



Changing Pattern of *Plasmodium falciparum* *pfmdr1* Gene Polymorphisms in Southern Rwanda

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ABSTRACT *Plasmodium falciparum* multidrug resistance-1 gene (*pfmdr1*) polymorphisms associate with altered antimalarial susceptibility. Between 2010 and 2018/2019, we observed that the prevalence of the wild-type allele N86 and the wild-type combination NYD increased 10-fold (4% versus 40%) and more than 2-fold (18% versus 44%), respectively. Haplotypes other than NYD or NFD declined by up to >90%. Our molecular data suggest the *pfmdr1* pattern shifted toward one associated with artemether-lumefantrine resistance.

KEYWORDS multidrug resistance, *Plasmodium falciparum*, malaria, Rwanda

Treatment of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria relies on artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs), comprising a fast-acting artemisinin derivative and a slowly eliminated partner drug. *P. falciparum* *kelch-13* (*pfkelch13*) single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associate with decreased artemisinin susceptibility. When conferring reduced *in vitro* sensitivity and delayed parasite clearance *in vivo*, they are termed validated mutations, common in Southeast Asia (1). Recently, these were detected in East Africa (Rwanda) and associated with delayed parasite clearance (2–4). Although ACT failure remains rare in Sub-Saharan Africa (1), the emergence of non-artemisinin partner drug resistance is feared. Susceptibility to these antimalarials, including lumefantrine (LF) and amodiaquine (AQ), is influenced by the *Plasmodium falciparum* multidrug resistance-1 gene (*pfmdr1*) SNPs N86Y, Y184F, and D1246Y (5–9). Individual allele combinations, or haplotypes (e.g., N86-Y184-D1246, NYD, wild-type haplotype), exhibit specific susceptibility phenotypes (9). Notably, *pfmdr1* 86Y associates with increased sensitivity to LF, mefloquine, and dihydro-artemisinin and decreased chloroquine and AQ sensitivity (5). Resistant strains spread under drug pressure but may decline without (10, 11). Rwanda has used AL as a first-line antimalarial since 2006 (12). In 2010, we reported a predominant *pfmdr1* pattern (NFD) suggestive of intense AL pressure in mostly asymptomatic preschool children in Huye, Rwanda (13). Almost a decade later, we reassessed *pfmdr1* alleles in symptomatic and largely adult patients in Huye and compared them to the 2010 findings.

In March–June 2018 and September–December 2019, we recruited 295 uncomplicated malaria patients at Sovu Health Centre and Kabutare District Hospital, Huye district, Rwanda. All reported fever in the preceding 48 h or were febrile (164/276; $\geq 37.5^{\circ}\text{C}$, axillary). The study was approved by the Rwanda National Ethics Committee, and participants or caregivers provided informed written consent. Patients were clinically examined, malaria was microscopically confirmed, and venous blood was collected into EDTA. Following DNA extraction (QIAamp DNA blood minikit; Qiagen, Germany), *Plasmodium* species was confirmed by PCR (14) in 2018 and by real-time PCR (TIB MolBiol, Germany) in 2019. Two *pfmdr1* regions (codons 61 to 236 and 1023 to 1288) were PCR amplified (15), sequenced (Eurofins Genomics,

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TABLE 1 Observed prevalence of *pfmdr1* polymorphisms and allele combinations in Huye, Rwanda, in 2010 and in 2018/2019

<i>pfmdr1</i> allele or allele combination ^a	2010 (13), <i>n</i> = 104 [% (<i>n</i>)]	2018 and 2019, ^b <i>n</i> = 212 [% (<i>n</i>)]
86Y	39.4 (41)	3.8 (8)*
184F	51.9 (54)	53.8 (114)
1246Y	12.5 (13)	2.4 (5)*
N86-Y184-D1246	18.3 (19)	44.3 (94)*
N86- 184F -D1246	38.5 (40)	50.0 (106)
86Y -Y184-D1246	23.1 (24)	1.9 (4)*
86Y - 184F -D1246	7.7 (8)	1.4 (3)*
86Y -Y184- 1246Y	5.8 (6)	0.5 (1)*
N86- 184F - 1246Y	2.3 (3)	1.9 (4)*
86Y - 184F - 1246Y	2.3 (3)	0
N86-Y184- 1246Y	1.0 (1)	0

^aMutations are presented in boldface.

^b*, significantly different from the respective proportion in 2010.

Germany), and aligned to reference PF3D7_0523000 (PlasmoDB; https://plasmodb.org/plasmo/app/record/gene/PF3D7_0523000) using CodonCode Aligner 4.2.5. *Plasmodium* infections can contain genetically distinct parasites and have a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of >1. To include all isolates, also those with evidence of MOI of >1 (i.e., both wild-type and mutant alleles present), we grouped alleles into combinations. In a secondary analysis, we estimated haplotype frequencies using a Bayesian model (16), which integrates unknown MOIs. The same priors were used as described previously (17). SNP and allele combination prevalence as well as haplotype frequencies in 2010 and 2018/2019 were compared using Fisher's exact test. A *P* value of <0.05 was considered significant. We used R 3.6.3 for statistical analyses.

By PCR, 90.3% (234/259) of the malaria patients in 2018/2019 had *P. falciparum* infection. Of these, 50.6% (118/233) were female, median age was 17.5 years (range, 1 to 73), and mean temperature was 37.2°C (standard deviation [SD], ±1.3°C). Good-quality sequencing reads for both *pfmdr1* regions were obtained from 90.6% (212/234) of isolates. Evidence of an MOI of >1 was present in 17.9% (38/212) of samples. The observed mutation prevalence was the following: 86Y, 3.8%; 184F, 53.8%; and 1246Y, 2.4% (Table 1). As for observed allele combinations, NFD (50%) dominated over wild-type NYD (44%). Considering haplotype frequency estimates, the reverse was seen (i.e., 39% versus 56%) (Table 2). In any case, >90% of isolates showed NFD or NYD in 2018/2019. Other nonsynonymous polymorphisms were T199S (*n* = 4), V207I (*n* = 2), T222I (*n* = 8), and Q1198K (*n* = 1), but not S1034C or N1042D.

Compared to 2010 data from the same region, the 2018/2019 *pfmdr1* allele pattern has changed: the prevalence of the 86Y mutation declined 10-fold and that of 1246Y 5-fold, whereas 184F remained basically unchanged (Table 1). Consequently, both the observed prevalence and the estimated frequency of wild-type haplotype NYD more than doubled between 2010 and 2018/2019. Allele combinations or haplotypes other

TABLE 2 Estimated haplotype frequency in Huye, Rwanda, in 2010 and in 2018/2019^a

<i>pfmdr1</i> haplotype	2010 (13) [% (95% credibility interval)]	2018 and 2019 [% (95% credibility interval)]
N86-Y184-D1246	24.0 (17.0, 32.3)	56.3 (49.6, 62.9)
N86- 184F -D1246	38.0 (29.6, 47.0)	39.2 (32.8, 45.9)
86Y -Y184-D1246	24.3 (17.4, 32.3)	1.2 (0.4, 2.6)
86Y - 184F -D1246	3.4 (1.2, 7.2)	0.9 (0.3, 2.2)
86Y -Y184- 1246Y	4.6 (1.9, 8.6)	0.4 (0.0, 1.3)
N86- 184F - 1246Y	2.0 (0.5, 5.1)	1.1 (0.3, 2.4)
86Y - 184F - 1246Y	0.7 (0.0, 2.9)	
N86-Y184- 1246Y	1.5 (0.2, 4.5)	0.5 (0.1, 1.6)

^aHaplotype frequencies are estimated by a Bayesian model accounting for multiplicity of infection (17).

Mutations are presented in boldface.

than NYD or NFD present in 2010 declined by up to >90% or disappeared, resulting in reduced genetic diversity (Tables 1 and 2).

The trends in our study accord with observations across Africa, i.e., a shift toward *pfmdr1* N86 and D1246, where AL is the major antimalarial (11). The N86 wild-type allele confers decreased LF susceptibility and increased AL failure (6, 8). So far, AL treatment failure is rare in Rwanda (1), possibly due to partial immunity and clinical artemisinin effectiveness. However, susceptibility to dihydro-artemisinin is linked to *pfmdr1* 86Y (5, 8), which almost vanished from the local parasite population. Moreover, a validated marker of artemisinin resistance, *pfkelch13* R561H, occurs in 4.5% of *P. falciparum* isolates in the same population (2). This molecular constellation, the emergence of an artemisinin resistance allele together with >95% of *pfmdr1* N86, indicates a shift toward AL-resistant genotypes in this region.

Since almost 20% of samples had evidence of an MOI of >1, we modeled haplotype frequencies, which differed from observed allele combination prevalence. This illustrates that considering one mutated allele in samples with an MOI of >1 as mutated genotypes should not be mistaken as haplotype frequency. Using MOI in analyzing temporal and/or regional allele patterns is recommended to increase comparability (16).

As limitations, we assessed *pfmdr1* alleles at two time points only, in a confined region, and lack susceptibility data. Moreover, we did not type *pfmdr1* copy number or the *P. falciparum* chloroquine resistance transporter gene, which also interfere with artemether and LF sensitivity (6, 7). We compared randomly selected, mostly asymptomatic children (13) to symptomatic, largely adult patients. Manifestation associates with *pfmdr1* SNPs (18), but not to the extent observed in our study. A strength is the comparison of molecular markers in the same district almost a decade apart.

Fifteen years after the implementation of AL as a first-line antimalarial, our study suggests the pattern in *pfmdr1* SNPs shifts toward AL resistance-associated genotypes in the Huye region. The recently demonstrated independent emergence of artemisinin-resistant *P. falciparum* strains at two sites in Rwanda underlines the importance of focal surveillance (3, 4). These developments could be the first sign of an imminent health threat to the African continent, and, in the absence of novel antimalarials, triple ACTs might be considered (19).

Data availability. Data will be made available in the WWARN repository, as a .csv file, containing Pfmldr1 genotypes and basic patient characteristics. The doi will be available when the repository is confirmed. Code for the implementation of the haplotype frequency estimation model is available at https://github.com/welmoedvl/ARTHUR_pfmdr1_haplotypefreqest.

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We have no conflicts of interest to declare.

C. Bayingana and F.P.M. designed the study. D.M., J.N., and A.S. supervised logistics. W.V.L., C. Bergmann, F.H., D.S., J.N., and A.S. were responsible for patient recruitment. W.V.L., C. Bergmann, C.T., and D.M. did the laboratory work. W.V.L. and R.O. analyzed the data. W.V.L. and F.P.M. wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to and approved the manuscript.

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