

**G-quadruplex DNA motifs in the malaria parasite *Plasmodium*
falciparum and their potential as novel antimalarial drug
targets**

Running title: G-quadruplexes in *Plasmodium falciparum*

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ABSTRACT

G-quadruplexes are DNA or RNA secondary structures that can be formed from guanine-rich nucleic acids. These four-stranded structures, composed of stacked quartets of guanine bases, can be highly stable and have been demonstrated to occur *in vivo* in the DNA of human cells and other systems, where they play important biological roles, influencing processes such as telomere maintenance, DNA replication and transcription, or in the case of RNA G-quadruplexes, RNA translation and processing. We report for the first time that DNA G-quadruplexes can be detected in the nuclei of the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*, which has one of the most A/T-biased genomes sequenced and therefore possesses few guanine-rich sequences with the potential to form G-quadruplexes. We show that despite this paucity of putative G-quadruplex-forming sequences, *P. falciparum* parasites are sensitive to several G-quadruplex-stabilizing drugs, including quarfloxin which previously reached Phase-2 clinical trials as an anticancer drug. Quarfloxin has a rapid initial rate of kill and is active against ring stages as well as replicative stages of intraerythrocytic development. We show that several G-quadruplex-stabilising drugs including quarfloxin can suppress the transcription of a G-quadruplex-containing reporter gene in *P. falciparum*, but that quarfloxin does not appear to disrupt the transcription of rRNAs, which was proposed as its mode of action in both human cells and trypanosomes. These data suggest that quarfloxin has potential for repositioning as an antimalarial with a novel mode of action. Furthermore, G-quadruplex biology in *P. falciparum* may present a target for development of other new antimalarial drugs.

48 **IMPORTANCE**

49 The malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum* has historically become resistant to
50 every antimalarial drug deployed, leading to a constant demand for new drugs and
51 novel molecular targets for their development. G-quadruplex DNA motifs have been
52 studied as a possible target for anti-cancer drugs, yielding an abundance of G-
53 quadruplex-binding compounds, several of which have undergone clinical trials
54 although none has yet reached the clinic. Here, we examine the existence and
55 function of G-quadruplex motifs in the *P. falciparum* genome, and investigate the
56 possibility of repurposing G-quadruplex-binding compounds as novel antiplasmodial
57 agents. We show that G-quadruplex DNA motifs can be detected in the *P.*
58 *falciparum* genome, and can modulate expression of a G-quadruplex-containing
59 reporter gene. We also show that one G-quadruplex-binding drug, which previously
60 underwent Phase-2 clinical trials, is potent and fast-acting against the
61 intraerythrocytic stages of the parasite *in vitro*. G-quadruplexes thus constitute a
62 possible new drug target in *P. falciparum*.

INTRODUCTION

Protozoan *Plasmodium* parasites are the causative agents of human malaria, a disease responsible for widespread morbidity and about half a million deaths each year (1). Most malaria deaths are caused by the species *P. falciparum*, although five other *Plasmodium* species also infect humans. *P. falciparum* has one of the most A/T-biased genomes ever sequenced, at ~81% A/T (2). Interestingly, not all *Plasmodium* species share this feature: the genome of the second major human malaria parasite, *P. vivax*, is only ~58% A/T, whereas the genome of the well-studied rodent malaria species, *P. berghei*, is more similar to *P. falciparum* at ~78% A/T (3, 4).

The A/T-biased genome in species like *P. falciparum* results in an extreme paucity of guanine-rich sequences, and hence of putative G-quadruplex forming sequences, or 'PQSs' (5). The G-quadruplex is one of many non-double-helical secondary structures that can be formed by DNA, alongside triplexes, hairpins, etc. To form an intramolecular G-quadruplex motif, four tracts of at least three guanines are required in close proximity, in order to form the type of structure shown in Figure 1A (6). Genome sequences can thus be mined for PQSs by searching for the consensus sequence $G_3 N_{1-7} G_3 N_{1-7} G_3 N_{1-7} G_3$ (7), although there is increasing evidence that G-quadruplexes may also fold with longer loops between the guanine tracts, with non-guanine 'bulges', and in 'inter-molecular' modes that involve both the sense and antisense strands of a DNA sequence (8, 9). Nevertheless, when the *P. falciparum* genome was analysed for conventional intramolecular PQSs, only 80 were found in genes or intergenic regions (5, 10). This translates to only one PQS per ~300kb of the non-telomeric *P. falciparum* genome, compared to an average of

one PQS per kb in the human genome (7). Several hundred PQSs were also found in the *P. falciparum* telomeres, which have the repeat sequence GGGTT(T/C)A and are inherently able to form G-quadruplexes (11, 12). Predicting the 'expected' PQS density of a given genome is not straightforward due to variable genome composition and biased base dyad frequencies, but under the simplest predictive algorithm (a Bernoulli stream of random bases at 81% A/T), a genome with the size and composition of *P. falciparum* contains no PQSs at all (5), therefore the maintenance of PQSs in specific genomic regions is likely to be biologically functional.

G-quadruplexes can have many important biological roles, including regulating telomere structure (13), inhibiting gene transcription (14) and promoting recombination, probably via stalling of RNA polymerases and replicative polymerases respectively (15, 16). In *P. falciparum* we have recently shown that PQSs are primarily clustered within the coding sequence or upstream of the major virulence gene family *var*, and that mitotic recombination events amongst *var* genes are strongly spatially associated with PQSs (5), so one role for G-quadruplexes in *P. falciparum* could be to promote the generation of *var* gene diversity. Here, we set out to establish experimentally whether G-quadruplexes are more broadly important for the biology of *P. falciparum*. If so, then interfering with G-quadruplex metabolism might be expected to affect the growth of the parasite and this would raise the possibility of repositioning G-quadruplex-binding compounds as antimalarial drugs. Many G-quadruplex-binding compounds have been developed in recent years, primarily as anticancer agents because several oncogenes such as *c-myc* are controlled by G-quadruplexes (14) and G-quadruplexes are also involved in telomere regulation (13). Thus, drugs that interfere with these processes can affect the viability of cancer cells more severely than normal cells. Similarly to rapidly-dividing

cancer cells, all single-celled eukaryotic pathogens must maintain their telomeres in order to survive as they replicate within their hosts, so telomere disruption would be one possible avenue for antimalarial activity of G-quadruplex-binding compounds. In fact, some such compounds have already been shown to bind to the *P. falciparum* telomere repeat (11). Alternatively, antimalarial activity might be achieved by disrupting the transcription or translation of essential G-quadruplex-containing genes, or by inducing a DNA damage response to G-quadruplex-stalled replication forks.

In addition to the established potential of G-quadruplex-binding drugs as anticancer agents, a precedent for their potential as anti-parasitic agents was recently published. Rudenko and co-workers, in the course of investigating RNA polymerase I inhibitors for their potency against *Trypanosoma brucei*, showed that the G-quadruplex-binding fluoroquinolone compound quarfloxin is trypanocidal with an IC₅₀ of only 155nM (17). Quarfloxin disrupts RNA polymerase I activity by binding to G-quadruplexes in repetitive rRNA genes in the nucleolus, disrupting their physiological interaction with nucleolin and ultimately preventing rRNA transcription (18, 19). Cancer cells are hypersensitive to RNA polymerase I disruption (20) so quarfloxin was originally tested against neuroendocrine tumours and leukaemias but it was found to have poor bioavailability and to accumulate particularly in blood cells (21). This latter property may have reduced its effectiveness against solid tumours but it raised the possibility of targeting intra-erythrocytic malaria parasites instead. We have tested this concept, showing that quarfloxin is indeed a potent and fast-acting antiplasmodial compound *in vitro*, but that its mode of action is probably different from that demonstrated on human cells and trypanosomes.

RESULTS

G-quadruplexes can be detected in *P. falciparum* nuclei

The existence of G-quadruplexes in the *P. falciparum* genome has been predicted bioinformatically (5, 10) and PQSs from this genome have been shown to fold into G-quadruplexes *in vitro* (10, 11). To visualise G-quadruplex structures in cultured cells, structure-specific antibodies can be used, as demonstrated in mammalian cells (22-24) and ciliate macronuclei (25). Using immunofluorescence microscopy, we tested whether the G-quadruplex-specific antibody IH6 (24) could similarly recognise G-quadruplexes in *P. falciparum*. Clear nuclear staining was seen in all intraerythrocytic parasite stages (Fig .1B) and DNase treatment abolished this staining (but not the staining of a parasite protein, ERD2, used as a control). RNase treatment, by contrast, had no observable effect (Fig. 1C). A second independent G-quadruplex-specific antibody, BG4 (23), also gave comparable nuclear staining (Fig S1). G-quadruplex structures in DNA therefore appear to be consistently present during *P. falciparum* intra-erythrocytic development.

G-quadruplex-stabilising drugs inhibit the growth of blood-stage malaria parasites

If the G-quadruplexes detected in *P. falciparum* are important for parasite biology, G-quadruplex stabilisation might be expected to affect the growth of the parasite. We therefore tested the effect of several G-quadruplex-stabilising compounds on the *in vitro* growth of *P. falciparum* in a standard 48-hour assay encompassing one complete parasite growth cycle (26). The antiparasmodial potency of the compounds N-methyl-mesoporphyrin IX (NMM) (27, 28), 5,10,15,20-tetra-(N-methyl-4-pyridyl)porphine (TMPyP4) (29) and quarfloxin (18) varied widely, with EC₅₀ values

161 ranging from 114nM for quarfloxin to 84 μ M for NMM (Fig. 2A). This variation could
162 be due to the compounds having different G-quadruplex-stabilising capacities or
163 varying affinities for different G-quadruplex isoforms, but it could also be due to off-
164 target effects (particularly given the high EC₅₀ values determined for some of the
165 compounds). Therefore, to focus on G-quadruplex-binding properties alone, we
166 directly compared the antimalarial potency of one of the compounds, TMPyP4, with a
167 closely matched analogue, TMPyP2, which is structurally very similar but has a
168 markedly lower G-quadruplex affinity via an alternative binding mode (30). Parasite
169 growth was affected ~ 18-fold more severely by TMPyP4 than by TMPyP2,
170 suggesting that unimpeded G-quadruplex metabolism does have an important role in
171 the healthy growth of parasites. Furthermore, the most potent antiplasmodial activity
172 in our panel of drugs was detected in quarfloxin, a drug that has already reached
173 Phase-2 clinical trials.

174 Factors affecting the viability of a compound as a potential antimalarial drug
175 include not only the EC₅₀ but also the rate of kill. Therefore, to further define the
176 antiplasmodial activities of the G-quadruplex-stabilising compounds, their initial rates
177 of kill were determined in trophozoite intraerythrocytic stages using the
178 bioluminescence relative rate of kill (BRRoK) assay (31). This assay uses a *P.*
179 *falciparum* clone genetically engineered to express a luciferase reporter gene under
180 a trophozoite-specific promoter. Thus it can determine the concentration-dependent
181 effect of a drug upon cell viability, by measuring the bioluminescence signal from the
182 rapidly turned-over luciferase protein. The loss of bioluminescence is benchmarked
183 against the loss caused by a range of antimalarial compounds with well-defined rate
184 of kill dynamics; shown here as dihydroartemisinin > chloroquine > mefloquine >
185 atovaquone (Fig 2B). Comparison of the loss of bioluminescence signal after 6 hours

of exposure to the G-quadruplex-stabilising compounds indicated a range of initial RoK, with the rank order: NMM > quarfloxin > TMPyP2 = TMPyP4 (Fig 2C). Relative to the antimalarial benchmarks, NMM exhibited a rapid cytocidal activity comparable to chloroquine; while quarfloxin was comparable to mefloquine at low concentrations and to chloroquine and dihydroartemesinin at high concentrations. Neither TMPyP2 nor TMPyP4 showed cytocidal activity during this 6-hour assay, potentially reflecting a lag-phase in their antiplasmodial activity (31). These data were consistent with BRROK data generated in a second strain of *P. falciparum* carrying the same luciferase reporter construct (Fig. S2A, B) and EC₅₀ values were likewise consistent across two different strains (Fig. S2C).

Quarfloxin targets all stages of the erythrocytic lifecycle, including the ring stage

Whilst G-quadruplexes can be detected at all stages of the intraerythrocytic cycle (Fig. 1B), the BRROK assay only effectively measures rate of kill in trophozoites because the luciferase reporter gene used in this assay is expressed from a trophozoite-specific promoter (31). We therefore investigated the cytocidal effect of quarfloxin and NMM at other stages of the erythrocytic cycle by visual assessment of synchronised parasites together with flow-cytometric measurement of their DNA content. Dead parasites do not synthesise new DNA, they tend to become visibly pyknotic and do not progress to the next morphological stage at the expected timepoint. Figure 3 shows that quarfloxin was highly active against ring stages, preventing the great majority of them from ever progressing to trophozoites. It was almost equally active against trophozoites, but less active against schizonts, a substantial proportion of which reinvaded to rings before dying in the next cycle. By

contrast, although NMM appeared to be more potent than quarfloxin in the BRRoK assay, it showed little activity against rings, which were largely able to progress to trophozoites (Fig.S3). Corroborating the BRRoK assay, however, NMM was potent against trophozoites and prevented them from progressing to schizonts. These data point to different modes of antiplasmodial action for these two G-quadruplex-binding compounds.

Quarfloxin does not affect telomere maintenance

G-quadruplex-binding compounds may kill cells via a variety of molecular mechanisms, including inducing telomere dysfunction, disrupting DNA replication or disrupting the transcription of important genes (such as rRNAs, as discussed in the introduction). The disruption of DNA replication seemed an unlikely mode of action for quarfloxin because it was highly potent against pre-replicative rings, but the disruption of gene transcription or an acute response to telomere dysfunction were both possibilities. We therefore investigated these possible mechanisms, starting with the possibility of telomere dysfunction because the great majority of the PQSs in the *P. falciparum* genome are found in telomere repeats (10). Parasites were grown in relatively low levels of quarfloxin (120nM, ~EC₅₀) that could be tolerated for up to 15 growth cycles, but no evidence of telomere shortening or lengthening was detected by telomere restriction-fragment Southern blotting after longterm exposure to quarfloxin (Fig. S4).

The mode of action of quarfloxin may involve deregulated expression of PQS-containing genes

234 To investigate the possibility that transcription of essential G-quadruplex-containing
235 genes was deregulated by quarfloxin, we assessed the transcription of a validated
236 G-quadruplex-containing reporter gene and also the transcription of rRNA genes.
237 Firstly, reporter genes were designed and constructed using PQS-encoding genes
238 that appear naturally in the *P. falciparum* genome. The predominant gene group
239 containing PQSs is the *var* virulence genes, but these are prohibitively large for
240 cloning and many of the *var*-associated PQSs actually occur in the *var* upstream
241 region rather than the coding sequence. Therefore, two genes from a second family
242 of variantly-expressed virulence genes were chosen: the *rifin* genes
243 *PF3D7_0700200* and *PF3D7_1254400*. Only three out of ~200 *rifin* genes encode
244 PQSs, compared to a larger proportion (30 out of 63) of the *var* genes (5) but
245 crucially *rifins* have small sequences of ~1kb that are tractable for cloning. The
246 complete ORFs of these genes were therefore cloned into expression vectors with
247 C-terminal tags which allowed their transcripts to be distinguished from those of the
248 many other highly-homologous *rifin* genes in the family. *PF3D7_0700200* encodes a
249 PQS in the sense orientation and *PF3D7_1254400*, in the antisense orientation. The
250 latter gene proved not to be expressed when transfected into parasites (a common
251 issue with variantly-expressed gene families, data not shown) but the other gene,
252 *PF3D7_0700200*, was successfully transcribed in transfected parasites.

253 To confirm that the PQS within this reporter gene could indeed form a G-
254 quadruplex structure, ¹H NMR experiments were conducted with a synthetic
255 oligonucleotide from this gene (Fig. 4A), revealing the presence of characteristic
256 imino protons signals (chemical shift between 10 and 12 ppm) when the oligo was
257 folded in the presence of potassium (Fig. 4B). The oligo also showed a 295 nm
258 thermal denaturation curve typical of G-quadruplexes, with a half denaturation (T_m)

at 49°C (Fig. 4C), indicating that the G-quadruplex formed by this sequence is likely to be stable at physiological temperature.

To confirm that this G-quadruplex structure could be targeted by G-quadruplex-binding compounds, parasites carrying the construct were treated for 6 hours with 0.75µM TMPyP4 or TMPyP2 (approximately the 48-hour EC₅₀ dose of TMPyP4). Because these compounds do not have any immediate cytotoxic effect, the 6-hour exposure did not cause any visible change in parasite morphology but it clearly suppressed reporter gene expression relative to the expression of housekeeping genes. TMPyP4 – which is the more potent G-quadruplex-binding analog – had a much stronger effect on transcription than TMPyP2 (Fig. 4D). The same assay was then carried out with ~ 48-hour EC₅₀ doses of quarfloxin and NMM, but owing to the rapid cytotoxic effect previously established for these compounds, only one hour of exposure was used in an attempt to avoid non-specific results associated with parasite death. Reporter gene expression was markedly suppressed by both quarfloxin and NMM (Fig. 4E).

Having shown that quarfloxin, in common with other G-quadruplex-binding compounds, can indeed affect the expression of a PQS-encoding gene, we turned to the expression of rRNA genes, which was previously shown to be suppressed by quarfloxin in both human cells and trypanosomes (17, 18). *Plasmodium* does not encode its rRNA in conventional tandem arrays and possesses only a few rRNA genes scattered on various chromosomes (2)(Fig. 5A): these are expressed stage-specifically with A-type genes being used in the blood stages and S-type genes in mosquito stages (32). Therefore, RT-PCR was conducted for the A-type genes after 1 hour of quarfloxin exposure, as in Fig. 4E. In contrast to the effect seen in *T.*

brucei, in which rRNA precursor transcripts were dramatically suppressed after just 15 minutes of quarfloxin exposure (17), there was no loss of these transcripts in *P. falciparum*; in fact the transcript level rose somewhat (Fig. 5B) and this effect was broadly mirrored in the level of mature 18S rRNA (Fig. 5C). Thus, the mode of action of quarfloxin in *P. falciparum* is evidently different from that previously characterised in both *T. brucei* and human cells.

As a fluoroquinolone, quarfloxin shares limited structural similarity with the well-established 4-aminoquinoline drugs (chloroquine, mefloquine, etc.), which kill *Plasmodium* parasites by inhibiting haemozoin crystallisation in the food vacuole (33). This therefore presented another possible mode of action for quarfloxin, but the drug's high potency against pre-replicative ring stages, the fact that its BRRoK profile is distinct from that of chloroquine, and the fact that the drug does not prevent haem crystallisation *in vitro* (Fig. S5) all suggest that quarfloxin does not actually act in the same mode as 4-aminoquinolines. The true target of quarfloxin in *Plasmodium* parasites remains unknown, but it is apparently neither the haem detoxification pathway (Fig. S5) nor the production of ribosomal RNA (Fig. 5).

DISCUSSION

This is to our knowledge the first experimental investigation of the biological roles of G-quadruplex motifs in the malaria parasite *P. falciparum*. We demonstrate that G-quadruplex DNA can be detected in this parasite and that disrupting the normal processing of G-quadruplex motifs impairs parasite growth *in vitro*. It is important to note that sequences with the potential to form G-quadruplexes are very scarce in the *P. falciparum* genome and that the G-quadruplexes detected in *P. falciparum* nuclei using structure-specific antibodies are likely to be primarily in telomeres, since the

majority of all PQSs in *P. falciparum* are tandemly arrayed in telomere repeats (10) and such antibodies probably cannot detect G-quadruplexes at single-motif resolution (34). (Indeed, the G-quadruplex signal seen in late-stage parasites appears to be strongest in nuclear-peripheral foci, as expected of telomeric DNA.) However, it is also important to note that the G-quadruplex-forming potential of the *P. falciparum* genome may be underestimated by standard *in silico* algorithms, as was recently demonstrated by sequencing the human genome with a G-quadruplex-sensitive method (8): this empirical approach detected many more G-quadruplexes than the *in silico* method of scanning the genome for repetitions of G₃N₁₋₇ (7). For the *P. falciparum* genome, a relatively relaxed predictive algorithm was used in our previous study (G₃N₀₋₁₁) and this still found just 80 non-telomeric PQSs (5); however, the algorithm will overlook many of the non-canonical G-quadruplexes detected in the human genome, such as ‘bulged’ G-quadruplexes (8) and inter-strand rather than intra-strand G-quadruplexes (9). Finally, the structure-specific antibody used here detects only DNA and not RNA G-quadruplexes, so the existence of RNA G-quadruplexes in *P. falciparum* remains to be confirmed.

Several G-quadruplex-stabilising compounds were shown to inhibit malaria parasite growth, including the Phase-2 anticancer drug quarfloxin, which was potent and relatively fast-acting against both ring and trophozoite parasites. An ideal antimalarial should kill parasites at all stages of the intraerythrocytic cycle (and, indeed, ideally at non-erythrocytic phases of the lifecycle as well). For example, the current first-line antimalarial drug, artemisinin, kills prereplicative ring stages as well as trophozoites and schizonts, whereas older antimalarials such as chloroquine and antifolates are highly active only against replicative stages. Whilst it is not essential to elucidate the molecular mechanism(s) of an antiplasmodial compound prior to

clinical development – indeed, the mechanism of artemisinin remains poorly understood – this information can help in predicting the development of drug resistance and cross-resistance. Therefore, we investigated the mode of action for quarfloxin. We found no evidence that quarfloxin kills parasites by inducing telomere dysfunction, despite the predominance of PQSs in telomere repeats, since telomere maintenance appeared to be normal after up to 15 cycles of growth in quarfloxin. This does not conclusively exclude the possibility of an acutely lethal telomere dysfunction being induced at higher drug exposures, but the tools to assess this in *P. falciparum* are lacking: the parasite lacks the variant histone γ H2AX (35) which is commonly used to detect DNA damage foci, and also lacks all components of the conventional telomere shelterin complex (36).

In the absence of any clear effect on telomeres, we assessed the possibility that quarfloxin might kill parasites by preventing the proper expression of G-quadruplex-containing genes. 41 PQSs are predicted in non-*var* genes (5), many of which may be essential (by contrast, *var* gene expression is dispensable *in vitro* (37), albeit vital *in vivo* for virulence phenotypes such as intravascular adhesion, antigenic variation and immune evasion). As proof of concept, a G-quadruplex-encoding rifin reporter gene was cloned, validated and transfected into parasites, and its expression was shown to be suppressed by all of the G-quadruplex-binding compounds tested. This is the first demonstration of G-quadruplex-dependent gene expression in *P. falciparum* and it conforms to a model in which sense-strand G-quadruplexes, when stably formed in DNA, can inhibit transcription by RNA polymerase II.

We then assessed the model for quarfloxin action that was previously reported in trypanosomes and human cells: suppression of rRNA transcription by RNA polymerase I (17, 18). We focussed only upon the nuclear rRNA genes, not those encoded in the apicoplast organelle, because interfering with protein synthesis in the apicoplast of *P. falciparum* gives a characteristic ‘delayed death’ phenotype, with death occurring only in the second growth cycle after drug addition (38), whereas the parasite death observed here with quarfloxin was very rapid, making apicoplast ribosomes highly unlikely to be a key target.

Although *P. falciparum* expresses its rRNA genes via RNA polymerase I, it does not maintain these genes in conventional tandem arrays (2) and furthermore, most of the parasite’s rRNA genes are not predicted to contain PQSs (5). Only one atypical locus on chromosome 8, *PF3D7_0830000*, which contains 5.8S and 28S rRNA genes but no 18S rRNA, contains a G₃N₀₋₁₁ motif. It is therefore arguably not surprising that we did not find any evidence for acute suppression of rRNA transcription by quarfloxin. Instead, other essential gene(s) that encode PQSs may be targeted by quarfloxin, and other G-quadruplex-related modes of action such as acute induction of DNA damage or telomere dysfunction cannot yet be ruled out. (It also remains possible that G-quadruplexes are simply not involved: we are currently conducting further work to establish quarfloxin’s actual mode of action in *P. falciparum*, having established that at least one other predictable possibility – the inhibition of haemozoin crystallisation – is not consistent with our data.) More generally, the very diverse rates of kill for the different compounds tested here suggest that they may vary not only in their absolute affinity for G-quadruplexes but also in the subset of G-quadruplexes that each compound targets within the genome.

In conclusion, this work shows that G-quadruplex-binding compounds may have the potential to be repositioned as antimalarials. Quarfloxin is potent and fast-acting (at least *in vitro*), it has well-characterised pharmacodynamics in humans as established from previous cancer trials, and the selective window is at least 40x on *P. falciparum* over human cells (111nM compared to 4.44μM on human breast epithelial cells, as reported by Kerry *et al.* (17)). G-quadruplex biology in malaria parasites thus constitutes an exciting area for future study, both to improve our understanding of basic biology and virulence gene control in this parasite, and also to support the discovery of novel targets for antimalarial drug development.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Parasite culture and drugs

The 3D7 strain of *P. falciparum* was obtained from the Malaria Research and Reference Reagent Resource Center (MR4) and the NF54^{attB} strain, from Professor David Fidock. The luciferase-expressing Dd2 strain is previously described (39). Parasites were cultured as previously described (40). Parasite growth and morphology was assessed on blood smears stained with Hemacolor (Merck). Synchronised parasite cultures were obtained by performing two treatments with 5 % D-sorbitol (41) 42 h apart, to yield an approximately 4-h window of ring stage parasites. 3D7 parasites were used in all experiments except the gene-expression studies, which were performed in NF54^{attB}, and the BRROK assays which were performed in both NF54 and Dd2 backgrounds. The compounds NMM, TMPyP4 and TMPyP2 were obtained from Frontier Scientific and quarfloxin from Tetragene LLC, solubilized in water and stored without exposure to light at -20°C.

Immunofluorescence assay

404 For G-quadruplex detection using the IH6 antibody, air-dried blood smears were
405 fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde/PBS for 2 min and then 90% acetone/10%
406 methanol for 2 min at 4°C. Smears were air-dried, blocked with 1% BSA/PBS and
407 sequentially treated with primary and secondary antibodies. Antibodies used were
408 the anti-G-quadruplex monoclonal IH6 (Biorbyt), rabbit polyclonal antibodies to the *P.*
409 *falciparum* cis-Golgi marker ERD2 (obtained from MR4, MRA-1 (42)), Cy3-
410 conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch) and Alexa Fluor 488-
411 conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For enzymatic treatments,
412 slides were incubated after fixation with 0.12 U μL^{-1} Turbo DNase (Albion) or with
413 100 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ RNase A (Thermo Fischer Scientific) for 1 h at 37 °C. Slides were
414 mounted with ProLong Diamond containing DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and
415 were imaged with an EVOS cell imaging system (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
416 Parasites were visualised and images captured using the same exposure for each
417 fluorochrome across all treatments.

418 For G-quadruplex detection using the BG4 antibody, parasites were first
419 removed from host erythrocytes using 0.4% saponin, then fixed in 4%
420 paraformaldehyde/PBS. Fixed parasites were dispensed onto a 12 multi-spot well
421 slide (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and air-dried. All subsequent steps were carried out
422 at room temperature in 10 μL volume. The parasites were permeabilized with 0.1%
423 Triton in PBS, washed with PBS, then blocked in 3% bovine serum albumin in PBS
424 for 1.5 h. Antibody staining steps were: flag-tagged BG4 antibody (EMD Millipore) for
425 1.5h; rabbit anti-flag antibody (Cell Signalling Technology) for 1.5h; Cy3 conjugated-
426 anti rabbit secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 1h. Slides were
427 washed three times with PBS after each step. Mounting and visualisation were as
428 described above.

Malaria SYBR Green I-based fluorescence (MSF) assay

MSF assays were carried out as previously described (26). Trophozoite-stage cultures (75 μ L, 1 % parasitaemia, 4 % haematocrit) were added to 96-multiwell plates containing triplicate wells of 75 μ L complete medium pre-dosed with compounds. On each assay plate, 3 wells containing 150 μ L trophozoite-stage culture (0.5 % parasitaemia, 2 % haematocrit) in the absence of drugs served as a positive control (100% growth). The outer wells of each 96-well plate were filled with 200 μ L of medium to prevent evaporation. Plates were incubated for 48 h in a gassed (1% O₂, 3% CO₂, and 96% N₂) chamber at 37 °C. Following this, 100 μ L of the sample from each well was mixed with 100 μ L MSF lysis buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 0.008% saponin, 0.8% Triton X-100) supplemented with 0.2 μ L mL⁻¹ of SYBR Green I (Sigma). After a 1-h incubation in the dark at room temperature, SYBR Green I fluorescence was measured using the blue fluorescent module (excitation 490 nm: emission 510-570 nm) of a GloMax multidetection system (Promega). Percentage parasite growth was calculated as follows: $100 \times [\mu_{(s)} - \mu_{(-)} / \mu_{(+)} - \mu_{(-)}]$ where $\mu_{(s)}$, $\mu_{(-)}$ and $\mu_{(+)}$ are the means of the fluorescent readouts from sample wells, from control wells without drug (100 % growth) and from wells with the maximum drug concentration (0 % growth), respectively. EC₅₀ values were determined by plotting log concentration normalized response curves using GraphPad Prism v5.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA) from the mean of three independent biological repeats.

Bioluminescence Relative Rate of Kill (BRRoK) assay

BRRoK assays were carried out as described (31). Trophozoite- cultures of Dd2^{luc} or NF54^{luc} (100 μ L, 2% parasitaemia, 4% haematocrit) were added to 96-multiwell

plates containing 100µl of pre-dosed complete culture medium (three-fold EC₅₀ dilution series, 9xEC₅₀ to 0.33xEC₅₀ for each compound tested), mixed by pipetting and incubated for 6 h at 37°C. Samples of 40 µL were removed from each well and the bioluminescence signal was measured using the luciferase single-step lysis protocol (43). Controls in each biological replicate consisted of trophozoite stage culture with no drug added (100% bioluminescence). The normalised bioluminescence data from three biological repeats was plotted as a proportion of the untreated control, with reference data for benchmark antimalarial compounds sourced from (31).

Flow Cytometry

Parasite cultures were washed in PBS and then stained for flow cytometry using SYBR Green 1 diluted 1:2000 in PBS, incubated at room temperature without light exposure for 20 minutes. Parasites were then fixed in 4% formalin (Sigma) in PBS, incubated at 4°C for 15 minutes, before thorough washing in PBS and analysis using forward scatter and the green fluorescence channel of a Guava easyCyte System (Merck Millipore).

Southern blotting

Genomic DNA was extracted from parasites using the QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit (Qiagen) and digested with restriction enzymes *AluI*, *DdeI*, *MboI* and *RsaI* as previously described (44). Digested genomic DNA was resolved on a 1 % agarose gel, transferred to GenScreen Plus (PerkinElmer) and hybridised with a probe specific for telomeres (45), labelled with alkaline phosphatase (AlkPhos Direct Labelling and Detection system, GE Healthcare) and then imaged according to the kit manufacturer's directions.

Plasmid construction and parasite transfection to generate Rifin-GFP reporter line

To generate the G-quadruplex reporter line the *rifin* gene *PF3D7_0700200* was amplified using the primers TGCCTAGGATGAAAATCCATTATATTAAT and ACCGTACGTTCTTTTAATAGTTTTATGTATG, then cloned upstream of the C-terminal GFP tag in the pLN-ENR-GFP plasmid (46) to generate the plasmid pLN-Rif0700200-GFP. NF54^{attB} parasites were transfected with pLN-Rif0700200-GFP and maintained on BSD selection as previously described (46, 47).

Biophysical characterization of G-quadruplex formation

Oligonucleotide TTTGGGAGGGCTTGTTCCGGGAATGGGTT was purchased from Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany) and was resuspended in MilliQ water to generate a stock solution at 400 μ M. Before experiments, the oligonucleotide was annealed by heating at 90 °C for 3 minutes. Cation solution (KCl or LiCl) and lithium cacodylate were then added to reach final concentrations of 150 and 10 mM respectively, and a pH of 7.4. For thermal denaturation, oligonucleotide final concentration was 2.5 μ M and UV absorption was recorded at 295 nm on a Uvikon XS spectrophotometer (Seconam), using 1 cm path-length quartz cell (Hellma, type No. 115B-QS, France). NMR samples were prepared by dissolving the oligonucleotides in H₂O/D₂O 95/5, lithium cacodylate 10 mM, pH 7.4 for a final oligonucleotide concentration of 200 μ M. NMR data were collected at 500 MHz on a Bruker Avance spectrometer (fitted with a TCI triple resonance cryo-probe with z-axis gradient). 1D ¹H spectra were recorded at a temperature of 25°C. Water suppression was achieved using excitation sculpting with gradients (48).

Gene expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted from mixed-stage cultures of parasites transfected with pLN-Rif0700200-GFP using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Extracted RNA was treated with DNaseI and cDNA was subsequently synthesised using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (BIO-RAD). cDNA was checked for genomic DNA contamination by PCR across the intron of the gene PF3D7_0424300, as previously described (49). Relative gene expression was determined by real-time PCR using a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR machine (ThermoFisher Scientific) and the SensiFAST SYBR Hi-ROX kit (Bioline) on synthesised cDNAs. Cycling conditions were 95°C for 3 minutes, 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds, 45°C for 40 seconds, 60°C for 1 minute. The three housekeeping genes used as controls were PF3D7_0717700 (seryl-tRNA synthetase), PF3D7_1444800 (fructose biphosphate aldolase) and PF3D7_1246200 (actin): primers for these genes are previously described (50). A1 and A2 rRNA transcripts, and mature 18S rRNA, were also measured using primers previously described (51). The GFP-tagged reporter gene was measured using the GFP-specific primers GATGGAAGCGTTCAACTAGCAGACC and AGCTGTTACAACTCAAGAAGGACC. $\Delta\Delta C_t$ analysis (C_t , threshold cycle) was used to calculate the relative copy number of each target gene relative to the average C_t of the three control genes. All experiments were conducted in both biological and technical duplicate.

Haem crystallisation assay

This assay was carried out as previously described (52), with the slight modification of using NP-40 rather than Tween-20 to initiate crystallisation (as per (53)). 500 μ M quarfloxin was added because previous work showed that the equivalent level of chloroquine could produce the maximal (75%) inhibition of crystallisation (52). The conventional readout of this assay, haem absorbance at 415nm, was precluded by

526 interference from the strong intrinsic colour of quarfloxin, and the assay could
527 therefore be assessed only by non-quantitative visual observation of the crystals
528 formed.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

LMH, KRM and FN conducted and designed experiments, analysed data and produced figures; MTF conducted BRRoK assays, NS and CD performed biophysical characterisation of G-quadruplex DNA; PD designed the BRRoK assays, analysed data and edited the manuscript; CJM designed the study, conducted experiments, analysed data and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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701

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: ***G-quadruplexes can be detected in *P. falciparum* parasites***

(A) Schematic of a G-quadruplex DNA motif. Guanine tetrads are shown as green squares and guanine backbones as dashed black lines. G-quartets stack on top of one another to form the quadruplex, which is stabilized by cations such as potassium (K⁺). An example of a PQS that could fold into such a structure is shown below.

(B) Immunofluorescence images showing G-quadruplexes detected with the structure-specific antibody IH6 in *P. falciparum* intraerythrocytic stages (3D7 parasite strain). Images are representative of 3 independent experiments, examining mixed-stage cultures.

(C) DNase treatment abolishes G-quadruplex (IH6) staining but has no effect on the distribution of a protein, ERD2, used as a control (middle row). RNase treatment has no discernible effect on G-quadruplex (IH6) staining (bottom row). Images are representative of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 2: ***G-quadruplex-binding drugs inhibit parasite growth***

(A) The G-quadruplex-binding drugs NMM, Quarfloxin, TMPyP2 and TmPyP4 inhibit the *in vitro* growth of *P. falciparum* (3D7 parasite strain) to varying extents. Percentage parasite growth is plotted as a function of [compound], error bars are standard error of the mean. The mean EC₅₀ values from 3 independent Malaria SYBR Green I-based fluorescence (MSF) assays are tabulated and 95% confidence intervals are shown.

(B,C) EC₅₀ concentration-dependent loss of normalised bioluminescence signal in BRRoK assays against (C) benchmark antimalarials and (D) G-quadruplex-stabilising compounds. The mean bioluminescence signal (normalised against an untreated control) remaining in Dd2^{luc} *P. falciparum* after a 6 h exposure to the indicated fold-EC₅₀ concentration of each drug or compound is plotted. Error bars represent ±SD from three biological replicates. ATQ, atovaquone; CQ, chloroquine; DHA, dihydroartemisinin; MQ, mefloquine; NMM, N-methyl-mesoporphyrin IX; QF, quarfloxin; TmPyP2, 5,10,15,20-tetra-(N-methyl-2-pyridyl) porphine; TmPyP4, 5,10,15,20-tetra-(N-methyl-4-pyridyl) porphine.

Figure 3: ***Quarfloxin kills ring-stage parasites as well as replicative stages***

Developmental stages of 3D7 parasites were assessed visually at 8 h intervals over a single growth cycle, starting at the mid-ring stage, either in the absence of drug or with quarfloxin added at 210nM (approximately 2x EC₅₀) at ring, trophozoite or schizont stages. Parasites were also analysed at 8 h intervals for DNA content by flow cytometry under each of these conditions. For morphology assessment, 50 parasites were counted at each timepoint and photographs show representative parasite morphology for each stage; dead parasites stained as a dense intracellular dot without clear morphological features. For flow cytometry, 200,000 parasites were counted in each sample.

Figure 4: ***G-quadruplex-binding drugs affect the expression of a G-quadruplex reporter gene***

(A) Oligonucleotide sequence from gene *PF3D7_0700200*, used in biophysical assays to confirm the folding of a G-quadruplex structure.

(B) ^1H NMR spectra, acquired at 37°C in 150 mM Li^+ (top) and 150 mM K^+ (bottom). Imino protons peaks are only present in K^+ , in agreement with the inability of Li^+ to stabilize G-quadruplex structures. The relatively low intensity of imino peaks in the K^+ condition seems to indicate the presence of a floppy structure, potentially the consequence of the second long loop.

(C) Stability of the G-quadruplex as evaluated by thermal denaturation, followed at 295 nm.

(D) Expression of the GFP-tagged G-quadruplex reporter gene *PF3D7_0700200* in transgenic parasite cultures treated with 0.75 μM TMPyP4 or TMPyP2 for 6 h.

Expression was determined by quantitative real-time PCR using primer pair *GFP_F/R* as compared to average expression of three housekeeping genes encoding actin, seryl tRNA synthetase and fructose bisphosphate aldolase. The experiment was carried out in both biological and technical duplicate, error bars are standard error of the mean and statistical significance was assessed by 1-tailed t-test (**, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$).

(E) Expression of the GFP-tagged G-quadruplex reporter gene *PF3D7_0700200* in transgenic parasite cultures treated with 120nM quarfloxin or 80 μM NMM for 1 h, determined as in (D).

Figure 5: ***Quarfloxin does not inhibit the expression of rRNA genes***

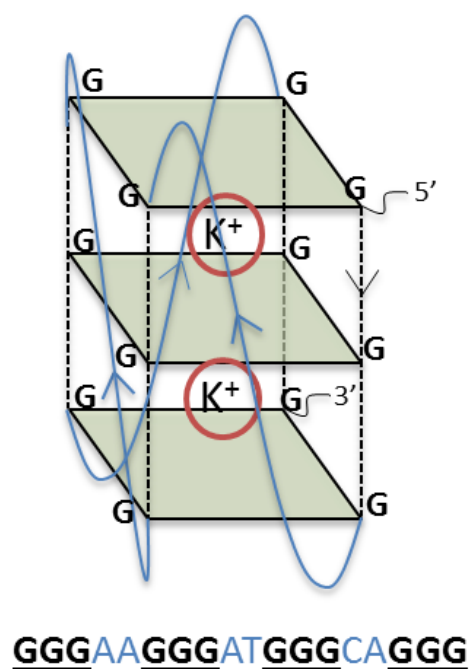
769 (A) **S**chematic showing the locations of rRNA-encoding units on the 14
770 chromosomes of the *P. falciparum* genome, together with their type (A, blood-stage
771 expressed; S, mosquito-stage expressed). The locations of primers used to
772 measure rRNA transcription are also shown.

773 (B) Expression of rRNA A1/2 transcripts in the same parasites as used in Figure 4E,
774 after treatment with 120nM quarfloxin for 1 h. Target gene expression was
775 determined relative to three control genes, as in Figure 4: error bars are standard
776 error of the mean and statistical significance was assessed by 1-tailed t-test (**,
777 $p < 0.01$).

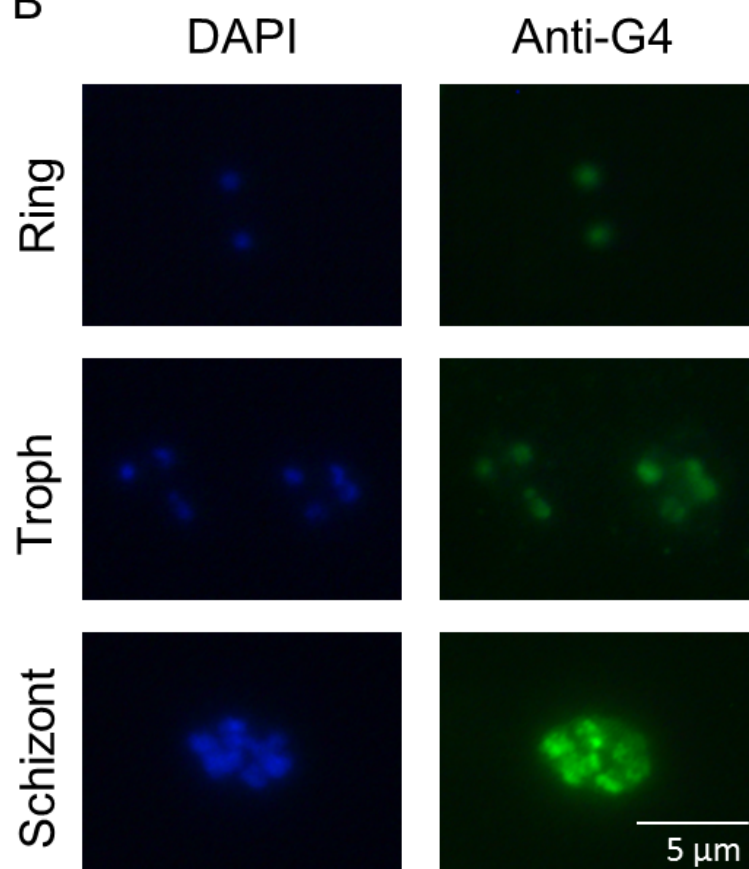
778 (C) Expression of mature 18S rRNA in the same parasites as used in Figure 4E,
779 after treatment with 120nM quarfloxin for 1 h.

780

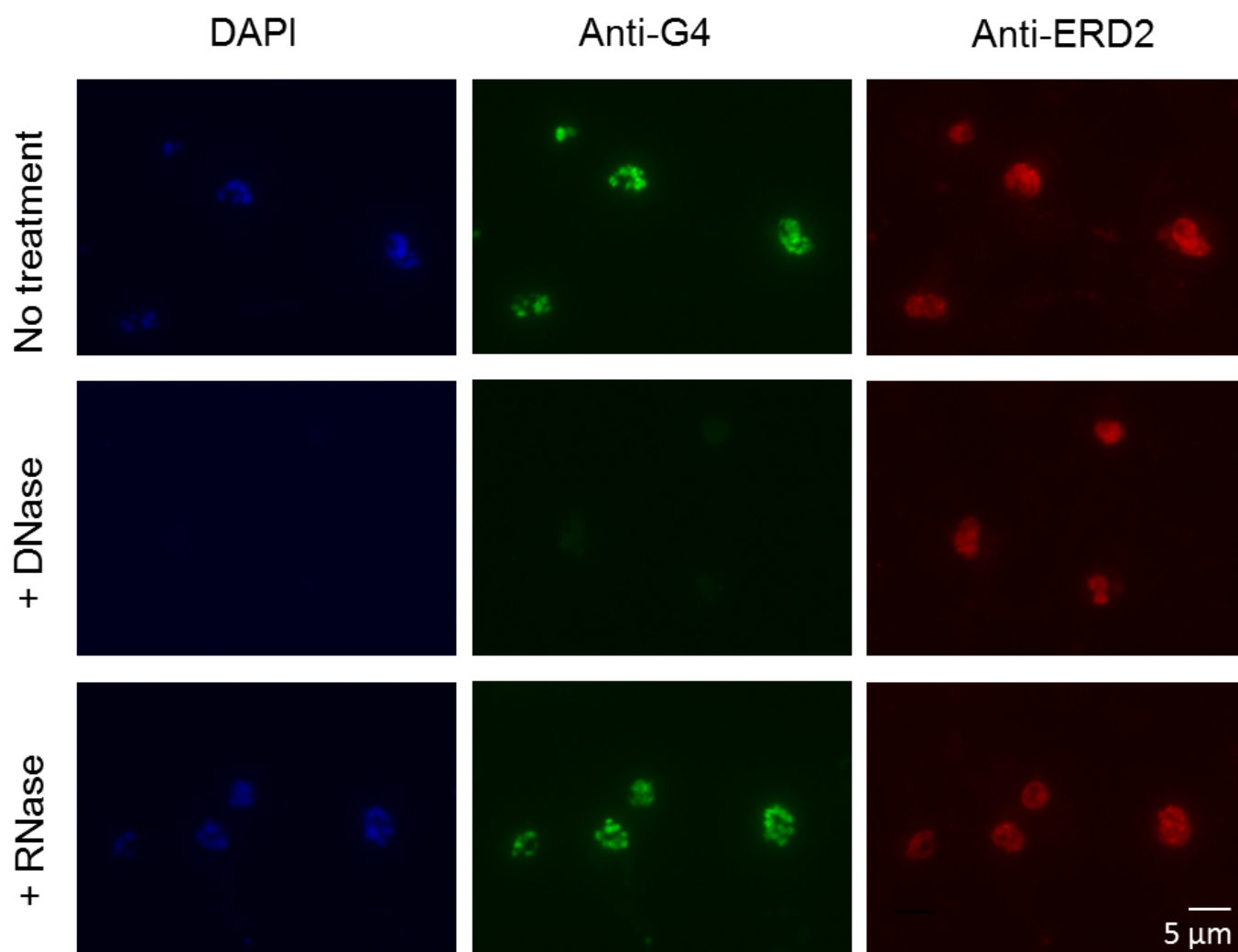
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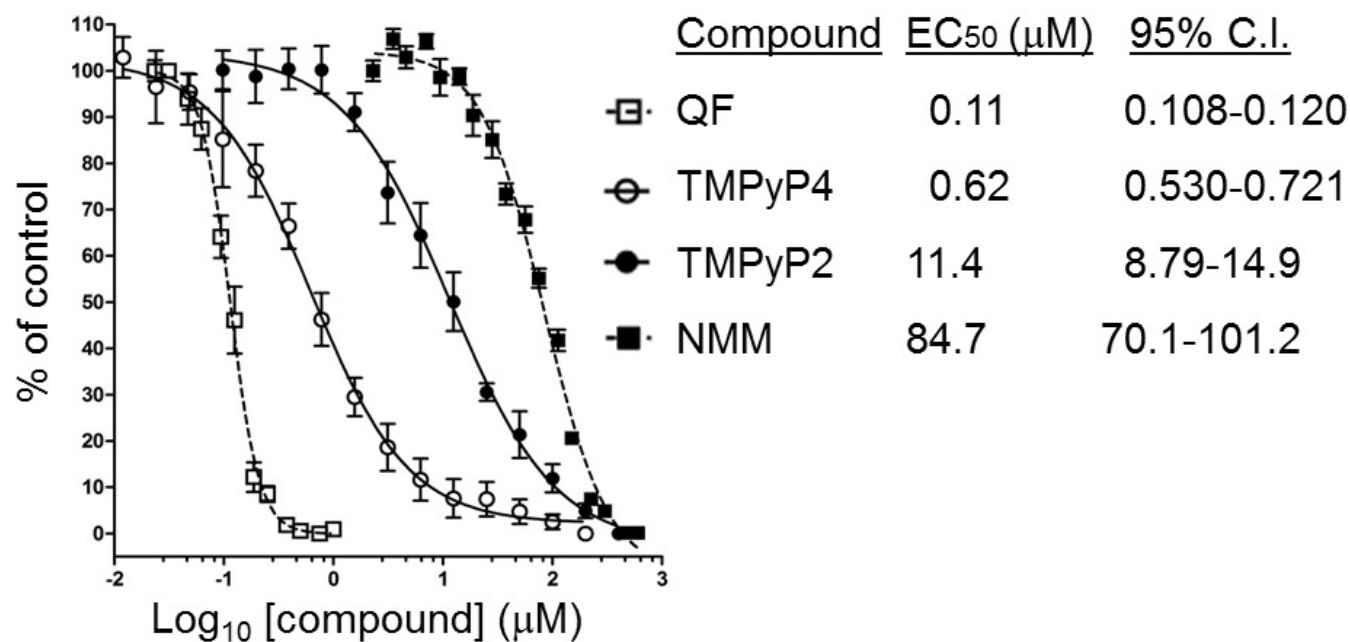
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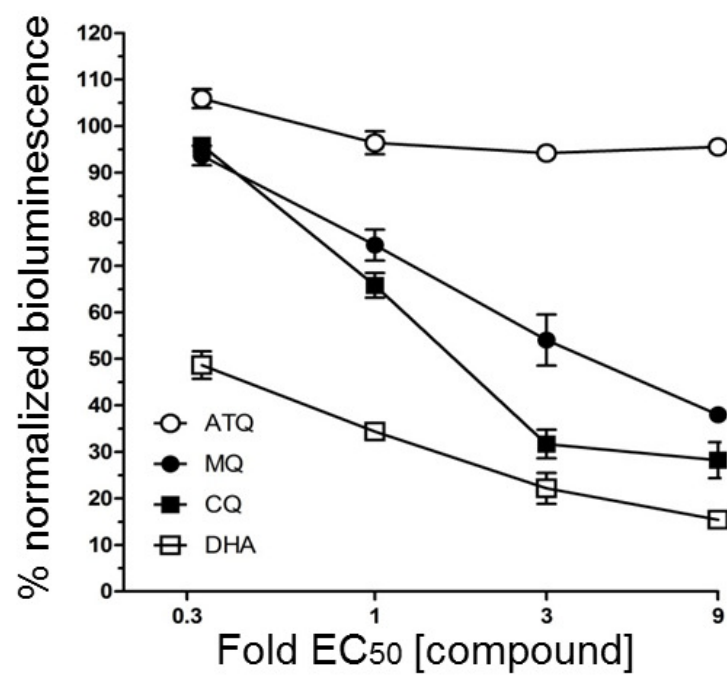
C



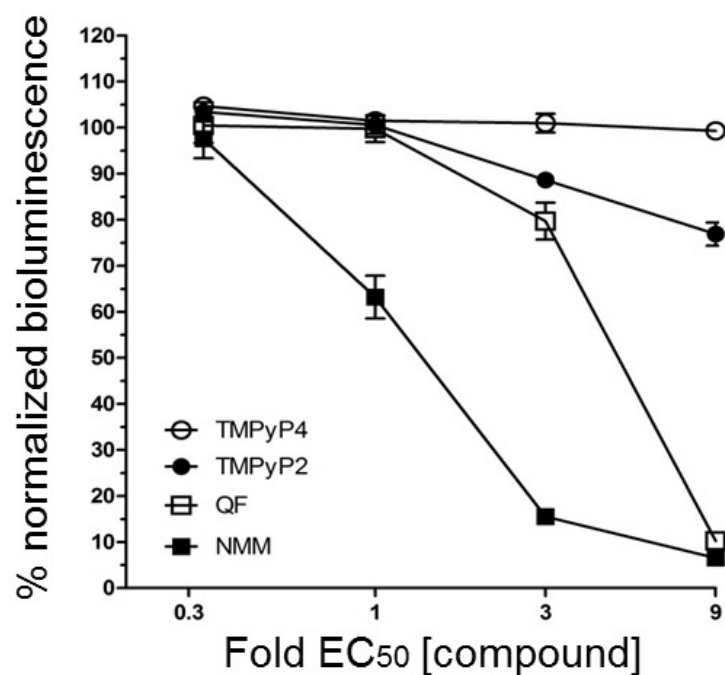
A

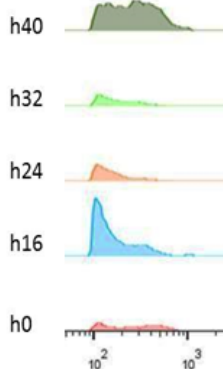
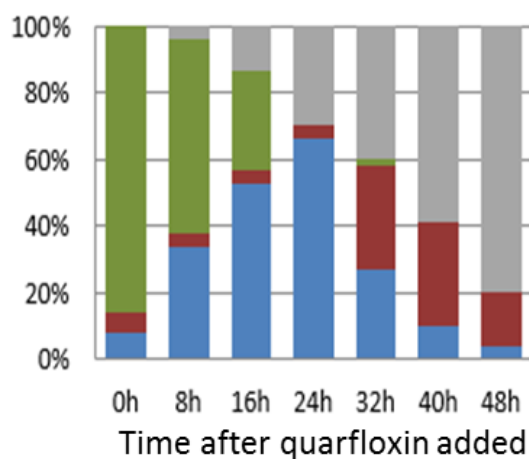
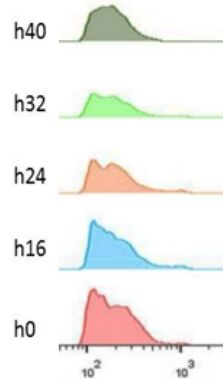
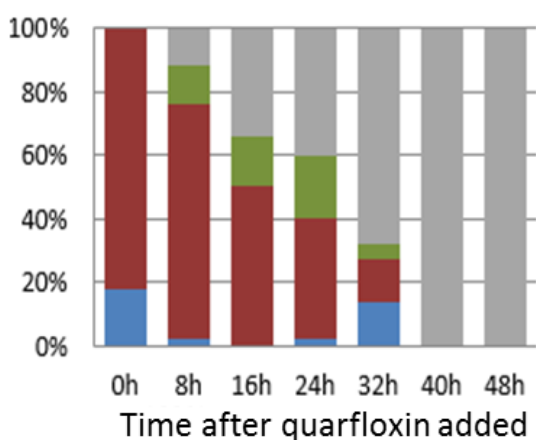
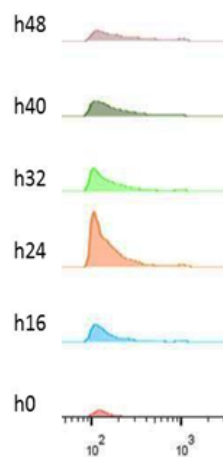
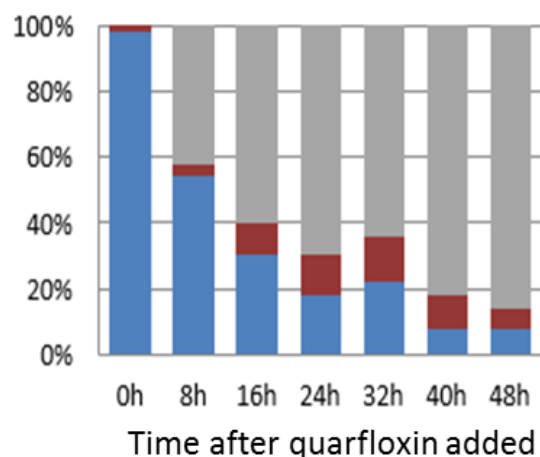
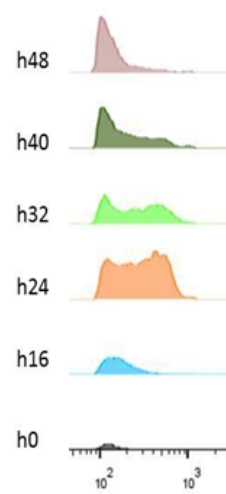
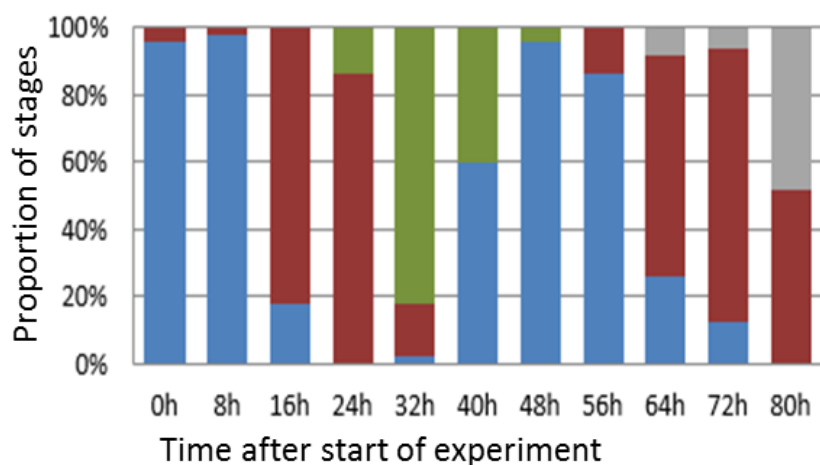


B

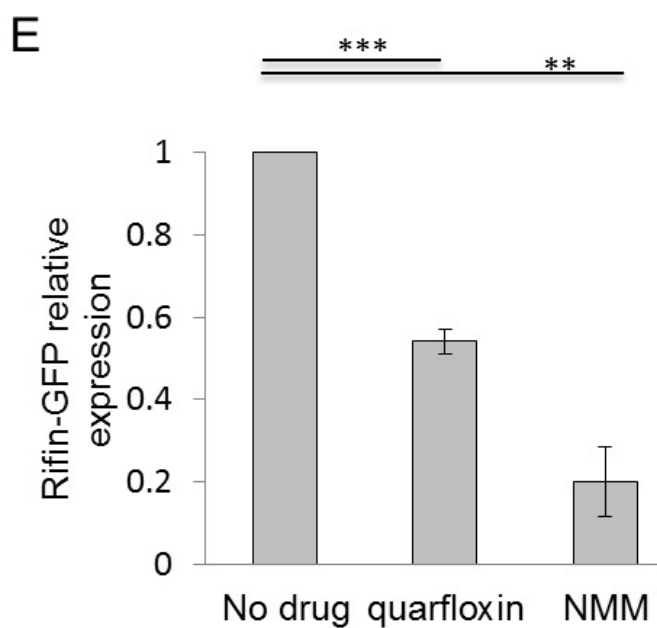
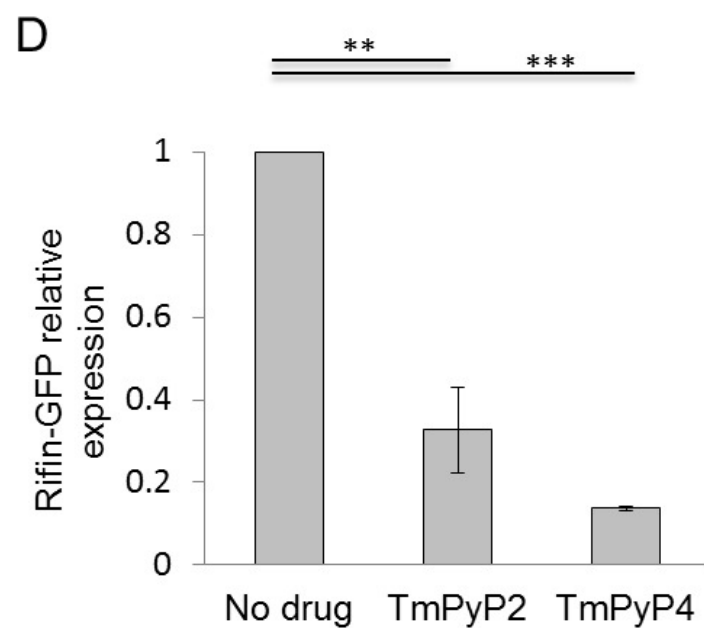
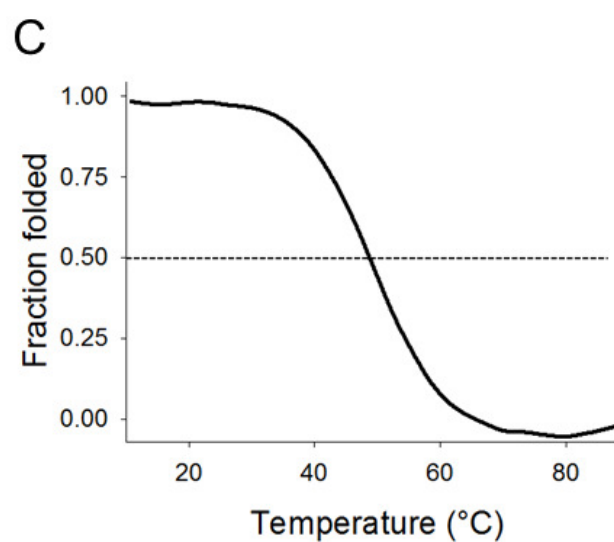
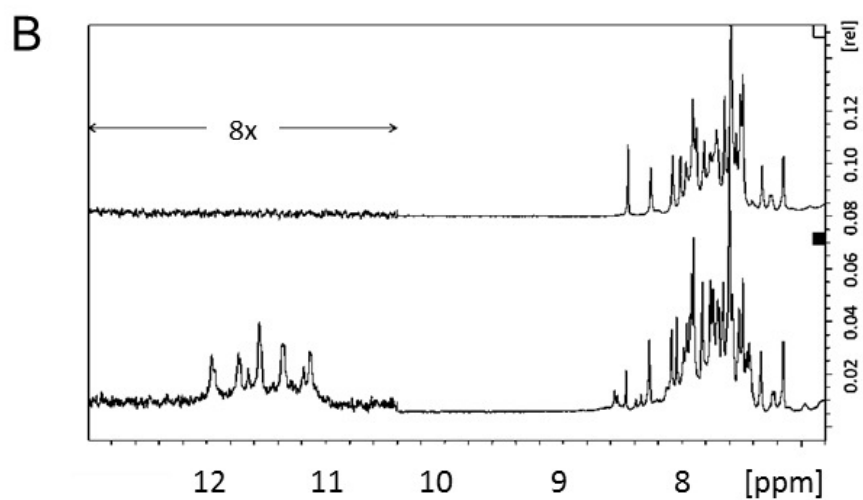


C

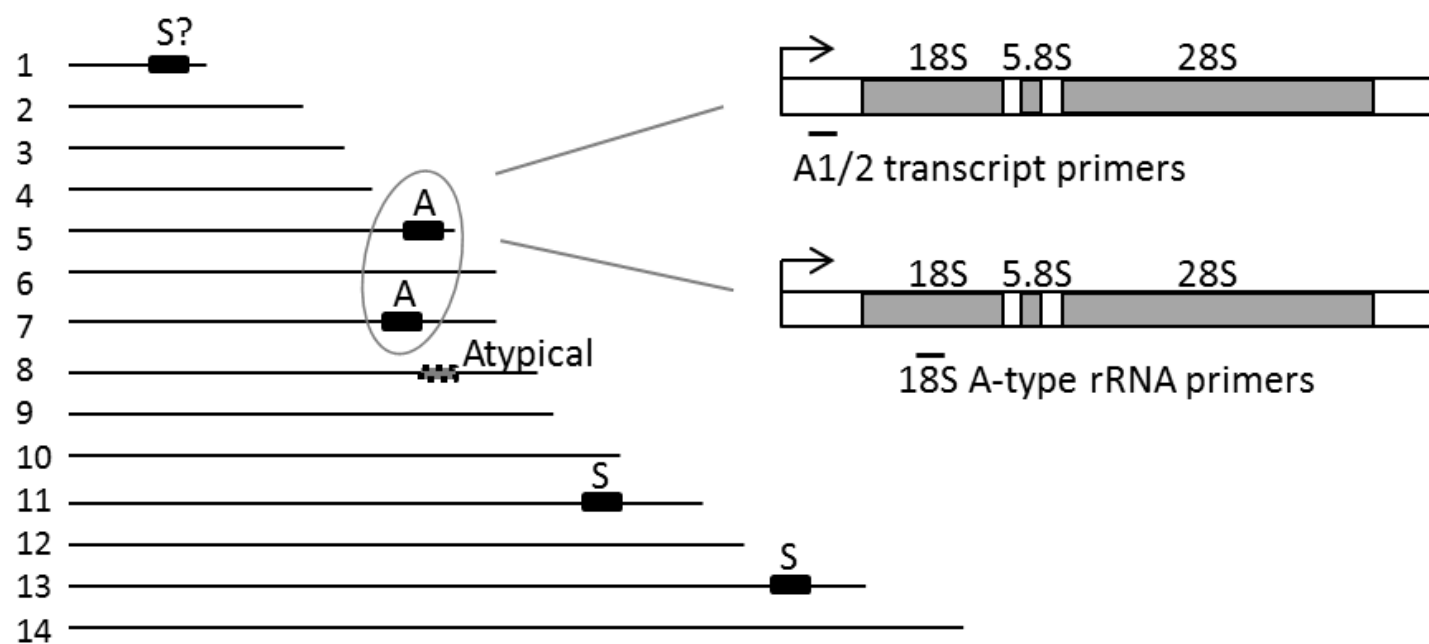




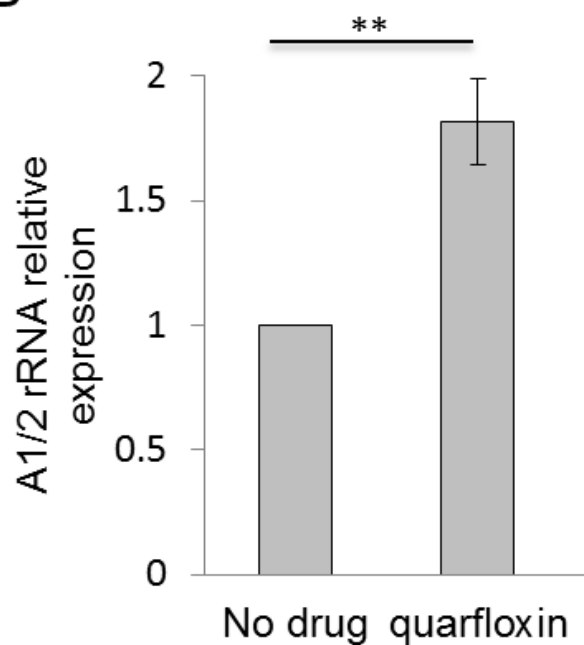
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A



B



C

