Sequence variation in the dihydrofolate reductase-thymidylate synthase (DHFR-TS) and trypanothione reductase (TR) genes of Trypanosoma cruzi

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Received 15 November 2001; received in revised form 25 January 2002

Abstract

Dihydrofolate reductase-thymidylate synthase (DHFR-TS) and trypanothione reductase (TR) are important enzymes for the metabolism of protozoan parasites from the family Trypanosomatidae (e.g. Trypanosoma spp., Leishmania spp.) that are targets of current drug-design studies. Very limited information exists on the levels of genetic polymorphism of these enzymes in natural populations of any trypanosomatid parasite. We present results of a survey of nucleotide variation in the genes coding for those enzymes in a large sample of strains from Trypanosoma cruzi, the agent of Chagas’ disease. We discuss the results from an evolutionary perspective. A sample of 31 strains show 39 silent and five amino acid polymorphisms in DHFR-TS, and 35 silent and 11 amino acid polymorphisms in TR. No amino acid replacements occur in regions that are important for the enzymatic activity of these proteins, but some polymorphisms occur in sites previously assumed to be invariant. The sequences from both genes cluster in four major groups, a result that is not fully consistent with the current classification of T. cruzi in two major groups of strains. Most polymorphisms correspond to fixed differences among the four sequence groups. Two tests of neutrality show that there is no evidence of adaptive divergence or of selective events having shaped the distribution of polymorphisms and fixed differences in these genes in T. cruzi. However, one nearly significant reduction of variance in the TR sequences from one sequence group suggests a recent selective event at, or close to, that locus.

Keywords: DHFR-TS; TR; Trypanosoma cruzi; Polymorphism; Evolution

1. Introduction

Enzymes that are essential to the metabolism of parasitic protozoa are attractive targets for antiparasite chemotherapy. Drugs that block the activity of those enzymes can inhibit the parasite’s growth and therefore represent viable alternatives or complements to the development of vaccines. Two important metabolic enzymes of human parasites from the family Trypanosomatidae (Trypanosoma spp., Leishmania spp.) have received much attention as potential targets for the development of chemotherapeutic agents: the bifunctional dihydrofolate reductase-thymidylate synthase (DHFR-TS) and trypanothione reductase (TR).

In most organisms, the enzymes dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) and thymidylate synthase (TS) catalyze consecutive reactions in the de novo synthesis of 2’-deoxythymidylate (dTMP) and exist as monofunctional separate proteins [1]. However, in protozoa DHFR and TS are expressed as a bifunctional monomeric enzyme, with the DHFR domain at the amino terminus and TS at the carboxy terminus of the polypeptide [2–4]. DHFR-TS has been a major target of research on antifolate drugs due to its central role in cellular metabolism and DNA synthesis. However, despite the success of antifolate chemotherapy against bacteria and malaria parasites, there are still no antifolate agents that can effectively block the activity of DHFR-TS in trypanosomatids [5].

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PII: S0166-6851(02)00019-1
Those difficulties have triggered interest on the enzyme trypanothione reductase (TR) as a more likely target for the development of drugs against trypanosomatid parasites [6]. Trypanosomatids differ from other organisms in that they lack the glutathione/glutathione reductase system for maintaining the stable reducing environment necessary for protection against oxidative stress. Instead, they rely on TR and a derivative of glutathione called trypanothione [7–9]. TR has therefore attracted a lot of attention as a potential target for drugs that block the trypanothione metabolism of trypanosomatid parasites without interfering with the glutathione metabolism of the human host [6,10].

Although nucleotide sequences of the genes coding for TR and DHFR-TS have been obtained for the majority of important trypanosomatid parasites [11–21], there is almost no information on the sequence polymorphism of these genes in natural populations of any trypanosomatid parasite. Such information is especially relevant for Trypanosoma cruzi, the agent of Chagas’ disease, which is very polymorphic at the genetic level [22,23]. Until very recently, the genes coding for DHFR-TS and TR had been only sequenced, respectively, in one or three strains of T. cruzi [15,19,24,25]. Nucleotide sequences from the DHFR-TS and TR genes from a large group of strains of T. cruzi that represent most of the genetic diversity of this parasite were recently obtained [26]. Here we use that large comparative sequence dataset to study the genetic polymorphism and evolution of the DHFR-TS and TR genes in T. cruzi.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Samples

General information about the origin of the 31 T. cruzi strains included in this study is given in Table 1. DNA samples were obtained from M. Tibayrenc and collaborators (CEPM CNRS/ORSTOM, Montpellier, France). Three samples from two species of bat trypanosomes (T. cruzi marinkellei and T. vespertilionis) were also included, and used to root the phylogenetic trees. Previously published sequences of T. cruzi were also included in the analyses: TR from the CL strain (GenBank acc. no. M38051) [15], Silvio strain (Z13958) [24], and CAI strain (M97953) [25]; and the DHFR-TS sequence from the Y strain (L22484) [19].

2.2. PCR and sequencing

DHFR-TS was amplified using primers DH1S (5’-CGCTGTITTAAGATCCGNNATGCC-3’) and DH3A (5’-CGCATAAGTCACCTCCATGTC-3’), where A and S stand, respectively, for antisense and sense DNA strands. TR was amplified using primers TRY2S (5’-ACTGGAGGCTGGAACGC-3’) and TRY2A (5’-GGATGCAACCRATRGTGTTGT-3’). PCR reactions were conducted using the following cycling conditions: 30 s denaturation at 94 °C, primer annealing for 1 min at 58 °C, and primer extension for 2 min at 72 °C, for a total of 30 cycles. PCR products were purified with the Wizard PCR Preps DNA Purification Kit (Promega). The PCR primers and the following internal sequencing primers were used for bidirectional sequencing: DHFR-TS: DHSEQS (5’-AGCATTGRGACRGTCCTACG-3’) and DHSEQA (5’-ACCGGTCCGTCATAGTTG-3’); TR: TRYSEQS (5’-CGAATGARGCATTYTACCTG-3’) and TRYSEQA (5’-TACTCGTCCACCTGCACACCAC-3’). Sequencing was carried out in an ABI 377 automatic sequencer using standard protocols described by the manufacturer. Sequences are available in GenBank (AF358926-AF359008).

2.3. Analyses

McDonald–Kreitman [27] and HKA [28] tests of neutrality were performed, respectively, with the programs DNASP [29] and HKA (written by Jody Hey, Rutgers University). Haplotypic diversity (H) was estimated using Eq. (8.4) of Nei [30]. Phylogenetic analyses were performed with version 4.0b6 of PAUP* [31]. The Tamura–Nei correction for multiple substitutions per site [32] was used to calculate genetic distances among sequences. Phylogenies were reconstructed using the Neighbor Joining (NJ) algorithm [33].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Heterozygosity and haplotypic diversity of the DHFR-TS and TR genes in T. cruzi

Partial sequences of 1473 bp, corresponding to 94% of the complete sequence of the DHFR-TS gene (total length 1563 bp), were collected from 31 strains of T. cruzi (Table 1). The sequences start at position 31 of the T. cruzi gene (codon 11) and end 60 bp before the stop codon. Nucleotide composition is slightly biased (57.9% G+C), the bias being more evident at third codon positions (68.8%). A measure of codon bias, the effective number of codons (ENC) [34], indicates that DHFR-TS has a moderate level of codon bias in T. cruzi (ENC = 48.66).

Partial sequences of 1290 bp were obtained for the TR gene (total length 1476 bp). The collected sequence starts at position 76 of the T. cruzi gene (codon 26) and ends 111 bp before the stop codon. The sequences have
no detectable nucleotide composition bias (52.2% G+C). Although the G+C content of synonymous third codon positions is 60.0%, there is no evidence of codon usage bias in this gene (ENC = 52.76) [34].

Although most of the strains are homozygous for the sequences of these two genes, several heterozygous strains were observed. As previously described [26], the PCR products from those strains were cloned and multiple clones (5–10) sequenced to infer the haplotypes. Two haplotypes were found in all the heterozygous strains. All the variable sites from all collected sequences are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Sequences from heterozygous strains are labeled with a H1 or H2 suffix after the strain name, where H1 or H2 stand for haplotypes 1 or 2. In Tables 2 and 3 the sequences are organized using the four sequence groups (A–D) defined by Machado and Ayala [26], which reflect the phylogenetic affinities among the haplotypes (see below).

While most haplotypes from the same strain only differ at 1–3 positions, the two DHFR-TS and TR haplotypes of strains SOC3 cl5, EPP, PSC-O, CL F11F5 and TULAHUEN cl2 are fairly divergent, differing in at least 16 or 22 sites (in DHFR-TS and TR, respectively). As shown by Machado and Ayala [26] that observed haplotype structure suggests the occurrence of at least one hybridization event in T. cruzi, because the two nuclear haplotypes fall in two distantly related sequence clades (B and C) and the heterozygous strains only carry one mitochondrial haplotype, thus ruling out laboratory contamination. Interestingly, the strain chosen for the T. cruzi genome project, CL F11F5 (CL Brener), is heterozygous for DHFR-TS and TR, and is inferred to have a hybrid genotype based on these nucleotide

### Table 1
List of the strains

| Lineage | Strain | Geographic origin | Source |
|---------|--------|-------------------|--------|
| T. cruzi I | TEH cl2 cl92 | Mexico | Triatominae |
| | Vin C6 | Cundinamarca, Colombia | Didelphis marsupialis |
| | FLORIDA C16 | Florida, USA | Triatoma sanguisuga |
| | X10 cl1 | Belem, Brasil | Human |
| | SABP3 | Vitor, Peru | Triatoma infestans |
| | A80 | Montsiner, Guyana | Didelphis marsupialis |
| | OPS21 cl11 | Cojedes, Venezuela | Human |
| | CUTIA cl1 | Espiritu Santo, Brazil | Dasyprocta aguti |
| | 133 79 cl7 | Santa Cruz, Bolivia | Human |
| | 26 79 | Santa Cruz, Bolivia | Triatoma sordida |
| | CUICA cl1 | Sao, Paulo, Brazil | Opossum cuca philander |
| | SO34 cl4 | Potosi, Bolivia | Triatoma infestans |
| | P209 cl1 | Sucre, Bolivia | Human |
| | 85/18 | Alto Beni, Bolivia | Didelphis marsupialis |
| | Esquito cl1 | Sao Paulo, Brazil | Sciurus aetuanus ingrani |
| | SC13 | Colombia | Rhodius pallescens sylvestre |
| T. cruzi IIa | CANIII cl1 | Belem, Brasil | Human |
| | EP 255a | Porvenir, Colombia | Rhodius proluxis |
| T. cruzi IIb | ESMERALDO cl3 | Bahia, Brazil | Human |
| | T18 cl2 | Tupiza, Bolivia | Triatoma infestans |
| | CBB cl3 | Tulahuén, Chile | Human |
| | MSC2 | Brazil | Human |
| | M6241 cl6 | Belem, Brazil | Didelphis novemcinctus |
| | M5631 cl5 | Belem, Brazil | Dasyus sp. |
| | CM 17 | Meta, Colombia | Canis familiaris |
| | X110/8 | Maktlawaia, Paraguay | Human |
| T. cruzi IIc | SO3 cl5 | Potosi, Bolivia | Triatoma infestans |
| | EPP | Tarapaca, Chile | Human |
| | PSC-O | Region Metropolitana, Chile | Human |
| T. cruzi IIe | CL F11F5b | Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil | Triatoma infestans |
| | TULAHUEN cl2 | Chile | Human |
| T. cruzi IIe | CL F11F5b | Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil | Triatoma infestans |
| | T. cruzi IIe | CL F11F5b | Chile | Human |
| T. cruzi IIe | TULAHUEN cl2 | Chile | Human |
| T. cruzi IIe | B7 cl11 | Bahia, Brazil | Phyllostomum discolor |
| T. cruzi IIe | 593 (B3) | _d | _d |
| T. cruzi IIe | N6 | East Anglia, UK | Nyctalus noctula |

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a The TR sequence could not be obtained.

b Clone CL Brener. Reference strain for the T. cruzi genome project.

c Bat trypanosomes.

d Information not available.

Lineage definitions are from [43,54].
data [26] and a combination of multilocus enzyme electrophoresis and RAPD data [35].

Analyses of molecular variance (AMOVA) [36] show that most of the genetic diversity found in these genes is explained by variation among the four sequence groups rather than by variation found within each sequence group: 85 and 91% of the total genetic variation found, respectively, in the DHFR-TS and TR sequences of T. cruzi are due to differences among sequence clades. Haplotypic diversity ($H_d$) [37] for these genes, defined as the probability of randomly choosing two different gene copies from the sample, is high in T. cruzi. The DHFR-TS sample shows 23 haplotypes in the 41 sequences sampled ($H_d = 0.941$), and each sequence clade differs in its variability (Table 2). Clade A: 6 haplotypes/16 sequences ($H_d = 0.675$); Clade B: 6 haplotypes/9 sequences ($H_d = 0.889$); Clade C: 8 haplotypes/13 sequences ($H_d = 0.936$), and the two sequences from Clade D are different ($H_d = 1.0$). The TR sample (Table 3) shows 16 haplotypes in the 40 sampled sequences ($H_d = 0.894$). Clade A: 11 haplotypes/20 sequences ($H_d = 0.884$); Clade B: 3 haplotypes/9 sequences ($H_d = 0.556$); Clade C: 1 haplotype/10 sequences ($H_d = 0.0$).

### 3.2. Nucleotide and amino acid variation in the DHFR-TS gene

Fifty one nucleotide sites are variable in the DHFR-TS sample; 39 are silent polymorphisms and 12 cause an amino acid change (Table 2). However, only eight
Table 3
List of polymorphic sites in the TR sequences of *T. cruzi*

| Strain/site | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| TR          | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
|             | 4 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 9 | 6 |
|             | 8 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
|             | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |    |    |    |    |    |

**Clade A**

| Strain/site | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| TEH cl2     | C | C | A | G | G | T | G | A | G | C | G | C | C | C |
| FLORIDA C16 H1 | A | A | C | C | C | C | C | C | C | A | A | C | A | G |
| FLORIDA C16 H2 | A | A | C | C | C | C | C | C | C | A | A | C | A | G |
| VIN C6      | A | A | C | C | C | C | C | C | C | A | A | C | A | G |
| X10 cl1     | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| SABP3       | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A |
| A80         | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G | G |
| OPS21 cl11  | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| CUTIA cl1   | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V | V |
| 133 79 cl7  | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| 26 79 H1    | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| 26 79 H2    | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| CUICA cl1   | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| SO34 cl4    | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| P209 cl1    | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| 85/818      | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| Esquilo cl1 | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| SC13        | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A | A |
| Silvio*     | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| CAIb        | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |

**Clade B**

| Strain/site | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| M624 cl6    | G | G | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| M563 cl5    | G | G | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| CM 17       | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| X110/8      | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| SO3 cl5 H1  | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| EPP H1      | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| PSC-O H1    | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| CL F11/F5 H1| A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| TULAHUEN cl2 H1 | A | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | G | A | A | A | A | G |
| Clade | CANIII cl1 | ESMERALDO cl3 | TU18 cl2 | CBB cl3 | MSC2 | SO3 c15 H2 | EPP H2 | PSC-O H2 | CLF 11 F5 H2 | TULAHUEN cl2 H2 | CL  |
|-------|------------|---------------|----------|----------|------|------------|--------|----------|-------------|-----------------|-----|
| TR    | 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 | 4 5 9 1 2 3 7 8 0 3 4 7 9 6 8 4 6 9 9 1 1 3 4 3 5 7 1 3 7 0 1 1 0 1 4 4 5 5 0 0 5 6 7 2 3 4 |
| Strain/site | 5 3 8 6 2 1 0 5 9 6 8 2 3 6 6 9 4 4 7 2 5 9 2 9 6 1 3 4 6 3 5 6 8 1 4 5 8 9 6 7 1 9 2 1 5 4 |                |

Clade designations are from [26] (see Figs. 3 and 4). Nucleotide and amino acid positions correspond to those of the GenBank reference *T. cruzi* sequence (M38051) [15].

*GenBank sequence (Z13958) [24].
*GenBank sequence (M97953) [25].
*GenBank reference sequence (M38051) [15].
amino acid polymorphisms are observed due to multiple substitutions in three codons (codons 21, 324 and 430). Interestingly, all the multiple changes in the same codon are observed in the GenBank sequence (accession no. L22484) [19]. The substitution pattern in that sequence suggests that the observed changes are likely to be sequencing errors rather than real nucleotide substitutions. First, all changes are unique to the GenBank sequence and involve CG to GC or GC to CG substitutions at adjacent nucleotide positions, which suggest sequencing errors due to compression problems or scoring errors. Second, the three inferred amino acid substitutions are non-conservative at the biochemical level (Arginine (R) to Alanine (A) and vice versa, and Glycine (G) to Alanine (A)). Third, with the exception of the GenBank sequence (L22484), codons 21 and 430 code for amino acids that are conserved across all trypanosomatid species sequenced to date (Arginine (R)
and Glycine (G)) (Fig. 1). Omitting the GenBank sequence, the numbers of observed silent and replace-
ment polymorphisms are 39 and 5, respectively. The vast
majority of nucleotide polymorphisms corresponds to
fixed differences between sequence clades of T. cruzi (see below) [26]. Eleven of the 44 polymor-
phisms are singletons (observed in only one sequence), and
all of them are silent changes.

Fig. 1 shows the alignment of the DHFR-TS amino
acids from a subset of the T. cruzi strains and
different trypanosomatids. In all trypanosomatids the
first 234 residues have been assigned to the DHFR
domain [19]. Four amino acid polymorphisms were
observed in the DHFR domain, while only one was
observed in the TS domain (Fig. 1). Three of the four
amino acid changes in the DHFR domain correspond to
fixed differences among clades, and were observed in
sites that are also variable in other Trypanosomatid
sequences. The change in residue 149 (E–G) is only
observed in one of the haplotypes from two putatively
hybrid T. cruzi strains (EPP H2, PSC-O H2) [26] (Table
2). The change observed in residue 440 of the more
conserved TS domain is only observed in two strains
from the same sequence clade (OPS21 cl11, CUICA cl1)
(Table 2). No changes were observed in the 15 conserved
residues that are suggested to be involved in dihydro-
folate binding in two bacterial DHFR enzymes [38,39].
With the exception of those polymorphisms observed in
the GenBank sequence, all the observed amino acid
polymorphisms in the DHFR-TS gene of T. cruzi are
conservative at the biochemical level.

3.3. Nucleotide and amino acid variation in the TR gene

TR has more amino acid polymorphisms than
DHFR-TS (Table 3). Eleven of the 46 polymorphic
sites observed in T. cruzi cause amino acid replace-
ments. Eleven singletons were observed, three of which
cause amino acid replacements (in strains FLORIDA
C16, Silvio and CM 17); six of the singletons occur in
the sequence from strain CANIII, which corresponds to
the only strain sampled from clade D, one of the four
sequence clades defined for T. cruzi (see below) [26].

Fig. 2 shows the alignment of the TR amino acid
sequences from a selected group of T. cruzi strains and
all available Trypanosomatid sequences. Five of the 11
amino acid changes observed in T. cruzi occur in sites
that were previously assumed to be invariant among
Trypanosomatids. Among those five sites, changes at
sites 402–403 (NI–KV) and 441 (V–I) correspond to
fixed differences among clades. Interestingly, the con-
servative amino acid changes that are unique to strain
CM17 (position 247, G–S) and to one of the haplotypes
from strain FLORIDA C16 (position 278, D–E) occur
in sites of the protein that are completely conserved
across trypanosomatids (Fig. 2) and even in the human
glutathione reductase [18]. The remaining six amino acid
changes are observed in regions of the protein that are
variable in Trypanosomatids, and, with the exception of
the change in site 95 (K–N) of the Silvio strain,
correspond to fixed differences among clades. None of
the observed changes fall in sites that have been
suggested to be important for the enzymatic activity of
TR [18].

In the only additional study of TR nucleotide
polymorphism in another species of trypanosomatid
(Crithidia fasciculata), three haplotypes were observed
in a sample of five genomic clones [16]. In that sample,
only one of the 14 polymorphic sites that were observed
leads to an amino acid replacement. That replacement
is conservative (Q–E) and occurs at the very 3’ end of
the gene in a region not covered by our partial sequences.
Interestingly, the proportion of replacement to silent
polymorphisms is much higher in T. cruzi (11/35) than
in C. fasciculata (1/13). In fact, in the region sequenced
by us there are no amino acid polymorphisms in the C.
fasciculata sample [16]. Additional sampling in C.
fasciculata is necessary to determine whether that
observation reflects higher selective constraints on the
evolution of this gene in this organism.

3.4. Phylogeny of the DHFR-TS and TR sequences from T. cruzi

Pairwise corrected distances among selected sequences of T. cruzi and other trypanosomatids are shown in
Table 4. Genetic divergences among T. cruzi strains are
low, never exceeding 2%, while distances with the
distantly related trypanosomatids Crithidia and Leish-
mania are fairly large (45–50%). Figs. 3 and 4 show that
the DHFR-TS and TR sequences of T. cruzi cluster in
four major sequence clades (hereafter referred as clades
A, B, C and D, after Machado and Ayala [26]). The
same pattern is observed in sequences from other
nuclear [40] and mitochondrial loci [26]. The recon-
structed genealogies do not fully agree with former
phylogenetic studies based on non-nucleotide genetic
data [35,41,42] that have suggested the presence of two
major phylogenetic lineages in T. cruzi (recently named
T. cruzi I and T. cruzi II [43]). All sequences from
strains classified as T. cruzi I are monophyletic and fall
in clade A. On the other hand, sequences from strains
classified as T. cruzi II are paraphyletic, falling into
clades B, C and D, which are each monophyletic but so
that clades B and D are more closely related to clade A
than to clade C (Figs. 3 and 4). Clade C corresponds to
the most anciently derived group of T. cruzi sequences.

The current classification of T. cruzi in two distinct
groups based on non-nucleotide genetic data (allozymes,
RAPDs, RFLPs, microsatellites) cannot be fully recon-

Fig. 2. Alignment of amino acid TR sequences from *T. cruzi* and other trypanosomatids. Representative sequences from each sequence clade of *T. cruzi* are included. Positions are defined by the *T. cruzi* reference sequences from strains CL (Accession M38051) [15] and Silvio (Z13958) [24]. The additional *T. cruzi* GenBank amino acid sequence from strain CAI (M97953) [25] is identical to the amino acid sequence from strain TEH and is not shown. Sites that are polymorphic in the *T. cruzi* sequences are highlighted. *T. brucei* (X63188) [17]; *T. congolense* (M21122) [12]; Crithidia fasciculata (Z12618) [17]; Leishmania donovani (Z23135) [20].
structured with nuclear or mitochondrial loci do not recover *T. cruzi* I and *T. cruzi* II as two distinct groups of strains suggests that either the current classification is wrong or that *T. cruzi* may have had a complicated ancestral demographic history. The evidence provided by the well-supported gene genealogies is insufficient for rejecting the current classification of *T. cruzi*. This classification, based on non-nucleotide sequence data, could still constitute a better representation of the actual evolutionary relationships among *T. cruzi* strains than that suggested by the gene genealogies, because the former reflects relationships among multiple loci randomly sampled from the genome, that is, relationships inferred from genome-wide patterns of variation, while the latter only reflects relationships among alleles from a single locus [26].

Under the assumption that the classification of *T. cruzi* in two distinct groups is correct, the conflicting portraits of the history of this organism could be reconciled proposing that *T. cruzi* has had a demographic history that includes at least one major genetic exchange event leading to the formation of *T. cruzi* II. Machado and Ayala [26] proposed that the recent ancestor of *T. cruzi* may have consisted of at least four isolated lineages that carried the ancestral alleles of the four distinct sequence clades (A–D) observed in extant strains, and that recent genetic exchange events resulted in most of the current *T. cruzi* II strains carrying combinations of alleles from at least two of the ancestral lineages (alleles from clades B and C). Under that explanation, the genome of *T. cruzi* II strains would be a mosaic formed with alleles from clades B, C and, possibly, D. This explanation predicts that some strains from *T. cruzi* II should carry alleles from sequence clade B at some parts of their genome and alleles from clade C at others. That pattern has yet to be observed. However, the hybrid strains from *T. cruzi* II partially fit that description, although the observation of current complete heterozygosity at the regions of the genome where the DHFR-TS and TR loci are located suggests that this hybridization event is more recent than the event(s) leading to the formation of *T. cruzi* II.

One also needs to consider the possibility that the potential complex history of *T. cruzi* may not allow to use a single phylogenetic tree or a simple classification to represent the evolutionary history of this organism. Discordance among histories reconstructed using different genes have been observed in several groups of closely related species or among populations within species [44], where gene trees from different loci render incongruent histories that are consistent with complex ancestral demographic histories or histories that involve hybridization events. Thus, before undertaking a reevaluation (or reaffirmation) of the current classification of *T. cruzi* as an accurate representation of its evolutionary history, it will be necessary to collect more sequence data from multiple loci located in different regions of the genome. The results from the current genome sequence project of *T. cruzi* [45] should provide a guide for choosing loci at selected regions of the genome and carry out such study.

### 3.5. Tests of neutrality

In order to determine whether there is evidence of adaptive protein divergence for these enzymes or whether these genes have been recently under selection, two standard test of neutrality were applied. Both tests focus on the correlation between the amounts of polymorphism and divergence that is expected under neutrality, due to the linear dependence of both patterns on the neutral mutation rate. For applying the tests, we considered each sequence clade as an independent group (i.e. with no genetic exchange among groups) and

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**Table 4**

Tamura–Nei distances among a subset of DHFR-TS sequences (above the diagonal) and TR sequences (below the diagonal), from representative *T. cruzi* strains and outgroups

| Strain or taxon | 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | 8   | 9   | 10  | 11  | 12  |
|----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1 TEH cl2      | –   | 0.0007 | 0.0103 | 0.0068 | 0.0137 | 0.0075 | 0.0144 | 0.0518 | 0.0407 | –   | 0.4680 | 0.4499 |
| 2 X10 cl1      | 0.0016 | –   | 0.0096 | 0.0061 | 0.0130 | 0.0068 | 0.0137 | 0.0510 | 0.0399 | –   | 0.4693 | 0.4512 |
| 3 CANII cl1    | 0.0141 | 0.0141 | –   | 0.0061 | 0.0103 | 0.0068 | 0.0110 | 0.0481 | 0.0371 | –   | 0.4665 | 0.4459 |
| 4 M6241 cl6    | 0.0110 | 0.0110 | 0.0157 | –   | 0.0096 | 0.0007 | 0.0103 | 0.0473 | 0.0356 | –   | 0.4677 | 0.4470 |
| 5 ESMERALDO cl3| 0.0165 | 0.0165 | 0.0165 | 0.0181 | –   | 0.0103 | 0.0034 | 0.0488 | 0.0392 | –   | 0.4681 | 0.4459 |
| 6 CL F11F5 H1  | 0.0102 | 0.0102 | 0.0141 | 0.0023 | 0.0173 | –   | 0.011 | 0.0466 | 0.0349 | –   | 0.4691 | 0.4469 |
| 7 CL F11F5 H2  | 0.0165 | 0.0165 | 0.0165 | 0.0181 | 0.0000 | 0.0173 | –   | 0.0503 | 0.0399 | –   | 0.4696 | 0.4500 |
| 8 T. c. marinkellei| 0.0392 | 0.0392 | 0.0401 | 0.0392 | 0.0367 | 0.0384 | 0.0367 | –   | 0.0329 | –   | 0.4757 | 0.4658 |
| 9 T. repositimensis| 0.0367 | 0.0367 | 0.0384 | 0.0367 | 0.0358 | 0.0359 | 0.0358 | 0.0293 | –   | –   | 0.4635 | 0.4589 |
| 10 T. bruceia | 0.3323 | 0.3323 | 0.3276 | 0.3360 | 0.3354 | 0.3362 | 0.3354 | 0.3369 | 0.3363 | –   | –   | –   |
| 11 C. fasciculatab | 0.4569 | 0.4573 | 0.4498 | 0.4604 | 0.4474 | 0.4586 | 0.4474 | 0.4546 | 0.4537 | 0.4580 | –   | 0.2491 |
| 12 Leishmaniae | 0.5030 | 0.5030 | 0.5030 | 0.5030 | 0.5012 | 0.5012 | 0.5012 | 0.4960 | 0.5012 | 0.5340 | 0.2581 | –   |

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* TR: Accession X63188 [17].
* DHFR-TS: Accession M22852 [13]; TR: Accession Z12618 [17].
* DHFR-TS: L. major Accession M12734 [11]; TR: L. donovani Accession Z23135 [20].
compared patterns of polymorphism within each clade with patterns of divergence among clades. We also compared all *T. cruzi* sequences with a single sequence from either one of the two outgroups (*T. c. marinkellei* and *T. vespertilionis*). The *DHFR-TS* GenBank sequence (Accession L22484) was not included in the analyses based on the evidence presented above suggesting that several of the nucleotide substitutions observed in that sequence are sequencing mistakes.

The McDonald–Kreitman test [27] (Table 5) examines whether the ratio of silent to amino acid variation is the same for polymorphisms as it is for fixed differences between groups of organisms. Under the assumption that these two kinds of variation are selectively neutral, the ratios are expected to be the same. Table 5 shows that the hypothesis of selective neutrality is not rejected in any of the comparisons. Even if the *DHFR-TS* GenBank sequence is included, the test does not reject neutrality (not shown). Thus, there is no evidence of adaptive divergence for the *DHFR-TS* and *TR* enzymes in *T. cruzi*.

The second test we applied was the HKA test [28] (Table 6), which considers polymorphism and divergence at two or more loci. Natural selection is inferred
when the observed values of divergence or polymorphism depart exceptionally from expected values generated by fitting a neutral, constant population size model. We applied the HKA test to sequence clades A, B and C (the low number of sequences did not allow to conduct the test with clade D). In each case a single sequence from one of the two bat trypanosome outgroups was used. The significance of the observed HKA statistic was determined by comparison to the $\chi^2$ distribution and by comparison with the distribution of the statistic following 1000 coalescent simulations. The test did not reject neutrality in clades A or B, regardless of the outgroup sequence used. For those cases none of the HKA tests approached statistical significance and the $P$ values obtained by simulation or from the $\chi^2$ distribution were very similar. Interestingly, neutrality was rejected for clade C only when the HKA statistic was compared with the simulated distribution and before correcting for multiple tests. In those cases, the test statistic also approached statistical significance when compared to the $\chi^2$ distribution (Table 6). The almost significant departure of clade C from the null neutral pattern is due to a lower than expected polymorphism in $TR$. While sequences from Clade C show ten polymorphic sites in
Although most nucleotide variation is silent, a few amino acid polymorphisms were observed, although none occur in sites that are functionally important. The sites in enzyme regions being targeted by drug design studies are all conserved in our extensive sample of *T. cruzi* strains. The high amino acid conservation across trypanosomatids suggests that drugs designed against *DHFR-TS* and *TR* for one trypanosomatid species may work in other species.

This study opens up the possibility to study evolution in action against drug resistance in *T. cruzi*. Our data provide a unique opportunity to compare the amount and type of genetic variation of the *DHFR-TS* and *TR* genes in natural populations of this parasite prior to and after the use of potential selective agents. The comparisons could allow to detect and then follow the evolutionary dynamics of new amino acid mutations responsible for the evolution of drug-resistant strains in nature. Moreover, available studies on the molecular mechanisms responsible for resistance against drugs that block the activity of *DHFR* in *Plasmodium falciparum* [46–48] and about selection of different amino acid point mutations in different populations of that parasite [49,50], would allow to conduct interesting and informative comparisons with *T. cruzi*. It will be possible, for instance, to try to determine whether mechanisms of drug resistance are similar in both parasites (i.e. do similar point mutations confer resistance?) and, more interestingly, whether the evolutionary dynamics of selected mutations are similar in both parasites. The last comparison is quite relevant given that the population structures of both parasites are different, clonal in *T. cruzi* [22,51], but sexual in *P. falciparum* with different degrees of population structure (or inbreeding) that are correlated with the frequency of transmission [52,53], and thus one expects to see contrasting dynamics reflecting these differences.

### 4. Conclusions

This study has uncovered a large number of polymorphisms in the *DHFR-TS* and *TR* genes of *T. cruzi*. Most of the genetic variation is due to differences among sequence clades, reflecting a history of strong ancestral population structure and long-term clonal divergence of at least four distinct populations.

#### Table 5

Results of the McDonald–Kreitman tests of neutrality

| Gene       | Comparison                                    | Fixed differences | Polymorphisms | $G^*$ | $P$ |
|------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|-------|-----|
|            |                                               | Silent            | Replacement   | Silent | Replacement |
| *DHFR-TS*  | *T. cruzi* vs. *T. c. marinkellei*            | 48                | 11            | 38    | 5   | 0.921  | 0.33 |
|            | Clade A vs. Clade C                           | 12                | 3             | 14    | 2   | 0.293  | 0.58 |
|            | Clade B vs. Clade C                           | 7                 | 2             | 15    | 1   | 1.119  | 0.29 |
|            | Clade A vs. Clade B                           | 7                 | 1             | 11    | 1   | 0.072  | 0.78 |
| *TR*       | *T. cruzi* vs. *T. c. marinkellei*            | 22                | 14            | 36    | 11  | 2.259  | 0.13 |
|            | Clade A vs. Clade C                           | 8                 | 6             | 12    | 3   | 1.682  | 0.19 |
|            | Clade B vs. Clade C                           | 16                | 5             | 3     | 1   | 0.002  | 0.96 |
|            | Clade A vs. Clade B                           | 7                 | 3             | 15    | 4   | 0.258  | 0.61 |

The *DHFR-TS* sequence from GenBank (Acc. # L22484) was not included in the analyses. Clade names correspond to previously defined sequence clades [26] (see Figs. 3 and 4).

$G$-tests of independence were performed using Williams’ correction [55].

#### Table 6

Results of the HKA tests of neutrality

| Group 1       | Group 2       | $\chi^2$ | $P^a$ | $P^b$ | $P^c$ |
|---------------|---------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
| Clade A       | *T. c. marinkellei* | 1.068    | 0.314 | 0.301 |       |
| Clade B       | *T. c. marinkellei* | 0.004    | 0.941 | 0.950 |       |
| Clade C       | *T. c. marinkellei* | 3.179    | 0.048 | 0.075 |       |
| Clade A       | *T. vespertilionis* | 0.635    | 0.401 | 0.425 |       |
| Clade B       | *T. vespertilionis* | 0.080    | 0.804 | 0.777 |       |
| Clade C       | *T. vespertilionis* | 3.743    | 0.031 | 0.053 |       |

The tests use polymorphism within group 1 and divergence between group 1 and a single sequence from group 2 (*T. c. marinkellei* or *T. vespertilionis*). GenBank sequences were not included in the analyses. Clade names correspond to the sequence clades defined by Machado and Ayala [26] (see Figs. 3 and 4).

$^a$ The HKA test statistic [28].

$^b$ The probability of a $\chi^2$ higher than observed, estimated with 1000 coalescent simulations.

$^c$ The probability of a $\chi^2$ higher than observed, based on the $\chi^2$ distribution.

*DHFR-TS* (not including the GenBank sample), there are no polymorphisms in *TR*. That observation does not fit the neutral expectation because the level of divergence between the *TR* sequences from Clade C and the outgroup are not different from those of the other sequence clades. This observation suggests the occurrence of a recent selective event at, or close to the *TR* locus in the strains carrying sequences from clade C.
Acknowledgements

Special thanks to C. Barnabé, S. Brisse, F. Tarrieu and M. Tibayrenc for providing the DNA samples. C.A.M was a Howard Hughes Medical Institute Predoctoral Fellow. Research was supported by NIH grant GM42397 to F.J.A.

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