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**Intermittent preventive treatment with dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine in
Ugandan schoolchildren selects for *Plasmodium falciparum* transporter
polymorphisms that modify drug sensitivity**

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Running title: Selection for *P. falciparum* polymorphisms by DP

22 **Abstract**

23 Dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine (DP) offers prolonged protection against malaria, but its
24 impact on *Plasmodium falciparum* drug sensitivity is uncertain. In a trial of intermittent
25 preventive treatment in schoolchildren in Tororo, Uganda in 2011-12, monthly DP for one
26 year decreased the incidence of malaria by 96% compared to placebo; DP once per school
27 term offered protection primarily during the first month after therapy. To assess the impact
28 of DP on selection of drug resistance, we compared the prevalence of key polymorphisms in
29 isolates that emerged at different intervals after treatment with DP. Blood obtained
30 monthly and at each episode of fever was assessed for *P. falciparum* parasitemia by
31 microscopy. Samples from 160 symptomatic and 650 asymptomatic episodes of parasitemia
32 were assessed at 4 loci (N86Y, Y184F, and D1246Y in *pfmdr1* and K76T in *pfcr1*) that
33 modulate sensitivity to aminoquinoline antimalarials utilizing a ligase detection reaction
34 fluorescent microsphere assay. For *pfmdr1* N86Y and *pfcr1* K76T, but not the other studied
35 polymorphisms, the prevalences of mutant genotypes were significantly greater in children
36 who had received DP within the past 30 days compared to those not treated within 60 days
37 (86Y 18.0% vs. 8.3%, $p=0.03$; 76T 96.0% vs. 86.1%, $p=0.05$), suggesting selective pressure of
38 DP. Full sequencing of *pfcr1* in a subset of samples did not identify additional polymorphisms
39 selected by DP. In summary, parasites that emerged soon after treatment with DP were
40 more likely than parasites not under drug pressure to harbor *pfmdr1* and *pfcr1*
41 polymorphisms associated with decreased sensitivity to aminoquinoline antimalarials.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Malaria, in particular infection with *Plasmodium falciparum*, remains a huge public
45 health problem, with the highest disease burden in sub-Saharan Africa (1, 2). Important
46 advances have been made in malaria control recently, with a significant decrease in malaria
47 burden and progress towards elimination noted in some areas (3). Among key tools in the
48 control of malaria is intermittent preventive treatment (IPT), the provision of full treatment
49 courses at regular intervals to high risk populations (4). IPT is standard practice during
50 pregnancy (IPTp), is recommended in children living in seasonal malaria transmission
51 settings as seasonal malaria chemoprevention (5), and is being investigated in other
52 populations (6-9). However, currently IPT is advocated only with sulfadoxine-
53 pyrimethamine (SP) or a combination of SP and amodiaquine (SP+AQ) (5, 10), regimens
54 severely compromised by drug resistance in much of Africa (11-13). For malaria treatment,
55 older regimens have been replaced by artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs), and
56 a similar change may be warranted for IPT.

57 Dihydroartemisinin-piperaquine (DP), which provides rapid killing of most parasites
58 by dihydroartemisinin, prolonged action against any remaining parasites by piperaquine,
59 and protection for weeks after therapy due to the long half-life of piperaquine, has recently
60 been investigated for IPT. Compared to IPTp with SP, IPTp with DP was associated with
61 lower risks of *P. falciparum* infection and symptomatic malaria during pregnancy in Kenya
62 (14) and Uganda (15). In Ugandan schoolchildren, monthly IPT with DP was associated with
63 reduced incidence of malaria and reduced prevalence of parasitemia and anemia compared
64 to DP given approximately once every three months or placebo (6, 16). Similar results were
65 observed in Ugandan infants when monthly IPT with DP was compared with daily
66 trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole or monthly SP (7). Thus, DP is a promising alternative to SP

67 or SP+AQ for IPT, but its benefits may be undone by the emergence of *P. falciparum*
68 resistance to either component of the combination.

69 Mediators of decreased drug sensitivity and selective pressures for resistance are
70 quite well understood for some antimalarial drugs. Resistance to the aminoquinolines
71 chloroquine and amodiaquine is mediated largely by polymorphisms in putative drug
72 transporters encoded by *pfcr1* and *pfmdr1* (13, 17), and these polymorphisms are selected in
73 new infections that emerge soon after therapy with artesunate-AQ (AS/AQ) (18, 19).
74 Piperaquine is a bisaminoquinoline related to chloroquine and amodiaquine. Resistance to
75 piperaquine was widely reported during the pre-artemisinin era in China (20), and recently
76 clinically relevant resistance, with frequent recrudescences after therapy with DP, has been
77 noted in Cambodia(21-23). However, mechanisms of resistance to piperaquine are
78 uncertain. Use of DP for treatment (24) or chemoprevention (25) did not select for the
79 polymorphisms associated with chloroquine resistance in Burkina Faso, but in Uganda
80 recent treatment with DP selected for *pfmdr1* mutations associated with decreased
81 sensitivity to aminoquinolines (26). Interestingly, some other antimalarials, notably
82 lumefantrine, which is a component of the Ugandan first-line antimalarial regimen
83 artemether-lumefantrine (AL), exert the opposite selective pressure. Thus, new infections
84 emerging within two months of treatment with AL showed selection of wild-type sequences
85 at the *pfcr1* K76T and *pfmdr1* N86Y and D1246Y alleles (26-29); mutant sequences are
86 selected at these same alleles by aminoquinolines. Of recent concern has been resistance to
87 artemisinins, manifest as delayed parasite clearance after therapy, in Southeast Asia (22, 30-
88 32), but recent studies utilizing clinical, parasitological, and molecular markers (33, 34)
89 suggest that the artemisinin-resistant phenotype is not yet prevalent in Uganda (26, 35, 36)
90 or other parts of Africa (37, 38).

91 Taken together, available evidence suggests that DP may select for the same *P.*
92 *falciparum* polymorphisms as other aminoquinolines, leading to decreased treatment or
93 preventive efficacy of DP, but data on the effects of IPT with DP are very limited. We
94 therefore assessed the prevalences of key polymorphisms in isolates that emerged at
95 different intervals after treatment with DP using samples from a recent trial evaluating IPT
96 with DP in Ugandan schoolchildren.

97

98 **Methods**

99 **Clinical trial.** Study samples were from a randomized, double-blinded, placebo-
100 controlled trial conducted in Tororo, Uganda from 2011 to 2012 (6, 39). In brief, 740
101 schoolchildren aged 6–14 years from one primary school in Mulanda sub-county, Tororo
102 District were enrolled and randomized 1:1:1 to one of three study arms: DP monthly, DP
103 once per school term (four treatments over 12 months), or placebo. DP was administered
104 according to weight based guidelines and treatment was directly observed. Finger-prick
105 blood samples were obtained at enrollment, every month, and with every episode of fever
106 to assess for malaria infection by thick blood smear, and for storage on filter paper.
107 Episodes of uncomplicated malaria were treated with AL. Children were followed for 12
108 months. The trial was approved by the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology
109 and the Makerere University School of Medicine Research and Ethics Committee and
110 registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT01231880). Molecular studies were also approved by the
111 University of California, San Francisco Committee on Human Research.

112 **Selection of samples for testing of parasite polymorphisms.** We considered all
113 samples that were positive for *P. falciparum* parasitemia based on evaluation of Giemsa-
114 stained thick blood smears, as previously described (6). A total of 160 symptomatic and

115 1,522 asymptomatic episodes of *P. falciparum* parasitemia were documented. The number
116 of samples analysed was determined by estimating the power for two-sample comparison
117 of proportions using effect sizes observed for each mutant polymorphism in a recent study
118 in Tororo (0.34 for *pfmdr1* N86Y, 0.11 for *pfmdr1* D1246Y, 0.04 for *pfmdr1* 184F, and 0.09
119 for *pfcr1* K76), fixing α at 0.05 (26). The sample size giving the maximum power was
120 considered in the analysis. From these estimates, we analysed all 160 samples from
121 symptomatic episodes, all 50 samples from children with recurrent parasitemia within 13-30
122 days of prior therapy with DP, and 600 samples randomly selected from children with either
123 recurrent parasitemia >30 days after prior therapy with DP or from the control arm of the
124 study. All samples were analyzed for 4 common *P. falciparum* polymorphisms known to be
125 associated with drug sensitivity: *pfcr1* K76T, and *pfmdr1* N86Y, Y184F, and D1246Y. A subset
126 of 25 samples from children with prior DP therapy within 13-30 days and 25 randomly
127 selected paired samples from children in the control arm (each pair matched for collection
128 within 15 days of each other) were subjected to sequencing of the complete *pfcr1* gene.

129 **Characterization of 4 *pfcr1* and *pfmdr1* polymorphisms.** DNA was extracted from
130 filter paper blood spots into 100 μ L of water using Chelex-100 as previously described (40).
131 Gene fragments spanning all loci of interest were amplified in nested reactions (26), and
132 failed reactions were repeated. To detect polymorphisms, multiplex ligase detection
133 reaction–fluorescent microsphere assays were performed as previously described (26, 41).

134 **Sequencing of *pfcr1*.** For a subset of samples *pfcr1* was sequenced from DNA samples
135 as previously described (42) with minor modifications. Briefly, *pfcr1* was amplified in 3
136 nested-PCR reactions, covering exons 1-2, 3-8, and 9-13, using the published primer
137 sequences. For both rounds of PCR, each 25 μ L reaction contained 2 mM MgSO₄, 200 μ M
138 each dNTP, 1 μ M each primer, 1X PCR Buffer, and 2U Platinum Taq DNA Polymerase High

139 Fidelity (Invitrogen). Conditions for all reactions were 94oC for 2 min; 30 cycles of 94oC for
140 20 sec, 47oC for 10 sec, and 60oC for 3 min; and a final extension at 60oC for 5 min.
141 Amplicons were cloned with the TOPO-TA Cloning Kit for Sequencing and transfected into
142 One Shot TOP10 chemically competent *E. coli* (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's
143 instructions. Colonies were grown overnight under kanamycin selection, picked, and
144 incubated in LB broth with kanamycin. Plasmid DNA was purified using the PureLink Quick
145 Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Invitrogen), digested with *EcoRI* to confirm the insert size, and then
146 sequenced (Eurofins) using M13 forward and reverse primers. DNA sequence data were
147 assembled and edited, and mutations were detected by alignment and comparison it to the
148 expected sequence using CodonCode Aligner v. 5.1.5. Multiple clones were sequenced to
149 distinguish true polymorphisms from PCR errors, including at least 3 clones for all but 3
150 fragments, for which 2 clones were sequenced.

151 **Statistical analysis.** Data analysis was done using Stata version 14 (StataCorp).
152 Outcomes of interest were the prevalence of pure mutant alleles for each locus of interest.
153 The exposure variable of interest was duration since prior DP dose, evaluated as a
154 categorical variable split into 13 – 30, 31 – 60, and > 60 days (including the no treatment
155 control group) since the last treatment. Associations between outcomes and duration since
156 last treatment and differences between prevalences of *pfcr*t alleles were measured using
157 Fisher's exact test and expressed as relative risk. In all analyses, a 2-tailed P value <0.05 was
158 considered statistically significant.

159

160 **Results**

161 **Study samples.** A total of 740 schoolchildren aged 6 – 14 years were randomized to
162 one of the 3 study arms in the parent study and followed for one year from 2011 to 2012. As

163 previously reported, compared to either DP once per school term (approximately every 3
164 months) or placebo, monthly DP offered strong protective efficacy against malaria (6). For
165 this sub-study, samples collected from children with blood smears positive for *P. falciparum*
166 were analyzed (Table 1). As expected due to the protective efficacy of monthly DP, fewer
167 samples were available from this study arm than from children who received placebo or DP
168 once per school term. A total of 810 samples from 160 symptomatic and 650 asymptomatic
169 episodes of parasitemia were assessed (Table 1). Samples were analysed for common
170 polymorphisms in *pfmdr1* and *pfcr1*. Genotyping results were available for *pfcr1* K76T in 806
171 (99.5%) samples and for *pfmdr1* N86Y, N184Y, and D1246Y in 800 (98.8%), 810 (100%), and
172 784 (96.8%) samples, respectively, and these results were included in the analysis.

173 **Prevalence of *pfcr1* and *pfmdr1* polymorphisms.** The prevalence of the 4 studied
174 polymorphisms was similar to that in contemporaneous samples from Tororo that were
175 reported previously (43). For two polymorphisms, *pfcr1* K76T and *pfmdr1* N86Y, the
176 prevalence of mutant genotypes was significantly higher in samples from children who had
177 received DP within 30 days compared to those from children who had not received DP
178 within 60 days (Table 2). For the other studied polymorphisms the prevalence of genotypes
179 did not differ between children who had or had not received recent therapy with DP.
180 Matching for duration since a prior episode, there was no difference in the prevalence of
181 *pfcr1* and *pfmdr1* mutant alleles between samples from children with symptomatic or
182 asymptomatic parasitemia (data not shown).

183 **Sequencing of *pfcr1*.** As DP may select for additional polymorphisms in *pfcr1*, we
184 sequenced the gene in a subset of 25 parasitemic samples under strong selective pressure
185 as indicated by emergence within 30 days of prior therapy with DP and in 25 paired samples
186 collected near the same date from children who did not receive DP. We successfully

187 sequenced the full gene in 17 pairs. We identified 9 polymorphisms, 6 of which are
188 commonly reported in African isolates (Supplemental Table 1). All isolates had the *pfprt* 72-
189 76 CVIET or a mix of the CVIET and CVMNT haplotype, except for one isolate that had the
190 *pfprt* 72S mutation, resulting in the SVIET haplotype (in all 6 clones from a patient not
191 receiving DP). Two additional polymorphisms, L50P and F112I, were each identified in at
192 least 2 clones from a single isolate, the 50P mutation in a control isolate and the 112I
193 mutation in an isolate from a child recently treated with DP (Supplemental Table 2). We
194 found 9 *pfprt* haplotypes; the majority (76% in the DP arm and 65% in the control arm) were
195 mutant at the six loci that are commonly mutant in Africa (74I, 75E, 76T, 220S, 271E, 371I)
196 (17). Overall, we saw no evidence that DP selected for novel *pfprt* polymorphisms in
197 Ugandan children.

198

199 **Discussion**

200 Monthly IPT with DP was highly efficacious in reducing the risks of symptomatic
201 malaria, parasitemia, and anemia in Ugandan schoolchildren (6). However, the
202 chemoprophylactic benefits of a long-acting antimalarial such as piperazine may be
203 accompanied by selection of drug resistant parasites (13). We tested whether DP selected
204 for parasites with genotypes associated with altered sensitivity to aminoquinolines.
205 Compared to parasites not under drug pressure, those that emerged within 30 days of IPT
206 with DP were more likely to harbor two mutations, *pfmdr1* 86Y and *pfprt* 76T; these
207 mutations are associated with resistance to chloroquine and amodiaquine (36, 43-45).
208 Thus, the marked preventive efficacy of IPT with DP may be accompanied by selection of
209 decreased sensitivity to aminoquinolines.

210 Resistance to chloroquine and amodiaquine is mediated primarily by polymorphisms
211 in putative drug transporters encoded by *pfcr1* and *pfmdr1* (13, 46). The *pfcr1* 76T and
212 *pfmdr1* 86Y and 1246Y mutations are selected in new infections that emerge soon after
213 therapy with regimens including chloroquine or amodiaquine (47). Piperaquine is a related
214 bisaminoquinoline, but mechanisms of resistance are uncertain, and studies of the selective
215 pressure exerted by DP have yielded conflicting results. Specifically, use of DP for treatment
216 (48), or chemoprevention (25), did not select for the polymorphisms associated with
217 aminoquinoline resistance in Burkina Faso, but, in Uganda, recent treatment with DP
218 selected for the *pfmdr1* 86Y and 1246Y mutations (26). Our new results shed additional
219 light on this area. In the setting of IPT in schoolchildren, recent receipt of DP was associated
220 with selection of the *pfmdr1* 86Y and *pfcr1* 76T mutations, but not the *pfmdr1* 1246Y
221 mutation. Differing results may have been due to the changing baseline of polymorphism
222 prevalence in Uganda, with decreasing prevalence of *pfmdr1* 1246Y and *pfcr1* 76T over time.
223 Differences in results between West and East Africa may also be explained by differences in
224 parasite backgrounds; of note, the *pfmdr1* 1246Y mutation, which until recently was
225 widespread in Uganda, has consistently been uncommon in Burkina Faso (24, 25, 28).

226 Importantly, although we lack a head-to-head comparison, it appears that DP does
227 not select as readily as other ACTs for key transporter mutations. In multiple studies the
228 selective pressure of AS/AQ was marked (49), including a recent trial that showed the
229 prevalence of the pure *pfmdr1* 86Y mutation to rise from 59% at baseline to 99% in
230 recurrent infections within one month of treatment (50). AL also exerts strong selective
231 pressure, but in the opposite direction, with selection of wild type *pfcr1* K76 and *pfmdr1* N86
232 and N1246 sequences in parasites that emerge soon after therapy (19, 29). Our recent
233 findings indicate that DP selects for resistance in a manner similar to that of the other

234 aminoquinolines, but associations between recent therapy and transporter polymorphisms
235 were less marked, suggesting that the selective pressure of DP is lower than that of other
236 regimens. This difference might be due to different mechanisms of transport for
237 piperazine, a much larger molecule compared to chloroquine or amodiaquine.

238 We were concerned that IPT with DP might select for additional resistance-mediating
239 *P. falciparum* polymorphisms. Polymorphisms in addition to those commonly described in
240 African isolates have been identified in other regions, in some cases with biochemical and
241 clinical consequences (51, 52). Sequencing of *pfcr* in a subset of samples either under or
242 not under the selective pressure of DP identified a few previously unidentified *pfcr*
243 mutations, but it did not suggest that additional polymorphisms were selected by DP.

244 Our results have important implications for the use of DP for IPT. Although it offers
245 great promise for decreasing the malaria burden, DP use may be accompanied by selection
246 of parasites with decreased sensitivity to DP, and also to the related ACT AS/AQ.
247 Consideration of the opposite resistance pressures of different antimalarials has led some to
248 recommend multiple or rotating first-line antimalarial regimens (53). For example, AS/AQ
249 and AL have opposite selective pressures on *pfcr* and *pfmdr1* such that each regimen
250 should blunt selection of resistance to the other. Our results are consistent with a prior
251 study in Uganda indicating that DP has similar selective pressure to that of AS/AQ. Thus,
252 considering resistance selection, using DP in IPT might be best advised when the standard
253 treatment regimen is AL, such that the treatment and IPT regimens offer mutual protection
254 against selection of resistance. Further, our results suggest that, with changing treatment
255 and control practices, continued surveillance for clinical, biochemical, and molecular
256 markers of antimalarial drug resistance in Africa is an important priority.

257

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268

269 **Potential conflicts of interest**

270 All authors report no conflicts of interest.

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Table 1. Characteristics of study children that supplied samples and of episodes selected for analysis

Characteristics of children with at least one episode of parasitemia	N=389
Median age (IQR)	9 (7 – 11)
Median duration of observation in days (IQR)	366 (365 – 368)
Female sex (n, %)	209 (53.7)
Study group n (%)	
Placebo	178 (45.8)
IPT once a school term	178 (45.8)
Monthly IPT	33 (8.4)
Characteristics of episodes of parasitemia	N=810
Malaria classification n (%)	
Asymptomatic episodes	650 (80.2)
Clinical episodes	160 (19.8)
Study group n (%)	
Placebo	334 (41.3)
IPT once a school term	419 (51.7)
Monthly IPT	57 (7.0)
Duration since prior treatment n (%)	
15 – 30 days	50 (6.2)
31 – 60 days	122 (15.1)
61 – 90 days	170 (20.9)
>90 days	134 (16.5)
No treatment	334 (41.2)

Table 2: Prevalence of *P. falciparum* pure mutant alleles stratified by time since last dose of DP.

Allele	Days since last dose of DP	Prevalence of wild-type, mixed, and mutant alleles			RR for mutant genotype (95% CI)	p-value
		Wild type	Mixed	Mutant		
<i>pfmdr1</i> N86Y	>60 ^a	189/630 (30.0)	389/630 (62.7)	52/630 (8.3)	1	
	31 – 60	53/120 (44.2)	57/120 (47.5)	10/120 (8.3)	1.01 (0.53 – 1.93)	0.98
	13 – 30	25/50 (50.0)	32/50 (32.0)	9/50 (18.0)	2.18 (1.14 – 4.16)	0.03
<i>pfmdr1</i> N184Y	>60 ^a	143/638 (22.4)	458/638 (68.8)	37/638 (5.8)	1	
	31 – 60	25/122 (20.5)	84/122 (68.8)	13/122 (10.7)	1.84 (1.01 – 3.35)	0.07
	13 – 30	21/50 (42.0)	28/50 (56.0)	1/50 (2.0)	0.34 (0.05 – 2.46)	0.51
<i>pfmdr1</i> D1246Y	>60 ^a	261/616 (42.4)	292/616 (47.4)	63/616 (10.2)	1	
	31 – 60	59/120 (49.2)	51/120 (42.5)	10/120 (8.3)	0.81 (0.43 – 1.54)	0.62
	13 – 30	24/48 (50.0)	21/48 (43.7)	3/48 (6.3)	0.61 (0.20 – 1.87)	0.61
<i>pfcr1</i> K76T	>60 ^a	9/635 (1.4)	79/635 (12.4)	547/635 (86.1)	1	
	31 – 60	1/121 (0.8)	13/121 (10.7)	107/121 (88.4)	1.03 (0.96 – 1.10)	0.56
	13 – 30	1/50 (2.0)	1/50 (2.0)	48/50 (96.0)	1.11 (1.04 – 1.19)	0.05

^aIncludes those given no drug (placebo group)

Supplemental Table 1. Non-synonymous polymorphisms detected by sequencing of *pfcr* in Ugandan isolates.

<i>pfcr</i> Allele	Treatment Arm ^a	Wild type N (%)	Mixed N (%)	Mutant N (%)	P-value ^b
L50P	DP	17 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	p = 1.000
	Control	16 (94)	1 (6)	0 (0)	
C72S	DP	17 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	p = 1.000
	Control	16 (94)	0 (0)	1 (6)	
M74I	DP	0 (0)	2 (12)	15 (88)	p = 0.6552
	Control	0 (0)	4 (24)	13 (76)	
N75E	DP	0 (0)	2 (12)	15 (88)	p = 0.6552
	Control	0 (0)	4 (24)	13 (76)	
K76T	DP	0 (0)	2 (12)	15 (88)	p = 0.6552
	Control	0 (0)	4 (24)	13 (76)	
F112I	DP	16 (94)	1 (6)	0 (0)	p = 1.000
	Control	17 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
A220S	DP	0 (0)	2 (12)	15 (88)	p = 1.000
	Control	1 (6)	0 (0)	16 (94)	
Q271E	DP	0 (0)	2 (12)	15 (88)	p = 1.000
	Control	1 (6)	0 (0)	16 (94)	
R371I	DP	1 (6)	0 (0)	16 (94)	p = 0.60
	Control	3 (18)	0 (0)	14 (82)	

^aSamples from the DP arm were parasites emerging 15-30 days after therapy with DP; controls were from the placebo group that did not receive DP.

^bP-values are based on comparison of prevalence between treatment arms using Fisher's exact test.

Supplemental Table 2. *Pfcr*t haplotypes seen in sequenced samples.

Haplotype	Treatment arm		L50P	C72S	M74I	N75E	K76T	F112I	A220S	Q271E	R371I
	DP N (%)	Control N (%)									
1	13 (76)	11 (65)	L	C	I	E	T	F	S	E	I
2	1 (6)	2 (12)	L	C	M/I	N/E	K/T	F	S	E	R
3	0 (0)	1 (6)	L	C	M/I	N/E	K/T	F	S	E	I
4	0 (0)	1 (6)	L	S	I	E	T	F	S	E	I
5	0 (0)	1 (6)	L	C	I	E	T	F	A	Q	R
6	1 (6)	0 (0)	L	C	I	E	T	F	A/S	Q/E	I
7	1 (6)	0 (0)	L	C	M/I	N/E	K/T	F	A/S	Q/E	I
8	1 (6)	0 (0)	L	C	I	E	T	F/I	S	E	I
9	0 (0)	1 (6)	L/P	C	I	E	T	F	S	E	I

Loci with two alleles indicate a mixed genotype.