

**Identifying *Plasmodium falciparum* merozoite surface protein 1
variants in children with multiple malaria infections in Kilifi, Kenya**

By

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BSc. Biomedical Technology (UoN)

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Science in Biotechnology, University of Nairobi**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this research is my own work, and has not been submitted for examination in any other University.

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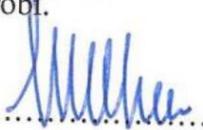
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMA-1	Apical membrane antigen 1
ABRA	Acid basic repeat antigen
bp	Base pair
CEBIB	Centre for Biotechnology and Bioinformatics
CCD	Coupled charged device
C-terminous	Carboxyl terminus
ddNTPs	Dideoxynucleotide triphosphates
dNTPs	deoxynucleotide triphosphates
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DBP	Duffy binding protein
DnaSp	DNA sequence polymorphism
EBA-175	Erythrocyte binding antigen 175
EIR	Entomologic inoculation rate
EGF	Epidermal like growth factor
ICB	Interspecies conserved blocks
kDa	Kilo Dalton
MEGA	Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis
MUSCLE	Multiple sequence alignment
MSP	Merozoite surface protein
GPI	Glycosyl phosphatidyl inositol
EBLs	Erythrocyte binding like proteins

MgCl₂	Magnesium Chloride
µl	Microlitre
ml	Millilitre
°C	Celsius degrees
mA	Milliamperes
N-terminus	Amino terminus
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PHYLIP	Phylogeny inference package
PVM	Parasitophorous vacuole membrane
PNG	Portable network graphics
PfRh	<i>P. falciparum</i> reticulocyte binding protein homolog
RBCs	Red blood cells
RBLs	Reticulocyte binding homologue proteins
SCF	Simple configuration files
SERA	Serine repeat antigen
SNP	Single Nucleotide polymorphism
Taq	<i>Thermus aquaticus</i>
Tgo	<i>Thermococcus gorgonarius</i>
UC	USEARCH cluster format (UC)
USEARCH	Unique search

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ABSTRACT

The *Plasmodium falciparum* Merozoite Surface Protein 1 (*Pf* MSP1), a predominant antigen on the surface of the asexual blood stage of the parasite, plays a role in erythrocyte invasion. It elicits immune responses during exposure to natural *P. falciparum* infections, hence, it is a potential vaccine candidate. However, its extensive sequence diversity causes antigenic variability. Parasites that express variants other than that targeted by immune protection mounted as a result of a vaccine variant, evade the resultant host immune protection. This compromises the efficacy of allele-specific vaccines formulated to protect against a single variant. Due to this, *Pf* MSP1 has been extensively studied, including in Kenya. However, the extent of *Pf* MSP1 diversity in children with multiple infections are unknown in Kilifi which is a moderate to high malaria transmission zone. Parasite genomic DNA was extracted from 421 blood samples in 33 children aged below 5 years who had at least 9 multiple infections. The *Pf* MSP1_{19kDa} region was amplified by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). Samples that generated good amplicons were sequenced and analysed for allelic polymorphisms using Sequencher 5.3 and MEGA 5.2 softwares. Sequence clustering and haplotype frequencies were done in 150 samples that generated unambiguous sequences using the Phyclust package in R programming and command line in executable USEARCH software. A total of 11 haplotypes distributed randomly across the infection episodes were identified. The Q-KSNG-L(36%), E-KSNG-L(26%) and Q-KSNG-F(18%) haplotypes were the most prevalent in this population. These haplotypes were mainly observed 2 to 3 times between consecutive infections in some children. Following such a pattern, the variants did not re-appear in the subsequent isolates from the respective child. This was due to the host immune responses that protected against those variants which were previously exposed to the child. The E-TSSR-L variant, corresponding to *P. falciparum* 3D7 isolate, a widely used allele for vaccine formulation, had a very low frequency (1.3%). These findings provide useful information in designing future multi-allelic malaria vaccines for deployment in endemics.

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Background

Being one of the world's most lethal diseases, malaria remains a scourge to humanity since antiquity. The etiological agent of malaria is an obligate eukaryotic intra-erythrocytic protozoan of the genus *Plasmodium*. This genus has more than 100 different species. *P. falciparum*, *P. vivax*, *P. knowlesi*, *P. malariae* and *P. ovale* are the main species in this genus that cause malaria in humans resulting in morbidity in the populations where they are endemic (Liu *et al.*, 2010; Francia & Striepen, 2014). *Falciparum* malaria is the most severe form of this disease in humans. The erythrocytic stages of this parasite are responsible for all symptoms and pathologies of the disease (Cox, 2010). The infected erythrocytes in some cases do not circulate in blood but get sequestered and adhere to the blood vessels. Destruction of red cells and blockage of vessels leads to hypoxia and toxemia in the visceral organs like the brain, kidneys, spleen and lungs, and in some cases causing cerebral malaria when in brain or in the placenta, malaria in pregnancy. Generally, the symptoms of malaria are; fever, headache, malaise, fatigue, muscular pains, and occasionally nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea (Miller *et al.*, 2002). All these symptoms can cause death if the patient is not treated in time.

Malaria thrives in the tropical areas of Asia, Africa, and Central and South America, where it is endemic. Even though, there have been major reductions in mortality and morbidity in these areas, malaria still remains a major paediatric killer in many parts of sub-Saharan Africa, which bears the greatest burden of disease (Nahlen *et al.*, 2005). Currently, there are approximately 219

million malaria cases and mortality rates of approximately 1 million cases a year in the world with most of these being in children living in sub-Saharan Africa (Murray *et al.*, 2012; World Health Organization, Tuschman, World Health Organization, & Global Malaria Programme, 2013). The 2010 Kenya Malaria Indicator Survey established that Kenya is among these countries, and nearly 28 million Kenyans live in areas of malaria risk, a majority of them are children under the age of 15 years who are regularly infected. The Kenyan lake and coastal zones have a high prevalence of malaria with high transmission rate due to the parasite thriving in the hot and humid climatic conditions of a tropical zone.

While anti-malarial drugs, insecticides on mosquitos and sleeping under long-lasting insecticide-treated bed nets have considerably reduced the burden of the disease in many areas (Gimnig *et al.*, 2003), these measures are now becoming decreasingly efficacious because of anti-malarial drug resistance in the parasite, insecticide resistance in mosquitoes, and socio-economic deficits and warfare in human populations (Bloland, Organization, & others, 2001). Studies done by Delves *et al.*, (2012) proved that free population movement within the globe is accountable for the introduction of resistant parasites to areas previously free of drug resistance.

1.2 Parasite life cycle

The malaria parasite undergoes a complex life cycle that requires both a human host and a female Anopheles mosquito as shown in Figure 1.1. When an infected female Anopheles mosquito bites a human during its blood meal, it injects saliva that contains anticoagulant into the skin. The saliva also has the infectious form of the parasite, known as the sporozoite (Bannister and London 2009). The sporozoites circulate freely in blood to the liver where they pass through Kupffer cells and

invade the liver cells (Cowman and Crabb 2006). In the hepatocytes, they undergo a phase of asexual multiplication (exo-erythrocytic schizogony) and transform the infected hepatocyte into a schizont, which harbours the infectious form of the parasite. This occurs between one to two weeks. Mature schizonts rupture and release about 8-16 invasive merozoites during egress into the bloodstream (Cox, 2010).

The released merozoites rapidly invade the red blood cells (RBCs), take up haemoglobin and begin the asexual schizogony blood-stage cycle through ring, trophozoite and schizont stages to produce 16-32 merozoites that are released upon rupture of the infected cell to the extracellular compartment. The newly released merozoites invade other RBCs (Figure 1.1b). This infection cycle is repeated almost indefinitely and is responsible for the clinical symptoms of the disease. Unless the cycle is stopped, it may lead to the massive destruction of the host cells.

Some of the merozoites growing in the RBCs may develop into male and female sexual forms known as gametocytes that remain circulating in the peripheral bloodstream. These will be taken up along with blood by the mosquito during its feeding (Figure 1.1c). Once in the mosquito's mid gut, the gametocytes develop into sperm-like male gametes or large, egg-like female gametes. Fertilization of the gametes occurs there to form a motile zygote known as the ookinete. The ookinete penetrates the gut wall after sporogony and produces an oocyst filled with infectious sporozoites. Mature oocysts rupture and release thread-like sporozoites that migrate to the mosquito's saliva-producing glands for injection into a human host during the next blood meal, hence, the cycle starts over again (Cowman and Crabb 2006; Iyer *et al.*, 2007; Miller *et al.*, 2002).

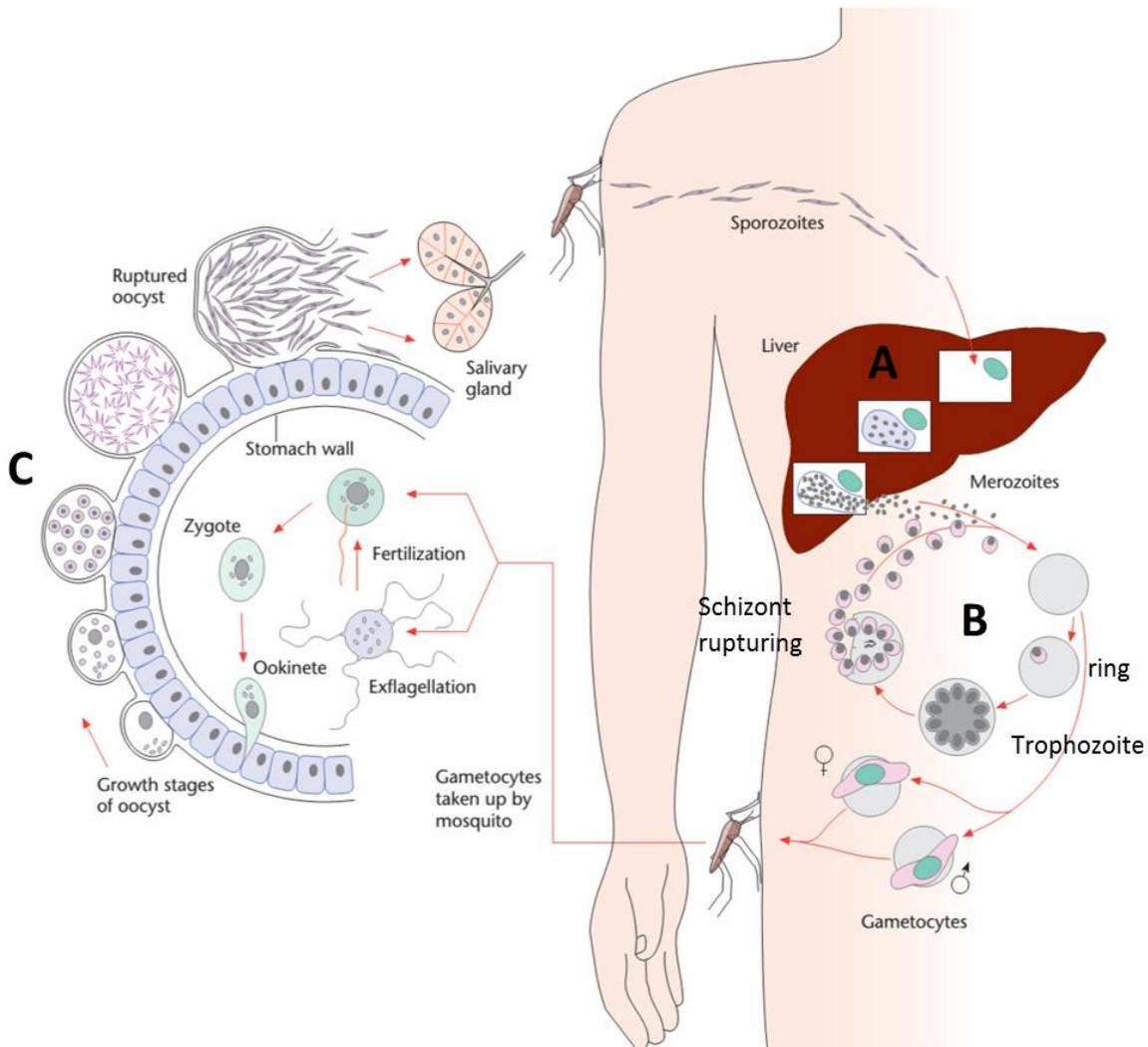


Figure 1.1: Life cycle of *P. falciparum* parasite

Main features of the life cycle of the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*, showing its different phases in vertebrate and mosquito hosts. (A) shows the liver stage of the parasite life cycle where the sporozoite invade the hepatocytes, mature and multiply in exo-erythrocytic asexual division and released in blood. (B) Shows the intra-erythrocytic cycle of the blood stage of the parasite, where the merozoites invade the red blood cells and others differentiate to gametocytes. (C) Shows the sporogonic cycle at the mosquito vector which multiply to sporozoite (Miller et al., 2002).

1.3 Invasion of erythrocytes by *P. falciparum* merozoite

Erythrocyte invasion by the parasite occurs at the merozoite stage of its life cycle. This process is complex and occurs rapidly in a cascade of events that involve a multi-step sequence in about 60 seconds as described by Dvorak *et al.*, (1975). The specificity for invasion is manifested through receptor- ligand interactions between the host cell and the invading parasite (Brown 1977; Haldar & Mohandas 2007). The initial contact between the merozoite and erythrocyte which occurs by random collision contact, is a crucial step, as the parasite must distinguish between competent erythrocytes for invasion and other cell types. This recognition and primary adherence is relatively long distance, apparently of low affinity and is reversible (Bannister & Mitchell, 2003).

The initial contact requires interactions of merozoite surface proteins (MSP) and specific receptors on the host cell (Aikawa *et al.*, 1978; Low *et al.*, 2007). Reorientation ensues after initial attachment and stimulates a rapid ‘wave’ of erythrocyte membrane deformation to juxtapose the apical end of the merozoite to the erythrocyte membrane. This allows a much closer interaction.

The re-orientated ‘apical’ end expels apical secretory organelles called the micronemes, rhoptries and dense granules towards the junction of invasion. Contents of these organelles play an important role in invasion as well as host cell modification after invasion (Haldar & Mohandas, 2007) resulting in an irreversible junction formation between the parasite and the host cell. The formed tight junction moves from the apical to the posterior end of the merozoite in a complex series of events powered by the parasite actin-myosin motor (Keeley & Soldati, 2004). As invasion progresses, a depression of the erythrocyte membrane deepens and conforms to the shape of the invading merozoite (Iyer *et al.*, 2007) allowing the parasite to push through and enter the

erythrocyte with the formation of an incipient parasitophorous vacuole membrane (PVM) as it sheds off its fuzzy coating covering the merozoite surface (Figure 1.2).

The PVM protects the parasite from the host-cell cytoplasm, thus it helps in forming an environment hospitable for the parasite development in the host cell. When the merozoite has completed its entry, the PVM seals and the junction fuses at its posterior end (Ford *et al.*, 2007; Gilberger 2003).

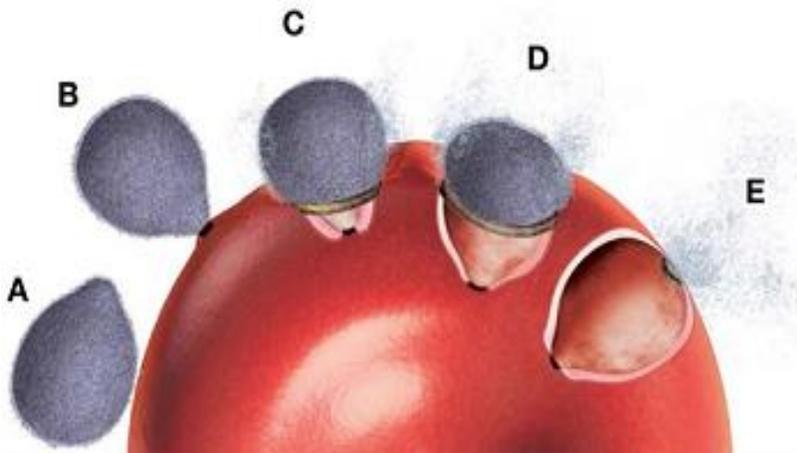


Figure 1.2: Process of RBC invasion

The process of erythrocyte invasion. (A) the merozoite makes an initial contact to the erythrocyte. (B) The merozoite reorients to juxtapose its apical end to the erythrocyte. (C) The merozoite indents the erythrocyte membrane and pushes in as it creates an incipient parasitophorous vacuole. (D) The invading merozoite sheds off its fuzzy coating through enzyme shedase. (E) The merozoite seals off the erythrocyte membrane once the tight junction reaches the posterior end of the parasite and initiate post invasion modification (Cowman and Crabb 2006; Cowman et al., 2012).

1.4 Molecular basis of invasion by merozoites

The merozoite is an ovoid cell and its apical end is a truncated cone shape (Figure 1.3). Its shape, surface proteins and its organelle contents are essential and adapted for erythrocyte invasion. The merozoite organelle repertoire, which include the apical complex of secretory organelles

(micronemes, rhoptries, and dense granules) play an essential role for the process of invasion. The contents initiate signal pathways both in the invading and the host cell to mediate the process of invasion. Dense granules are released soonest after invasion and include components of a putative protein translocon that is inserted into the PVM. Other ligands responsible for the process of invasion are glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchored membrane proteins and their associated partners, and peripheral surface proteins, all of which are largely expressed on the merozoite surface coat. (Sanders, 2005).

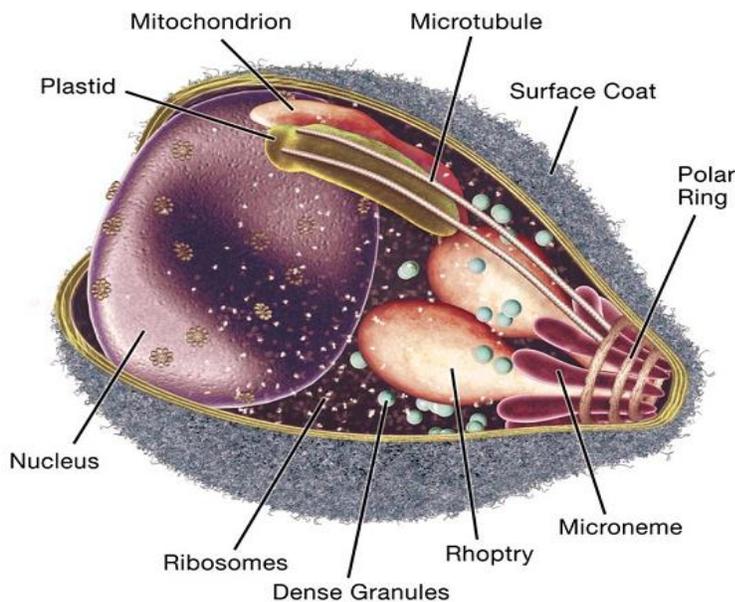


Figure 1.3: Fine structure of *Plasmodium falciparum* Merozoite

The molecular structure of the merozoite showing important organelles with their position in the merozoite. (Cowman and Crabb 2006).

Currently, there are eight GPI anchored proteins known and predicted to be located on the merozoite surface of *P. falciparum*, and a few have known potential erythrocyte ligands (Sanders, 2005) as seen in (Table 1.1). Besides the GPI anchor, many surface proteins share similarities including cysteine-rich domains that are of potential significance in adherence to the erythrocyte (Iyer *et al.*, 2007). Merozoite Surface Proteins (MSP), one among the eight GPI anchored proteins,

is largely expressed on the merozoite surface, and so is the only class with higher chances of interacting with the RBCs. There exist up to 10 MSPs based on functional conservation, sequence divergence and domain arrangement. Of them, MSP1 is the most dominant and abundant protein, and hence, has been well studied and characterized (Cowman and Crabb 2006). It signals the invasion process by interacting on the erythrocyte surface with its receptor, protein band 3, which is coupled to G- protein. The exact roles in erythrocyte invasion for MSP 2 -10 are not clear, however, they are believed to play an indirect role such as forming complexes with MSP 1 for initial interaction with erythrocyte surface (Lin *et al.*, 2016).

Other peripheral surface proteins involved in both primary and secondary contact include the acid basic repeat antigen (ABRA), Serine Repeat Antigen (SERA) and 6-Cys s48/45 protein family. The 6-Cys s48/45 include the Pf12, Pf41 and Pf113. Ultimately, no well-defined functional role has yet been ascribed to these Pf blood-stage 6-Cys proteins, however, they have been recognized by immune sera from individuals naturally infected with malaria (Tonkin *et al.*, 2013).

The microneme and rhoptry proteins which are secreted following reorientation play a role in secondary interaction to activate the process of invasion after the initial contact. They include the Apical Membrane Antigen 1 (AMA-1), the reticulocyte binding like protein homologues (RBLs) and Erythrocyte Binding like proteins (EBLs) as shown in Table 1.2 (Camus and Hadley 1985; Cowman and Crabb 2006). AMA-1, which is a trans-membrane protein located at the apical end of the merozoite and released prior to invasion. It plays a role in reorientation but also important in tight junction formation together with the RON protein family (Triglia *et al.*, 2000). *P. falciparum* reticulocyte binding protein homolog (*PfRh*) which has five members (*PfRh1*, *PfRh2a*,

PfRh2b, *PfRh4* and *PfRh5*) belongs to RBL family and are also important for secondary interactions with responsibilities for host-cell preferences (Triglia *et al.*, 2000).

Table 1.1: Properties of some GPI anchored merozoite proteins and their ligands

GPI Anchored Surface Proteins	
Name	Features, Structure and receptors
MSP-1	Proteolytic processing and removal of bulky complex is essential for invasion. Has two Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF) like domains. The C-terminal domain Binds to protein band 3 on the host cell (Kauth et al., 2003)
MSP-2	It is highly polymorphic; two major alleles functionally identical; potential species-specific function
MSP-4	C-terminal single EGF domain
MSP-5	Not required for invasion; homolog of MSP-4 Surface
MSP-10	Surface and apical appearance; C-terminal double EGF module
Pf12	Member of 6-cys family found on the surface-only
Pf41	Cysteine-rich surface protein
Pf113	Putative surface protein

PfRh proteins were identified as orthologues of rhoptry proteins in *P.yoelii* and *P.vivax* and they function cooperatively with EBLs in invasion of human erythrocytes (Galinski *et al.*, 1992; Preiser *et al.*, 2002 ; Lopaticki *et al.*, 2011).

The duffy binding-like (DBL) protein family, belong to the super family of EBLs (Miller *et al.*, 2002; Triglia *et al.*, 2000) and are characterized by a conserved cysteine-rich domain of approximately 35kDa that has been shown to directly mediate binding to host cell receptors (Gilberger, 2003). DBL proteins include Erythrocyte Binding Antigen (EBA) -175 (Camus and Hadley 1985), EBA-140, EBA-181 and EBA-165 (Gilberger, 2003). EBA175 is cardinal for junction formation signalling during invasion (Duraisingh *et al.*, 2003). Sialic acid on glycoporphins

of the erythrocytes are involved as receptor recognition for merozoite invasion after initial attachment. The receptors for EBA-175, EBA-140 and EBA-181 are glycophorin A, Glycophorin C and a trypsin resistant receptor respectively (Cowman and Crabb 2006). Furthermore, malaria merozoites can utilize independent pathways for invasion without sialic acid (Cowman and Crabb 2006; Kang *et al.* 2012).

Table 1.2: Properties of merozoite microneme and rhoptry proteins

Microneme Proteins	
Name	Features, Structure and receptors
AMA-1	PAN domains, polymorphisms surround conserved hydrophobic pocket (Triglia <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
EBA-140/BAEBL	Binds glycophorin C (Gerbich antigen)(Maier <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
EBA-175	Binds to glycophorin A; disruption in <i>P. falciparum</i> (W2mef) leads pathway switch to Rh4-dependent invasion/“handshake” association between region II dimers creates grooves for GlyA glycan binding (Gilberger 2003)
EBA-181/JESEBL	Receptor for the RBCs is unknown.
EBL 1	Binds to glycophorin B (Mayer <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Rhoptry proteins	
Rh1,2a 2b,3, 4,5	Receptors for Rh1, Rh2a and Rh2b are unknown. Rh3 is a pseudogene. Rh4 and Rh5 mediate erythrocyte invasion through Complement receptor 1 and Basigin receptors, respectively (Cowman <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Tham <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Wright <i>et al.</i> , 2014).

1.5 Immunity to invasion by merozoites

Clinical immunity to malaria is slow to develop and is short lived. One reason for this is the extensive diversity found in *Plasmodium* antigens, which facilitate parasite escape from host immune detection (Cowman *et al.*, 2012; Marsh and Kinyanjui 2006). But still single infections

are however important in developing initial low levels of immunity (Langhorne *et al.*, 2008). With repeated infection following recovery and increase in age, there is a shift from severe malaria to clinical malaria and eventually to asymptomatic parasitemia. Malaria exposure and also age have an effect on the natural acquisition of immunity (Langhorne *et al.*, 2008).

Previous studies have shown that immunity towards the parasite is mounted to various stages of the parasite life cycle, sporozoite, schizont, merozoite and infected erythrocytes (Langhorne *et al.*, 2008). But, because of its uniqueness towards its association with the disease clinical symptoms, the asexual stage merozoite invasion of erythrocytes represents an attractive target for both drug and vaccine endeavours towards malaria. The merozoite surface proteins, and in particular, MSP1 which is abundantly expressed on the merozoite surface, is one of the targets of immune attack by antibodies and has been shown to elicit both humoral and cell mediated immune responses during exposure to natural infections and in experimental immunization in mice and monkeys (Chang *et al.*, 1996; Guevara Patiño *et al.*, 1997). In some cases these antibodies have been shown to inhibit erythrocyte invasion. Thus, the selection pressure of the immune system on these proteins has been proposed to maintain the polymorphisms in these proteins (Ngoundou-Landji *et al.*, 2010).

1.6 *Plasmodium falciparum* MSP1

*Pf*MSP1 is a high molecular mass protein. It is largely disordered in solution, but has a propensity to form amyloid-like fibrils under physiological conditions (Low *et al.*, 2007). This protein is coded for by the *msp1* gene that is found in the middle of chromosome 9 of the parasite DNA. MSP1 is attached through its N-terminus to a GPI anchor. It interacts with the RBC receptor,

protein band 3, for invasion. It is synthesized as a large precursor during schizogony and is subsequently processed via proteolytic cleavage into four major polypeptides of approximately 83, 30, 38, and 42kDa from the N-terminus to C-terminus. During the invasion process, the C-terminal 42kDa fragment (MSP₁₄₂) is further processed into 33kDa (MSP₁₃₃) and 19kDa (MSP₁₁₉) fragments (Figure 1.4), and the latter remains on the merozoite surface and is carried into the invaded erythrocytes, but all the other fragments are released from the merozoite surface (Cheong et al., 2013). *Pf* MSP1 is schematically organized into 17 blocks based on amino acid sequence divergence (Figure 1.4). Studies have also revealed that there is an existence of interspecies conserved blocks (ICBs) in MSP1 containing polymorphisms in the central variable region in different types of *Plasmodium* species (Escalante et al., 1998; Kang et al., 2012 Mwingira et al., 2011).

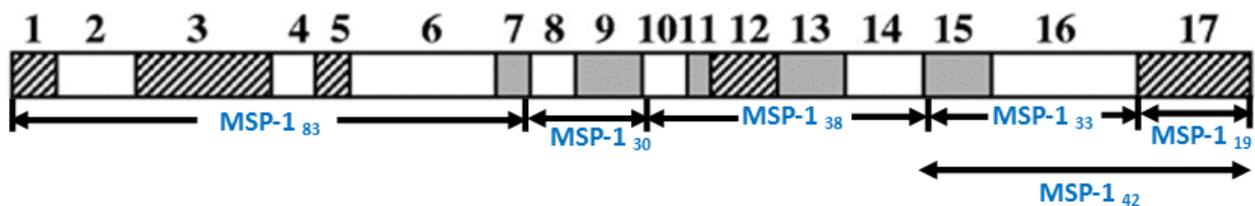


Figure 1.4: Mosaic arrangement of *P. falciparum* MSP1 protein

The sequence blocks are marked, the conserved blocks being hatched, semi-conserved blocks are filled, and oligomorphic regions are open. Sites where the precursor protein is cleaved to its major processing fragments MSP-1₈₃, MSP-1₃₀, MSP-1₃₈, and MSP-1₄₂ as defined by Mazumdar et al., 2010, Roy et al., 2008) are indicated by arrows. A secondary proteolytic process cleaves MSP-1₄₂ into MSP-1₃₃ and MSP-1₁₉. The latter protein is anchored in the membrane of the parasite via a GPI moiety at its N-terminus.

Substantial data from studies with *Pf* MSP-1 and *in vivo* immunization studies of mice with other *Plasmodium* species has indicated that the protective immune responses are specifically directed against the C-terminal 19-kDa domain (Cheong et al., 2013; Qari et al., 1998; Moncunill et al., 2013).

1.7 *Plasmodium falciparum* MSP1₁₉kDa

This is the smallest fragment that is attached to the merozoite at its N-terminus. The C-terminus of the MSP1₁₉ fragment found in block 17 (Figure 1.4) exhibits a remarkable structural and functional conservation across malaria parasite species. It has been shown to be the part of MSP1 that directly interacts with the G-coupled protein band 3 receptor on the erythrocyte. This fragment is folded into two epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like domains stabilized by 6 disulfide bonds.

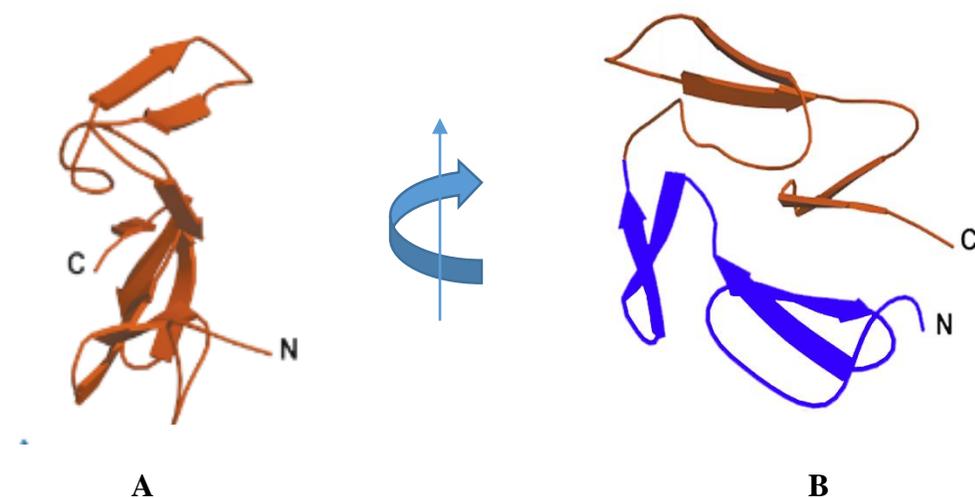


Figure 1.5: Crystal structure of MSP1₁₉kDa fragment.

An orthogonal view of the tertiary structure of block 17 of MSP-1 gene at 1.8 Å. The β -pleated sheets are shown as ribbons with an arrow for direction (B) shows the EGF-like domain 2 in red, and EGF-like domain 1 in blue. These domains are covalently bound (Pizarro *et al.*, 2003; Chitarra *et al.*, 1999).

The second EGF-like motif plays the binding role to the respective erythrocyte receptor. Antibodies to this region can block erythrocyte invasion *in vitro* and are associated with protection from clinical malaria in field studies (Egan *et al.*, 1996; John *et al.*, 2004).

The sequence of *Pf*MSP1₁₉kDa is highly conserved, however, six non-synonymous single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have so far been documented at amino-acid codon positions

1644, 1691, 1699, 1700, 1701, and 1716 (Takala *et al.*, 2007) (Table 1.3), and it is unclear how these polymorphisms affects immunity towards malaria.

Since *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa elicits immune responses (Guevara Patiño *et al.*, 1997) in natural and experimental malaria infections (Cheong *et al.*, 2013) and has been shown to have multiple polymorphisms it has been widely studied as a practical target for vaccine development. Such a vaccine would at least have an element focusing on preventing the interaction between merozoite surface ligands and the erythrocyte receptors, a short period in which the parasite is vulnerable to attack by the immune system (Cheong *et al.*, 2013; Ford *et al.*, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2014). However, the superlative approach is to have such a multi-allelic region incorporated with other antigens from the various stages of the parasite's complex life cycle (Osier *et al.*, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 2014) in order to have a more effective vaccine.

Studying *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa in different geographical malaria endemic areas add on the existing information about this domain and will provide further knowledge on its population genetics to inform future malaria vaccines, this formed the core rationale for this study.

Table 1.3: Comprehensive MSP1₁₉kDa haplotypes in the literature to date

Comprehensive list of MSP-1 ₁₉ Haplotypes								
Haplotype	Amino Acid Position						Isolate/Country	Reference
	1644 (E/Q)	1691 (T/K)	1699 (S/N)	1700 (S/N)	1701 (R/G)	1716 (L/F)		
1	Q	K	S	N	G	L	FVO, Wellcome	(Qari <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
2	E	T	S	S	R	L	3D7, MAD20	(Takala <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
3	E	K	S	N	G	L	FUP, Uganda-PA	
4	Q	K	S	N	G	F	T807, Thai	(Simpalipan <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
5	Q	T	S	S	R	L	Indo	
6	E	K	S	S	R	L	Kenya-2	(Qari <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
7	E	K	N	N	G	L	Kenya	"
8	E	K	S	S	G	L	Kenya-1	"
9	E	K	S	N	G	F	Kenya-3	"
10	Q	K	N	N	G	L	Thai Variant-1	
11	E	T	S	S	G	L	India	
12*	E	T	S	S	R	F	Brazil-1	
13*	Q	T	S	S	R	F	Brazil-2	
14	E	T	S	N	G	L	Vietnam	
15*	E	K	S	Y†	G	F	India	
16*	Q	K	S	S	G	L	Mali-1	(Takala <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
17*	Q	T	S	S	G	L	Mali-2	
18*	Q	K	S	S	R	L	Mali-3	
19*	Q	K	S	N	R	F	Mali-4	
20*	Q	K	S	S	G	F	Mali-5	
21*	E	K	S	N	R	L	Mali-6	
22*	E	K	N	N	G	F	Mali-7	
23	E	T	S	N	G	F	Kenya-4	(Kariuki <i>et al.</i> , 2013)

Asterisk (*) shows haplotypes that have not yet been found in Kenya

E- glutamic acid K- Lysine R-Arginine F-Phenylalanine
Q-Glutamine S- Serine G - Glycine
T- Threonine N-Asparagine L- Leucine

1.8 Justification

Malaria has plagued humans for many thousands of years, and despite attempts to eradicate it through concerted programs of antimalarial drug treatment as well as vector control, the causative agent has adapted to these challenges. Developing a vaccine towards malaria would be the most practical way to arrest this quagmire. Since merozoite invasion is one of the stages in the parasite life cycle that is susceptible to immunity, it is an area that has been given attention by many researchers. However, efforts to develop vaccines based on blood stage antigens of the parasite have been slow and unsuccessful. Most of the vaccines for malaria are based on the *P. falciparum* 3D7 laboratory isolate variant, which is not always present or is at a low frequency in natural populations, leading to failure of the vaccine if there is allele-specific immunity.

Polymorphic variant analysis of MSP1 in multiple sequential infections would help in the determination of variant changes in the infections and if immunity to the variants offers protection to successive infections, thereby potentially influencing the variant type in the next infection. It is expected that due to immunity, multiple variant infections will be observed. This study defines variants in multiple infections and provides data on the potential impact of an msp1 vaccine on allelic changes in a population. This would inform the number of msp1 alleles for inclusion in a multi-allelic vaccine formulation.

1.9 Research question and hypothesis

1.9.1 Research questions

Are there *Plasmodium falciparum* MSP1₁₉ polymorphic differences in sequential clinical malaria infections?

1.9.2 Research hypothesis

There are no *Plasmodium falciparum* MSP1₁₉ polymorphic differences in sequential cases of clinical malaria infections.

1.10 Objectives

1.10.1 General objective

To determine *Pf* MSP1₁₉ genotypes in parasites obtained from individuals with multiple malaria infections during a single malaria season.

1.10.2 Specific objectives

- To identify *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa gene polymorphisms in sequential clinical malaria infections.
- To determine allelic changes in individuals across the infections.
- To determine the population proportion of allele frequencies between infections.

CHAPTER 2

MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Study design

The study was conducted in a longitudinal set up that measured allelic patterns of the *Pf* MSP1 gene in every infection from individuals in a cohort of children who experienced at least 9 malaria serial infections. This was the minimal number of multiple infections that gave a sufficient number of individuals for inclusion in this study which aimed to look at the impact of multiple infections in a malaria season. This sample set helped in determining if different variants are observed in multiple infections. This work was under a wider research of integrated studies in natural immunity to malaria.

2.2 Study site

This study was conducted in Junju location in Kilifi county, Kenya (Figure 2.1). The county is a moderate to high malaria transmission zone with high malaria transmission rate ranging from 20 to 100 infective bites per person per year (Mbogo *et al.*, 2003). However, some recent studies have shown a reduction in transmission (Okiro *et al.*, 2007). Junju is located in the southern part of the county (Figure 2.1b) and is a moderate to high malaria transmission area than the northern parts of the county (Mwangi *et al.*, 2005). The county has a total area of 12,246 km² with a population of 1,109,735 inhabitants according to the 2009 census (county government of Kilifi, 2013). The 2008 Kilifi district report on short rainfall assessment shows that the county has a hot and humid

climate throughout the year, mean daily temperature ranges from 22.5⁰C to 34⁰C and a bimodal rainfall pattern. Thus, malaria in this region is seasonal coinciding with the rainfall.

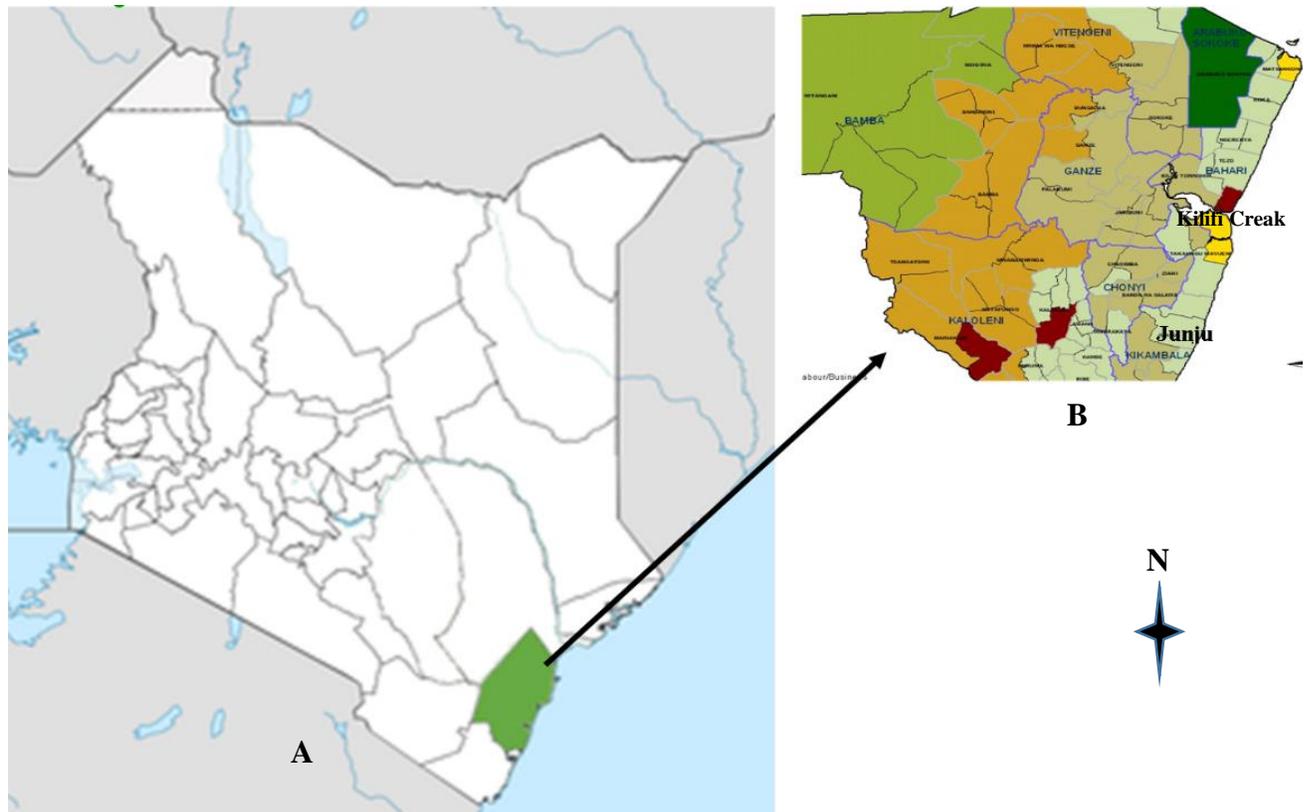


Figure 2.1: Map of Kenya showing Kilifi county and Junju

(A), is the Map of Kenya that shows county demarcations. The area marked green is Kilifi County which falls in the Coast region. (B), is the southern part of the county separated by the creek, and it shows the study site, Junju, which is found in Kilifi South sub-County.

2.3 Study population

Samples were collected in 2008 from children aged below 5 years during the malaria season. These participants regularly visited Kilifi district hospital through referral from Junju dispensary malaria study site every time they showed up with malaria symptoms. Venous blood was drawn from the subjects into indexed heparinized tubes and blood smears done to confirm presence of malaria

parasites. If positive for malaria, the samples would be stored at -80°C for the study. A total of 33 children who met the inclusion criteria of having at least 9 malaria infection episodes were included in the study, and their respective samples subjected to successive analysis. A total of 421 samples were collected all together from the eligible study population.

2.4 DNA extraction

Total DNA from the blood samples was extracted using QIAamp DNA and Blood Mini kits as per manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen). The protocol was based on using proteinase K (Qiagen) to lyse and elute the cellular components of the whole blood while nucleic acid was adsorbed onto the QIAamp silica-gel membrane in a brief centrifugation step. Salt and pH conditions of the elution buffer of the lysate ensured that protein and other contaminants, which could inhibit polymerase chain reaction (PCR) were not trapped on the QIAamp membrane. DNA bound to the membrane was then washed in centrifugation steps using buffers which came with the kit. This was to significantly improve the purity of the extracted DNA by removing any residual contaminant. The purified DNA was eluted into labelled 1.5ml eppendorf tubes and stored at -20°C following 1:10 dilution using the QIAamp kit elution buffer.

2.5 Amplification of 19kDa region in *Pf* MSP1 gene

*Pf*MSP-1₁₉kDa region from the total DNA, which is approximately 250bp, was amplified by PCR using gene specific primers for MSP-1₁₉ kDa region (Table 2.1) and Expand High Fidelity PCR system (Roche). This system is composed of a unique enzyme mix containing thermo-stable Taq and Tgo DNA polymerases with proofreading ability, polymerization and exonuclease activity.

Table 2.1: Amplification and sequencing primers for MSP1₁₉kDa region on MSP-1 gene

MSP1 ₁₉ kDa region Primers			
Primer ID	Oligonucleotide sequence	%G C content	melting temperature
F1	5'-CAATGCGTAAAAAACAATGTCC-3'	34.78%	50°C
R1	3'-TTAGAGGAACTGCAGAAAATACCA-5'	37.5%	52°C

Prior to running the PCR, thawed aliquots of homogenized reagents for PCR were used to prepare the master and the Taq mixes separately in amounts that would sum up to a final PCR reaction volume of 10µl per sample as seen in Table 2.2. Reagent preparation for the two mixes was done in two clean sterile 1.5ml eppendorf tubes on ice. The ice was used to keep the temperatures low to prevent the enzyme from starting the reaction until the mixture is taken to the thermo-cycler. The separate preparation of the mixes was intended to avoid the degradation effect of Taq polymerase nuclease activity on primers before the start of the reaction. The mastermix contained 25mM MgCl₂ labelled as buffer 4 in the Taq PCR kit (Applied Biosystems, USA), deoxynucleotide triphosphates (dNTP) mix for the bases (10mM of dGTP, dATP, dTTP and dCTP)s, 10µM primers and double distilled water (Sigma, UK) in volumes shown in Table 2.2. The Taq reaction mix contained the Expand High Fidelity Enzyme solution, Expand High Fidelity Buffer (10X) with 15mM MgCl₂ and double distilled water (Sigma, UK) in reaction volumes shown Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Volume of PCR requirements in microlitres

PCR Mix	Volume in μl for PCR reaction requirements in PCR tube per sample								
	DD H ₂ O	Buffer4	dNTPs	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer	Taq	Buffer2	DNA template	Total
Master Mix	2.7	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	-	-	-	4.5
Taq Mix	3.87					0.13	1.0	-	5.0
								0.5	0.5
Total volume in PCR tube									10.0

DDH₂O - Double Distilled water.

The amount of DNA template added was increased to 0.7 μl and 1.0 μl for repeats on samples that had not amplified on their previous runs.

All the PCR reactions were separately done in 0.2ml PCR tubes for every test sample in the thermocycler. However, prior to starting PCR, the mixes were vortexed and centrifuged to ensure homogeneity. A PCR optimization process was first performed by gradient polymerase chain reactions for the *Pf* MSP1 genes using *P. falciparum* 3D7 culture type as the positive control and double distilled water as negative control. The aim was to identify the desirable amplification conditions for the primers that could achieve a single and clear band characterizing good yield of PCR products. The amplification protocol chosen after trying a range of amplification conditions was as follows, DNA denaturation for 2 minutes at 94°C, followed by 9 cycles of 24 denaturation at 94°C for 15 seconds, primer annealing at 44°C for 30 seconds and then an extension step at 72°C for 2 seconds. The round of 9 cycles is followed by other 24 cycles with a gradual increase of elongation time by 5 seconds at each successive cycle. This time increment was necessary due to the reduction in Taq polymerase activity speed due to prolonged exposure on varied physical and chemical conditions.

Since the optimal amplification conditions for the target region of the *Pf* MSP1 gene using its specific primers was determined, it was set and saved as the PCR protocol for this study in the thermocycler. PCR for the 421 samples was then run in batches of between 22-30 samples including negative and positive controls. Distilled water and *Plasmodium falciparum* 3D7 were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. PCR mixes were therefore prepared using the protocol described in Table 2.2 for the batch size with one or two extra virtual samples to have excess reagent volumes. These extra volumes catered for any amount lost during pipetting. Volumes of 4.5µl of the master mix, 5.0µl of the Taq mix and 0.5µl of the test samples were aliquoted to each indexed PCR tube, respectively. These tubes were then inserted into the wells of the thermo-cycler (MJ Research PTC-100), and the PCR protocol was selected which lasted for 2 hours and 15 minutes.

2.6 PCR products analysis by agarose gel electrophoresis

After PCR, the amplicons were assessed for their quality by searching for bands in their respective lanes upon separating them using electrophoresis in 1% agarose gel. Any sample that had a single clear band in its lane upon viewing gel was considered positive in comparison to the controls. Samples that had very faint bands, smears or no bands at all were considered negative. PCR process was repeated for these negative samples by improving DNA amplification specificity through DNA template amount adjustment from 0.5µl to 0.7µl and 1.0µl, and increasing the annealing temperature slightly to 45°C while monitoring their bands. If still they had no bands, then they were confidently declared negative.

The gel was first prepared using previously made 1X TBE (Tris-Borate- EDTA) buffer at pH 8.0. The buffer was made briefly as follows, first, was the preparation of a half a litre of 0.5M EDTA solution with pH 8.0 by re-suspending 93.05g of EDTA (Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid) disodium salt in 400ml of deionized water on a magnetic stirrer. An amount of 9g of NaOH (Sodium Hydroxide) was then added while still stirring. The pH was adjusted and monitored to 8.0 using a pH meter by slowly adding 10N NaOH to the solution. Achieving the pH of 8.0 would ensure complete dissolving of the EDTA. The solution was then topped up to a volume of 500ml using double distilled water.

In a clean sterile bottle, a mixture 40ml of earlier on made 0.5M EDTA solution and 800ml of deionized water was used to dissolve 108g of Tris base and 55g of boric acid using a magnetic stirrer. The final volume was adjusted to litre by adding deionized water to make 10X of 1000ml TBE buffer.

The TBE working solution was regularly prepared in a volume of 500ml by topping up 50ml of 10X TBE stock solution to 500ml using deionized water to achieve a concentration of 1X in a clean sterile bottle.

A 1% (w/v) agarose was made by dissolving 0.3g of agarose powder (from Applied Genetic Technologies Corporation) in 30ml of 1X TBE buffer in a conical flask. This was boiled on a hot plate to ensure complete dissolving of the powder, then cooled using running water on the flask from the tap. Before the gel set, 2 μ l of SYBR® safe for DNA staining (from life Technologies) was added and the conical flask swirled to ensure even mixing. The lukewarm agar was poured in a level casting gel tray that had gel combs placed on one end to form wells for loading samples. This was left for 20 minutes for the agar to gel, after which the comb was removed and gel

submerged in the gel electrophoresis tank with TBE buffer (1X) as the electrophoresis running buffer. Mixes of 2µl for each PCR product and 2µl of the loading dye (6X Blue Orange from Promega) were loaded in the formed wells alongside 4 µl (microliter) of 1kb DNA ladder (HyperLadder 1, Bioline UK). The ladder was used as the standard DNA marker. Electrophoresis was done for a period of 30 minutes at 94 volts and at current of 400mA. To visualize the bands, a digital photography under UV (ultraviolet) light using The Molecular Imager Gel Doc (Bio-Rad., UK) was used. The images were captured, edited and saved in SCF (Simple configuration files) and PNG (Portable network graphics) picture formats. Positive samples were purified for sequencing.

2.7 Amplicon purification

Ethanol and Sodium Acetate precipitation method was performed on the successfully amplified PCR products to remove remnants of primers, dNTPs and buffers that hinder sequencing process. For purification, the PCR products were transferred from the PCR tubes to 96 well plates. The purification method involved constituting a purifying premix for the total number of amplified products to be purified plus an extra sample volume to cater for volume losses especially for ethanol which evaporates during pipetting. The premix constituted 3µl of 3M Sodium Acetate (Ambicon), pH 5.2, 62.5µl of 95% ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) and 24.5µl of distilled water making a final volume of 90µl per well. Into each well containing the PCR product, 90µl of the Ethanol and Sodium premix was added. After addition of the premix into each well, the plates were then sealed with micro-seals (Bio-Rad, USA) and incubated at -20°C for 30 minutes. After which they were spun at 3000 x g for 30 minutes at 4°C on a centrifuge (5810R bench centrifuge, Eppendorf). Seals were removed and plates were overlaid with absorbent paper towels then gently

inverted to drain them. Fresh paper towels were then placed on the inverted plates and spun at 50 x g for 1 minute at 4° C. A volume of 150µL of ice cold (-20° C) 70% ethanol was added into each well, then the plates were sealed and spun at 3000 x g for 10 minutes at 4° C, after which they were inverted again over paper towels and excess fluid gently drained. The plates were overlaid with clean paper towels, inverted and spun at 50 x g for 1 minute at 4° C. Finally, the plates were covered with fresh paper towels and left on the bench to air dry. After this clean-up process, 16µl of deionized water was added to each well to dilute the amplicons.

2.8 Sequencing

Sequencing services were outsourced from Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (Pty), South Africa. Since the approximate size for MSP 1-19kDa is 250bp, therefore, the sequencing primers described in (Table 2.1) covered the whole desired region considering the fact that sanger read length are of approximately 800 bp (Schatz, 2010).

The purified samples were first amplified using fluorescent BigDye Terminator v3.1 chemistry and sequencing primers. The subsequent products were later purified, reconstituted in HiDi formamide reagent and then denatured by heating the plates in a thermocycler in readiness for analysis by capillary electrophoresis using Applied Biosystems 3130xl genetic analyser. Incorporation of any of the four ddNTPs which were coupled to a special fluorescent dye of a different colour during BigDye PCR terminated the elongation process forming the basis of analysis. The fluorescently labelled DNA fragments, moves across the path of a laser beam and causes the dyes attached to the fragments to fluoresce and emit light at a different wavelength. The dye signals are separated by a diffraction system, and a charge-coupled device (CCD) camera

detects the fluorescence and converts it to digital data in form of a chromatogram. The fluorescently labelled terminated products from the sequencing reaction migrate through the polymer and as they pass the CCD camera which contains a laser detector, the fluorescently labelled products are detected as a colour signal. The DNA fragments are assembled by the analyser based on their sizes and a chromatogram sequence of the product is generated.

2.9 Sequence editing, assembling and alignments

The trace files generated by the DNA analyser sequencer from Applied Biosystems were imported into Sequencher software version 5.3 for quality check, editing and assembling. Samples that generated chromatograms with low peaks were re-sequenced. Following this procedure, all the trace files were trimmed off to remove low quality bases at the extreme ends of the chromatograms using the default settings of the software.

For each sample, trimmed sequences for the reverse and forward orientations were assembled into contigs against *P. falciparum* 3D7 MSP-1 sequence accession number PF3D7_0930300 downloaded from PlasmoDB (www.plasmodb.org) as the reference for scaffolding using the default assembling algorithm. Corrections of bases on the resultant contigs were manually done to ensure the correct base calling for the subsequent consensus sequences. These ambiguities and disagreements were resolved by referring to the chromatogram files of the respective reads in that consensus sequence and independent of the reference sequence. Clean scaffolds were saved as consensus files in FASTA (fast all) formats.

A multiple alignment of the consensus files for all samples and the reference was carried using the MUSCLE (Multiple sequence alignment) algorithm in the MEGA 5.2 program (Tamura *et al.*,

2011). Misaligned sequences were corrected manually and gaps in the aligned region resolved. The clean alignment was saved in FASTA format.

2.10 Sequenced data analysis

The saved multiple alignment in FASTA formats were imported in DnaSP V 5.10 for nucleotide polymorphisms identification (Rozas *et al.*, 2003).

The same FASTA multiple alignment file was exported to CLC[®] sequence viewer version 7 for further analysis. Sequences were trimmed to the same size. Sequences that had short read-lengths resulting in gaps at the outermost polymorphic sites were excluded. This is because, gaps tend to influence clustering results falsely. The successive sequences were realigned again against the reference and translated to amino acid sequence using the correct reading frame. This was to detect if Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNP) caused a change in the amino acid translated from the codon. The DNA sequence alignment was exported in PHYLIP (Phylogeny inference package) format and the amino acid alignment exported in FASTA format. These file formats were used for haplotype clustering and frequency determination using Phyclust package (Tzeng *et al.*, 2005) in R-programming and confirmed by command line in executable USEARCH (unique search) clustering algorithms (Edgar, 2010).

2.10 Ethical consideration

Written informed consent was obtained from the patient's guardian, parent or next of kin before sample collection. The whole study was approved by the Ethics Review Committee of the Kenya Medical Research Institute (Protocol number, SSC 1131).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 MSP1_{19kDa} amplification

This study was conducted on 421 DNA samples, and out of this 271 samples were successfully amplified. The remaining 150 samples were not amplified despite repeated PCR amplification attempts using a gradual increase in the template volumes. This could be due to low template concentrations and/or template degradations. The size of the amplified gene fragment was 250bp (Figure 3.1) in relation to the band size distribution of the 1kb DNA hyperladder. The use of controls ensured a quality check for the PCR reagents. There was no band on the negative control lane as opposed to the positive control lane (Figure 3.1.) This was an assurance that the PCR reagents were not contaminated.

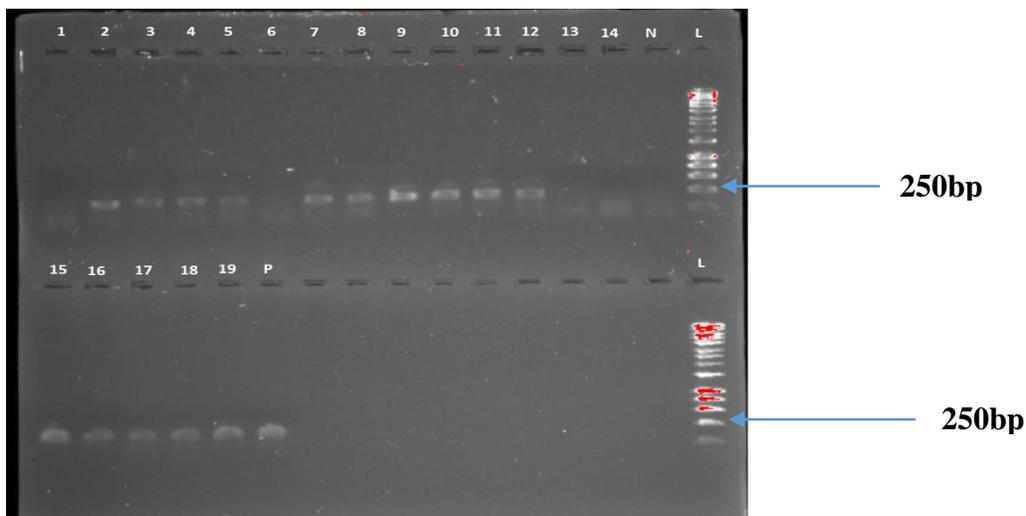


Figure 3.1: Gel image for MSP-1_{19kDa}

Bands in lanes 1 to 21 represents amplified products of different samples. The bands in lanes marked N and P represents the negative and positive control samples, respectively. The bands in the lane marked L represents the ladder. Samples in lanes with no bands did not amplify, hence, regarded negative.

3.2 Sequencing results

Nucleotide sequences of *P. falciparum* MSP1 gene block 17 were obtained from 178 samples that were sequenced. These samples yielded a clean chromatogram and comparatively tall peaks. However, only 150 samples assembled correctly against the reference, and had read length which covered the study *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa region from nucleotide positions 4990 to 5208 encoding the C-terminal fragment of the MSP1 protein (MSP1₁₉, amino acid positions 1644 to 1716). This was 33.3% of the total 421 parasite isolates collected. The 28 samples (which did not assemble) had short read lengths since one of either of its primer orientation failed to assemble against the other orientation and the reference due to poor peaks, which were quite below the lenient threshold, this resulted in short contigs.

3.3 MSP1₁₉kDa polymorphism analysis

Six dimorphic sites at nucleotide positions 4990 G/C, 5132 C/A, 5157 G/A, 5159 G/A, 5161 G/A and 5206 C/T in relation to *P. falciparum* 3D7 as the reference were detected. These nucleotide substitutions resulted in non-synonymous amino acid substitutions at codon positions 1644, 1691, 1699, 1700, 1701 and 1716 as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Synonymous and non-synonymous variations detected in MSP1₁₉kDa

Position	Ref. Codon	Ref. Amino Acid	Amino Acid Code	Variant Codon	Variant Amino acid	Amino Acid Code
1644	GAA	Glutamate	E	CAA	Glutamine	Q
1691	ACA	Threonine	T	AAA	Lysine	K
1699	AGC	Serine	S	AAC	Asparagine	N
1700	AGC	Serine	S	AAC	Asparagine	N
1701	AGA	Arginine	G	GGA	Glycine	R
1716	CTT	Leucine	L	TTT	Phenylalanine	F

the sample size, haplotype number and frequencies, and the net information (Tzeng *et al.*, 2005). However, even the rare variants were subjected for further analysis in this study.

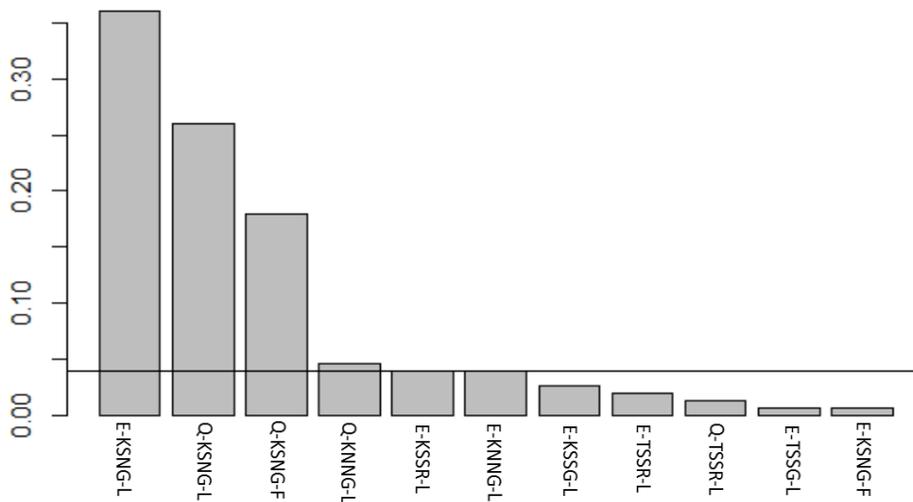


Figure 3.3: MSP119 Haplotype frequencies in decreasing order

Chart generated by Phyclus package for Sequence clustering in R programming language. The Y-axis shows the haplotype frequencies in descending order and the X-axis showing the haplotype name. The horizontal line is the cut-off point of the first 6 haplotypes.

3.3.2 Genetic diversity of *Pf*MSP-119kDa haplotypes

The genetic diversity of the *Pf* MSP119kDa in 150 parasite isolates obtained in 2008 during a malaria season which had a total of 6 segregating sites was defined by its nucleotide and haplotype diversity. The nucleotide diversity (π), mean number of nucleotide substitution of every site in the 150 sequences, was 0.00581 (Standard deviation of 0.00042) While the haplotype diversity (HapDiv), a measure of haplotype uniqueness in a population, for the 11 identified haplotypes was 0.782 (Standard deviation of 0.020) (Table 3.2) Statistical test of neutrality using Tajima's D in DnaSP software were performed to detect if the SNPs were under any selection pressure. The calculated Tajima's D value was 0.58998 (Table 3.2) above the p value of 0.05.

Table 3.2: Genetic diversity at the *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa domain

<i>Pf</i> MSP-1 ₁₉ -kDa domain							
No. of sequences	Size(bp)	π	HapDiv	K	Tajima's D	Fu & Li D	Fu & Li F
150	234	0.00587	0.769	1.37441	0.58998	1.08750	1.08945

π , Nucleotide diversity (standard deviation), *Nhap*- Number of haplotypes, *HapDiv*- Haplotype diversity and *K*- Average number of nucleotide differences.

For Tajima's *D*, $p > 0.10$; for Fu and Li's analysis, $p > 0.05$. These values were calculated using DnaSP 5.10.

The same neutrality tests was computed for the target region using a sliding window length of 50 sites long, with a step size of 5 bases (Figure 3.4). This analysis aimed at finding which mutations were influencing the high values within the sequence. The graph showed that the first and sixth segregating sites had Tajima's *D* values greater than the *p* value (0.05), which meant the mutation in those sites was neutral, as opposed to segregating sites 2, 3, 4 and 5 which had significant Tajima's values.

3.4 Allelic changes within infections

Out of the 33 children sampled, variant information for 3 children labelled as patient IDs 5, 6 and 7 was not acquired. Out of the 30 children who had at least one variant in their infection episodes, 13 (shown by patient ID with asterisk in Figure 3.5) of them, had E-KSNG-L, Q-KSNG-L and Q-KSNG-F variants, which were dominant alleles in the study. These alleles were observed 2 to 3 times in most of the consecutive infections within the children. The other 8 variants were rare with a prevalence of < 10%. However, the Q-KNNG-L, E-KSSR-L and E-KNNG-L rare variants (retained above the cut-off point based on Tzeng's method of haplotype grouping), were sparsely distributed within the infections in the 30 children.

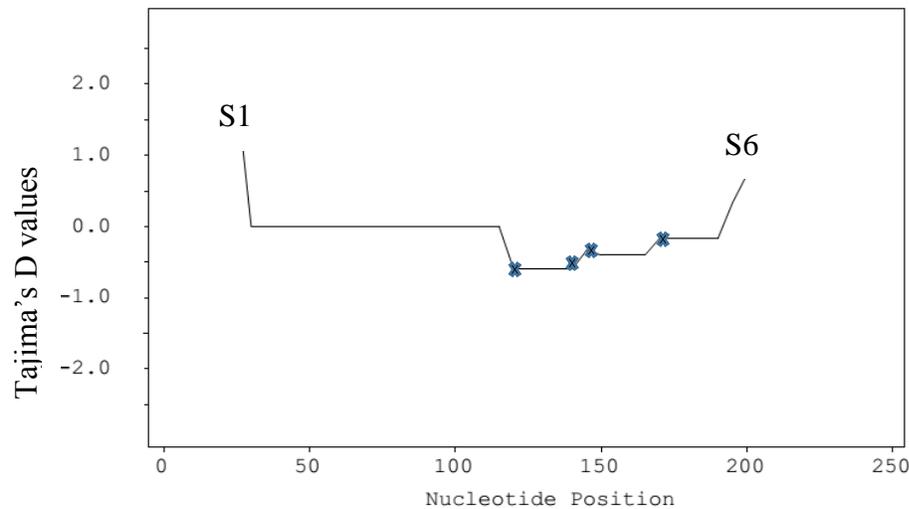


Figure 3.4: Tajima's D window sliding graph

The graph line shows the relationship between the nucleotide position on the x-axis and the Tajima's D values on the y-axis. *The Tajima's value for the region labelled S1 and S6 (segregating site) found between nucleotide positions (1-50) and (170-234) respectively were not significant ($p>0.05$), While the middle segregating sites marked by X were significant ($p>0.05$).*

The other rare variants (below the cut-off point), were identified in parasite isolates from 9 children with E-KSSG-L from patient IDs (11, 14, 15 and 17), E-TSSR-L from patient IDs (16, 13 and 29), Q-TSSR-L from patient IDs (14 and 25), E-TSSG-L from patient ID 25 and E-KSNG-F from patient ID 24 (Figure 3.5). In general the allelic changes had no clear trend, pattern or distribution across the infections. However, there were some variant changes in cases where individuals had data of 2 or more consecutive infections.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

4.1 Discussion

The 19-kDa antigenic domain of *Pf* MSP1 is considered as a major target component for the development of human blood stage malaria vaccines (Wilson *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, its sequence diversity has been extensively studied, leading to the identification of its polymorphisms and haplotypes (Simpalipan *et al.*, 2014, Takala *et al.*, 2007). This, was yet another study whose aim was to define the temporal distribution of variants of this domain in a longitudinal set up in a malaria endemic zone in Kilifi, Kenya using *P. falciparum* parasites obtained from sequential infected children who are less than 5 years.

Pf MSP1₁₉ sequences have been previously classified into two allelic groups; one from the 3D7 allelic group (E-TSSR-L haplotype) and the other from Wellcome allelic group (Q-KSNG-L haplotype). Many other haplotypes have been reported from natural *P. falciparum* populations in the world and were proposed to be generated through recombination events between the two allelic groups and due to mutations (Tanabe *et al.*, 2007). *Pf* MSP1₁₉ analysis in Kenya was previously conducted in the western region and Asembo bay in Nyanza, and at least 14 haplotypes were identified, E-KSNG-L, Q-KSNG-L, Q-KSGN-F, E-KSSR-L, E-TSNG-L, QKNNG-L, E-TSSG-L, E-TSSR-L, Q-TSSR-L, Q-TSNG-L, E-TSNG-F, E-KSNG-F, E-KSSG-L, and E-KNNG-L (Ogutu *et al.*, 2009; Qari *et al.*, 1998). However, it is not clear whether the extent of *Pf* MSP1₁₉ sequence variation in and across infections is common in other *P. falciparum* isolates obtained in other geographical regions of Kenya and if the distribution pattern of these haplotypes is

conserved. This question formed the basis of the present study, which aimed to longitudinally screen for polymorphism and evaluate the persistence of the haplotypes of the MSP1 block 17 in individuals who have multiple malaria episodes from a *P. falciparum* endemic geographical region, Kilifi.

This sequence analysis was performed on *Pf*MSP1₁₉ domain from 150 *P. falciparum* isolates and resulted in the identification 6 SNPs which caused non-synonymous amino acid substitutions. A total of 11 haplotypes of this domain as a result of the 6 SNPs were found to be circulating in the population (Figure 3.2), all of which have been identified before in other areas. These SNPs were shown to be conserved and have been previously reported in field isolates of different studies in Thailand, Cambodia, Mali, Somalia and Tanzania, (Simpalipan *et al.*, 2014; Takala *et al.*, 2007). In this study, the domain was evolving randomly. This was consistent with previous conducted in Western Kenya (Kariuki *et al.*, 2013). The first amino acid substitution (E1664Q) was located between the second and the third Cys residues in the first putative EGF-like motif, while the other substitutions occurred in the second EGF-like motif of *Pf*MSP1₁₉ (Figure 3.2).

The high number of haplotypes was expected in Kilifi, since it is an endemic area with moderate to high malaria transmission (Mwangi *et al.*, 2005) with an average annual entomological inoculation rate (EIR) of between 20 to 100 infective bites per person in a year (Mbogo *et al.*, 2003). This was consistent with other studies done in high malaria transmission areas with high EIRs ranging from 50 to 600 infective bites per person in year resulting 6-15 halpotypes of *Pf* MSP1₁₉kDa (Tanabe *et al.*, 2007) as opposed to identification of between 1-3 haplotypes in areas of lower transmission and EIRs of less than 10 infective bites per person per year (Sakihama *et al.*, 2006). The higher the transmission rate the more recombination occurs during meiosis in the

mosquito, and hence more haplotypes, while the reverse is true in low transmission areas. Therefore, the relative stability of MSP1₁₉kDa haplotypes observed in this study suggests that the rates of meiotic recombination in parasite populations in this area remain high despite the reduction in malaria transmission.

The dominant E-KSNG-L (FUP-Uganda PA), Q-KSNG-F (Thai) and E-KNNG-L (K) circulating alleles in this population, have also been reported in Western Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (Tanabe *et al.*, 2007), in such a trend, suggesting that *P. falciparum* populations in East Africa are evolutionary related. Similar distribution patterns of *Pf* MSP1₁₉ have also been detected in Thailand, China and Cambodia where E-KSNG-L (FUP-Uganda PA), Q-KSNG-F (Thai) and E-KNNG-L are dominant (Simpalipan *et al.*, 2014).

The frequency of the *Pf*MSP-1₁₉ haplotype (E-TSSR-L) corresponding to the 3D7 laboratory isolate of *P. falciparum* was detected at a frequency of 2%. Low frequencies of 3D7 *Pf* MSP1₁₉ haplotype sequence-types have been reported in previous studies conducted in different malaria transmission areas, in western Kenya, Tanzania and Somalia, and studies conducted recently show a drastic fall in its proportional frequency in a population. It has been suggested that the low frequency of haplotypes corresponding to the 3D7 strain of *P. falciparum* could compromise the efficacy of MSP1 vaccines that are based on the 3D7 clone. The *f*MP1/AS02 vaccine, based on 3D7 parasite (E-TSSR-L) line and target 42kDa of MSP was unfortunately reported to have failed at phase 1 in 2009 at Western Kenya though it elicited greater MSP1₄₂-specific immune response (Ogutu *et al.*, 2009). It could not provoke immune reaction that would target FUP (E-KSNG-L), FVO (Q-KSNG-L) and Thai (Q-KSNG-L) haplotypes which were prevalent due to high

multiplicity and diversity of the MSP1 gene, hence, it offered no protection against infections caused by other variants other than of 3D7.

There was no clear trend or pattern on how alleles and haplotypes were circulating in the study population and across the infections, but most individuals had multiple malaria episodes with different variants. The dominant E-KSNG-L (FUP-Uganda PA), Q-KSNG-F (Thai) and E-KNNG-L (K) circulating alleles in this population were shown to be sequentially repeated 2 to 3 times in the consecutive infections of 10 children. This could be as a result of slow developing immune responses in these children or non allele-specific immune responses that did not protect against those variants following a prior infection with the same variants. But after this occurrence, subsequent isolates from these children in their successive infections had different variants (rare variants). This is in concurrence with other malaria immunity studies that suggests generation and persistence of memory and effector cells for protecting against a variant is dependant on continued exposure to that variant (Langhorne *et al.*, 2008). Random variant changes in the consecutive infections of the other children interfered with the immune response development to a variant, hence there was no concrete protection against those variants in successive infections. This was clear since, all subsequent isolates from these children in their successive infections had the same variants repeating. Most of the rare variants were suppressed towards the end of the infection episodes, this could be due to an initial immune response to the common variants.

4.2 Conclusion and recommendation

Data obtained in this study shows that the MSP1₁₉kDa haplotypes change in multiple infections. The changes could be influenced by the host immunity which is gradually developing as a result

of prior infections. This work could support that continued exposure to a malaria antigen plays an important role in production of required antibody titres for protection against that antigen. However, the study did not establish if truly there was an immune response to these variants in the respective sera of the children. Furthermore, we missed variant information for 66.7% of the 421 total parasites isolates collected. Haplotypes identified in this study have remained stable overtime, compared to other previous studies done in Nyanza and western Kenya in 1994, 1996, 1997, 1999 and 2001. This adds current information on the variation of *Pf*MSP1 19kDa in Kenya, which is a potential vaccine candidate.

The information on low frequency of 3D7 *falciparum* clones could be useful in interpreting data on the efficacy of malaria vaccines based on the 3D7 parasite strain in areas of stable malaria transmission. This study essentially suggests that vaccines based on 3D7 laboratory isolates will not work in Kenya, but provides information on the number of MSP1 variants that can be included in multi-allelic vaccine formulations.

A better picture of the infecting haplotypes in these children with multiple malaria episodes and those circulating in the population is required to improve this study. However, we also recommend an immunological evaluation to be done of the sera from the children who we obtained genetic data to determine the association of the immune reactions to these haplotypes. This study suggests the inclusion of common variants (E-KSNG-L, Q-KSNG-F and E-KNNG-L) in MSP1 multi-allelic malaria vaccine formulations.

CHAPTER 5

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CHAPTER 6

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Phyclust Script in R programming for haplotype clustering

```
R version 3.2.1 (2015-06-18) -- "World-Famous Astronaut"  
Copyright (C) 2015 The R Foundation for Statistical Computing  
Platform: i386-w64-mingw32/i386 (32-bit)
```

```
R is free software and comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY.  
You are welcome to redistribute it under certain conditions.  
Type 'license()' or 'licence()' for distribution details.
```

```
R is a collaborative project with many contributors.  
Type 'contributors()' for more information and  
'citation()' on how to cite R or R packages in publications.
```

```
Type 'demo()' for some demos, 'help()' for on-line help, or  
'help.start()' for an HTML browser interface to help.  
Type 'q()' to quit R.
```

```
[Workspace loaded from ~/.RData]
```

```
> library(ape)  
> library(phyclust)  
> my.snp <- read.phylip("C:/Users/Reuben/Desktop/msp.phy", code.type = "NUCLEOTIDE")  
> ret <- haplo.post.prob(my.snp$org, ploidy = 1)  
> getcut.fun(sort(ret$haplo$hap.prob, decreasing = TRUE),  
+           nn = my.snp$nseq, plot = 1)  
[1] 6  
> ret$haplo$hap.prob  
[1] 0.360000000 0.260000000 0.040000000 0.046666667 0.180000000 0.026666667  
[7] 0.040000000 0.006666667 0.020000000 0.013333333 0.006666667  
> write.fasta(ret$haplo$haplotype, "C:/Users/Reuben/Desktop/project/haplotype.fa")
```

```
# The read.phylip function fetches the sequences from aligned sequence in PHYLIP format guided by the data path  
and stores them in my.snp variable in a list of objects.  
# The haplo.post.prob function runs the clustering process and stores list of objects in ret.  
# The getcut.fun truncates the evolutionary significant haplotypes and then plots a graph.  
# ret$haplo$hap.prob, returned the frequencies of the haplotypes  
# The write.fasta function, writes the haplotypes and edits the file name in the directory specified for further  
analysis.
```

Appendix 2. Command line sequence clustering confirmation using USEARCH

```
Clustering command line script
Microsoft windows [Version 6.1.7601]
Copyright (c) 2009 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

C:\Users\Reuben>cd
C:\Users\Reuben>cd Desktop
C:\Users\Reuben\Desktop>cd project
C:\Users\Reuben\Desktop\Project>cd Usearch

C:\Users\Reuben\Desktop\Project\Usearch>usearch.exe -cluster_fast msp.fa
-id 1.0
-centroids nr.fasta -uc clusters.uc -minseqlength 5 -query_cov 1
-target_cov 1
usearch v7.0.1090_win32, 2.0Gb RAM (2.1Gb total), 2 cores
(C) Copyright 2013 Robert C. Edgar, all rights reserved.
http://drive5.com/usearch

Licensed to: mangiruben@gmail.com

00:00 2.1Mb Reading msp.fa, 36.9kb
00:00 2.2Mb 150 seqs, min 234, avg 234, max 234nt
00:00 3.8Mb 100.0% 11 clusters, max size 54, avg 13.6

# This is are results, but detailes are exported as clusters.uc file and
the haplotype sequences in nr.fasta

    Seqs 150
  Clusters 11
    Max size 54
    Avg size 13.6
    Min size 1
Singletons 2, 1.3% of seqs, 18.2% of clusters
    Max mem 3.8Mb
    Time 1.00s
Throughput 150.0 seqs/sec.

# End
```


Appendix 3 cont.

	20	40	60	80	100	120
14845						
14870						
14942 C						
14967 C						
14997						
15035						
15067 C						
15112						
15141 C						
15157						
15158 C						
15193						
15194						
15231 C						
15263						
15338 C						
15353 C						
15440 C						
15454						
15487 C						
15489						
15502						
15543 C						
15568						
15651 C						
15654						
15674						
15701						
15761 C						
15781						
15799 C						
15822 C						
15840						
15859 C						
15883						
8613						
10258 C						
10283						
10560						
10605						
10649 C						
11043 C						
11134 C						
11239 C						
11588						
12428						
14576 C						
14842 C						
8744 C						
8793 C						
9202 C						
9473						
14596						
14670						
15088						
9572 C						
9692 C						
9791 C						

Appendix 3 Cont.

	140	160	180	200	220	234
14845						234
14870						234
14912						234
14967						234
14997						234
15035						234
15067						234
15112						234
15141						234
15157						234
15158						234
15193						234
15194						234
15231						234
15263						234
15338						234
15353						234
15440						234
15454						234
15487						234
15489						234
15502						234
15543						234
15568						234
15651						234
15654						234
15674						234
15701						234
15761						234
15781						234
15799						234
15822						234
15840						234
15859						234
15883						234
8613			A			234
10258			A			234
10283			A			234
10560			A			234
10605			A			234
10649			A			234
11043			A			234
11134			A			234
11239			A			234
11598			A			234
12428			A			234
14576			A			234
14842			A			234
8744					T	234
8793					T	234
9202					T	234
9473						234
14596						234
14670						234
15068						234
9572						234
9692						234
9791						234

Appendix3 Cont.

	20	40	60	80	100	120
10000 C						
10069 C						
10125 C						
10421 C						
10517						
10645 C						
10696						
10698 C						
10957						
11088 C						
11238						
12421 C						
12468						
12759 C						
13034 C						
14668 C						
14854						
14899						
14980 C						
15009 C						
15081 C						
15076 C						
15096 C						
15348 C						
15355 C						
15367 C						
15404 C						
15751 C						
9247						
10727						
11449 C						
11647						
13805 C						
14594						

Appendix 3 Cont

	140	160	180	200	220	234
10000					T	234
10069					T	234
10125					T	234
10421					T	234
10517					T	234
10645			G	A	T	234
10696			G	A	T	234
10698					T	234
10957					T	234
11088					T	234
11238			G	A	T	234
12421					T	234
12468			G	A	T	234
12759					T	234
13034					T	234
14668					T	234
14854			G	A	T	234
14899			G	A	T	234
14960					T	234
15009					T	234
15061					T	234
15076					T	234
15086					T	234
15348					T	234
15355					T	234
15367					T	234
15404					T	234
15751					T	234
9247	C		G	A	T	234
10727	C		G	A	T	234
11449	C		G	A	T	234
11647	C		G	A	T	234
13905	C		G	A	T	234
14584	C		G	A	T	234

Appendix 4. Clustering information in .UC file

C:\Users\Reuben\Desktop\Project\Usearch\clusters.uc								Jumamosi, Agosti 29, 2015 5:56 PM	
S	0	234	*	*	*	*	8728	*	
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	8733	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9147	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9482	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9492	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9498	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9518	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9689	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9723	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9861	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9881	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9897	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10155	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10426	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10438	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10687	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11223	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11254	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11657	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11677	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11701	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11920	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12069	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12090	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12091	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12168	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12304	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12474	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13091	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13206	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14625	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14725	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14759	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14761	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14826	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14845	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14870	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14997	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15035	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15112	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15157	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15193	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15194	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15263	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15454	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15489	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15502	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15568	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15654	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15674	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15701	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15781	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15840	8728
H	0	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15883	8728
S	1	234	*	*	*	*	8960	*	
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9146	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9180	8960

Appendix 4 Cont.

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H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10282	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10445	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10953	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11087	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11459	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11576	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11846	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11852	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12245	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12363	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12874	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12883	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13009	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13108	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14528	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14639	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14683	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14691	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14747	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14753	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14942	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14967	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15067	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15141	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15158	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15231	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15338	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15353	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15440	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15487	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15543	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15651	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15761	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15799	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15822	8960
H	1	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15859	8960
S	2	234	* *	*	*	*		8744	*
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	8793	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9202	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9572	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9692	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	9791	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10000	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10069	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10125	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10421	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10645	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10698	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11088	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12421	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12759	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13034	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14668	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14980	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15009	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15061	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15076	8744

Appendix 4. Cont.

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H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15086	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15348	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15355	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15367	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15404	8744
H	2	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15751	8744
S	3	234	*	*	*	*	*	10258	*
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10649	10258
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11043	10258
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11134	10258
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11239	10258
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14576	10258
H	3	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14842	10258
S	4	234	*	*	*	*	*	10517	*
H	4	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10696	10517
H	4	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11238	10517
H	4	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12468	10517
H	4	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14854	10517
H	4	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14899	10517
S	5	234	*	*	*	*	*	8613	*
H	5	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10283	8613
H	5	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10560	8613
H	5	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10605	8613
H	5	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	11598	8613
H	5	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	12428	8613
S	6	234	*	*	*	*	*	9473	*
H	6	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14596	9473
H	6	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14670	9473
H	6	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	15088	9473
S	7	234	*	*	*	*	*	9247	*
H	7	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	10727	9247
H	7	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	14594	9247
S	8	234	*	*	*	*	*	11449	*
H	8	234	100.0	.	0	0	=	13905	11449
S	9	234	*	*	*	*	*	11647	*
S	10	234	*	*	*	*	*	10957	*
C	0	54	*	*	*	*	*	8728	*
C	1	39	*	*	*	*	*	8960	*
C	2	27	*	*	*	*	*	8744	*
C	3	7	*	*	*	*	*	10258	*
C	4	6	*	*	*	*	*	10517	*
C	5	6	*	*	*	*	*	8613	*
C	6	4	*	*	*	*	*	9473	*
C	7	3	*	*	*	*	*	9247	*
C	8	2	*	*	*	*	*	11449	*
C	9	1	*	*	*	*	*	11647	*
C	10	1	*	*	*	*	*	10957	*

