intriguingly, we observed AMA1 149 expression in both ama1Con and ama1∆utr merozoites after rapamycin exposure (Fig 1E), implying that deletion of the ama1 3'UTR alone was not sufficient to abrogate expression of 150 the protein in merozoites. We further analyzed the impact of 3'UTR deletion on AMA1 151 152 expression in sporozoites. For this purpose, ama1Con and ama1Autr parasites were treated 153 with rapamycin or left untreated and then transmitted to mosquitoes, as described previously 154 [19]. Deletion of the ama1 3'UTR in ama1 Autr parasites had no impact on oocyst formation in 155 the midgut or sporozoite invasion of salivary glands, which were comparable to untreated 156 ama1_{\(\)}utr and both rapamycin-treated and untreated ama1Con parasites (S3 Fig). As observed in merozoites, AMA1 protein was also detected in salivary gland sporozoites from 157 158 rapamycin-treated ama1 Autr by immunofluorescence, similar to ama1 Con parasites (Fig 1F). 159 We conclude from these data that deletion of the 3'UTR of *ama1* is not sufficient to abrogate 160 AMA1 protein expression and cause phenotypical changes in P. berghei merozoites and 161 sporozoites.

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163 Complete conditional gene deletion of ama1 in P. berghei

164 Since deletion of the 3'UTR was insufficient to deplete AMA1, we decided to delete the 165 full-length ama1 gene, by placing LoxN sites both upstream and downstream of the gene (Fig 166 2A). One intrinsic feature of the Cre Lox system is the retention of a Lox site following 167 recombination. We therefore reused rapamycin-treated ama1Con parasites, which contained 168 a single LoxN site downstream of ama1 3'UTR and had excised the GFP-hDHFR marker (Fig 169 1B), and transfected these parasites with the ama1cKO construct designed to introduce a 170 second LoxN site upstream of the ama1 gene, together with a GFP-hDHFR cassette (Figs 2A 171 and S4A). Following transfection, the resulting ama1cKO parasites were sorted by FACS and 172 genotyped to confirm correct integration of the construct into the genome and verify the 173 absence of any residual unmodified ama1Con parasites (S4B Fig). We then evaluated the 174 effect of rapamycin treatment on blood-stage growth of ama1cKO parasites, by injecting mice with 10⁶ pRBCs and treating them with a single oral dose of rapamycin. In contrast to untreated 175 176 parasites, ama1cKO parasite growth was abrogated in mice upon rapamycin exposure (Fig 177 2B), thus confirming efficient gene deletion and the essential role of AMA1 in merozoite invasion and parasite survival in the blood. Genotyping by PCR confirmed ama1 gene excision 178 179 in rapamycin-exposed ama1cKO parasites, but also revealed the persistence of non-excised 180 parasites 2 and 6 days after rapamycin treatment (S4C Fig), which eventually outcompeted 181 the excised population.

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184 Fig 2. AMA1 is required during *P. berghei* invasion of mosquito salivary glands

A. Strategy to generate *ama1*cKO parasites by modification of the *ama1* locus in rapamycintreated *ama1*Con parasites. B. Blood stage growth of rapamycin-treated and untreated *ama1*cKO parasites. The graph represents the parasitaemia (mean +/- SEM) in groups of 3
mice. Rapamycin was administered at day 2. **, p < 0.01; ****, p < 0.0001 (Two-way ANOVA).
C-E. Quantification of midgut sporozoites (MG-SPZ, C), salivary gland sporozoites (SG-SPZ,

190 D) or haemolymph sporozoites (HL-SPZ, E) isolated from mosquitoes infected with untreated 191 or rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO parasites. The graphs show the number of 192 sporozoites per female mosquito (mean +/- SEM). Each dot represents the mean value 193 obtained in independent experiments after dissection of 30-50 mosquitoes (MG, HL) or 50-70 194 mosquitoes (SG), respectively. Ns, non-significant; ****, p < 0.0001 (One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test). **F-H.** Quantification of excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻, red) 195 196 and non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺, green) midgut sporozoites (MG-SPZ, F), salivary gland sporozoites (SG-SPZ, G) or haemolymph sporozoites (HL-SPZ, H) isolated from mosquitoes 197 198 infected with untreated or rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO parasites. I. 199 Immunofluorescence imaging of untreated and rapamycin-treated ama1cKO salivary gland 200 sporozoites after staining with anti-AMA1 antibodies (magenta). The right panels show 201 Hoechst (blue) and AMA1 (magenta) merged images. Scale bar = 5 µm. J. Quantification of 202 AMA1-positive and AMA1-negative sporozoites among untreated or rapamycin-exposed ama1Con, ama1∆utr and ama1cKO sporozoites, as assessed by microscopy. 203

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206 AMA1 is required for sporozoite invasion of the mosquito salivary glands

207 In order to determine the function of AMA1 in sporozoites, we transmitted rapamycin-208 treated and untreated ama1cKO parasites to mosquitoes, 24 hours after rapamycin treatment. 209 In parallel, mosquitoes were fed with rapamycin-treated and untreated ama1Con parasites as 210 a reference line. Both rapamycin-treated and untreated ama1cKO parasites were capable of 211 colonising the mosquito midgut (S5 Fig), comparable to ama1Con parasites (S3 Fig). Despite 212 no difference in the levels of exflagellation between the parasite lines and treatment conditions, 213 we observed a slight reduction in the number of midgut sporozoites for rapamycin-exposed 214 ama1cKO parasites, which however was not statistically significant (Fig 2C). Importantly, quantification of the percentage of excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻) and non-excised 215 216 (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺) parasites revealed close to 100% gene excision in sporozoites isolated from the midguts of mosquitoes infected with rapamycin-treated *ama1*Con and *ama1*cKO parasites
(Fig 2F).

219 In the next step, we quantified sporozoites isolated from the salivary glands of infected 220 mosquitoes and observed no difference between mosquitoes infected with untreated 221 ama1Con or ama1cKO parasites (Fig 2D). In sharp contrast, the number of salivary gland sporozoites isolated from rapamycin-treated ama1cKO infected mosquitoes was severely 222 223 reduced as compared to untreated parasites (Fig 2D). As expected, we could only observe 224 mCherry⁺/GFP⁺ (non-excised) salivary gland sporozoites in untreated ama1Con and 225 ama1cKO parasites, while rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO sporozoites were 226 mCherry⁺/GFP⁻ (excised) (Figs 2G and S5B). Interestingly, a small proportion (<10%) of 227 ama1cKO^{rapa} salivary gland sporozoites were mCherry⁺/GFP⁺ (non-excised), suggesting an 228 enrichment of sporozoites harbouring an intact ama1 gene, in the salivary glands of infected 229 mosquitoes (Fig 2G).

In order to determine if a defect in egress from oocysts or invasion of the salivary glands 230 231 was the reason behind the reduction in ama1cKO^{rapa} salivary gland sporozoite numbers, we 232 quantified haemolymph sporozoites from infected mosquitoes at day 14 post infection. There 233 was no significant difference between the numbers of haemolymph sporozoites isolated from 234 ama1Con and ama1cKO infected mosquitoes with or without rapamycin treatment (Fig 2E). 235 Using microscopy, we could only see non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺) haemolymph sporozoites 236 for untreated ama1Con- and ama1cKO-infected mosquitoes, while all rapamycin-treated 237 ama1Con and ama1cKO haemolymph sporozoites were excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻) (Fig 2H). 238 The absence of a defect in egress from oocysts was also documented by microscopy imaging 239 of the abdomen of infected mosquitoes, where scavenging of circulating sporozoites following 240 egress results in bright red fluorescence of pericardial cellular structures (S6 Fig). A similar 241 percentage of mosquitoes displayed mCherry-labelled pericardial cells between untreated and 242 rapamycin treated ama1Con and ama1cKO infected mosquitoes, confirming that loss of AMA1 243 expression in sporozoites does not affect sporozoite egress from oocysts (S6 Fig).

244 Lastly, we verified the loss of AMA1 expression in sporozoites by immunofluorescence 245 imaging of salivary gland sporozoites using anti-AMA1 antibodies. AMA1 was detected in 246 untreated ama1cKO sporozoites and untreated and rapamycin-treated ama1Con sporozoites, 247 with a typical micronemal distribution (Figs 1F and 2I). However, no AMA1 was detected in 248 ama1cKO sporozoites after rapamycin treatment, indicating the loss of AMA1 (Fig 2I). 249 Quantification of AMA1 expression showed that all sporozoites from ama1Con and ama1Autr 250 expressed AMA1, irrespective of rapamycin exposure, similar to untreated ama1cKO 251 sporozoites (Fig 2J). In contrast, >95% of the sporozoites isolated from mosquitoes infected 252 with rapamycin-treated ama1cKO parasites lacked AMA1 expression, confirming successful 253 gene deletion and protein depletion (Fig 2J). Overall, our results demonstrate that loss of 254 AMA1 expression in sporozoites impairs invasion of the mosquito salivary glands, without 255 affecting development or egress from oocysts.

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257 AMA1 is required for efficient sporozoite invasion of hepatocytes

In the next step, we tested if AMA1-deficient salivary gland sporozoites could infect hepatocytes. AMA1 was previously suggested to be implicated in cell traversal of *P. falciparum* sporozoites [13]. Hence we first verified if *ama1* gene excision in *P. berghei* affected sporozoite cell traversal *in vitro*, using a dextran assay as previously described [20]. Quantification of dextran-positive cells indicated that cell traversal was comparable between *ama1*Con and *ama1*cKO rapamycin-treated parasites, implying that both motility and cell traversal activity of salivary gland sporozoites were unaffected by excision of *ama1* (**Fig 3A**).

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267 Fig 3. Sporozoite AMA1 is required for efficient infection of mammalian cells

A. Quantification of sporozoite cell traversal activity (% of dextran-positive cells) in rapamycin treated *ama1*Con and *ama1cKO* parasites. The values for rapamycin-treated *ama1cKO* parasites are represented as percentage of the rapamycin-treated *ama1*Con parasites (mean
 +/- SEM of three independent experiments). Each data point is the mean of five technical

272 replicates. Ns, non-significant (Two-tailed ratio paired t test). B. Quantification of EEFs development in vitro, done by flow cytometry or microscopy analysis of HepG2 cells infected 273 274 with sporozoites isolated from either untreated or rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO 275 infected mosquitoes. The data for rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO parasites are 276 represented as percentage of the respective untreated parasites (mean +/- SEM). Each data point is the mean of three technical replicates in one experiment. Ns, non-significant; *, p < 277 278 0.05 (Two-tailed ratio paired t test). C. Quantification of excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻, red) and nonexcised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺, green) EEF populations for untreated and treated ama1Con and 279 280 ama1cKO parasites. D. Fluorescence microscopy of EEF development (24h p.i.) in vitro, in 281 HepG2 cells infected with salivary gland sporozoites from untreated or rapamycin-treated 282 ama1Con and ama1cKO parasites. The right panels show Hoechst (blue), mCherry (red) and 283 GFP (green) merged images. Scale bar = 10 μ m. E. Immunofluorescence imaging of 284 mCherry⁺/GFP⁻ (excised) rapamycin-treated *ama*1Con and *ama*1cKO EEFs after staining with 285 anti-UIS4 antibodies (green). The right panels show Hoechst (blue), mCherry (red) and UIS4 286 (green) merged images. Scale bar = 10 µm.

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289 We then infected HepG2 cell cultures with sporozoites isolated from the salivary glands 290 of mosquitoes previously fed with rapamycin-treated or untreated ama1Con and ama1cKO 291 parasites. We quantified infected cells, containing exo-erythrocytic forms (EEFs), at 24 h post 292 infection by flow cytometry and fluorescence microscopy. We observed a minor but non-293 significant reduction in the number of EEFs for rapamycin-treated ama1Con parasites 294 compared to untreated controls (Fig 3B). In contrast, the number of EEFs obtained from 295 hepatocytes infected with rapamycin-treated ama1cKO sporozoites was significantly reduced 296 as compared to untreated parasites (Fig 3B). As expected, non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺) 297 parasites comprised the majority of EEFs quantified for ama1Con and ama1cKO untreated 298 parasites (Fig 3C). Conversely, excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻) EEFs were predominantly observed 299 in hepatocytes infected with rapamycin-treated ama1Con and ama1cKO parasites. However,

300 a small enrichment of non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺) EEFs was observed with rapamycin-301 treated ama1cKO (Fig 3C), as observed with salivary gland sporozoites (Fig 2G). Importantly, 302 we could not observe any obvious defect in developmental size or morphology in 24h EEFs 303 between treatment conditions with the two parasite lines, by fluorescence microscopy (Fig 3D). 304 Finally, UIS4 staining of the PV membrane confirmed that mCherry⁺/GFP⁻ excised ama1cKO sporozoites could form a PV in vitro, similar to EEFs from rapamycin-treated ama1Con (Fig 305 3E), implying that in the absence of AMA1, sporozoites conserve a residual capacity to 306 307 productively invade host cells.

308

RON2 and RON4 interact with AMA1 in sporozoites and are required for host cell invasion

311 Merozoite AMA1 interacts with RON proteins for invasion of erythrocytes [21-23]. In 312 order to investigate whether similar protein interactions also occur in sporozoites, we performed immunoprecipitation experiments using lysates from transgenic sporozoites 313 314 expressing RON4 fused to mCherry and beads coupled to anti-red fluorescent protein (RFP) 315 nanobodies (RFP-trap). RON4, RON2, RON5 and AMA1 were the main proteins identified by 316 mass spectrometry among co-precipitated proteins, showing that AMA1-RON interactions are 317 conserved in salivary gland sporozoites (S1 Table). We decided to focus on RON2 and RON4 318 and generated conditional mutants, using a two-step strategy to introduce LoxN sites upstream 319 and downstream of the genes in PbDiCre parasites (Figs 4A, S7 and S8). Clonal populations 320 of ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites were obtained after pyrimethamine selection and FACS 321 sorting, and verified by genotyping PCR (S7 and S8 Figs). In agreement with an essential role 322 for RON2 and RON4 in the blood, rapamycin-induced gene excision reduced blood-stage 323 growth in ron2cKO and ron4cKO infected mice (Figs 4B and 4C).

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Fig 4. RON2 and RON4 are required for sporozoite invasion in the mosquito and mammalian hosts

328 A. Strategy to generate ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites in the PbDiCre line. B-C. Blood stage 329 growth of rapamycin-treated and untreated ron2cKO (B) and ron4cKO (C) parasites. The graph 330 represents the parasitaemia (mean +/- SEM) in groups of 5 mice. Rapamycin was administered 331 at day 1. **, p < 0.01; ****, p < 0.0001 (Two-way ANOVA). **D-F.** Quantification of midgut sporozoites (MG-SPZ, D), haemolymph sporozoites (HL-SPZ, E) or salivary gland sporozoites 332 333 (SG-SPZ, F) isolated from mosquitoes infected with untreated or rapamycin treated ron2cKO 334 or ron4cKO parasites. The graphs show the number of sporozoites per infected female 335 mosquito (mean +/- SEM). Each dot represents the mean value obtained in independent experiments after dissection of 30-50 mosquitoes (MG, HL) or 50-70 mosquitoes (SG), 336 respectively. Ns, non-significant; *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01 (Two-tailed ratio paired t test). G-I. 337 338 Quantification of excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁻, red) and non-excised (mCherry⁺/GFP⁺, green) 339 midgut sporozoites (MG-SPZ, G), haemolymph sporozoites (HL-SPZ, H) or salivary gland 340 sporozoites (SG-SPZ, I) isolated from mosquitoes infected with untreated or rapamycin-treated ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites. J. Quantification of EEFs development in vitro, done by 341 342 microscopy analysis of HepG2 cells infected with sporozoites isolated from either untreated or 343 rapamycin-treated ron2cKO and ron4cKO infected mosquitoes. The data for rapamycin-344 treated parasites are represented as percentage of the respective untreated parasites (mean 345 +/- SEM). Each data point is the mean of five technical replicates in one experiment. Ns, non-346 significant; *, p < 0.05 (Two-tailed ratio paired t test). K. Quantification of sporozoite cell 347 traversal activity (% of dextran-positive cells) in untreated and rapamycin-treated ron2cKO and 348 ron4cKO parasites. The data for rapamycin-treated parasites are represented as percentage 349 of the respective untreated parasites (mean +/- SEM). Each data point is the mean of five 350 technical replicates from one experiment.

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We then transmitted *ron2c*KO and *ron4c*KO parasites to mosquitoes, with or without rapamycin treatment. Both parasite lines could colonize the midgut of mosquitoes as evidenced by microscopy imaging of midgut oocysts **(S9 Fig)**. Rapamycin treatment of

356 ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites before transmission led to a modest reduction of midgut and 357 haemolymph sporozoite numbers (Figs 4D and 4E). However, there was no difference in the 358 percentage of mosquitoes displaying mCherry-labelled pericardial cells (S10 Fig), indicating 359 no defect in egress from oocysts for both ron2cKO^{rapa} and ron4cKO^{rapa} sporozoites. In contrast, 360 the numbers of salivary gland sporozoites were severely reduced for rapamycin-treated 361 ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites (Fig 4F), as observed with the ama1cKO line (Fig 2D). As 362 expected, rapamycin treatment before transmission induced robust gene excision in both 363 ron2cKO and ron4cKO sporozoites (Figs 4G-4I). Despite reduced invasion after rapamycin 364 treatment we could recover sufficient numbers of ron2cKO and ron4cKO salivary gland 365 sporozoites to assess host cell invasion in vitro. As observed with ama1cKO parasites, 366 rapamycin-induced gene excision of ron2 and ron4 impaired invasion of HepG2 cells, as 367 shown by reduced EEF numbers (Fig 4J). As observed for AMA1-deficient sporozoites, cell 368 traversal activity was preserved in ron2cKO and ron4cKO sporozoites after rapamycin 369 treatment (Fig 4K). Overall, our data support an active role for RON2 and RON4 in invasion 370 of both mosquito salivary glands and hepatocytes, similar to AMA1.

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372 AMA1 and RON2 play a role at the entry site during invasion of mosquito salivary glands

373 In order to get more insights into the colonization of the mosquito salivary glands by 374 sporozoites, we used serial block face-scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM) for three-375 dimensional volume imaging of whole infected salivary glands. We first compared mosquitoes 376 infected with WT (PbGFP) or rapamycin-treated ama1cKO parasites at day 21 post-feeding. 377 SBF-SEM data confirmed the lower parasite density in glands infected with ama1cKO as 378 compared to WT (S11 Fig). WT sporozoites were observed inside acinar cells and in the apical 379 secretory cavities, where they clustered in bundles (S11A Fig and Movie 1). Despite reduced 380 numbers of sporozoites, we observed a similar distribution of ama1cKO parasites inside the 381 salivary glands, with both intracellular and intraluminal sporozoites (S11B Fig and Movie 2). 382 Most of the sporozoites were found lying in direct contact with the cytosol inside acinar cells, 383 without any visible vacuolar membrane (S11 and S12 Figs). Nevertheless, we also observed

384 some sporozoites surrounded by membranes (S12 Fig). However, careful examination of the 385 3D SBF-SEM images revealed that these structures may correspond to invaginations of 386 cellular membranes surrounding portions of intracellular sporozoites, rather than actual 387 vacuoles (S12A-B Figs and Movie 3). Similar to the WT, ama1cKO parasites surrounded by 388 membranes were found inside acinar cells (S12C Fig). We also observed sporozoites present 389 in the secretory cavity and surrounded by a cellular membrane, with both WT (S12D Fig) and 390 ama1cKO parasites (S12E Fig). These data thus confirmed the defect of colonization of the 391 mosquito salivary glands by AMA1-deficient sporozoites, but showed no difference in the 392 distribution of the parasites inside the infected glands or in transcellular migration toward the 393 secretory cavities, suggesting a defect at the entry step.

394 In an effort to capture sporozoite invasion events we analyzed infected salivary glands 395 by SBF-SEM at an earlier time point, 15 days post-feeding (Fig 5). We were able to visualize 396 three invasion events with untreated ama1cKO parasites (noted as wt) (Figs 5A-F, S13, and 397 **Movie 4**). The extracellular portion of all three sporozoites was lying underneath the basal 398 lamina (Figs 5A and S13A-B), tightly adhering to the acinar cell surface throughout the 399 parasite length (Figs 5D-E and S13E-G). In all three events, the entry site consisted in a flat ring-like aperture in the host cell membrane, through which sporozoites were apparently 400 401 penetrating smoothly without any major alteration of their shape (Figs 5C-D and S13E-H). The 402 circular aperture was tilted from the cell surface plane, so sporozoites appeared to penetrate 403 the cells tangentially (Figs S13D-E and S13J-K). Although the resolution was not sufficient to 404 distinguish all the cellular membranes in detail, the intracellular portion of the invading 405 sporozoites appeared to be surrounded by a vacuole (Figs 5A-B and S13). Full rhoptries, as 406 evidenced by dense material, as well as empty vesicles, suggestive of discharged rhoptries, 407 were observed at the apical tip of invading parasites (Figs 5B-C, S13J-K and Movie 5). We 408 could also find fully internalized sporozoites containing seemingly full and empty rhoptries 409 (S14A-B Fig). Altogether these observations strongly support that sporozoite entry into acinar 410 cells is associated with rhoptry discharge and the formation of a vacuole.

412

Fig 5. Capturing sporozoite entry into salivary glands with serial block face-scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM)

415 **A-F.** SBF-SEM images showing an untreated *ama1*cKO sporozoite (noted as wt) penetrating 416 into a mosquito salivary gland cell. Panels A and B show the same parasite in two different 417 sections. In A, the sporozoite is cut twice (black arrows), with one part located outside the cell, 418 underneath the basal lamina (BL, white arrow), and the other one inside the cell, within a 419 vacuole surrounded by a membrane (white arrowhead). In B, a tight vacuole can be seen 420 surrounding the intracellular portion of the invading sporozoite (arrowhead), as well as a full 421 rhoptry (white arrow). The volume segmentation in C shows full rhoptries (blue) and empty 422 vesicles (green) in the apical portion of the parasite. In D, the extracellular and intracellular 423 parts of the sporozoite are colored in purple and pink, respectively, while the cell appears is 424 yellow. The volume image in E shows the host cell surface (yellow), revealing a deep imprint 425 of the extracellular parasite segment (black arrow) and the circular aperture at the point of 426 entry (black arrowhead). In F, the entry site is shown at higher magnification. An overview of 427 the segmentation process corresponding to panels A-F is shown in Movie 4. Segmentation of 428 the rhoptries is shown in Movie 5. G-K. SBF-SEM images showing a rapamycin-treated 429 ron2cKO sporozoite penetrating into a mosquito salivary gland cell. In G, the sporozoite is 430 caught in the process of entry through an elevated host cell structure (arrow) associated with 431 a tight constriction of the parasite body. The intracellular portion of the parasite is surrounded 432 by a vacuole (white arrowhead). A volume segmentation of the sporozoite is shown in H, 433 superimposed on the same section as in G. In the volume representations in I and J, the 434 extracellular and intracellular parts of the sporozoite are colored in purple and pink, 435 respectively, while the cell appears is yellow. The entry site is marked with an arrowhead, and 436 shown at higher magnification in K. An overview of the segmentation process corresponding 437 to panels G-K is shown in Movie 6. Scale bars, 2 µm.

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440 We also captured four invasion events with rapamycin-treated ron2cKO parasites (Figs 441 5G-K, S15 and Movie 6), revealing several notable differences as compared to control 442 sporozoites. The entry site consisted in an elevated cup-like structure, with host cell membrane 443 ruffling and protrusions surrounding the invading parasites (Figs 5G-K and S15E-J). Strikingly, 444 all four mutant sporozoites displayed a marked constriction at the entry point (Figs 5G-I, S15A-445 C and S15G-H). We also noted differences in the parasite positioning as regard to the host 446 cell surface. While the extracellular portion of control parasites was intimately associated with 447 the host cell surface (Figs 5D-E and S13E-G), mutant sporozoites were captured in a more 448 upward position, with no adhesion of the parasite rear end to the salivary gland surface (Figs 449 5G, S15B and S15G-H). Most of the sporozoite body was internalized, with only a minor portion 450 localized outside the cell, the junction between the two regions being pinched by host cell 451 membrane structures (Figs 5I, S15B-C and S15H). As seen with control parasites, the 452 intracellular sporozoite portion was surrounded by a vacuole, which however was wider than the one seen with WT parasites (Figs 5G and S15A,D,G). Also, we observed internalized 453 454 RON2-deficient sporozoites containing both full and seemingly empty rhoptries (S14C and 455 S15D Figs), indicating that the lack of RON2 does not impair rhoptry discharge. Although we 456 did not capture invading AMA1-deficient sporozoites, we could find intracellular sporozoites 457 displaying strong bending of their body (S16A Fig), similar to RON2 mutant parasites (S16B 458 Fig), possibly caused by a tight constriction inflicted during entry through a dysfunctional 459 junction. These observations strongly suggest that, in the absence of a functional AMA1-RON 460 complex, sporozoites are impaired during the invasion process.

461

462 Invasion by AMA1- or RON2-deficient sporozoites is associated with a loss of integrity

463 of the salivary gland epithelium

Interestingly, passage of WT sporozoites from acinar cells to the secretory cavities could be associated with an alteration of the apical cellular membrane integrity, with leakage of cytoplasmic material in the secretory cavity (**S17A Fig**). However, the overall architecture of the infected gland did not seem to be altered despite the presence of numerous sporozoites 468 (Fig 6A). In contrast, salivary glands from mosquitoes infected with rapamycin-treated ama1cKO parasites, despite low parasite loads, showed signs of epithelial damage, with 469 470 alteration of the basal membrane and cellular vacuolization (Fig 6B). Closer examination of 471 SBF-SEM data revealed sites where the basal lamina was ruptured and detached from the 472 underlying epithelium (Fig 6C). Of note, the basal lamina was not visible in either of the 473 ron2cKO invasion events (Figs 5 and S15), possibly as a result of a complete rupture or 474 detachment at the entry site. AMA1-deficient sporozoites found close to the surface, 475 presumably caught shortly after invasion, were sometimes observed inside large vacuoles (Fig 476 **6D**). In some instances, such large vacuoles were associated with a rupture of the cell plasma 477 membrane (Fig 6E). Similar cellular damage was also observed with ron2cKO mutants (Fig 478 6F).

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Fig 6. Invasion by AMA1- and RON2-deficient sporozoites is associated with a loss of integrity of the mosquito salivary gland epithelium

483 A-B. SBF-SEM sections of salivary glands infected with WT (A) or rapamycin-treated 484 ama1cKO parasites (B), day 21 post-infection. The ama1cKO-infected gland shows signs of 485 cellular damage (black arrows) despite low parasite density. A single intracellular sporozoite 486 is indicated by a white arrow. Scale bars, 10 μm. **C-E**. SBF-SEM sections of salivary glands 487 infected with rapamycin-treated ama1cKO parasites, day 15 post-infection. Disruption of the basal lamina is indicated by an arrow. In D, a large vacuole is visible around an intracellular 488 489 sporozoite and is indicated by an asterisk. In E, both the basal lamina and the cell plasma 490 membrane are ruptured (arrow), resulting in a large cellular vacuole that communicates with 491 the outside (asterisk). Scale bars, 2 µm. F. SBF-SEM sections of salivary glands infected with 492 rapamycin-treated ron2cKO parasites, day 15 post-infection. A large vacuole surrounding an 493 intracellular sporozoite is indicated by an arrow. Scale bar, 2 µm. G. Fluorescence microscopy 494 images of salivary glands infected with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (+Rapa) 495 ama1cKO or ron2cKO parasites, day 16 post-infection. Samples were stained with Hoechst 496 77742 (Blue). The panels show mCherry (red), GFP (green) and Hoechst (blue) and 497 transmitted light merge images. Zones of retraction of the acinar epithelial cells are visible in 498 the lobes infected with AMA1- and RON2-deficient sporozoites (arrows). Scale bars, 50 μ m. 499 **H**. Quantification of salivary gland lobes showing retracted epithelium after infection with 500 untreated or rapamycin-treated *ama1*cKO and *ron2*cKO parasites. The data shown are from 501 two independent experiments (Fisher's exact test, P = 0.0286 for *ama1*cKO and P <0.0001 for 502 *ron2*cKO).

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504

505 To corroborate SBF-SEM observations, we imaged entire salivary glands by 506 fluorescence microscopy (Figs 6G and S18). Upon examination of salivary glands infected 507 with rapamycin-treated *ama1cKO* or *ron2cKO*, we frequently observed zones where epithelial 508 cells were detached from the basal lamina and retracted, creating pockets suggestive of liquid 509 accumulation (Fig 6G). Such lesions were also observed in salivary glands collected from 510 mosquitoes fed with untreated ama1cKO or ron2cKO, albeit at significantly lower frequencies 511 despite much higher parasite loads (Fig 6H). However, heavily infected lobes showed signs of 512 internal remodeling of the actin cytoskeleton (S17B Fig), and were prone to rupture during 513 manipulation.

514 Collectively, our data support a role of AMA1 and RONs during sporozoite entry into 515 mosquito acinar cells through a junction, leading to the formation of a transient vacuole. 516 Dysfunction of the junction in the absence of the AMA1-RON complex impairs parasite entry 517 and may cause collateral host cell damage.

518

520 Discussion

AMA1 and RON proteins play an essential role in *Plasmodium* merozoites during 521 522 invasion of erythrocytes, where they participate in the formation of the MJ. In contrast, their 523 role in sporozoites was unclear so far. In this study, we exploited the DiCre recombinase 524 system to delete ama1, ron2 or ron4 genes in P. berghei prior to transmission to mosquitoes, 525 allowing subsequent functional investigations in sporozoites. We generated ama1cKO, 526 ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites in a two-step approach by introducing Lox sites upstream 527 and downstream of the genes in mCherry-expressing PbDiCre parasites, together with a GFP 528 cassette to facilitate monitoring of gene excision. Rapamycin treatment of ama1cKO, ron2cKO 529 and ron4cKO parasites led to a major impairment in blood-stage growth, consistent with an 530 essential role for AMA1 and RONs in RBC invasion, but without affecting transmission to 531 mosquitoes. Remarkably, with all three conditional lines, we observed a dramatic (>10-fold) 532 reduction in the number of salivary gland sporozoites with rapamycin-exposed parasites as 533 compared to untreated parasites, despite comparable midgut and haemolymph sporozoite 534 numbers, showing that AMA1 and RONs are important for efficient invasion of the salivary 535 glands, but not egress from oocysts. AMA1-and RON-deficient sporozoites also displayed a 536 3-6 fold reduction of invasion of mammalian hepatocytes. The similar phenotype of *ama1*cKO, 537 ron2cKO and ron4cKO mutants, combined with mass spectrometry evidence of an interaction 538 between AMA1 and RON proteins, is consistent with AMA1 playing a role together with the 539 RON proteins during sporozoite host cell invasion. It thus appears that the function of AMA1 540 and RONs cannot be dissociated, unlike previously thought [7]. Our data are in line with those 541 from two studies where a promoter exchange strategy was used to knockdown ron2, ron4 and 542 ron5 in P. berghei sporozoites [14,15]. All three mutants shared a similar phenotype, with a 543 defect in salivary gland invasion and reduced infection of HepG2 cell cultures.

544 Our results differ from those of Giovannini *et al.*, who depleted AMA1 in *P. berghei* 545 sporozoites by targeting the 3'UTR of *ama1* gene using the FLP/FRT conditional system, and 546 observed no effect during mosquito or hepatocyte infection [7]. In this system, the FLP is under 547 the control of the *trap* promoter and mediates DNA excision during sporozoite development,

548 resulting in late depletion of AMA1 protein (beyond day 16 post-feeding), a time frame that 549 would not permit the observation of a salivary gland invasion phenotype. In contrast, with the 550 DiCre system as used here, excision occurs in blood stages prior to transmission to 551 mosquitoes, long before sporozoites are formed and produce AMA1 and RON proteins. The 552 presence of residual AMA1 protein in salivary gland sporozoites after FLP-mediated excision 553 of the 3'UTR could also explain why no defect in hepatocyte invasion was observed in the 554 previous study. Deletion of the 3'UTR of ama1 using the DiCre system was not sufficient to 555 abrogate protein expression in our study, as reported before with other genes in P. berghei 556 and *P. falciparum* [17,24]. In the *ama1* Δ utr line, the downstream genomic sequence (used as 557 a 3' homology region) may be sufficient to stabilize the transcripts and compensate for the lack 558 of 3'UTR following rapamycin-induced excision. This could also contribute to the discrepancy 559 between our results and the previous report by Giovannini et al., where upon recombination 560 the 3'UTR was replaced by a plasmid backbone sequence [7].

Invasion of salivary glands by Plasmodium sporozoites remains a poorly characterized 561 562 process. A previous electron microscopy analysis of the salivary glands of Aedes aegypti 563 mosquitoes infected with avian P. gallinaceum documented sporozoites entering the salivary 564 glands through an invagination of the basal lamina while forming a junctional area between 565 the anterior tip of the sporozoite and the plasma membrane of the acinar cells [25]. The same 566 study showed that newly invaded sporozoites were surrounded by a vacuole inside acinar 567 cells, while those that had entered the secretory cavities were either devoid of a vacuole or 568 present inside disintegrating vacuoles [25]. In another study, P. falciparum sporozoites were 569 observed penetrating salivary glands of Anopheles stephensi mosquitoes through holes in the 570 basal membrane without causing any obvious damage to the gland [26]. Here, using three-571 dimensional volume electron microscopy, we could capture P. berghei sporozoites in the 572 process of entering acinar cells in A. stephensi mosquitoes. Our data support that haemolymph 573 sporozoites initially enter the salivary glands by forming a transient vacuole. During traversal of mammalian cells, sporozoites use the perforin-like protein 1 (PLP1) to egress from transient 574 575 vacuoles [27]. Whether sporozoites use a similar machinery to exit the entry vacuole in the

576 mosquito salivary glands remains to be determined. Imaging of three invasion events with 577 control parasites showed sporozoites intimately adhering to the cell surface and penetrating 578 inside a nascent vacuole through a ring-like aperture, suggestive of a MJ. All three invading 579 WT sporozoites were located between the basal lamina and the epithelial cells. How 580 sporozoites cross the basal lamina remains unclear, but might involve the secretion of parasite 581 proteases. Our functional data combined with the SBF-SEM images suggest that RONs are 582 secreted from rhoptries prior to or during invasion of the salivary glands, where they could form 583 a complex with AMA1 at the entry junction. Consistent with a rhoptry discharge event 584 associated with salivary gland invasion, previous ultrastructural imaging studies of sporozoites 585 have reported the presence of four or more rhoptries in midgut-derived sporozoites, as 586 opposed to two in mature salivary gland sporozoites [8,28-30].

587 SBF-SEM also revealed morphological defects at the entry site of RON2-deficient 588 sporozoites, with intense host cell membrane ruffling associated with a tight constriction of the 589 parasite body at the entry site. These observations suggest that, despite the absence of a 590 functional AMA1-RON complex, mutant sporozoites are still capable of forming a junction. 591 Interestingly, while invading WT sporozoites were adhering to the host cell surface along their 592 body, the RON2 mutants entered cells in an upward position, as described before with AMA1-593 deficient *T. gondii* tachyzoites [7,11]. While we cannot formally exclude a role of AMA1-RONs 594 in parasite attachment to the host cell, it is possible that blockage of the entry of RON2-deficient 595 sporozoites resulted in detachment of their rear end from the cell surface. These observations 596 strongly suggest that RON2-deficient sporozoites were halted during the process of entry 597 through a dysfunctional junction. Host cell invasion by apicomplexan zoites relies on a 598 balanced combination between host cell membrane dynamics and parasite motor function [32]. 599 The membrane ruffling surrounding invading RON2-deficient sporozoites is reminiscent of 600 actin-driven host cell protrusions observed with myosin A-deficient T. gondii tachyzoites, which 601 are impaired during entry due to a motility defect [33]. Beyond participating in the assembly of 602 the junction, AMA1 and RONs could be required to ensure proper function of the junction

603 during invasion of mosquito acinar cells, possibly through interactions with host cell 604 cytoskeleton components as described with RONs in *T. gondii* [31].

605 Interestingly, infection of the mosquito salivary glands by AMA1- or RON2-deficient 606 sporozoites was associated with a loss of integrity of the epithelium, with rupture of the basal 607 lamina and cell vacuolization. This suggests that during sporozoite entry into the salivary gland, 608 AMA1-RONs may contribute to maintaining a sealed junction around the parasite, to allow 609 invasion without creating a leak, thus preventing cell damage. In line with this hypothesis, 610 erythrocyte lysis has been observed during invasion of AMA1-depleted P. falciparum 611 merozoites [34]. Our data thus provide a possible molecular basis to explain how thousands 612 of sporozoites can colonize the salivary glands of a single mosquito without causing overt 613 tissue damage. As sporozoites can remain in the salivary cavities for several days before they 614 are transmitted, harmless entry in the glands is likely essential to ensure parasite transmission. 615 Damage inflicted to the salivary gland epithelium during invasion of AMA1-RON mutants may 616 also have detrimental effects on mosquito feeding and survival.

617 Despite the significant reduction in numbers, a minor proportion of rapamycin-treated 618 ama1cKO, ron2cKO and ron4cKO sporozoites could still invade the salivary glands of infected 619 mosquitoes. While we cannot exclude the presence of residual non-excised parasites inside 620 infected glands in the SFB-SEM experiments, these parasites should only represent a minority 621 of salivary gland sporozoites after rapamycin exposure (<10%). Some mutant parasites may 622 succeed in penetrating the glands despite a dysfunctional junction, as suggested by our SBF-623 SEM data. Alternatively, some degree of plasticity may allow sporozoites to use alternative 624 adhesion or invasion ligands, as observed in T. gondii where paralogs can compensate for the 625 lack of a functional AMA1-RON2 pair [35]. While there is no known paralog of RON2 in 626 Plasmodium, the Membrane Associated Erythrocyte Binding-Like protein (MAEBL) contains 627 two AMA1-like domains [36], and was in fact reported to be essential for invasion of the salivary 628 glands [37,38]. Interestingly, MAEBL was not identified by co-immunoprecipitation in the 629 RON2, RON4, RON5 complex in oocyst [15] or salivary gland (this study) derived sporozoites,

and AMA1-deficient sporozoites fail to invade the mosquito salivary glands, thus arguing
against a compensatory role for MAEBL in AMA1-deficient sporozoites.

632 When tested on hepatocyte cell cultures, only a minor proportion of AMA1, RON2 or 633 RON4-depleted salivary gland sporozoites productively invaded and developed into EEFs. The 634 defect in hepatocyte invasion was less pronounced in comparison to that observed for the 635 salivary glands. This differential dependency on AMA1-RONs during host cell invasion could 636 relate to different membrane properties impacting the junction [32]. Consistent with our results, 637 a previous study has shown that anti-AMA1 only partially inhibited *P. falciparum* infection of 638 human hepatocytes in vitro [4]. Interestingly, knockdown of RON2 in sporozoites was shown 639 to affect cell traversal and hepatocyte invasion, both in vitro and in vivo, with the authors 640 implying that loss of RON2 affected attachment to both the salivary glands and hepatocytes, 641 thereby influencing invasion [14]. An earlier report on P. falciparum sporozoites showed that 642 interfering with the AMA1-RON2 interaction affected host cell traversal [13]. However, in our 643 study, rapamycin-treated ama1cKO, ron2cKO and ron4cKO parasites showed no defect in 644 sporozoite cell traversal but were impaired in productive invasion. While these differences in 645 phenotypes could be attributed to differences between P. falciparum and P. berghei, it is 646 possible that the use of salivary gland sporozoites in our study versus those obtained from the 647 haemolymph by Ishino et al. accounted for the difference in observations for cell traversal 648 between experiments. We only assessed sporozoite infectivity in HepG2 cell cultures, showing 649 a 3-6 fold reduction in host cell invasion. It is possible that more severe defects would be 650 observed under in vivo conditions, but the low numbers of AMA1- and RON-deficient 651 sporozoites recovered from mosquito salivary glands precluded their analysis in vivo in mice.

Based on our findings, we propose a model where *Plasmodium* sporozoites use the AMA1-RON complex twice, in the mosquito and mammalian hosts (**Fig 7**). First, AMA1 and RONs could mediate the safe entry of sporozoites into the salivary glands via the formation of a junction and a transient vacuole, in a cell-specific manner and without compromising the cell membrane integrity, to ensure successful colonization of the glands and subsequent parasite transmission. This model fits with previous reports showing that sporozoites can massively

658 infect salivary glands without causing cellular damage [39,40]. This crossing event would differ 659 from the cell traversal activity of mature sporozoites in the mammalian host, which is 660 associated with a loss of membrane integrity and cell death [41]. Following sporozoite inoculation into the mammalian host, AMA1 and RONs facilitate productive invasion of 661 662 hepatocytes, presumably through the formation of a canonical MJ that leads to the formation 663 of the PV where the parasite can replicate into merozoites. Colonization of the salivary glands 664 and productive invasion of hepatocytes involve transcellular migration versus establishment of 665 a replicative vacuole, respectively. However, both events likely require tight membrane sealing 666 around the invading parasite and subversion of the host cortical cytoskeleton, a function that 667 could rely on the AMA1-RON complex. Our study reveals that the contribution of AMA1 and 668 RON proteins is conserved across Plasmodium invasive stages. Pre-clinical studies have 669 shown that vaccination with the AMA1-RON2 complex induces functional antibodies that better 670 recognize AMA1 as it appears complexed with RON2 during merozoite invasion, providing an attractive vaccine strategy against *Plasmodium* blood stages [42,43]. Our results indicate that 671 672 the AMA1-RON complex might also be considered as a potential target to block malaria 673 transmission.

674

675

676 Fig 7. Model of AMA1-RON function in Plasmodium sporozoites. AMA1 and RON proteins 677 drive two distinct sporozoite invasion events in the mosquito and mammalian hosts. After 678 egress from oocysts, sporozoites first rely on AMA1 and RONs to enter the mosquito salivary 679 glands inside a transient vacuole, without causing epithelium damage, to eventually 680 accumulate in the secretory cavities after crossing the acinar cells. Then, following parasite 681 transmission to a mammalian host, AMA1 and RONs are required for efficient productive 682 invasion of hepatocytes inside a parasitophorous vacuole. Both events supposedly involve 683 rhoptry secretion and the formation of a junction, which however is uncoupled from the 684 formation of a canonical parasitophorous vacuole during colonization of the insect salivary 685 glands.

686 Materials and methods

687 **Mice**

Female Swiss mice (6–8 weeks old, from Janvier Labs) were used for all routine parasite infections. All animal work was conducted in strict accordance with the Directive 2010/63/EU of the European Parliament and Council 'On the protection of animals used for scientific purposes'. Protocols were approved by the Ethical Committee Charles Darwin N°005 (approval #7475-2016110315516522).

693

694 Parasites

695 Conditional genome editing was performed in the P. berghei (ANKA strain) PbDiCre line, 696 obtained after integration of mCherry and DiCre expression cassettes at the dispensable 697 lines expressing p230p locus [19]. Two additional RON4-mCherry (bioRxiv 698 2021.10.25.465731) and/or GFP [44] were used for immunoprecipitation and electron 699 microscopy experiments, respectively. Parasites were maintained in mice through 700 intraperitoneal injections of frozen parasite stocks. Anopheles stephensi mosquitoes were 701 reared at 24°C with 80 % humidity and permitted to feed on infected mice that were 702 anaesthetized, using standard methods of mosquito infection as previously described [45]. 703 Post feeding, P. berghei-infected mosquitoes were kept at 21°C and fed daily on a 10% 704 sucrose solution.

705

706 Host cell cultures

HepG2 cells (ATCC HB-8065) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal calf
serum, 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin and 1% L-Glutamine as previously described [46], in culture
dishes coated with rat tail collagen I (Becton-Dickinson).

710

711 Vector construction

In order to target different genes of interest, we first generated a generic plasmid,
pDownstream1Lox (Addgene #164574), containing a GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette under the

control of a *P. yoelii hsp70* promoter and followed by the 3'UTR of *P. berghei calmodulin (cam)*gene and a single LoxN site. The plasmid also contains a yFCU cassette to enable the
elimination of parasites carrying episomes by negative selection with 5-fluorocytosine.

717 The ama1Con plasmid was designed to excise only ~30 bp downstream of P. berghei ama1 718 3'UTR. Two fragments were inserted on each side of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette of the 719 pDownstream1Lox plasmid: a 5' homology region (HR) homologous to the terminal portion of 720 ama1 (ORF and 3' UTR) followed by a single LoxN site, and a 3' HR homologous to a 721 sequence downstream of the 3' UTR of *ama1* gene. The *ama1*∆utr plasmid was assembled 722 similarly to the ama1Con construct except that the 5' HR consisted in the terminal portion of 723 ama1 ORF followed by a LoxN site and the 3' UTR of *P. yoelii ama1*, to allow excision of the 724 3'UTR upon rapamycin activation of DiCre. The ama1cKO plasmid was designed to introduce 725 a single LoxN site upstream of ama1 in the rapamycin-treated (excised) ama1Con parasites, 726 which already contained a residual LoxN site downstream of the gene. To generate the 727 ama1cKO plasmid, the pDownstream1Lox vector was first modified to remove the downstream LoxN site. Then, a 5' HR and a 3' HR, both homologous to sequences located upstream of 728 729 ama1 gene, were cloned into the modified plasmid on each side of the GFP-2A-hDHFR, with 730 a single LoxN site introduced upstream of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette.

To generate ron2cKO and ron4cKO constructs, two separate plasmids, P1 and P2, were 731 732 generated to insert a LoxN site upstream of the promoter and downstream of the gene of 733 interest, respectively, in two consecutive transfections. P1 plasmids were constructed by insertion of 5' and 3' HR on each side of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette in the 734 735 pDownstream1Lox plasmid, with a second LoxN site introduced upstream of the GFP cassette. 736 The 5' HR and 3' HR correspond to consecutive fragments located in the promoter region of 737 the GOI. Because the intergenic sequence between ron4 gene and its upstream gene is short, 738 and in order to maintain expression of the upstream gene and exclude any unwanted 739 duplication and spontaneous recombination events, we introduced the 5' HR of ron4 in two fragments, with fragment 1 corresponding to the region just upstream of the ORF while 740 741 fragment 2 corresponded to the 3' UTR from the P. yoelii ortholog of the upstream gene. P2

plasmids were constructed in a similar manner by insertion of a 5' HR and a 3'HR on each side of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette in the pDownstream1Lox plasmid. The 3' HR regions corresponded to the 3' UTR sequences of *RON2* or *RON4*, respectively. For both target genes, the 5' HR was divided into two fragments, where fragment 1 corresponded to the end of the ORF followed by a triple Flag tag, and fragment 2 corresponded to the 3' UTR from the *P*. *yoelii* ortholog gene, in order to avoid duplication of the 3' UTR region and spontaneous recombination.

All plasmid inserts were amplified by PCR using standard PCR conditions and the CloneAmp HiFi PCR premix (Takara). Following a PCR purification step (QIAquick PCR purification kit), the fragments were sequentially ligated into the target vector using the In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Clontech). The resulting plasmid sequences were verified by Sanger sequencing (GATC Biotech) and linearized before transfection. All the primers used for plasmid assembly are listed in **Table S2**.

755

756 Parasite transfection

757 For parasite transfection, schizonts purified from an overnight culture of PbDiCre parasites 758 were transfected with 5-10 µg of linearized plasmid by electroporation using the AMAXA 759 Nucleofector device (Lonza, program U033), as previously described [47], and immediately injected intravenously into the tail vein of Swiss mice. For selection of resistant transgenic 760 761 parasites, pyrimethamine (35 mg/L) and 5-flurocytosine (0.5 mg/ml) were added to the drinking water and administered to mice, one day after transfection. Transfected parasites were sorted 762 763 by flow cytometry on a FACSAria II (Becton-Dickinson), as described [44], and cloned by 764 limiting dilutions and injections into mice. The parasitaemia was monitored daily by flow 765 cytometry and the mice sacrificed at a parasitaemia of 2-3%. The mice were bled and the 766 infected blood collected for preparation of frozen stocks (1:1 ratio of fresh blood mixed with 767 10% Glycerol in Alsever's solution) and isolation of parasites for genomic DNA extraction, 768 using the DNA Easy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's 769 instructions. Specific PCR primers were designed to check for wild-type and recombined loci and are listed in **Table S2**. Genotyping PCR reactions were carried out using Recombinant
Taq DNA Polymerase (5U/µl from Thermo Scientific) and standard PCR cycling conditions.

772

773 In vivo analysis of conditional mutants

774 DiCre recombinase mediated excision of targeted DNA sequences in vivo was achieved by a 775 single oral administration of 200µg rapamycin (1mg/ml stock, Rapamune, Pfizer) to mice. 776 Excision of the GFP cassette in blood stage parasites was monitored by flow cytometry using 777 a Guava EasyCyte 6/2L bench cytometer equipped with 488 nm and 532 nm lasers (Millipore) 778 to detect GFP and mCherry, respectively. To analyze parasite development in the mosquito, 779 rapamycin was administered to infected mice 24 hours prior to transmission to mosquitoes, as 780 described [19]. Midguts were dissected out at day 14 post infection. The haemolymph was collected by flushing the haemocoel with complete DMEM, day 14 to 16 post infection. Salivary 781 782 gland sporozoites were collected between 21-28 days post feeding from infected mosquitoes, 783 by hand dissection and homogenization of isolated salivary glands in complete DMEM. Live 784 samples (infected mosquito midguts or salivary glands, sporozoites) were mounted in PBS 785 and visualized live using a Zeiss Axio Observer.Z1 fluorescence microscope equipped with a LD Plan-Neofluar 403/0.6 Corr Ph2 M27 objective. The exposure time was set according to 786 787 the positive control and maintained for both untreated and rapamycin-treated parasites, in 788 order to allow comparisons. All images were processed with ImageJ for adjustment of contrast.

789

790 In vitro sporozoite assays

HepG2 cells were seeded at a density of 30,000 cells/well in a 96-well plate for flow cytometry analysis or 100,000 cells/well in 8 well µ-slide (IBIDI) for immunofluorescence assays, 24 hours prior to infection with sporozoites. On the day of the infection, the culture medium in the wells was discarded and fresh complete DMEM was added along with 10,000 sporozoites, followed by incubation for 3 hours at 37°C. After 3 hours, the wells were washed twice with complete DMEM and then incubated for another 24-48 hours at 37°C and 5% CO₂. For quantification of EEF numbers, the cells were trypsinized after two washes with PBS, followed by addition of complete DMEM and one round of centrifugation at 4°C. After discarding the supernatant, the cells were either directly re-suspended in complete DMEM for flow cytometry, or fixed with 2% PFA for 10 minutes, subsequently washed once with PBS and then re-suspended in PBS for FACS acquisition. For quantification of traversal events, fluorescein-conjugated dextran (0.5mg/ml, Life Technologies) was added to the wells along with sporozoites followed by an incubation at 37°C for 3 hours. After 3 hours, the cells were washed twice with PBS, trypsinized and resuspended in complete DMEM for analysis by flow cytometry.

805

806 **RON4 immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry**

807 Freshly dissected RON4-mCherry sporozoites were lysed on ice for 30 min in a lysis buffer 808 containing 0.5% w/v NP40 and protease inhibitors. After centrifugation (15,000 × g, 15 min, 809 4°C), supernatants were incubated with protein G-conjugated sepharose for preclearing 810 overnight. Precleared lysates were subjected to mCherry immunoprecipitation using RFP-Trap beads (Chromoteck) for 2h at 4°C, according to the manufacturer's protocol. PbGFP parasites 811 812 with untagged RON4 were used as a control. After washes, proteins on beads were eluted in 813 2X Laemmli and denatured (95°C, 5min). After centrifugation, supernatants were collected for 814 further analysis. Samples were subjected to a short SDS-PAGE migration, and gel pieces were 815 processed for protein trypsin digestion by the DigestProMSi robot (Intavis), as described [10]. 816 Peptide were separated on an Aurora UHPLC column from lonOpticks (25 cm x 75 µm, C18), using a 30 min gradient from 3 to 32% ACN with 0.1% formic acid, and analyzed on a timsTOF 817 818 PRO mass spectrometer (Bruker). Mascot generic files were processed with X!Tandem 819 pipeline (version 0.2.36) using the PlasmoDB PB 39 PbergheiANKA database, as described 820 [10]. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange 821 Consortium via the PRIDE [48] partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD031463.

822

823 Immunofluorescence assays

Blood-stage schizonts were fixed with 4% PFA and 0.0075% glutaraldehyde for 30 mins at
37°C with constant shaking. The samples were then quenched/permeabilized with 125mM

826 glycine /0.1% Triton X-100 for 15 minutes, blocked with PBS/3% BSA, then incubated with Rat 827 anti-AMA1 antibodies (1:250, clone 28G2, MRA-897A, Bei Resources) followed by Alexa Fluor 828 goat anti-rat 405 antibodies (1:1000, Life Technologies). The samples were mounted in PBS 829 and immediately visualized under a fluorescence microscope. Sporozoites were resuspended 830 in PBS, added on top of poly-L-lysine coated coverslips and allowed to air dry. The sporozoites 831 were then fixed with 4% PFA for 30 mins, followed by guenching with 0.1M glycine for 30 mins 832 and two washes with PBS. In the next step, the sporozoites were permeabilized with 1% Triton-833 X100 for 5 mins, washed twice with PBS, then blocked with PBS 3%BSA for 1hr at RT and 834 incubated with anti-AMA1 antibody (1:250) diluted in blocking solution. Following 3 washes 835 with PBS, the sporozoites were incubated with the secondary antibody (anti-Rat Alexa Fluor 836 647) diluted in blocking solution. Following 3 washes with PBS, the coverslips were mounted 837 onto a drop of prolong diamond anti-fade mounting solution (Life Technologies), sealed with 838 nail polish and imaged using a fluorescence microscope. Infected HepG2 cell cultures were 839 washed twice with PBS, then fixed with 4% PFA for 20 minutes, followed by two washings with 840 PBS and incubation with goat anti-UIS4 primary antibody (1:500, Sicgen), followed by donkey 841 anti-goat Alexa Fluor 594 secondary antibody (1:1000, Life Technologies). For fluorescence 842 imaging of entire glands, freshly dissected salivary glands were fixed in 4% PFA for 30 minutes 843 and permeabilized in acetone for 90 seconds, as described [40]. Samples were incubated with 844 Phalloidin-iFluor 647 (Abcam) and Hoechst 77742 (Life Technologies) overnight at 4°C, 845 washed and mounted in PBS before imaging. Acquisitions were made on a Zeiss Axio 846 Observer Z1 fluorescence microscope using the Zen software (Zeiss). Images were processed 847 with ImageJ for adjustment of contrast.

848

849 Serial block face-scanning electron microscopy

For Serial Block Face-Scanning Electron Microscopy (SBF-SEM), salivary glands were isolated from infected mosquitoes at day 15 or 21 post-feeding, and fixed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer containing 3% PFA and 1% glutaraldehyde during 1 hour at room temperature. Intact salivary glands were then prepared for SBF-SEM (NCMIR protocol) [49] as follows: samples 854 were post-fixed for 1 hour in a reduced osmium solution containing 1% osmium tetroxide, 1.5% potassium ferrocyanide in PBS, followed by incubation with a 1% thiocarbohydrazide in water 855 856 for 20 minutes. Subsequently, samples were stained with 2% OsO4 in water for 30 minutes, 857 followed by 1% aqueous uranyl acetate at 4 °C overnight. Samples were then subjected to en bloc Walton's lead aspartate staining [50], and placed in a 60 °C oven for 30 minutes. Samples 858 859 were then dehydrated in graded concentrations of ethanol for 10 minutes in each step. The 860 samples were infiltrated with 30% agar low viscosity resin (Agar Scientific Ltd, UK) in ethanol, 861 for 1 hour, 50% resin for 2 hours and 100% resin overnight. The resin was then changed and 862 the samples were further incubated during 3 hours, prior to inclusion by flat embedding between two slides of Aclar® and polymerization for 18 hours at 60 °C. The polymerized blocks 863 864 were mounted onto aluminum stubs for SBF-SEM imaging (FEI Microtome 8 mm SEM Stub, 865 Agar Scientific), with two-part conduction silver epoxy kit (EMS, 12642-14). For imaging, 866 samples on aluminum stubs were trimmed using an ultramicrotome and inserted into a TeneoVS SEM (ThermoFisher Scientific). Acquisitions were performed with a beam energy of 867 2 kV, 400 pA current, in LowVac mode at 40 Pa, a dwell time of 1 µs per pixel at 10 nm pixel 868 869 size. Sections of 50 nm were serially cut between images. Data acquired by SBF-SEM were 870 processed using Fiji and Amira (ThermoFisher Scientific). Data alignment and manual 871 segmentation were performed using Amira.

872

873 Quantification and statistical analysis

In vitro experiments were performed with a minimum of three technical replicates per experiment. Statistical significance was assessed by two-way ANOVA, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons, Fisher's exact or ratio paired t tests, as indicated in the figure legends. All statistical tests were computed with GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software). The quantitative data used to generate the figures and the statistical analysis are presented in **Table S3**.

880

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1071 Supporting information

1072 Supplemental tables

- 1073
- 1074 **S1 Table**. Mass spectrometry analysis of co-IP from RON4-mCherry sporozoites.
- 1075 **S2 Table**. List of oligonucleotides used in the study.
- 1076 **S3 Table**. Quantitative data and statistical analysis.
- 1077 1078

1079 **Supplemental figures** 1080

1081 S1 Fig. Generation of *ama1*∆utr parasites using the DiCre system

A. Strategy to generate ama1_Autr parasites. The wild-type locus of *P. berghei ama1* in the 1082 1083 PbDiCre parasite line was targeted with a *ama1* Δ utr replacement plasmid containing 2 Lox 1084 sites and 5' and 3' homologous sequences inserted on each side of a GFP-2A-hDHFR 1085 cassette. Upon double crossover recombination, the LoxN sites are inserted upstream of the 1086 3' UTR and downstream of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette, respectively. Activation of the DiCre 1087 recombinase with rapamycin results in excision of the 3' UTR together with the GFP-2A-1088 hDHFR cassette. Genotyping primers and expected PCR fragments are indicated by arrows 1089 and lines, respectively. **B.** Genotyping of parental PbDiCre and *ama1* dutr transfected parasites 1090 after pyrimethamine selection (pyr) and after rapamycin treatment (rapa) of the final population. 1091 Parasite genomic DNA was analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the 1092 unmodified locus (WT), the 5' integration, 3' integration or excision events. C. Flow cytometry 1093 analysis of PbDiCre (parental) and ama1 Autr blood stage parasites after pyrimethamine 1094 selection (pyr) or rapamycin exposure (rapa). NI, non-infected red blood cells.

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1096 S2 Fig. Generation of *ama1*Con parasites using the DiCre system

1097 **A.** Strategy to generate *ama1*Con parasites. The construct is similar to the *ama1* Δ utr construct. except that the first LoxN site is located downstream of the 3' UTR. Upon rapamycin-induced 1098 1099 excision, the ama1 locus remains intact. B. Genotyping of parental PbDiCre and ama1Con 1100 transfected parasites after pyrimethamine selection (pyr) and after rapamycin treatment (rapa) 1101 of the final population. Parasite genomic DNA was analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the unmodified locus (WT), the 5' integration, 3' integration or 1102 excision events. C. Flow cytometry analysis of PbDiCre (parental) and ama1Con blood stage 1103 1104 parasites after pyrimethamine selection (pyr) or rapamycin exposure (rapa). NI, non-infected 1105 red blood cells.

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1107 S3 Fig. Imaging of *ama*1Con and *ama*1∆utr mosquito stages

A. Fluorescence microscopy images of midguts from mosquitoes infected with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ama1*Con and *ama1* Δ utr parasites. Scale bar = 200 µm. **B.** Fluorescence microscopy images of salivary glands from mosquitoes infected with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ama1*Con and *ama1* Δ utr parasites. Scale bar = 200 µm.

1112

1113 S4 Fig. Generation of *ama1*cKO parasites using the DiCre system

1114 A. Strategy to generate ama1cKO parasites. The ama1 locus in rapamycin-treated (excised) ama1Con parasites was targeted with a ama1cKO replacement plasmid containing a single 1115 1116 LoxN site and 5' and 3' homologous sequences inserted on each side of a GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette. Upon double crossover recombination, a second LoxN site is inserted upstream of 1117 the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette and ama1 gene. Activation of the DiCre recombinase with 1118 1119 rapamycin results in excision of the entire ama1 gene together with the GFP-2A-hDHFR 1120 cassette. Genotyping primers and expected PCR fragments are indicated by arrows and lines. respectively. B. Genotyping of PbDiCre, rapamycin-treated (excised) ama1Con (parental) and 1121 1122 ama1cKO parasites after selection with pyrimethamine (pyr). Parasite genomic DNA was 1123 analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the unmodified locus (WT), the 5' 1124 integration and 3' integration events. C. Genotyping of ama1cKO blood stage parasites

1125 collected 2 or 6 days after rapamycin exposure or left untreated (UT). Parasite genomic DNA
1126 was analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the non-excised (NE, 5'
1127 integration combination) or excised (E) locus.

1128

1129 **S5 Fig. Imaging of ama1cKO mosquito stages**

A. Fluorescence microscopy of midguts from mosquitoes infected with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ama1*cKO parasites. Scale bar = 200 μ m. **B.** Fluorescence microscopy of salivary glands isolated from mosquitoes infected with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ama1*cKO parasites. Scale bar = 200 μ m. 1133

1135 S6 Fig. Analysis of mosquito pericardial structures

A. Imaging of the abdomen of a mosquito infected with rapamycin treated *ama1*cKO parasites, after removal of the midgut, showing mCherry-labelled pericardial structures. **B.** Quantification of mosquitoes with mCherry-labelled pericardial cells at D21 post-infection with untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ama1*Con and *ama1*cKO parasites. Ns, non-significant (Two-tailed ratio paired t test).

1141

1142 S7 Fig. Generation of *ron2*cKO parasites using the DiCre system

A-B. Two-step strategy to generate ron2cKO parasites. In the first step (A), the ron2 locus in 1143 1144 PbDiCre parasites was targeted with a ron2-P1 replacement plasmid containing 5' and 3' 1145 homologous sequences and two LoxN sites flanking a GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette. Upon double 1146 crossover recombination, the two LoxN sites are inserted upstream of ron2. Activation of the 1147 DiCre recombinase with rapamycin results in excision of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette, leaving 1148 a single LoxN site upstream of the gene in excised ron2-P1 parasites. In the second step (B), 1149 the ron2 locus in rapamycin-treated (excised) ron2-P1 parasites was targeted with a ron2-P2 1150 replacement plasmid containing 5' and 3' homologous sequences flanking a GFP-2A- hDHFR cassette and a single LoxN site. Upon double crossover recombination, the LoxN site is 1151 1152 inserted downstream of ron2 and the GFP-2A- hDHFR cassette. Activation of the DiCre 1153 recombinase with rapamycin results in excision of the entire ron2 gene together with the GFP-1154 2A-hDHFR cassette. Genotyping primers and expected PCR fragments are indicated by arrows and lines, respectively. C. Genotyping of PbDiCre and ron2cKO parasites. Parasite 1155 1156 genomic DNA was analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the unmodified 1157 locus (WT), the 5' and 3' integration events.

1158

1159 S8 Fig. Generation of *ron4*cKO parasites using the DiCre system

A-B. Two-step strategy to generate ron4cKO parasites. In the first step (A), the ron4 locus in 1160 PbDiCre parasites was targeted with a ron2-P1 replacement plasmid containing 5' and 3' 1161 homologous sequences and two LoxN sites flanking a GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette. Upon double 1162 crossover recombination, the two LoxN sites are inserted upstream of ron4. Activation of the 1163 DiCre recombinase with rapamycin results in excision of the GFP-2A-hDHFR cassette, leaving 1164 a single LoxN site upstream of the gene in excised ron4-P1 parasites. In the second step (B), 1165 the ron4 locus in rapamycin-treated (excised) ron4-P1 parasites was targeted with a ron4-P2 1166 replacement plasmid containing 5' and 3' homologous sequences flanking a GFP-2A- hDHFR 1167 1168 cassette and a single LoxN site. Upon double crossover recombination, the LoxN site is inserted downstream of ron4 and the GFP-2A- hDHFR cassette. Activation of the DiCre 1169 recombinase with rapamycin results in excision of the entire ron4 gene together with the GFP-1170 2A-hDHFR cassette. Genotyping primers and expected PCR fragments are indicated by 1171 1172 arrows and lines, respectively. C. Genotyping of PbDiCre and ron4cKO parasites. Parasite 1173 genomic DNA was analyzed by PCR using primer combinations specific for the unmodified 1174 locus (WT), the 5' and 3' integration events.

1175

1176 **S9 Fig. Imaging of** *ron2***cKO and** *ron4***cKO mosquito stages**

A-B. Fluorescence microscopy of midguts from mosquitoes infected with untreated (UT) or
 rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ron2*cKO (A) or *ron4*cKO (B) parasites. Scale bar = 200 μm.

- 1179
- 1180 S10 Fig. Analysis of mosquito pericardial structures

- 1181 Quantification of mosquitoes with mCherry-labelled pericardial cells at D21 post-infection with 1182 untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (rapa) *ron2*cKO or *ron4*cKO parasites. Ns, non-significant
- 1183 (Two-tailed ratio paired t test).
- 1184

1185S11 Fig. Serial block face-scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM) of infected1186mosquito salivary glands

A-B. Representative sections of salivary glands from mosquitoes infected with WT (**A**) or rapamycin-treated *ama*1cKO (**B**) parasites (left panels). Scale bars, 5 μ m. WT and AMA1deficient sporozoites were observed inside the acinar cells (AC, asterisks) and in the secretory cavities (SC, arrows). The volume segmentation images (right panels) show the secretory cavities (yellow) and sporozoites (blue), and correspond to Movie 1 and Movie 2, respectively, for WT and *ama*1cKO parasites.

1193

1194 S12 Fig. SBF-SEM analysis of sporozoite distribution inside salivary glands

1195 A-B. SBF-SEM sections from Movie 3, showing WT sporozoites inside salivary gland acinar 1196 cells. The first section (A) shows a sporozoite partly surrounded by host cell membranes 1197 (arrow), highlighted in red in the right panel, and a second one seemingly contained inside a 1198 vacuole (asterisk), highlighted in yellow in the right panel. The second section (B) shows the 1199 same parasites in a different plane, revealing that the second sporozoite is in fact not enclosed 1200 in a vacuole but instead is interacting with invaginated host cell membranes (asterisk), highlighted in yellow in the right panel, while the first parasite now seems surrounded by a 1201 1202 membrane (arrow), giving the false impression of being enclosed in a vacuole (highlighted in 1203 red in the right panel). Scale bars, 2 µm. C. SBF-SEM section showing an intracellular rapamycin-treated ama1cKO sporozoite surrounded by a cellular membrane (arrow). Scale 1204 bar, 2 µm. AC, acinar cell; SC, secretory cavity. D-E. SBF-SEM sections showing WT (D) and 1205 1206 rapamycin-treated ama1cKO (E) sporozoites present inside secretory cavities (SC) and 1207 surrounded by cellular membranes (arrows). Scale bars, 1 µm. 1208

1209 **S13 Fig. SBF-SEM imaging of sporozoite invasion into mosquito salivary glands**

A-H. SBF-SEM images of an invading untreated ama1cKO sporozoite. Panels A-C show three 1210 1211 XY sections of the invading parasite. The sporozoite is located underneath the basal lamina 1212 (BL), and enters the cell surrounded by a vacuole (white arrowhead). The entry site is marked 1213 by a black arrow. Scale bar, 1 µm. Panel D shows a virtual XZ section, illustrating that the sporozoite is penetrating tangentially into the acinar cell. The entry aperture is marked by a 1214 1215 black arrowhead. Panels E-H show a volume segmentation of the parasite (in purple) invading 1216 the mosquito cell (in yellow). The entry site is marked by a black arrowhead. In G and H, only 1217 the cell surface is shown, revealing the imprinting of the extracellular portion of the sporozoite (black arrow). In H, the circular entry site is shown at higher magnification. I-K. SBF-SEM 1218 1219 images of another invading untreated ama1cKO sporozoite. In I, a XY section cuts the invading parasite twice (black arrows), with the extracellular portion being positioned between the cell 1220 1221 surface and the basal lamina (BL). Two virtual YZ sections are shown in J and K, illustrating 1222 that the sporozoite is penetrating tangentially into the acinar cell. The entry aperture is marked by a black arrowhead. A full rhoptry is visible in J and an empty one can be seen in K (arrows). 1223 1224

1225

1226 S14 Fig. SBF-SEM imaging of sporozoite rhoptries

A-B. SBF-SEM sections of the apical end of an intracellular untreated (wt) *ama1*cKO sporozoite. In A, two full rhoptries are visible, indicated by white arrows. In B, a different section of the same parasite reveals an empty rhoptry (black arrow). C. SBF-SEM section of an intracellular rapamycin-treated *ron2*cKO sporozoite, showing two full rhoptries (white arrows) and one empty one (black arrow). Scale bars, 1 μm.

1232

1233S15 Fig. SBF-SEM imaging of RON2-deficient sporozoite invasion into mosquito1234salivary glands

A-F. SBF-SEM images of two invading rapamycin-treated *ron2*cKO sporozoites. In A, the first

sporozoite (labelled #1) is cut once, while the second one (#2) is cut twice. The entry sites are

- 1237 indicated by black arrows, and the vacuoles by white arrowheads. Scale bars, 1 µm. Panels B 1238 and C show volume segmentation images of the invading parasites (red and purple, 1239 respectively). The cell is colored in yellow. Panel D shows a virtual XZ section, showing the 1240 vacuole (white arrowhead), a full rhoptry (black arrow) and an empty vesicle (white arrow). G-1241 J. SBF-SEM images of another rapamycin-treated *ron2c*KO sporozoites. In G, the entry site is 1242 indicated by a black arrow, and the vacuole by a white arrowhead. Panels H-J show volume 1243 segmentation images of the invading parasite (purple). The cell is colored in yellow. The entry site is shown at higher magnification in I and J, with or without displaying the sporozoite. 1244
- S16 Fig. SBF-SEM imaging of AMA1- and RON2-deficient sporozoites inside salivary
 gland cells
- 1248 **A-B**. SBF-SEM sections of intracellular rapamycin-treated *ama1*cKO (A) and *ron2*cKO (B) 1249 sporozoites. Both parasites display a strong bending, with the hinge indicated by an arrow. 1250 Scale bars, $2 \mu m$.
- 1251

1252 **S17 Fig. Cellular alterations in heavily infected mosquito salivary glands**

1253 A. SBF-SEM section showing an alteration of the cellular interface with the secretory cavity at 1254 the point of entry of multiple WT sporozoites (asterisk). Intraluminal leakage of cytoplasmic 1255 material is indicated with an arrow. Scale bar, 5 µm. B. Fluorescence microscopy images of 1256 salivary gland distal lobes infected with rapamycin-treated ama1Con or untreated ron2cKO 1257 parasites. Samples were stained with Phalloidin-iFluor 647 (magenta) and Hoechst 77742 1258 (Blue). The right panels show mCherry (red), GFP (green) and Hoechst (blue) merge images. 1259 In both cases, the heavy parasite load is associated with internal alterations of the phalloidin 1260 staining, but the basal border of the lobes is preserved. Scale bars, 50 µm. 1261

1262 S18 Fig. Infection by AMA1- and RON2-deficient parasites is associated with a loss of 1263 integrity of the mosquito salivary gland epithelium

- Representative fluorescence microscopy images of salivary gland lobes infected with
 untreated (UT) or rapamycin-treated (+Rapa) *ama1*cKO or *ron2*cKO parasites, day 16 postinfection. Samples were stained with Phalloidin-iFluor 647 (magenta) and Hoechst 77742
 (Blue). The right panels show mCherry (red), GFP (green) and Hoechst (blue) merge images.
 Zones of retraction of the acinar epithelial cells are visible in the lobes infected with AMA1and RON2-deficient sporozoites (arrows). Scale bars, 50 μm.
- 1270 1271

1272 Supplemental movies 1273

Movie 1. 3D segmentation of a mosquito salivary gland infected with WT (PbGFP) sporozoites,
 day 21 post-feeding. Parasites appear in blue and secretory cavities in yellow. This movie
 corresponds to Fig S11A.

Movie 2. 3D segmentation of a mosquito salivary gland infected with rapamycin-treated
 *ama1*cKO sporozoites, day 21 post-feeding. Parasites appear in blue and secretory cavities in
 yellow. This movie corresponds to Fig S11B.

- Movie 3. SBF-SEM sections of a mosquito salivary gland infected with WT parasites, day 21
 post-feeding. This movie corresponds to Fig S12A-B.
- Movie 4. 3D segmentation of an untreated *ama1*cKO sporozoite invading a salivary gland cell,
 day 15 post-feeding. The invading parasite is colored in purple and the acinar cell in yellow.
 This movie corresponds to Fig 5A-F.
- Movie 5. 3D segmentation of the same invading untreated *ama1*cKO sporozoite as in Movie
 4, highlighting the apical organelles. The parasite appears in pink, full rhoptries in blue and
 empty vesicles in green. This movie corresponds to Fig 5A-C.
- 1292

1293 **Movie 6**. 3D segmentation of a rapamycin-treated *ron2*cKO sporozoite invading a salivary 1294 gland cell, day 15 post-feeding. The invading parasite is colored in purple and the acinar cell 1295 in yellow. This movie corresponds to Fig 5G-K.

1296



Е		DIC	mCherry	GFP	AMA1	merge
	<i>ama1</i> Con (+Rapa)	S.	-		-520	***
	<i>ama1</i> ∆utr (+Rapa)		۲			

F

		mCherry	GFP	Hoechst	AMA1	merge
ama1Con	5	X	X	•	1	1
	+Rapa	~		· •		
ama1Autr	5	((ł	(
umui∆uu	+Rapa				1	1



+Rapa

% sporozoites 40 20 0 Rapamycin + + --ama1Con *ama1*∆utr ama1cKO

+

Fig3



Ε



Fig4



÷ ron4cKO ron2cKO

+

-

Rapamycin

0 Rapamycin + ron2cKO ron4cKO

+

Fig5



Fig6



■ Intact ■ Retraction





GFP





С



Α



В





С











11 (14, 59) (189) 19 (15, 15) kb 2.0 -PbDiCRE gDNA 1.0 0.75 2.0 ron2cKO gDNA 1.0 -0.75

С



В



С



Α



В

ron4cKO



























В

