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Title: Global distribution of polymorphisms associated with delayed Plasmodium falciparum parasite clearance following artemisinin treatment: genotyping of archive blood samples

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Keywords: Plasmodium falciparum, drug resistance, MAL10-688956, MAL13-1718319, Artemisinin combination therapy

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**Abstract:** The recent emergence and spread of artemisinin-resistant Plasmodium falciparum isolates is a growing concern for global malaria-control efforts. A recent genome-wide analysis study identified two SNPs at genomic positions MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 which are linked to delayed clearance of parasites following artemisinin combination therapy (ACT). It is expected that continuous artemisinin pressure will affect the distribution of these SNPs. Here, we investigate the worldwide distribution of these SNPs using a large number of archived samples in order to generate baseline data from the period before the emergence of ACT resistance. The presence of SNPs in MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 was assessed by nested PCR RFLP and direct DNA sequencing using 653 global P. falciparum samples obtained before the reported emergence of ACT resistance. SNPs at MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 associated with delayed parasite clearance following ACT administration were observed in 8% and 3% of parasites, respectively, mostly in Cambodia and Thailand. Parasites harbouring both SNPs were found in only eight (1%) isolates, all of which were from Cambodia and Thailand. Linkage disequilibrium was detected between MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319, suggesting that this SNP combination may have been selected by ACT drug pressure. Neither of the SNPs associated with delayed parasite clearance were observed in samples from Africa or South America. Baseline information of the geographical difference of MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 SNPs provides a solid basis for assessing whether these SNPs are selected by artemisinin-based combination therapies.

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Tel 81-3-5802-1042/Fax 81-3-5800-0476

Date: 30 Sep, 2014  
To: Editor  
Subject: PARINT-D-14-00094  
Title: "Global distribution of polymorphisms associated with delayed *Plasmodium falciparum* parasite clearance following artemisinin treatment: genotyping of archive blood samples"

Thank you very much for your mail on 28 September 2014 regarding our manuscript entitled "Global distribution of polymorphisms associated with delayed *Plasmodium falciparum* parasite clearance following artemisinin treatment: genotyping of archive blood samples". Following your encouragement and support, we have revised the manuscript.

We are very grateful to the reviewers for their comments on this manuscript and for their sincerest acknowledgement for the work that went into the paper. We have carefully considered the points raised by the reviewers and had adopted the suggestions resulting in a further improved paper. All changes in the manuscript are highlighted in red in the revised text. Our detailed point-by-point responses are attached to this cover letter.

Herein I state that all the authors concur with this revision and that this manuscript has not been submitted or accepted for publication elsewhere. All authors fulfill the criteria and no writing assistance other than copy editing was provided in the preparation of the manuscript. Two coauthors who are native English users carefully checked English usage of the text.

Thank you for your time and consideration. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely yours,



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Reviewer #1:

(1) In discussing the evolution of the artemisinin resistance phenotype, the authors suggest that the two SNPs examined might be prerequisites for resistant mutations elsewhere in the genome. The authors also aptly draw a parallel with resistance to pyrimethamine and sulfadoxine, where the sequential accumulation of point mutations confers high-level resistance. I can't help but wonder whether the authors, in the context of this manuscript, can address which of the two SNPs associated with delayed parasite clearance might be selected first by ACT drug pressure. I find the Cambodian sample set to be extremely interesting, in that the two mutant SNPs show statistically significant non-random association not seen in the rest of the parasite genome. Given that the Cambodian samples were collected in three successive years from 2004 to 2006, is it possible to see a year-to-year increase in the frequency of either or both of these SNPs?

<Reply>

Thank for your suggestion. The analysis suggested by the reviewer is interesting. However, we could not find any trend of a year-to-year increase in the frequency of either or both of these SNPs. Please see the results bellow.

MAL10-688956

	T	<u>A</u>
2004	11	19
2005	4	2
2006	0	2

MAL13-1718319

	A	<u>T</u>
2004	23	8
2005	6	1
2006	1	1

MAL10-688956 + MAL13-1718319

	T/A	<u>A/A</u>	T/ <u>T</u>	<u>A/T</u>
2004	17	5	2	6
2005	2	2	0	1
2006	1	0	1	0

(2) The authors note the unexpectedly high prevalence of the MAL 10-688956 (A) allele in the Pacific countries, even before ACT was officially adopted as first-line treatment for malaria. Do the authors see evidence of gene flow (e.g. shared microsatellite alleles) between parasites from the Pacific and Southeast Asia, especially among parasites harboring this particular SNP? What do the authors think about the possibility that artemisinin resistance can evolve in the Pacific, independently of the Southeast Asian focus, given the prior example of chloroquine resistance?

<Reply>

We previously determined the microsatellites flanking drug-resistance genes *pfcr*, *dhps*, and *dhfr* to investigate the possible gene flow between PNG and Southeast Asian countries (Antimicrobial Agent Chemother, 2007, J Infect Dis 2011, Malaria J 2012) and found that gene flow was evidenced in the *dhfr* and *dhps* mutants. However, human movement between Southeast Asia and Melanesia seems not to be frequent because of geographical obstacles. Therefore, the observed considerable frequencies of Southeast-origin resistant parasites in PNG are very likely to the infrequent migration from Southeast Asia to Pacific countries and subsequent selection due to the usage of SP in PNG.

In this analysis, however, we found high prevalences of MAL 10-688956 (A) allele in the Pacific countries (14% in Papua New Guinea, 18% in Vanuatu and 2% in the Solomon Islands). If we assume that the observed MAL 10-688956 (A) allele in the Pacific countries is because of the migration of this allele from Southeast Asian countries, it is difficult to explain the observed considerable prevalence of the allele, since artemisinin was not introduced as the first-line antimalarial.

So, we have changed the paragraph that discussed the unexpectedly high prevalence of the MAL 10-688956 (A) allele in the Pacific countries as follow.

(Original)

In the MAL10-688956, the delayed-clearance associated SNP may exist naturally in the parasite populations without any artemisinin selection. A considerable number of delayed-clearance associated SNPs were observed at MAL10-688956 in the Pacific region, despite the fact that artemisinin derivatives were not implemented at the time of sampling.

(Revised)

In the Pacific region, prevalences of the MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP were unexpectedly high, although nearly all parasites harbored the non-delayed clearance associated SNP at MAL13-1718319. Artemisinin combination

therapies were not implemented at the time of sampling in any of the countries considered here. Hence, it seems likely that the MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP is a parasite polymorphism that exists naturally in the parasite populations of this region, and was not, initially, selected by ACT pressure. The other possibility is the migration of the MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP from Southeast Asia. However, since the prevalences of this SNP were high, this may be unlikely, especially in the absence of ACT selection pressure. Further analysis using microsatellite alleles flanking the SNP will clarify the possible migration of from the MAL10-688956 SNP to Southeast Asia.

#### Minor corrections/comments/suggestions

(1) Line 138: ...in rural villages located on 4 islands...

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

(2) Lines 158-9: ...implementation of ACT except in Cambodia and...before the first official report of...

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

(3) Lines 175-179: The names of restriction enzymes should be italicized. Since the SNPs are only associated with the delayed clearance phenotype, it might be more appropriate to describe the alleles as wild type (and mutant), instead of sensitive (and implicitly resistant).

<Reply>

The reviewer is absolutely correct that we should not say "sensitive" and "resistant", then we were very careful only to refer to them as "delayed clearance associated SNP" and "non-delayed clearance associated SNP". However, since the terms, "mutant" and "wild-type", only refer to SNPs linked to a phenotype that has changed between two isogenic parasite lines, we consider it may not be appropriate to refer to "mutant" and "wild-type" SNPs. Thus, we agree that we need to remove reference to "sensitive" and "resistant" parasites, but we don't think we should replace with "mutant" and "wild-type". We use the original nomenclature, "delayed clearance associated SNP" and "non-delayed clearance associated SNP".

(4) Lines 179-86: This part is very confusing to me. Was the sequencing done for all undigested amplicons of both loci? Was the sequencing done in only one direction using the reverse primer of the nested PCR? How did the sequencing reaction (lines 185-6)

involve two rounds of PCR reaction, when the previous sentence states that the PCR products were sequenced directly after purification?

<Reply>

We sequenced all undigested amplicons in only one direction using the reverse primer of the nested PCR. For the sequencing, we conducted initial and nested PCR using Gflex DNA Polymerase (Takara), but this looks detail and may cause misunderstanding, so we have deleted this.

(Original)

All undigested samples, in order to confirm the presence of mutant allele, nested PCR amplicons were purified with ExoSAP - IT Kit (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) and directly sequenced (50 cycles of 95 °C for 20 sec, 50 °C for 30 sec, and 60 °C for 1 min) in one direction using the reverse primer of the nested PCR (TTATATGTAATGGGTGAAAAGAATGTGG) with a BigDye Terminator 1.1 cycle sequencing kit in the Applied Biosystems 3500xL genetic analyzer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, California, U.S.). For the sequence reaction, 0.4 unit of Gflex DNA Polymerase (Takara) was used in the both initial and nested PCR reactions.

(Revised)

In all undigested samples, in order to confirm the presence of mutant allele, nested PCR amplicons were purified with ExoSAP - IT Kit (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) and were directly sequenced (50 cycles of 95 °C for 20 sec, 50 °C for 30 sec, and 60 °C for 1 min) in one direction using the reverse primer of the nested PCR (TTATATGTAATGGGTGAAAAGAATGTGG) with a BigDye Terminator 1.1 cycle sequencing kit in the Applied Biosystems 3500xL genetic analyzer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, California, U.S.).

(5) Lines 242-252: The authors use the terms "linkage" and "linkage disequilibrium" interchangeably, but these terms are not equivalent.

<Reply>

The terms "linkage" was rewritten to "linkage disequilibrium" accordingly.

(6) Line 263: In both countries,

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

(7) Acronyms are used without prior definition, e.g. LD (line 206) = linkage

disequilibrium; GWAS (lines 280 and 283) = genome-wide association study

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

(8) Figure 1A: The key in the figure is labelled incorrectly. It should say MAL 10-688956 instead of MAL 13-1718319.

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

(9) Legends for figures 1 and 2: The colors used to represent different genotypes/genotype combinations, as stated in the legends, are different than the actual colors used in the figures.

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

Reviewer #2:

1. Figure 1 A contains serious mistakes of the SNP ID number. Correction is needed.

<Reply>

This error was also pointed out by the reviewer 1. We revised it.

2. In Introduction, line 91-92; The description "This suggests that the two proposed SNPs might be widely distributed, and their selection unrelated to ACT pressure" needs reference.

<Reply>

We revised it according to the reviewer's suggestion.

3. If possible, the prevalence of PF3D7\_1343700 kelch 324 propeller domain ('K13-propeller') gene in the analyzed samples should be included.

<Reply>

This is an interesting suggestion.

We have already started the analysis of K13-propella gene using same sample-set. We are thinking to assess the baseline polymorphisms of the gene and, more importantly, to investigate whether this gene was under positive selection using several population-genetics methods. Since the data-set will be enormous, we are hoping to submit the results as a separate publication.

## \*Suggested Reviewers

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## Highlights

Worldwide distribution for ACT-resistant SNPs was assessed in *P. falciparum* isolates.

Combination of two ACT-resistant SNPs were localised to Cambodia and Thailand.

Linkage disequilibrium was detected between two ACT-resistant SNPs.

These SNPs were entirely absent in the parasites from Africa or South America.

1 **Global distribution of polymorphisms associated with delayed**  
2 ***Plasmodium falciparum* parasite clearance following artemisinin**  
3 **treatment: genotyping of archive blood samples**

4  
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24 **Abstract**

25 The recent emergence and spread of artemisinin-resistant *Plasmodium falciparum*  
26 isolates is a growing concern for global malaria-control efforts. A recent genome-wide  
27 analysis study identified two SNPs at genomic positions MAL10-688956 and  
28 MAL13-1718319 which are linked to delayed clearance of parasites following  
29 artemisinin combination therapy (ACT). It is expected that continuous artemisinin  
30 pressure will affect the distribution of these SNPs. Here, we investigate the worldwide  
31 distribution of these SNPs using a large number of archived samples in order to  
32 generate baseline data from the period before the emergence of ACT resistance. The  
33 presence of SNPs in MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 was assessed by nested  
34 PCR RFLP and direct DNA sequencing using 653 global *P. falciparum* samples  
35 obtained before the reported emergence of ACT resistance. SNPs at MAL10-688956  
36 and MAL13-1718319 associated with delayed parasite clearance following ACT  
37 administration were observed in 8% and 3% of parasites, respectively, mostly in  
38 Cambodia and Thailand. Parasites harbouring both SNPs were found in only eight  
39 (1%) isolates, all of which were from Cambodia and Thailand. Linkage disequilibrium  
40 was detected between MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319, suggesting that this  
41 SNP combination may have been selected by ACT drug pressure. Neither of the  
42 SNPs associated with delayed parasite clearance were observed in samples from  
43 Africa or South America. Baseline information of the geographical difference of  
44 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 SNPs provides a solid basis for assessing  
45 whether these SNPs are selected by artemisinin-based combination therapies.

46

47 **Keywords:** *Plasmodium falciparum*, drug resistance, MAL10-688956,

48 MAL13-1718319, Artemisinin combination therapy

49

## 50 1. Introduction

51

52 There were 207 million cases of malaria and 627 000 deaths due to the disease  
53 world-wide in 2012 [1]. One of the most serious threats to the successful control of  
54 malaria is the emergence of parasites that are resistant to antimalarial drugs. The  
55 World Health Organization currently recommends artemisinin-based combination  
56 therapies (ACTs) as the first-line treatment for uncomplicated malaria. However, there  
57 is great concern that artemisinin-resistant *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites have  
58 emerged in the Cambodia/Thailand border region, where parasites resistant to other  
59 antimalarial drugs also originated [2-6]. These ACT “resistant” strains are  
60 characterized by a delay in the time it takes parasites to clear from the body following  
61 treatment [7].

62 For many anti-malarial drugs such as chloroquine and pyrimethamine/sulfadoxine,  
63 the genetic mutations that underlie resistance have been largely elucidated. These  
64 mutations can be used as molecular markers to monitor the appearance and  
65 geographical spread of resistant parasites. For artemisinin and its derivatives, a  
66 genetic region associated with a delay in parasite clearance following ACT treatment  
67 was identified in 2012 [8]. Soon after, four single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)  
68 linked to the delayed clearance phenotype were identified on chromosomes 10, 13,  
69 and 14 [9]. Two of these, MAL10-688956 (A) and MAL13-1718319 (T), were proposed  
70 to be suitable molecular markers for the resistance phenotype.

71 MAL10-688956 is located on chromosome 10 in the 3' untranslated region of the  
72 DNA polymerase delta catalytic subunit gene and MAL13-1718319 is in a RAD5  
73 homolog. These two proteins are thought to be involved in post-replication repair [9,

74 [10](#)]. In particular, RAD5 is a DNA clamp that is involved in the DNA damage tolerance  
75 pathway which promotes the repair of discontinuities [\[11-13\]](#). In yeast, mutations in  
76 this gene have been implicated in cell cycle arrest [\[13, 14\]](#) and thus, a similar role may  
77 be expected in *P. falciparum* [\[15\]](#), which might lead to delayed clearance following  
78 artemisinin treatment.

79 We have previously analysed 53 travellers' malaria samples collected from patients  
80 that had returned to Scotland from 11 African and nine South-eastern Asia/Oceania  
81 countries. We found that two samples harboured the delayed-clearance associated  
82 SNPs in both MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 [\[16\]](#). These two isolates were  
83 obtained from Thailand and Cambodia, the epicentre of the apparent emergence of  
84 resistance to artemisinin as well as to other antimalarial drugs [\[4, 17, 18\]](#). This finding  
85 supports the notion that SNPs MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 could be  
86 applicable as molecular markers for the surveillance of artemisinin resistance.

87 However, the delayed-clearance associated SNPs are also found in several *P.*  
88 *falciparum* laboratory maintained clones, e.g., V1/S, IT, 106/1, and FCR3  
89 (MAL10-688956-A) and V1/S and IT (MAL13-1718319-T), which were isolated from  
90 patients from diverse geographic regions and well before the first reports of  
91 artemisinin resistance. This suggests that the two proposed SNPs might be widely  
92 distributed, and their selection unrelated to ACT pressure [\[9\]](#). Thus, we consider that  
93 robust information on the global prevalence of these SNPs before the widespread  
94 implementation of ACTs would provide the baseline data necessary to infer whether  
95 they are, indeed, reliable markers for the spread of ACT resistance.

96 Here, we determine the distribution of delayed-clearance associated SNPs  
97 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 using a large number of *P. falciparum* isolates

98 from East/West Africa, Asia, Pacific Oceania and South America. All samples were  
99 obtained before the first report of the emergence of artemisinin resistance [2]. We  
100 report the complete absence of delayed-clearance associated SNPs in parasites  
101 collected from South America and Africa. Delayed-clearance associated SNPs were  
102 found singularly in a number of samples from areas outside Africa and South America,  
103 but only parasites from Cambodia and Thailand harboured both SNPs  
104 simultaneously.

105

## 106 **2. Material and methods**

### 107 *2.1 Study Sites*

108 Blood samples were obtained from *P. falciparum*-infected patients in all age groups,  
109 unless otherwise stated, living in 13 malaria-endemic countries as follows (Table 1):

110 1. Bangladesh: Samples were collected from patients infected with *P. falciparum* in  
111 the Bandarban district hospital in 2007. This study was approved by the Bangladesh  
112 Medical Research Council and the local health regulatory body in Bandarban,  
113 Bangladesh [19].

114 2. Cambodia: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals during  
115 a cross-sectional survey of rural villages in Chumkiri, Kampot province in 2004, 2005  
116 and 2006. The study was approved by the National Center for Parasitology,  
117 Entomology, and Malaria Control of Cambodia [20].

118 3. Thailand: Samples were collected from patients infected with *P. falciparum* at  
119 town clinics located in the western border of Tak, Kanchanaburi, and Ratchaburi  
120 provinces from 2001 to 2002. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the  
121 Faculty of Tropical Medicine, Mahidol University.

122 4. Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR): Samples were collected from *P.*  
123 *falciparum* infected individuals during cross-sectional surveys of rural villages in  
124 Khammouanne province in 1999. The study was approved by the Laos Ministry of  
125 Health [21].

126 5. Philippines: Samples were collected from patients infected with *P. falciparum* in  
127 hospitals on Palawan Island in 1997. This study was approved by the Palawan  
128 Provincial Health Office [22].

129 6. Papua New Guinea: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected  
130 individuals at villages in Dagua district, East Sepik in 2002 and 2003. The study was  
131 approved by the National Department of Health Medical Research Advisory  
132 Committee of Papua New Guinea.

133 7. Solomon Islands: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals  
134 during cross-sectional surveys in northeastern Guadalcanal Island from 1995 to 1996.  
135 The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Solomon Islands for Medical  
136 Research.

137 8. Vanuatu: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals during  
138 cross-sectional surveys in rural villages located [on](#) 4 islands; Gaua, Santo, Pentecost  
139 and Malakula, in 1996 and 1998. The study was approved by the Vanuatu  
140 Department of Health [23].

141 9. Kenya: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals during  
142 cross-sectional surveys at 4 villages in Kisii District in 1998. The study was approved  
143 by the Kenyan Ministry of Health and Education [24].

144 10. Tanzania: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals  
145 during cross-sectional surveys in the Rufiji River Delta in eastern coastal Tanzania in

146 1998 and 2003. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the National  
147 Institute for Medical Research of Tanzania [25].

148 11. Republic of the Congo: Samples were collected from patients with *P. falciparum*  
149 in Pointe-Noire, Brazzaville, and Gamboma in 2006. The study was approved by the  
150 Ministry of Research and Ministry of Health of the Republic of the Congo [26].

151 12. Ghana: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected children during  
152 cross-sectional surveys in 3 villages near Winneba, a western coastal region, in 2004.  
153 This study was approved by the Ministry of Health/Ghana Health Service.

154 13. Brazil: Samples were collected from *P. falciparum* infected individuals in the  
155 eastern part of Acre state in 1985–1986, 1999, and 2004–2005. The study protocol  
156 was approved by the ethics review board of the Institute of Biomedical Sciences,  
157 University of São Paulo.

158 All studies were conducted before the official implementation of ACT except [in](#)  
159 Cambodia and Thailand, and before the [first](#) official report of artemisinin resistance [2].  
160 Finger-prick blood samples were collected and transferred on filter paper (ET31CHR;  
161 Whatman) in the all studied regions except Thailand in which venous blood samples  
162 were used. Parasite DNA was purified using a QIAamp DNA blood mini kit (QIAGEN)  
163 or the EZ1 BioRobot™ (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's  
164 instructions. In all study sites, informed consent was obtained from individual patients  
165 or their guardians and antimalarial treatment was provided if necessary.

166

## 167 2.2 Determination of polymorphisms in MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319

168 Nested polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for Plasmodium species typing was  
169 conducted to confirm the presence of *P. falciparum* parasites [27, 28]. All *P.*



170 *falciparum* positive samples were assayed for the presence of SNPs in  
171 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 [9]. A PCR and restriction fragment length  
172 polymorphism (RFLP) protocol was used as described on the worldwide antimalarial  
173 resistance network (WWARN) website: <http://www.wwarn.org/toolkit/procedures> with  
174 one modification (1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> in the nested PCR for MAL13-1718319). Briefly,  
175 genotyping was conducted by nested PCR followed by RFLP analysis. *Nsi*I (New  
176 England Biolabs), which digests the amplified product when the allele (T, [non-delayed](#)  
177 [clearance](#) associated SNP) is present at the polymorphic site, was used for  
178 MAL10-688956. *Msi*I (New England Biolabs), which produces two digested products  
179 when the allele (A, [non-delayed clearance](#) associated SNP) is present, was used for  
180 MAL13-1718319. In all undigested samples, in order to confirm the presence of  
181 delayed-clearance associated SNP, nested PCR amplicons were purified with  
182 ExoSAP - IT Kit (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) and were directly  
183 sequenced (50 cycles of 95 °C for 20 sec, 50 °C for 30 sec, and 60 °C for 1 min) in  
184 one direction using the reverse primer of the nested PCR  
185 (TTATATGTAATGGGTGAAAAGAATGTGG) with a BigDye Terminator 1.1 cycle  
186 sequencing kit in the Applied Biosystems 3500xL genetic analyzer (Life Technologies,  
187 Carlsbad, California, U.S.).

188

### 189 2.3 Microsatellite analysis

190 Ten neutral microsatellite markers with no evidence of genetic hitchhiking were  
191 genotyped to examine the possibility that linkage disequilibrium is found between  
192 evolutionary neutral markers in the Cambodian parasite population. The loci used  
193 were as follows: TA42 and TA81 (chromosome 5), TA1, TA87, and TA109

194 (chromosome 6), TA60 and 2490 (chromosome 10), and ARA2 (chromosome 11),  
195 and Pfg377 and PfPK2 (chromosome 12). These markers were amplified by  
196 semi-nested PCR using fluorescent end-labelled primers as previously described [29].  
197 Size variations of the amplified products were determined by electrophoresis on a  
198 DNA sequencer and analysed with GeneScan software (Applied Biosystems).  
199 Samples with minor peaks at least 50% in peak height compared to the major peak  
200 were considered mixed genotype, and were excluded from the analysis.

201

## 202 2.4 Statistical analysis

203  $D'$  and  $r^2$  were measured to assess potential linkage disequilibrium between  
204 delayed-clearance associated SNPs [30, 31]. Linkage disequilibrium for all pairs of ten  
205 microsatellite loci was also examined using Genepop version 4.1 under the following  
206 Markov chain parameters: dememorization number = 20000, number of batches =  
207 500, and number of iterations per batch = 10000. The significance of [linkage](#)  
208 [disequilibrium](#) was assessed using the two-tailed Chi-squared test.  $P < 0.05$  was  
209 considered statistically significant.

210

## 211 3. Results

### 212 3.1 MAL10-688956

213 Among a total of 653 *P. falciparum* isolates, we successfully determined allele types  
214 for 637 isolates (98%) at MAL10-688956 (Figure 1.A). The overall prevalence of the  
215 delayed-clearance associated SNP was 8% (52/637). Ten isolates (2%) were found to  
216 be dimorphic with both T and A nucleotides present at this position, indicating a mixed  
217 infection. The delayed-clearance associated SNP was not detected in any isolates

218 from Africa or South America, but was prevalent in Cambodia (38%) and Thailand  
219 (26%). In both countries, ACTs were already in use as first-line therapy for  
220 uncomplicated malaria when the samples were obtained. However, there were very  
221 few cases of the presence of this delayed-clearance associated SNP in neighbouring  
222 countries, Laos PDR (0%) and Bangladesh (2%). Notably, unexpectedly high  
223 prevalences of the delayed-clearance associated SNP was observed in Pacific  
224 countries, 14% in Papua New Guinea, 18% in Vanuatu and 2% in the Solomon  
225 Islands. In these regions, artemisinin or its derivatives were not implemented at the  
226 time of sampling.

227

### 228 3.2 MAL13-1718319

229 We successfully genotyped MAL13-1718319 in 637 isolates (98%) (Figure 1.B).  
230 The delayed-clearance associated SNP (T) was observed in only 18 isolates (3%),  
231 none of which were from Africa or South America. This SNP was almost exclusively  
232 confined to samples from Cambodia and Thailand, with the exception of one sample  
233 from Papua New Guinea, which harboured both alleles.

234

### 235 3.3 Combinations of delayed-clearance associated SNPs at MAL10-688956 and 236 MAL13-1718319

237 Those samples harbouring a delayed-clearance associated SNP at both  
238 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 are shown in Figure 2. Isolates with mixed  
239 alleles at either locus (n = 11) were excluded. Among 615 isolates, eight isolates (1%)  
240 harboured delayed-clearance associated SNPs at both loci. Nearly all of these  
241 isolates (7/8) were localised in Cambodia, and one was from Thailand.

242

243 | 3.4 [Analysis of linkage disequilibrium](#)

244 | Linkage disequilibrium (non-random association) between MAL10-688956 and  
245 | MAL13-1718319 was observed only in Cambodia ( $D' = 0.5174$  and  $r^2 = 0.1628$ )  
246 | (Table 2) with statistical significance ( $p = 0.0146$ , Chi-square test). We then assessed  
247 | the existence of linkage [disequilibrium](#) between ten putatively neutral microsatellite  
248 | loci to clarify whether the observed linkage disequilibrium was an inherent feature of  
249 | the Cambodian parasite population. Among a total of 36 Cambodian isolates, 25  
250 | showed multiple alleles at at least one microsatellite locus and were excluded from  
251 | this analysis (Table S1). [Analysis of linkage disequilibrium](#) between each  
252 | microsatellite locus produced 45 comparisons, but two results were not obtained  
253 | because only one allele combination was observed (Figure S1). No linkage  
254 | disequilibrium was observed in the remaining 43 comparisons with the smallest  $p$   
255 | value 0.18 (comparison between TA60 and TA42), which indicates that linkage  
256 | disequilibrium is not an inherent feature of the Cambodian isolate population. Rather,  
257 | the observed linkage disequilibrium may be produced by the selection of parasites  
258 | that harbour both delayed-clearance associated SNPs.

259

260 | **4. Discussion**

261 | We assessed the distribution of SNPs at MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319  
262 | using a large number of archived worldwide *P. falciparum* isolates prior to the reported  
263 | emergence of ACT resistance [2]. Parasites harbouring a combination of two  
264 | delayed-clearance associated SNPs (A allele in MAL10-688956 and T allele in  
265 | MAL13-1718319) were found exclusively in Thailand and Cambodia. In both [countries](#),

266 ACT was already implemented when our sampling was carried out. This may be due  
267 to the fact that there were no clear criteria for assessing ACT 'resistance' until the  
268 mid-2000s [32] and thus, the potential emergence of ACT-resistant parasites might  
269 have been missed at the time our sampling was carried out. Additionally/alternatively,  
270 delayed-clearance associated SNPs at MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 alone  
271 may not be sufficient for the acquirement of the 'resistance' phenotype; rather, these  
272 polymorphisms might be necessary prior to the attainment of 'resistance' through  
273 mutation elsewhere in the genome. A similar mechanism is thought to be involved in  
274 the attainment of resistance to pyrimethamine/sulfadoxine. Amino acid substitutions at  
275 position 108 in the dihydrofolate reductase gene and at position 437 in  
276 dihydropteroate synthase gene are not, in themselves, sufficient to confer a high  
277 degree of in vivo resistance, but they are required as an initial step for the further  
278 acquisition of other mutations in these genes that eventually result in pyrimethamine  
279 and sulfadoxine resistance, respectively [33, 34]. It is possible that resistance to  
280 artemisinin would require mutations in more than one gene in the parasite's genome.  
281 Therefore, one or more undetermined gene(s) that were not identified in the previous  
282 **genome-wide association study** by Takala-Harrison et al [9] might be required for the  
283 'resistance' phenotype. A recent deep whole-genome sequencing study has indicated  
284 that linkage disequilibrium decayed within 1 kb [35]. Hence, as noted by the authors,  
285 the SNP markers used for the previous genome-wide association study, 7 kb apart on  
286 average, may not be enough to detect all loci associated with parasite clearance [9].

287 The delayed-clearance associated SNP combination was mainly distributed in  
288 Cambodia and these SNPs were significant linked. Since the two SNPs are located on  
289 different chromosomes (10 and 13), physical linkage does not explain the observed

290 linkage disequilibrium. Thus, the following two mechanisms are proposed for the  
291 observed linkage disequilibrium; (1) low diversity within the Cambodian population,  
292 leading to the signature of linkage disequilibrium between markers separated by large  
293 physical distances on the genome (2) natural selection of a particular allele  
294 combination that has a sufficient selective advantage over others [36]. To test the  
295 former possibility, we examined linkage disequilibrium using 10 microsatellite markers  
296 that are thought to be selectively neutral. We did not find linkage disequilibrium  
297 between any of the possible pairs of microsatellite loci, suggesting that the observed  
298 linkage disequilibrium between two delayed-clearance associated SNPs is not the  
299 result of low diversity within the Cambodian parasite population. Hence, it is probable  
300 that the observed linkage disequilibrium is a result of selective pressure favouring  
301 parasites with both delayed-clearance associated SNPs. The continuous use of  
302 artemisinin in this area is one candidate for possible selecting factors.

303 We found no evidence for the existence of delayed-clearance associated SNPs at  
304 either MAL10-688956 or MAL13-1718319 in Africa or South America. All the samples  
305 from African regions were collected between 1998 and 2006, at the time period before  
306 the wide-scale implementation of artemisinin derivatives. Practically, the development  
307 of a credible molecular marker of ACT resistance is urgently required, particularly in  
308 sub-Saharan Africa. Since many individuals living in this region develop protective  
309 immunity to malaria after repeated infections, this immunity would enhance the  
310 effectiveness of antimalarial drugs [37]. As a result, these patients may respond to  
311 antimalarial drugs even if they are infected with drug-resistant parasites [38-40] and,  
312 in such cases, it would be impossible to monitor the emergence of  
313 artemisinin-resistant parasites based on clinical information alone [16]. In this regard,

314 the absence of either delayed-clearance associated SNPs before wide-scale  
315 implementation of artemisinin derivatives in Africa suggests that assessment of  
316 MAL10-688956 or MAL13-1718319 may allow the detection of the emergence of  
317 artemisinin resistance before the appearance of clinical failure cases.

318 The following points, however, should be further considered for the application of  
319 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 as molecular markers for the surveillance of the  
320 emergence of ACT resistance. In the Pacific region, prevalences of the  
321 MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP were unexpectedly high, although  
322 nearly all parasites harbored the non-delayed clearance associated SNP at  
323 MAL13-1718319. Artemisinin combination therapies were not implemented at the time  
324 of sampling in any of the countries considered here. Hence, it seems likely that the  
325 MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP is a parasite polymorphism that  
326 exists naturally in the parasite populations of this region, and was not, initially,  
327 selected by ACT pressure. The other possibility is the migration of the MAL10-688956  
328 delayed-clearance associated SNP from Southeast Asia. However, since the  
329 prevalences of this SNP were high, this may be unlikely, especially in the absence of  
330 ACT selection pressure. Further analysis using microsatellite alleles flanking the SNP  
331 will clarify the possible migration of from the MAL10-688956 SNP to Southeast Asia.

332 Recently, another artemisinin-resistance related marker, PF3D7\_1343700 kelch  
333 propeller domain ('K13-propeller') gene, has been identified using whole-genome  
334 sequencing of an artemisinin-resistant parasite line [41]. A number of SNPs (at least  
335 17) were described in the propeller domains of K13, some of which might be  
336 predictive SNPs of resistance in different geographical settings. This marker may

337 prove more suitable as a molecular marker for ACT resistant parasites than the two  
338 described here.

339

## 340 **5. Conclusions**

341 Parasites bearing delayed-clearance associated SNPs at both MAL10-688956  
342 and MAL13-1718319 are localised to Cambodia and Thailand. Both the  
343 delayed-clearance associated SNPs were entirely absent from Africa or South  
344 America prior to the introduction of ACTs as first-line treatments for malaria in these  
345 countries. This study provides baseline information for geographical differences in the  
346 distribution of malaria parasites carrying delayed-clearance associated SNPs at both  
347 MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319, and so lays the groundwork for developing  
348 molecular markers for monitoring the emergence and spread of ACT resistance.

349

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361

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363

364 **Authors' contributions**

365 KM conducted data collection and prepared the manuscript. RC conducted a survey  
366 and made substantial corrections to the manuscript, and helped with the interpretation  
367 of the data. TH and HE organized the study. TM was involved in the study design,  
368 sampling collection, data analysis, and manuscript preparation. All authors read and  
369 approved the final manuscript.

370

371

372 **Transparency declarations**

373 None to declare.

374

375 **Figure legends**

376 Figure 1. Geographical distribution of *Plasmodium falciparum* SNPs associated with  
377 delayed clearance following ACT treatment at (A) MAL10-688956 (n=637) and (B)  
378 MAL13-1718319 (n=637) in 13 countries is shown. At MAL10-688956 genotypes are  
379 classified delayed-clearance associated SNP (dark green), non-delayed clearance  
380 associated SNP (white), and mixture of two SNPs (yellow-green). At MAL13-1718319,  
381 genotypes consist of, delayed-clearance associated SNP (dark blue), non-delayed  
382 clearance associated SNP (white), and mixture of two SNPs (light blue).

383

384 Figure 2. Geographical distribution of allele combinations of MAL10-688956 and  
385 MAL13-1718319 in 13 countries is shown (n=615). MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance  
386 associated SNP + MAL13-1718319 delayed-clearance associated SNP (red),  
387 MAL10-688956 delayed-clearance associated SNP + MAL13-1718319 non-delayed  
388 clearance associated SNP (green), MAL10-688956 non-delayed clearance  
389 associated SNP + MAL13-1718319 delayed-clearance associated SNP (black) and  
390 MAL10-688956 non-delayed clearance associated SNP + MAL13-1718319  
391 non-delayed clearance associated SNP (white). Isolates harbouring mixed genotypes  
392 at either MAL10-688956 or MAL13-1718319 were excluded.

393

#### 394 **Supplementary data**

395 Figure S1. Linkage disequilibrium between 10 microsatellite loci was assessed to  
396 clarify whether linkage disequilibrium was observed in Cambodia. *P* values of each  
397 comparison are shown.

398

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400

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- 509

Figure 1A

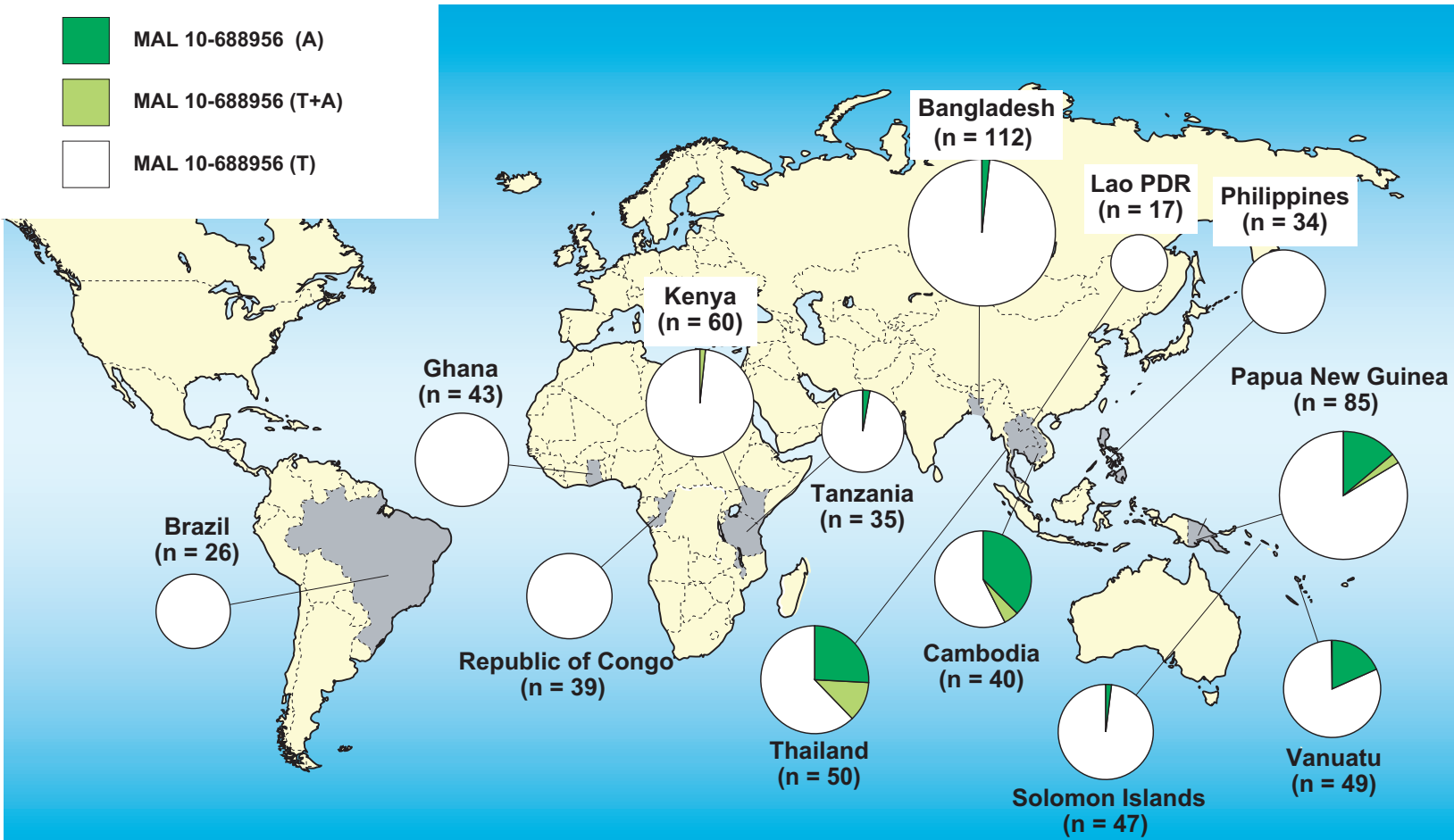


Figure 1B

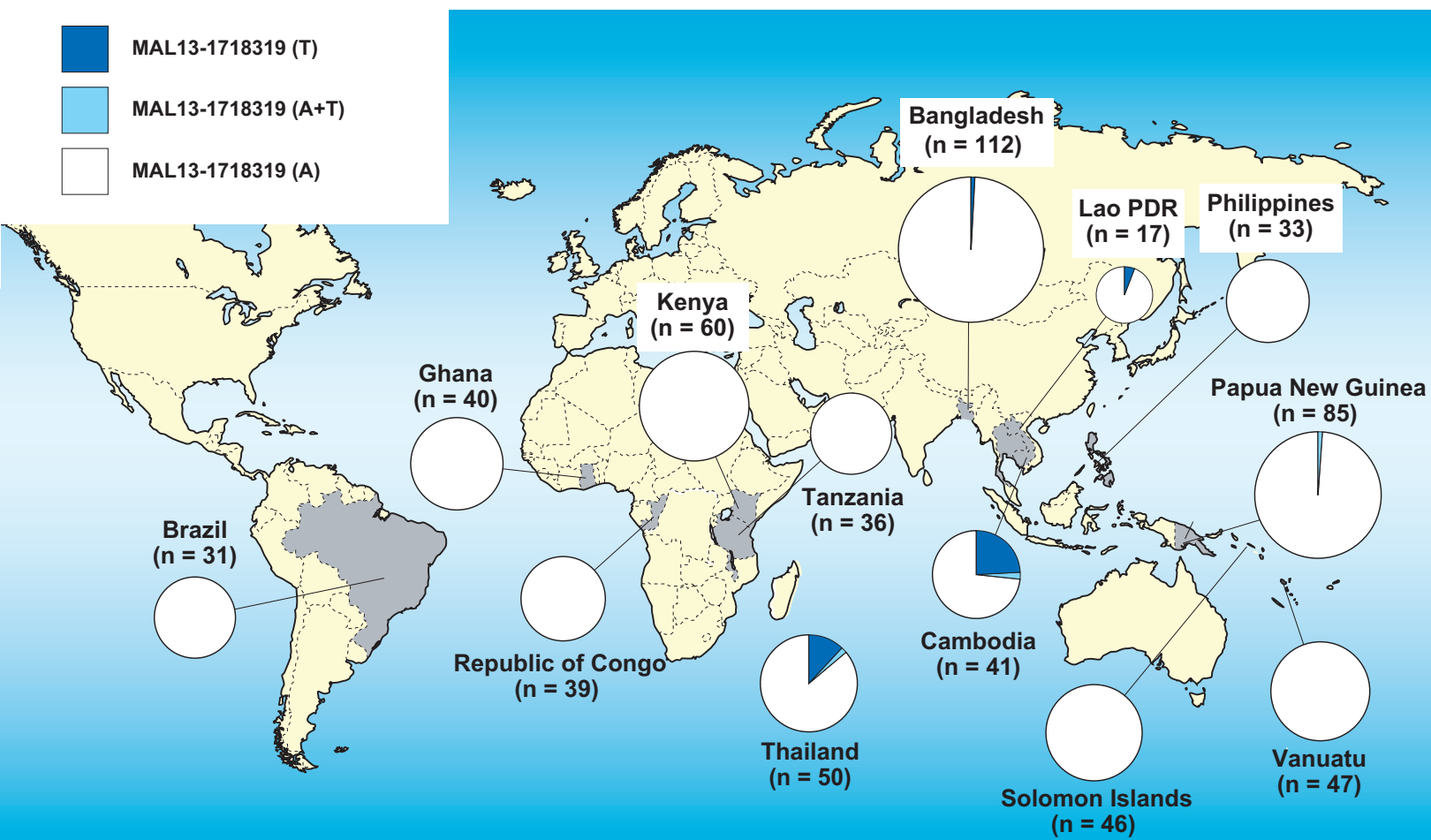
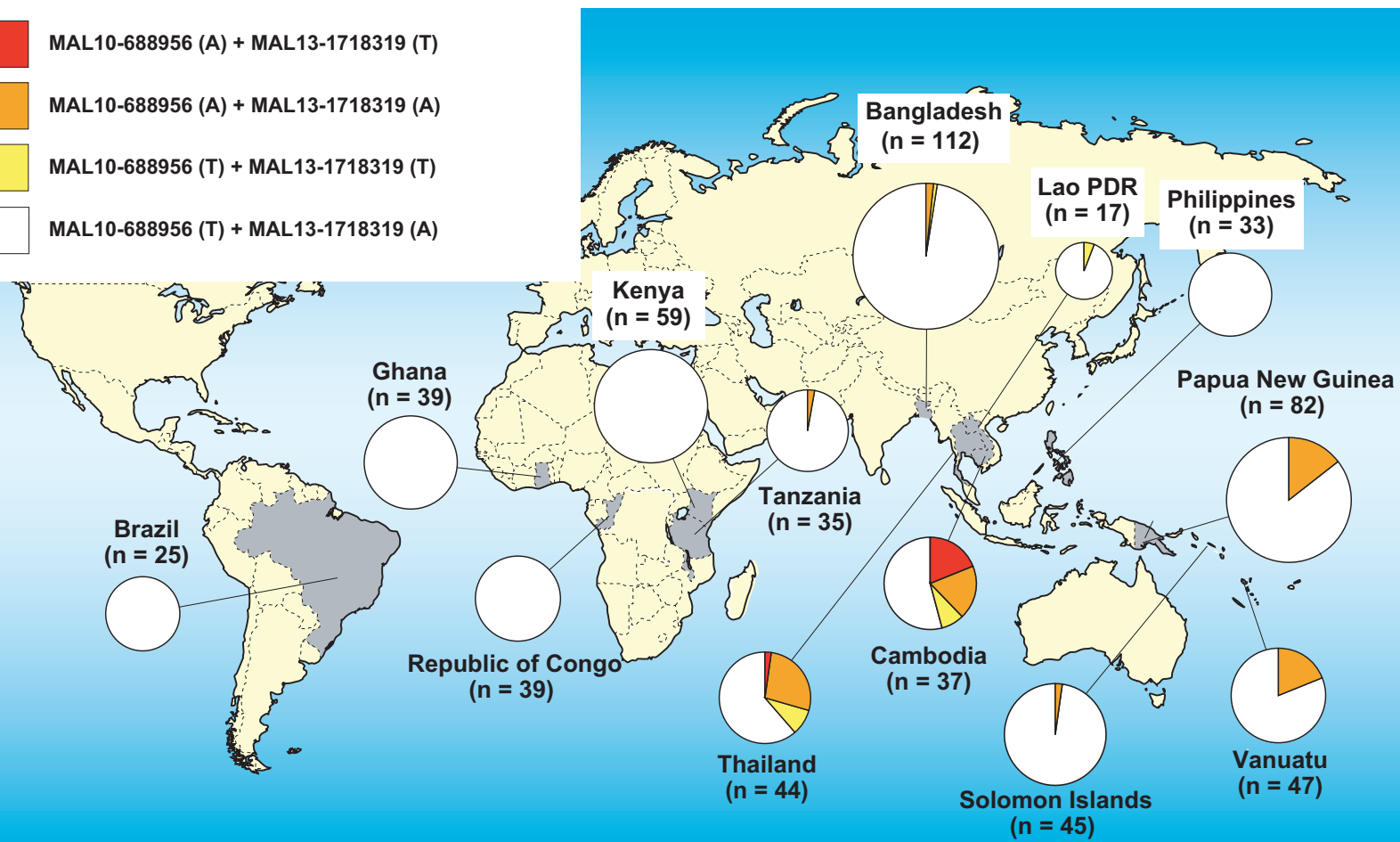
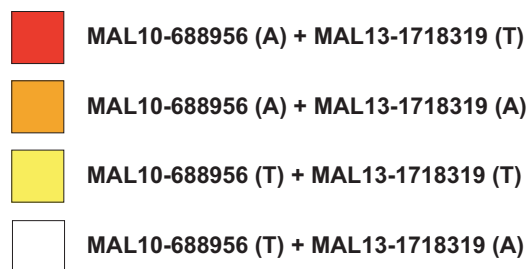


Figure 2





**Table 1.** *Plasmodium falciparum* isolates from 13 countries used in this study

<b>Country</b>	<b>Area</b>	<b>No. of isolates</b>	<b>Year of sampling</b>
Southeast Asia			
Bangladesh	Bandarban	112	2007
Cambodia	Chumkiri, Kampot	43	2004, 2005, 2006
Thailand	Tak, Kanchanaburi, Ratchaburi	50	2001-2
LaoPDR	Khammouanne	17	1999
Philippines	Palawan Island	34	1997
Pacific Oceania			
Papua New Guinea	East Sepik	85	2002, 2003
Solomon Islands	Guadalcanal Island	48	1995-6
Vanuatu	Gaua, Santo, Pentecost, Malakula	50	1996, 1998
Africa			
Kenya	Kisii	62	1998
Tanzania	Rufiji River Delta	36	1998, 2003
Republic of Congo	Pointe-Noire, Brazzaville, Gamboma	40	2006
Ghana	Winneba	44	2004
South America			
Brazil	Acre	32	1985-6, 1999, 2004-5
<b>Total</b>		<b>653</b>	

**Table 2.** Linkage disequilibrium in the *Plasmodium falciparum* between MAL10-688956 and MAL13-1718319 in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Thailand.

Country	n	D'	r <sup>2</sup>	p value <sup>a</sup>
Bangladesh	112	ND	0.00016	0.8491
Cambodia	37	0.5174	<b>0.1629</b>	<b>0.0146</b>
Thailand	44	0.3231	0.00561	0.6074

ND, not determined.

<sup>a</sup>  $\chi^2$  test.

Isolates in which allele types were not determined were excluded (n=4), and then isolates harbouring mixed SADCAT/non-SADCAT in either MAL10-688956 or MAL13-1718319 were excluded (n= 8).

