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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE HLA CLASS II POLYMORPHISM IN THE MALAGASY.

Angela Anne Turner.

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Medicine, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, for the degree of Master of Science.

Johannesburg, 1999.

ABSTRACT:

Madagascar, the last large landmass to be colonized, has been described as a laboratory of evolution, but due to the partially restricted entry of Western scientists in the past, little is known about the natural history of the island. A major aim of the Human Genetics Department at the SAIMR, is to determine who the forerunners of the Malagasy were. Linguistic, cultural, physical and some genetic evidence suggests that Indonesians and Africans are likely to have been the two main population groups who contributed to the Malagasy. The present study sought to make the genetic characterization of the Malagasy more complete and to further explore their origins. This was done by typing the alleles present at two major histocompatibility complex gene loci and analysing data gathered on several serogenetic systems. Alleles present at the DQA1 locus were typed with the aid of a commercially available DQA1 typing kit and DPB1 alleles were typed by DNA sequencing and comparison to sequences reported in the literature. Three possibly novel DPB1 alleles were found in this study. DQA1 and DPB1 allele frequencies, DQA1-DPB1 estimated haplotype frequencies, as well as some non-HLA serogenetic loci allele frequencies were used in various statistical calculations. Global linkage equilibrium was found between the DQA1 and DPB1 loci of Indonesians and the Tsonga; while global linkage disequilibrium was found amongst the three Malagasy groups studied (the Merina, Antemoro and Tsimihety). This is an indication of a recent admixture in the Malagasy. Admixture estimations revealed that Africans, represented here by the Tsonga, were the major contributors to the weighted average of the three Malagasy groups, followed by an Indonesian and a small Arab contribution. Principal coordinate analysis, as well as the phylogenetic trees constructed using D_S genetic distance matrices, showed the highland group, the Merina, to be closest to the Indonesians. The two lowland groups,

the Antemoro and Tsimihety, were closest to the Tsonga. Arabs fell approximately midway between the Indonesians and Tsonga and were quite close to the three Malagasy groups studied. Although the Merina appeared closest to the Indonesians, the DPB1*0501 allele which occurred at a frequency of 0.1809 in Indonesians was absent from the Merina sample and suggests that Indonesians may not be as important a contributor to the Merina as once thought. Other allele frequencies indicate the possible existence of additional "parental" groups. A substantial African contribution to the Tsimihety was evident from this study.

DECLARATION:

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Science in Human Genetics at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted for any other degree or examination at any other University.

A Turner.

Angela Anne Turner

22nd day of November, 1999

DEDICATION:

To my family

for their unconditional support and encouragement over the years

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

ACD	acid citrate dextrose
ACP	acid phosphatase
AD	Anno Domini
AIDS	acquired immune deficiency syndrome
AM	Antemoro
APS	ammonium persulphate
BC	before Christ
bp	base pair
BSA	bovine serum albumin
°C	degrees Celsius
$CaCl_2$	calcium chloride
CIITA	class II transactivator
cm	centimetre
cM	centimorgan
ddH_2O	autoclaved distilled water
ddNTP	dideoxynucleotriphosphate
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	deoxynucleotriphosphate
E X-05	$X\ 10^{-5}$
E-M	expectation-maximization
EDTA	ethylene-diamine-tetra acetic acid
ER	endoplasmic reticulum
g	gram
GVHD	graft-versus-host disease
HGT	high gelling temperature
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus

HLA	human leukocyte antigen
HWE	Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
IDDM	insulin dependent diabetes mellitus
IFN	interferon
IND	Indonesians
kb	kilobase
km	kilometre
kV	kilovolt
LMP	low molecular weight protein
M	molar
mA	milliamp
mix	mixture/solution
mg	milligram
$MgCl_2$	magnesium chloride
MHC	major histocompatibility complex
µl	microlitre
ml	millilitre
mM	millimolar
MR	Merina
NaCl	sodium chloride
NIDDM	non insulin dependent diabetes mellitus
NK-cell	natural killer cell
%	percentage
P	exact probability
PC	principal coordinate
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PEG	polyethylene glycol
PGM_1	phosphoglucomutase 1

pmoles	picamoles
Rh	rhesus blood group
RSA	recurrent spontaneous abortion
SAIMR	South African Institute for Medical Research
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulphate
SSC	sodium chloride-sodium citrate
STR	short tandem repeat
SVD	singular value decomposition
TAP	transporters associated with antigen processing
TBE	tris-boric acid EDTA
T20E5	tris(20mM) EDTA(5mM)
TE	tris-EDTA
tris	tris[hydroxymethyl]amino methane
tRNA	transfer ribonucleic acid
TS	Tsimihety
TSO	Tsonga
U	units
UIF	unexplained infertility
US	United States
UV	ultraviolet
vs	versus

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 MADAGASCAR

Madagascar is an Indian Ocean island situated off the southeastern coast of Africa (Cole, 1992; Vérin *et al.*, 1970). It was formed approximately 50-120 million years ago when it broke away from the African landmass (Cole, 1992; Haggett, 1994). Today, approximately 400km of the Mozambique channel separate the island from Mozambique (Cole, 1992). Madagascar is approximately 1600km long, 500km wide (Mourant *et al.*, 1976) and includes five offshore island dependencies which, together with the main island, make it the fourth largest "island" in the world (Vérin *et al.*, 1970; Haggett, 1994; Uzoigwe, 1995).

Mountains stretch the length of the island and divide it into a narrow eastern section and a large western section (Singer *et al.*, 1957). Features such as hills, deep gorges and volcanic outcroppings characterize the temperate inland plateau (Haggett, 1994; Uzoigwe, 1995). The coastal regions are hot and damp (Dempsey, 1985) and the east coast is lined by coral beaches and lagoons (Haggett, 1994). Much of the island is covered by dense tropical forest (Dempsey, 1985), especially the northeast (Cole, 1992), but the central highlands have been deforested and, as a result, have become eroded in places. The southeastern end of the island is mainly desert (The World Book Encyclopaedia, 1977) and is occasionally referred to as the "spiny desert", due to its odd-looking thorny vegetation (Cole, 1992). The eastern side of the island, with its steeply plunging rivers, is the most densely populated part of the island (Haggett, 1994; Uzoigwe, 1995). Rivers on the island are heavily

silted with red soil and this has prompted some people to remark that the island is "bleeding to death" (Cole, 1992). The sparsely populated, gently sloping savannahs and plains of the west (Cole, 1992) have the fertile, intensively cultivated valleys (Haggett, 1994; Uzoigwe, 1995).

Due to the island's ancient separation from Africa, the plants and animals have evolved in isolation and most species on the island are indigenous. For this reason, Madagascar has been described as a laboratory of evolution (Cole, 1992). The island is one of the richest botanical areas in the world and is famous for its lemur population (true lemurs are found nowhere else in the world). Part of the reason for the richness of fauna and flora is that human occupation of the island occurred relatively recently. Although this island was the last large land mass to become colonized by man (Dewar and Wright, 1993), the negative effects of human activities are already appreciable. If the human population continues to grow at the present rate of 2.8% per annum, there could be approximately 16.6 million people living on the island by the year 2000. This rapidly growing population is putting a lot of pressure on the environment and already 50-80% of the forest has been destroyed. Projects have, however, been established to try and prevent further deterioration and perhaps improve the environment (Cole, 1992).

Until fairly recently, the political situation in Madagascar curtailed research activities, but in 1980 the rules concerning entry into the country were relaxed (Cole, 1992). To date most research has been on wildlife rather than on the island's people. A major aim of the Human Genetics Department at the SAIMR is to use genetic information to cast light on the peopling of Madagascar. The present study forms part of this endeavour.

1.2 THE PEOPLE OF MADAGASCAR

The Malagasy were thought to be primarily Malayo-Polynesian, but it is becoming increasingly obvious that Africans and Arabs have contributed genes as well (Mack, 1986). Some of the suggested regions from whence the island's primary settlers came, include the coast of Mozambique, the Comoros Islands, the "Swahili coast" of Tanzania and Kenya, the Persian Gulf, Great Zimbabwe, the Rift Valley of East Africa, Southern India, Malaysia and, to a lesser extent, Europe (reviewed by Hewitt *et al.*, 1996). The racial mix of the island is undoubtedly complex. In fact, one could describe the Malagasy as progeny of the Indian Ocean since their ancestors seem to have come from all of its shores, except Australia (Dewar and Wright, 1993).

There are 22 "official" Malagasy ethnic groups which are generally classified according to whether they occupy the highlands or lowlands of the island. The Highlanders include the Merina, Betsileo, Bezanozano and Vakinankaratra. The latter group is considered to be admixed Merina and Betsileo. Lowlanders are divided into eastern, southwestern, northern and western groups. Those living along the east coast include the Betsimisaraka, Tanala, Antemoro, Antesaka, Antefasy, Antambahòaka, Zafisoro and Antanosy. Southwestern Malagasy groups include the Antandroy, Bara, Mahafaly, Vezo, Mikea and Masikoro; northern Malagasy groups include the Antankarana, Tsimihety and Sihanaka; while the Sakalava are found in western Madagascar. A map of the approximate distribution of ethnic groups can be seen in Figure 1 (adapted from Brown, 1978 and Campbell, 1988). An additional group, the Makoa, live on the west coast of the island, but as a reasonably accurate location has yet to be identified, they have not been placed on the map. It may be significant that Makua is a Bantu language spoken in northern Mozambique and also by

more recent immigrants to the island (Gueunier, 1992).

Malagasy groups differ with regard to the dialects they speak, their customs and physical characteristics; all of which have been extensively studied in the past (Mack, 1986). In view of the above, it would seem better, when trying to gain insights to the peopling of the island, to concentrate on individual ethnic groups rather than on the Malagasy as a whole (Brown, 1978).

1.2.1 Physical features

Although a fairly wide variety of physical features is evident in individuals belonging to all the ethnic groups, general trends are apparent. The majority of people living on the plateau have a more Asian appearance with lighter skin and straight hair. People living in areas surrounding the plateau tend to have more African characteristics, such as darker skin and frizzy hair (Mack, 1986). Other features which appear in people all over the island include varying degrees of fullness of lips and differently shaped foreheads, noses and eyes (Singer *et al.*, 1957). According to Griffiths (1843); Abyssinian, Arabian and Indian features are also present. Hildebrandt's study on cranial measurements indicate a strong African element, especially in coastal tribes (Dahle, 1883). However, an individual's appearance alone is not always indicative of the ethnic group to which he or she belongs or their ancestry (Singer *et al.*, 1957); customs, language, historical data and molecular/ serological data should also be considered.

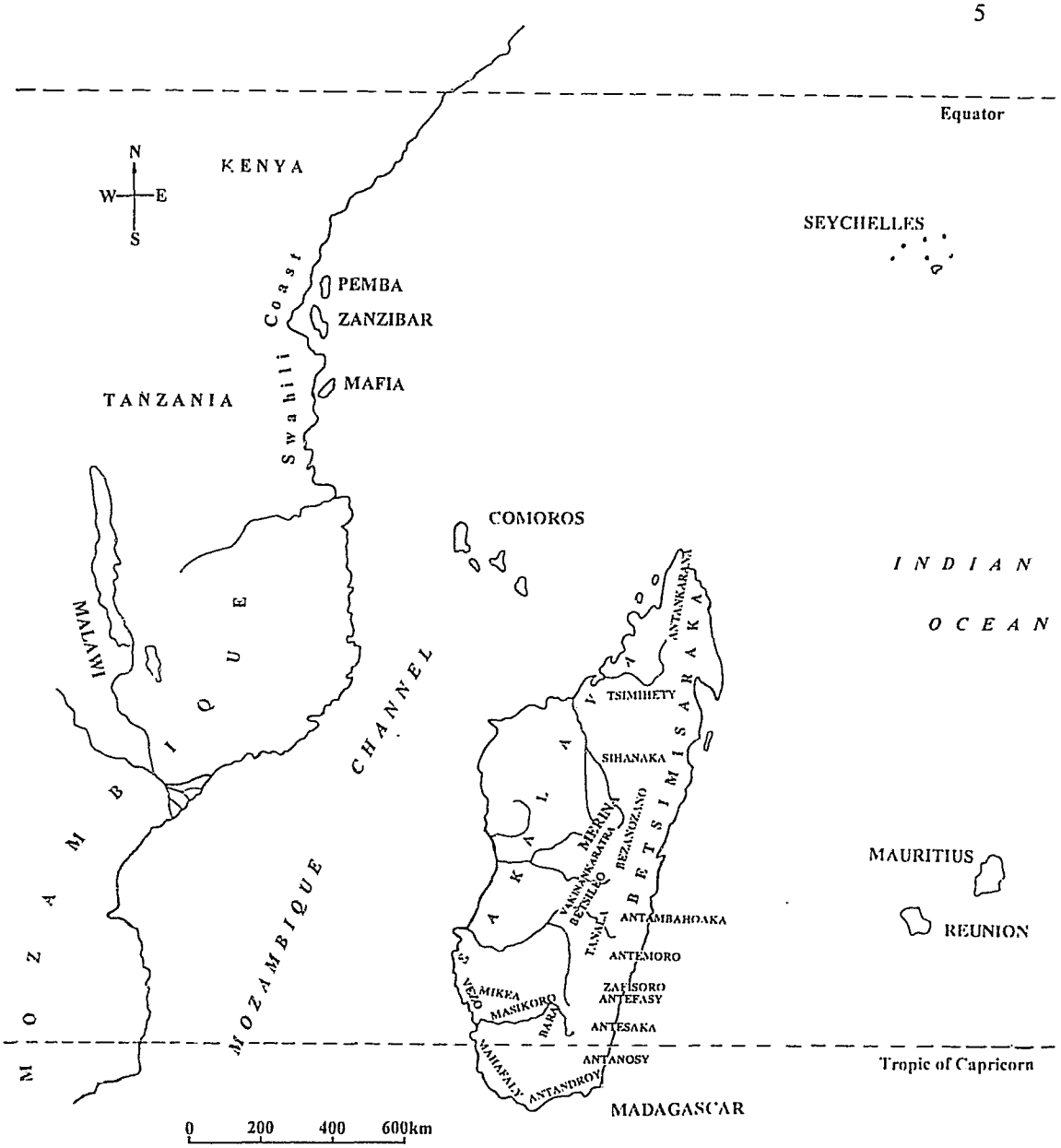

Figure 1.1 A map showing Madagascar's proximity to Africa and nearby islands as well as the approximate locations of ethnic groups on the island.

1.2.2 Language

Malagasy is primarily a Malayo-Polynesian language which is similar to Maanyan, a language spoken in the Barito Valley area of Borneo (Dahl, 1951). There have, however, been contributions from other languages; for instance, many of the astrological words in use are of Arabian origin and there are some elements of Sanskrit as well (Singer *et al.*, 1957). The Bantu language contribution to Malagasy is small, but nonetheless has probably been present from the start. Phonetic studies confirm an early Bantu influence and terms associated with animal husbandry are clearly derived from Bantu words (Mack, 1986). The scarcity of Bantu and Swahili words has been explained in terms of slavery. Although there were probably many African slaves, they may have, in general, been forced to adopt the language of their masters (Singer *et al.*, 1957).

It is believed that the population which gave rise to the different linguistically identifiable communities on the island, was a single group which arrived some time between 100 BC and AD 400 (Vérin *et al.*, 1970).

According to Deschamps (1965), the proto-Malagasy traded in the Indian Ocean and possibly in the Pacific Ocean as well. The trade route linking Indonesia with Madagascar was via Indian, Arabian and East African ports. It is assumed that traders were predominantly male, thus many wives would probably have been taken at East African ports. Their children would subsequently have became traders and taken their Indonesian and African genes to Madagascar. Settlement in different areas along the trade route or in Madagascar itself would have given rise to the divergence of the Malagasy linguistic groups. Some Indonesian descendants from hypothesized East

African stations may have migrated to Madagascar later when they were displaced by Arab traders (Deschamps, 1965). It has also been shown by Soodyall and colleagues (1995) that a significant number of Polynesian women, or female descendants of an ancestral population, would have settled on Madagascar at some point due to the significant presence of a Polynesian motif of the mitochondrial DNA.

Theories concerning the language patterns on the island are quite confusing. One holds that the island was first occupied in the north around the first century AD and that these settlers split into three groups as they moved out over the uninhabited island. In time, these groups acquired different dialects and became the Antankarana, the Tsimihety and a group who spoke the protodialect of today's remaining groups. Around AD 600-700 individuals speaking this protodialect split into two groups: those speaking the dialects in the west and south, or ancestral Vezo-Mahafaly-Antandroy-Bara; and those speaking the dialects in the east and centre, or ancestral Merina-Sihanaka-Betsileo-Betsimisaraka-Antemoro-Antesaka-Zafisoro (Vérin *et al* ., 1970).

The dialects of the northern groups, the Tsimihety and Antankarana, are distinguishable from all other dialects as well as from each other. There is a mountain range which separates the Antankarana from the Tsimihety and the remaining groups, and this has ensured the relatively isolated evolution of the Antankarana dialect (Vérin *et al* ., 1970).

Alternative theories to Vérin's include those of Murdoch and Gueunier. According to Murdoch, linguistic evidence suggests a single migration to the island, with the possibility that the original inhabitants settled on the plateau. The dominant group there, the Merina, drove its neighbours to the coastal

regions where the likelihood of admixture with Africans would have been greater (Murdoch, 1959). However, Malagasy traditions clearly refer to the Merina as having arrived after the other peoples of the island (Ellis, 1838a) and archaeological evidence does not support a initial settlement on the plateau with a subsequent migration to the coasts (MacPhee and Burney, 1991). Gueunier states that the island's speech pattern reflects various clines, indicating more neighbour and recent migrant interaction, and he believes that Vérin's sample was poorly distributed geographically (Gueunier, 1988).

The study of languages has been complicated by culture. For instance, some words which are associated with deceased leaders may become taboo and a new word must be used instead (Vérin *et al.*, 1970).

1.2.3 Culture and customs

Some groups living on the plateau practice second burial and removal of bones of deceased individuals from their tombs in order to rewrap them in silk shrouds. This is not a common practice on the adjacent parts of the African continent (Mack, 1986), but is on the Islands of the East. Items such as utensils, clothing, musical instruments, totem poles and rectangular houses; practices such as rice culture; as well as the beliefs and superstitions are of Eastern, rather than African origin (Singer et al., 1957). Round African style houses have, however, been found in a western Vazimba village (Campbell, 1996, personal communication).

With respect to rice agriculture, the central highland societies, namely the Merina, Sihanaka and Betsileo, are distinguished from other Malagasy groups by the presence of irrigation economy or wet-rice cultivation. These groups

live in close proximity to each other and often claim a single origin. The remaining rice growing groups rely on rainfall to water their crops (Vérin *et al.*, 1970).

There is evidence of a pre-Islamic Arab presence on the island: traditions involving astrology, divination, soothsaying, magic, calendar computation and teaching of the Devil appear to be of Arab origin (Campbell, 1995a, personal communication). Observances strongly resembling some of the rites of Mohammedanism are of comparatively recent occurrence (Ellis, 1838b).

The main economic activity of the people of the western and southern plains, namely the Sakalava, Bara, Mahafaly and Antandroy, is cattle raising; and the zebu cattle they herd are of African origin (Campbell, 1995b, personal communication). The extensiveness of the cattle industry suggests a much greater contact with Africa than linguistic and cultural traits would suggest (Mack, 1986).

The livelihood of most people living on Madagascar depends on farming. Rice, coffee, tobacco and bananas are among the chief crops produced and common activities include fishing; cattle, sheep and goat herding; as well as the making of palm products, such as mats and baskets (Dempsey, 1985; Dewar, 1995).

Taking physical features, language and cultural habits into account, the following broad observations have been made: The Betsileo and Merina appear to be more Indonesian, the Tsimihety and Tanala appear to have roughly equal proportions of African and Indonesian "blood" and the Mahafaly, Antandroy, Sakalava and Bara appear to be more African. Those groups which deviate from this African-Indonesian spectrum are the Antemoro, Antanosy and

Antambahòaka who show a substantial Arab/Islamic influence (Brown, 1978).

1.2.4 Malagasy groups studied

Three Malagasy groups, namely the Merina, Tsimihety and Antemoro, were investigated in the present study. The names of the groups reveal something about them. "Merina" means "people of the highland"; "Tsimihety" means "those who do not use the scissors" and "Antemoro" means "those on the coast" (Singer *et al.*, 1957).

The Merina occupy the central highlands around the capital city, Antananarivo and make up the best educated section of the population (Singer et al., 1957). They are believed to be more exclusive with respect to mating than coastal tribes and those living on the slopes of the high plateau (Buettner-Janusch and Buettner-Janusch, 1964). There are three Merina classes: the Andriana or nobles, the Hova or commoners/ "free men" and the Andevo/Mainti/ Mpanompo or slaves. Marriages between individuals belonging to different Merina classes are discouraged (Singer *et al.*, 1957). Merina individuals used in this study were a random sampling from all classes.

According to some traditions (reviewed by Singer *et al.*, 1957), the Merina are descended from three groups: the Vazimba (the so-called "original" inhabitants of the island), the Javanese and Malays. Another belief is that the Merina are derived from the Vazimba alone, but this is unlikely because the Vazimba seem to have a lot of African "blood", as indicated by the African style housing mentioned earlier. Physical features of the Merina are very varied and a study done in 1957 showed that approximately half the individuals had light brown skin, 22% were very dark skinned and the remainder fell somewhere in

between. Hair ranged from crinkly to straight, approximately 70% of individuals studied had thin lips, over half had the almond shaped eyes which are characteristic of Malays and Indonesians, and most tended to have rather high, rounded foreheads (Singer *et al.*, 1957).

The Tsimihety occupy the arid northwest region of the island. It is thought that they are descendants of immigrants who came from the Betsimisaraka and Tanala areas, and possibly slaves from the high plateau (Singer *et al.*, 1957). These individuals are considered to be a fiercely independent group and are one of the few groups on the island who were never completely subjected to the political control of any of the Malagasy kingdoms, except for their loose inclusion in the Sakalava empire in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Vérin *et al.*, 1970).

The Antemoro are situated on the southeast coast. This group appears to have some Arab ancestry because the Malagasy alphabet is written in Arabian letters by them (Singer *et al.*, 1957). One tradition refers to the Antemoro as being descended from 30 men who sailed directly to Madagascar from Mecca during the seventh century (Campbell, 1995a, personal communication). In general, the Antemoro tend to have long faces, straight foreheads, pointed chins and scant body and facial hair (Singer *et al.*, 1957).

1.3 SETTLEMENT HISTORY

The first inhabitation of the island was almost certainly post Stone Age because no Stone Age archaeological sites have been discovered; the oldest archaeological sites have yielded only iron tools. Evidence of human impact on the island's vegetation does not go back for more than 1900 years either.

The earliest evidence of human impact on the island's vegetation is from the fourteenth century (Burney, 1987, 1994).

The oldest evidence of human activity on the island dates back to between the first and fourth centuries AD and consists of radiocarbon dated remains of the now extinct African pygmy hippopotamus, which showed clear markings of butchery with metal tools. Such remains were found at two locations along the southwest coast. The next oldest evidence, found in a rock shelter in the extreme north, dates back to between the fourth and eighth centuries. From the eighth century onwards, continuous occupation of Madagascar and the Comoros Islands is evident (Wright, 1992) and the oldest human remains date back to the ninth century (Vérin, 1986). All early occupations appear to have been along the coast, with the earliest known occupation of the interior being in the fourteen century (Rakotovololona, 1993).

Who the first settlers were, has been the topic of great debate. Some researchers suggest that the first settlers could have been Southeast Asian mariners carried by prevailing winds 6400km across the Indian Ocean from Indonesia. However, in order to significantly occupy the island, such accidental crossings of the Indian Ocean would have had to have been successfully repeated; and since Réunion and Mauritius, two intervening islands, were found unoccupied before Europeans arrived on Madagascar, this theory is unlikely (Mack, 1986).

A more favoured hypothesis is that settlement took place via the East African coastline. According to this hypothesis, a wave of migrants spread round the northern fringes of the Indian Ocean, via Southern India, Sri Lanka and the Maldives; and then on to the East African coast. If this were so, then it is likely

that there was a period of settlement on the African mainland before Madagascar was settled. It is believed that the Comoros Islands were probably an important stepping stone between Africa and Madagascar during the peopling of the latter (Mack, 1986).

Dahle argued in favour of an initial African migration on the grounds that Madagascar is very close to Africa. Indeed, the Vazimba, who are thought to have been among the first inhabitants of the island, are considered to be of African origin (Dahle, 1883). However, the proximity of Madagascar to Africa as a reason for initial African settlement contradicts Shaw's argument, which dismissed an African origin due to, amongst other reasons, the Mozambique Channel possessing treacherously strong currents and variable winds. The prevailing winds are from the southeast and northeast, and only during the latter part of the cold season is there a westerly wind for a day or two. The current also flows strongly in a westerly direction. Thus, a sea voyage from Indonesia would seem to be more feasible, particularly as Indonesians are traditionally a maritime and colonizing people (Shaw, 1885). In addition, the Maldives which lie roughly three-fifths of the way from Indonesia to Madagascar and are often mentioned by early navigators (from the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries). Thus, Southeast Asian mariners must have mastered the required navigational techniques to keep sailing west to Madagascar, possibly via the Seychelles, which would have been aided by the east to west direction of the wind. Return to Southeast Asia would most likely have been along northern routes via the East African coastline. However, there is no hard evidence for all of this; it is mere speculation (Manguin, 1993).

Immigration by Jews, Persians, Indians and Chinese during medieval times has been suggested through studying isolated cu'ture and vocabulary links among

the people of modern Madagascar. However, possible contact with these groups did not have an appreciable impact on the racial composition or customs of the Malagasy. Those who did were the Arabs, or more specifically, individuals or subsequent generations of individuals who set out from Arabia and traded down the east coast of Africa. By the time they reached Madagascar, however, their Arab blood and religious beliefs are likely to have been considerably diluted (Brown, 1978). The Arab individuals who reached Madagascar via the Comoros Islands are likely to have been partly African in genetic make up and their language was probably a cross between Arabic and Bantu, i.e., similar to modern Swahili. They became known as the Antalàotra, and represented a mixture of Arabs, Africans and possibly proto-Malagasy from the Comoros Islands. These individuals retained Arab clothing and customs, but only a few were likely to have been pure Arabs. Between the tenth and fifteenth centuries the Antalàotra thrived on the trade in Malagasy products and slaves (Brown, 1978) and their civilization peaked on Madagascar between the fourteenth and seventeenth centuries. Following this, an expansion of a Malagasy group, the Sakalava, and the incursion of Europeans resulted in the number of Antalàotra settlements diminishing, until only three remained. Those in the northeast and southeast coasts adopted Malagasy culture, while those in the northwest retained the Arab culture and maintained strong links with the Arab-Swahili community elsewhere in the western Indian Ocean (Campbell, 1995a, personal communication).

As mentioned earlier, initial Indonesian/proto-Malagasy settlements in Madagascar were probably outposts of larger trading settlements in East Africa. It has been suggested that from about the middle of the first millennium, more and more individuals from the mainland trading posts may have moved to Madagascar as a result of the "Bantu expansion", which was

taking place at the time (Brown, 1978).

According to Brown (1978) by the end of the first millennium, a remarkably homogeneous group of people were settled along the coasts and some inland areas of Madagascar. They were a racial mix of Indonesians and Africans, and spoke an essentially Indonesian language with occasional African terminology.

With respect to the first European contact, the fleet of a Portuguese mission to India which sailed in 1499, was scattered by a tremendous storm and four of the ships sank. A fifth ship, commanded by Diogo Dias, was driven round the Cape of Good Hope and then far to the east. After travelling north, Diogo made landfall on 10 August 1500 on what he assumed to be Mozambique, but later discovered to be a large island. He named it Sao Lourenço, but the people back in Portugal assumed it to be the island mentioned by Pedro da Covilha and in the writings of Marco Polo, and placed it on the Portuguese map in early 1502 as Madagascar (Brown, 1978).

The Portuguese and other Europeans were responsible for ruining Arab trade in the Indian Ocean in the sixteenth century. The only remaining evidence of Arab settlements on Madagascar are a few Arab-style houses, tombs and mosques (Brown, 1978).

Following the European arrival at the turn of the sixteenth century, various unsuccessful attempts at establishing Portuguese settlements on the island were made in order to use it as a foothold for the spice trade with the East Indies. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the island became a pirate stronghold, with the eastern side being a major haven from which to attack shipping in the Indian Ocean and the Arabian Sea (Mack, 1986).

Many changes occurred on the island after the arrival of Europeans. One such change was the importation of guns and gunpowder, which lead to increased levels of military conflict, population relocations and reorganizations of political power (Dewar, 1995).

The Merina state was formed in the eighteenth century due to a swift increase in population density and increases in political complexity in the central highlands (Dewar, 1995). By the nineteenth century, the Merina had conquered and were ruling most of the island (Brown, 1978). English and French traders and missionaries were welcomed by King Radama I in 1810 and slave trading was stopped. In the 1840's, the Europeans were expelled by Queen Ranavalona I and they did not return again until the 1860's following her death (The World Book Encyclopaedia, 1977). According to Alfred Grandidier; in 1869, two-thirds of the population of Antananarivo were slaves and slaves formed approximately one-third of the population living outside of this capital (Grandidier, 1916). In 1896, 43.6% of the previously liberated slaves lived in Imerina and constituted 20-26% of the population. This one-time slave community experienced low birth/high mortality rates as a result of diseases, such as smallpox. There were also rigid rules prohibiting sexual relations between slaves and the 'free' population. For these reasons, the influx of African slaves did not necessarily have a large effect on the rate of natural population increase within the Merina empire (reviewed by Campbell, 1991) and may be the reason why the Merina population group is not more African in nature. During the 1880's and 1890's, wars fought between the French and the Malagasy (The World Book Encyclopaedia, 1977) resulted in the French taking the island and establishing colonial rule in 1895 (Mack, 1986). French domination continued until 1960 when Madagascar regained its independence (Cole, 1992).

1.4 PREVIOUS STUDIES CONCERNING THE ORIGINS OF THE MALAGASY.

In 1940, Ratsimamanga concluded from serological data that there were four anthropological types on the island: African "Negroid", "Europoid", "Mongoloid"/Indonesian-Mongoloid and "Negro-Oceanic". The African "Negroid" type constituted 2% of the population and consisted chiefly of the Sakalava and Makoa. The "mixed" descendants of Arab migrants who belong mainly to the Antandroy, Antefasy and Tanala, constituted the "Europoid" contribution and made up approximately 9% of the population. "Mongoloid"/Indonesian-Mongoloid individuals constituted 37% of the islanders and were represented by the Merina, Masikoro, and Antemoro groups. The remaining 52% were the "Negro-Oceanic" group who were supposed to have originated in Melanesia and were found among the Sihanaka and Tsimihety (Campbell, 1995b, personal communication). More recent anthropometric and haematological research, however, indicates that the main contributors of the Island's population were from Indonesia and East Africa, and not from Melanesia (Dewar, 1995).

The A and B alleles of the ABO blood system have very similar frequencies to each other throughout the island, but the B allele generally has a higher frequency than A and this is a Southeast Asian characteristic. Studies on the Rh system show that the frequency of the cDe haplotype is relatively high and this is consistent with an African origin. Populations in neighbouring parts of Africa have a cDe frequency of about 60% whereas Malayan and Indonesian populations have very low frequencies of this haplotype (Mourant *et al.*, 1976). The cDe frequency in the Malagasy suggests that they (in general) could be about two-thirds Bantu and one-third Indonesian (Singer *et al.*, 1957).

With respect to other serological markers, haptoglobin and transferrin allele distributions also indicate a substantial African contribution (Mourant *et al.*, 1976).

A 9bp deletion in the intergenic region between the cytochrome oxidase II and lysine tRNA genes in mitochondrial genomes, has been found in numerous Asian and African populations. It seems likely that the African and Asian deletions arose independently because they are found in the mitochondrial genomes with substantially different base sequences. The mitochondrial DNA containing the 9bp deletion of individuals from coastal New Guinea and the Pacific islands have a particular sequence of bases in the control region which has been referred to as the "Polynesian motif" (reviewed by Soodyall *et al.*, 1995).

Almost 26.8% of the Malagasy tested were found to have the 9bp deletion, of which, 70.7% were of the Asian type and 29.3% of the African type. The Polynesian motif was found at a frequency of 18.2% in the Malagasy, i.e., more than 96% of mitochondrial genomes containing the 9bp deletion were of the Polynesian type. These findings suggest that Polynesians could also have been among the founding populations of the Malagasy (Soodyall et al., 1995).

A study of the stable *Alu* (+/-) polymorphism and short tandem repeat (STR) polymorphisms within the CD4 locus also strongly supports a significant African contribution to the Malagasy (Morar *et al.*, 1996). In the Malagasy, the *Alu* (-) allele occurs in combination with many CD4 STR alleles, a characteristic exclusive to sub-Saharan African populations. The relatively high frequency of an *Alu* (+) allele in the Malagasy is also indicative of an African influence. Phylogenetic analysis of CD4 *Alu*-STR haplotypes indicate that

Malagasy lowlanders cluster more closely with African (Zambian) and US Negroid populations than they do with the highlanders who appear closer to the Asian and two Indonesian populations studied (Morar *et al.*, 1996).

The sickle cell ($ß^S$) allele frequency among the Malagasy highlanders has been found to be relatively low (Hewitt *et al.*, 1996), which compares to Southeast Asian individuals in whom the $ß^S$ mutation has not been found (reviewed by Nagel and Fleming, 1992). Higher $ß^S$ frequencies were found among lowland populations, particularly in the traditionally cattle raising groups (Tsimihety, Sakalava and Bara), the majority of whom also have Negroid physical features (Singer *et al.*, 1957). The $ß^S$ frequencies in the lowlanders compare to highest found in African populations and their African American descendants (Hewitt *et al.*, 1996). However, being a gene which is under selection in areas where malaria occurs, the results obtained in Hewitt's study are not entirely conclusive because malaria is hyperendemic in the coastal regions, especially in the southeast (Hewitt *et al.*, 1996; Mourant *et al.*, 1976).

Haplotype studies of the ß globin gene region offer more information than that obtained from $ß^s$ alone. Almost all of the Malagasy $ß^S$ haplotypes were found to be of the typical Bantu type and a large Arab-Indian contribution is unlikely because no Arab-Indian $ß^S$ haplotypes were detected, although Asian / Oceanic and some Caucasoid influence is evident from $β^A$ haplotype data (Hewitt *et al.*, 1996).

A comparison of haplotypes obtained in the G6PD gene region of individuals from Madagascar and possible parental populations, suggested that larger amounts of Indonesian admixture were present in highland populations (approximately 50%) compared to lowland population groups (approximately

15%). However, two of the lowland groups studied, namely the Vezo and Mahafaly, showed an even greater affinity to Indonesian or Indonesian-like individuals than the highland groups did (Dangerfield, 1998).

The findings of all these studies reveal definite Asian and African contributions to the Malagasy, with the general trend that coastal / lowland individuals are genetically more similar to Africans; while highlanders are more similar to Southeast Asians. However, exceptions to the trend are present, as mentioned above.

1.5 THE CONCEPT OF ADMIXTURE AND ITS EFFECT ON LINKAGE DISEQUILIBRIUM.

Under natural conditions, the diversification of populations belonging to a species stems from an initial physical separation, attended by founder effect, and subsequent genetic drift and natural selection. In the case of modern humans, a distance of as little as 100km between subgroups is thought to be a sufficient impediment to gene flow which would prevent differentiation (Cavalli-Sforza *et al.*, 1994).

Since there are no apparent isolating mechanisms preventing human interracial crosses, the various major isolated groups were probably never totally isolated for long periods (Sutton, 1988). The words "long periods" are vague, but a recent study of a base sequence in the pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 α subunit gene on the X chromosome, suggests that non-Africans separated from Africans about 200 thousand years ago (Harris and Hey, 1999).

The exchange of genes between populations reduces the genetic differences

between them and as a result there are no absolute clear cut differences between races. It is thought that previously there existed pure races, but these have since become more or less admixed to produce present-day populations which exhibit clinal variations of gene frequencies. Nonetheless, considerable physical, morphological and genetic differences exist between populations which are culturally, politically and geographically distinct, but which are exchanging genes (reviewed by Chakraborty, 1986).

Admixture can be defined as the proportionate contribution of one or more ancestral populations to the genetic constitution of a hybrid population (Adams and Ward, 1973). It has mainly been associated with military invasions, slave trading and selective expatriation by specific groups (Chakraborty, 1986) but often occurs by a continuous slow infusion of individuals from one group into another neighbouring group (Cavalli-Sforza, 1994).

The estimation of admixture involves determining the fractions of genes within a hybrid population which have been contributed by its parental populations. Information gleaned from such studies can be used to clarify historical affinities between populations as well as the time of origin of hybrid groups (Chakraborty, 1986).

Admixture analyses are also useful for understanding the relationship between diseases and particular gene pools. For example, non insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) has a relatively high prevalence in Amerindian populations. Populations with a substantial component of Amerindian ancestry also show an increased incidence of NIDDM. It has now been shown that there is a direct association between increasing Caucasian admixture and a decreasing prevalence of NIDDM among the Pima Indians of Arizona

(reviewed by Long *et al.,* 1991). However, it must be noted that an environmental factor (dietary) would also influence the apparent prevalence.

Two main problems are associated with admixture studies. The first is the difficulty of correctly identifying the parental populations and the second is the assumption that gene frequencies in parental and hybrid populations have remained the same since the time of mixing (Adams and Ward, 1973; Cavalli-Sforza, 1994).

A notable effect of genetic admixture is that it often leads to an increase in linkage disequilibrium. Linkage disequilibrium refers to the non-random association of alleles at different loci, which are syntenic and less than 50cM apart. Admixture can also result in associations between alleles at loci separated by more than 50cM or on different chromosomes. This is referred to as gametic or population association (reviewed by Ewens and Spielman, 1995). In the case of gametic association, one would observe disequilibrium between specific alleles at pairs of loci in recently admixed, genetically divergent populations, with the difference between allele frequencies in the parental populations determining the amount of disequilibrium present. In this instance, the disequilibrium would decay rapidly (over a relatively small number of generations), while one would observe a much slower decay of disequilibrium with truly linked genes (Stephens *et al.,* 1994). There will be evidence of distorted haplotypic frequencies for many generations with tightly linked polymorphic loci and the rate of decay will be a function c the recombination frequency between those loci (Thomson and Klitz, 1987). In theory, linkage disequilibrium present in a hybrid population can provide information about the "parental" populations, provided that the degree of linkage disequilibrium in the parental populations is known (Weir, 1996).

1.6 THE MAJOR HISTOCOMPATIBILITY COMPLEX

George Snell introduced the expressions histocompatibility gene and histocompatibility antigens in 1948 (Coleman *et al.*, 1992), following Peter Gorer's discovery that each individual possessed molecular markers on the surface of most of its cells, which differentiated it from other members of the same species. These molecular markers determined tissue compatibility and were specified by a long array of genetic loci occupying a single region of chromosome 6 (in man), termed the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) (Klein *et al.*, 1993). With the discovery of human leukocyte-associated antigens, the human major histocompatibility complex became known as the HLA system (Coleman *et al.*, 1992) and codes for cell surface glycoproteins involved in antigen presentation during development and also during an immune response (Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

1.6.1 Gene location and layout

The MHC region is located at chromosome 6p21.3 in a dense cluster of genes spanning about 4Mb of DNA and is present in a Giemsa light band which indicates the presence of an abundance of transcribed genes (Raskó and Downes, 1995).

There are three major subdivisions within the MHC cluster (see figure 1.2 for a simplified schematic diagram of the MHC region). These subdivisions are the class I, II and III genes. Class I genes span approximately 1.8Mb at the telomeric end of the region (Raskó and Downes, 1995). Classical class I genes include HLA -A, -B and -C, while HLA -E, -F and -G are known as nonclassical class I genes. Two pseudogenes, HLA -H and -J, are also present

(Tomlinson and Bodmer, 1995). The HLA -A locus lies about 1.3Mb from HLA -B and -C which are 85kb apart. Class I gene encoded antigens consist of an α chain which associates with the non-MHC encoded polypeptide, β_2-microglobulin, whose gene is situated on chromosome 15 (Raskó and Downes, 1995). The α chains are highly polymorphic, while β_2-microglobulin is monomorphic (Begovich and Erlich, 1995). A more detailed description of the structure of class I antigens is given in section 1.6.2.

Class II genes are found at the centromeric end of the cluster and span approximately 750kb (see figure 1.3 for a more detailed diagram of the class II region). Unlike class I antigens, class II antigens (also discussed in more detail in section 1.6.2) consist of an α and β chain, both of which are encoded by genes situated in the MHC (Raskó and Downes, 1995). The α chains are encoded by DPA1, DQA1 and DRA, while the β chains are encoded by DPB1, DQB1 and various DRB loci. Pseudogenes within the class II region include DPA2, DPB2, DQA2, DQB2 and DQB3 (Tomlinson and Bodmer, 1995). Additional nonclassical genes in the class II region are DMA, DMB, DNA and DOB (Klein *et al.*, 1993). Situated between DP and DQ are the non-HLA TAP and LMP genes. TAP genes encode transporters associated with antigen processing and LMP (low molecular mass polypeptide) genes (Monaco and McDevitt, 1984) encode products related to subunits of a large cytoplasmic complex, the proteasome, thought to be involved in the degradation of proteins in the cytoplasm (Monaco, 1992).

The DP locus differs from the other class II loci because both pairs of DP genes (DPA1 and DPB1, as well as DPA2 and DPB2) are tail-to-tail in orientation (as shown in figure 1.3). As of 1997, there were nine known DPA1 and 67 DPB1 alleles, but the identification of new alleles is an ongoing

process. Most of the variation is contained within six variable regions within exon2 (Meyer *et al.*, 1997). Exon2 seems to be the region where virtually all polymorphism is localized in the other functional class II molecules as well (Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

Lying between class I and II loci is a heterogeneous collection of non-MHC related class III genes which span 1.1Mb. Genes contained within this region include the complement genes C2, C4 and factor B; the heat shock protein gene HSP70; and the lymphocyte-secreted tumour necrosis factor genes TNF-A and TNF-B (Raskó and Downes, 1995).

1.6.2 Structure of human leucocyte antigens

Class I antigens (shown in figure 1.4) consist of a single α chain of 40-45kD which has a carbohydrate side chain of approximately 3kD. This glycosylated chain is noncovalently associated with a nonglycosylated 12kD peptide chain known as β_2-microglobulin (Coleman *et al.*, 1992).

There are three portions to the class I molecule: an intracellular, an intramembrane and an extracellular portion. The extracellular portion can be further subdivided into three domains: α1 (residues 1-90), α2 (residues 91-180) and α3 (residues 181-272). β_2-microglobulin binds to the α3 domain. The class I epitopes (or antigenic sites) occur on the α1 and α2 domains (Coleman *et al.*, 1992).

Class II antigens (shown in figure 1.5) consist of two transmembrane polypeptide chains, joined by noncovalent forces. The α chain, consisting of an α1 and α2 domain, has a mass of 34kD; and the β chain, consisting of a β1

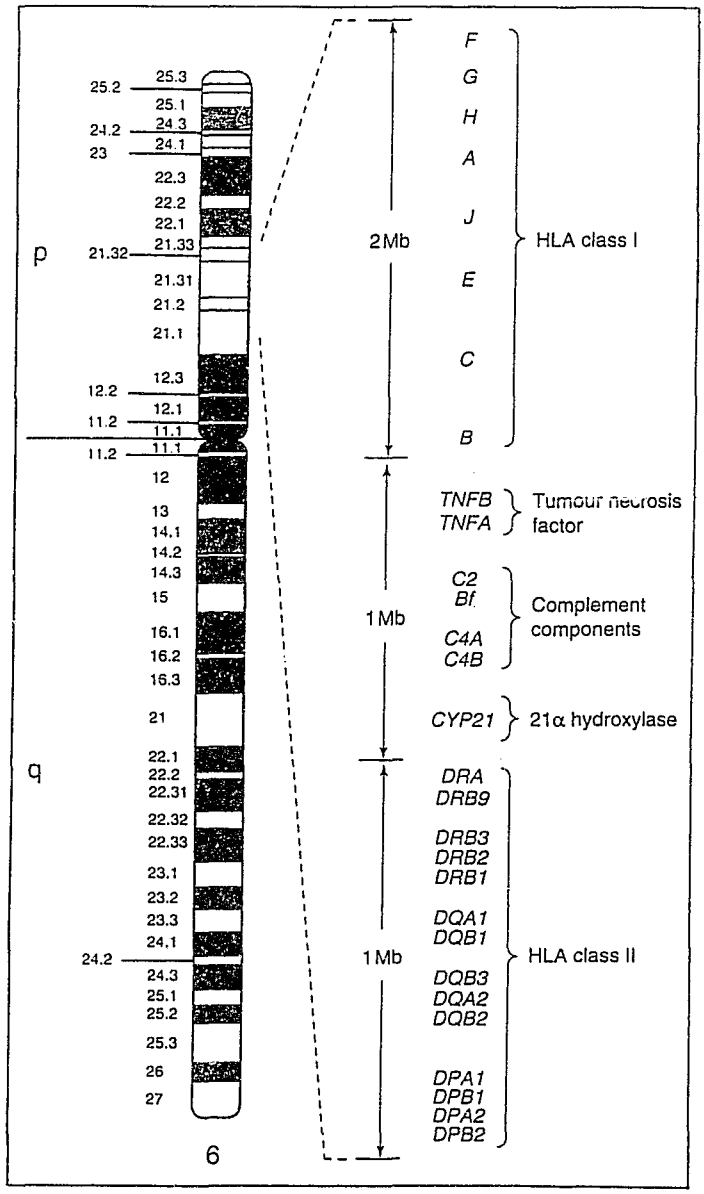

Figure 1.2 A simplified diagram of chromosome 6 highlighting the MHC region (taken from Tomlinson and Bodmer, 1995).

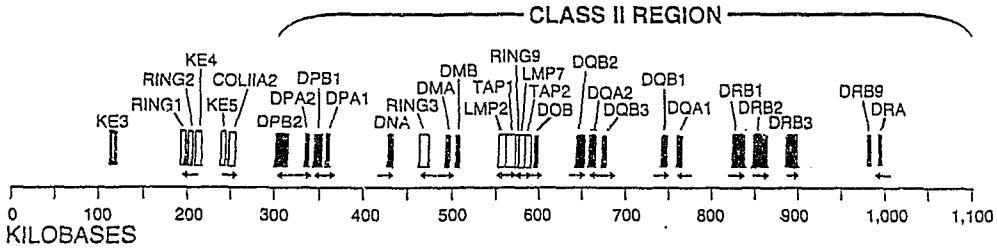

Figure 1.3 A more detailed diagram of the class II region. Black blocks indicate HLA loci, while white blocks indicate non MHC loci within the class II region (taken from Klein *et al.*, 1993).

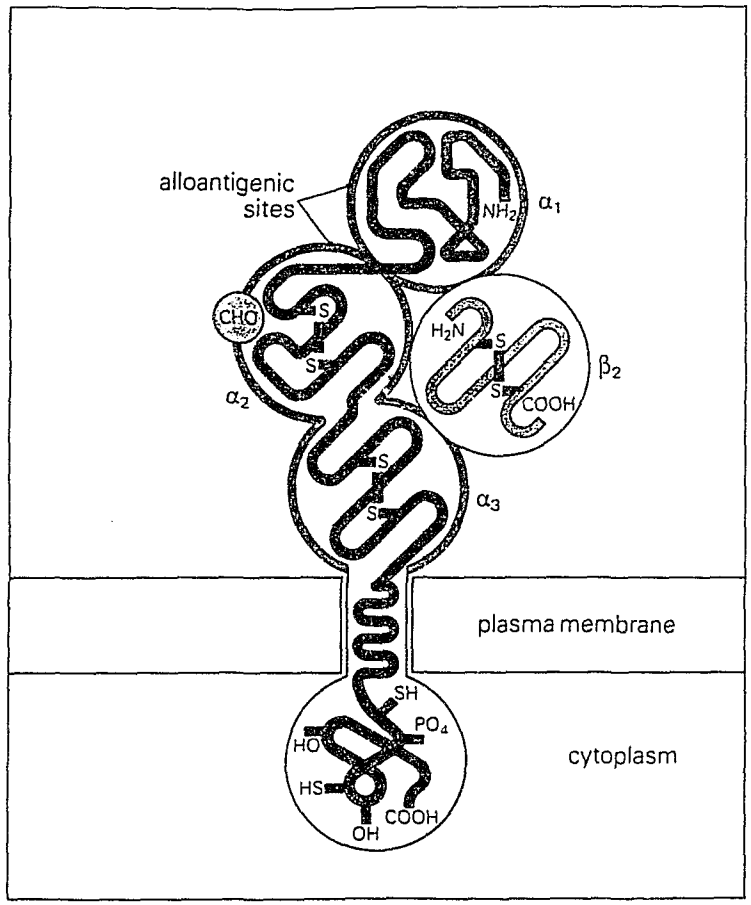

Figure 1.4 A schematic representation of a class I molecule (taken from Roitt *et al.*, 1989). CHO represents the carbohydrate side chain and β_2 represents β_2-microglobulin.

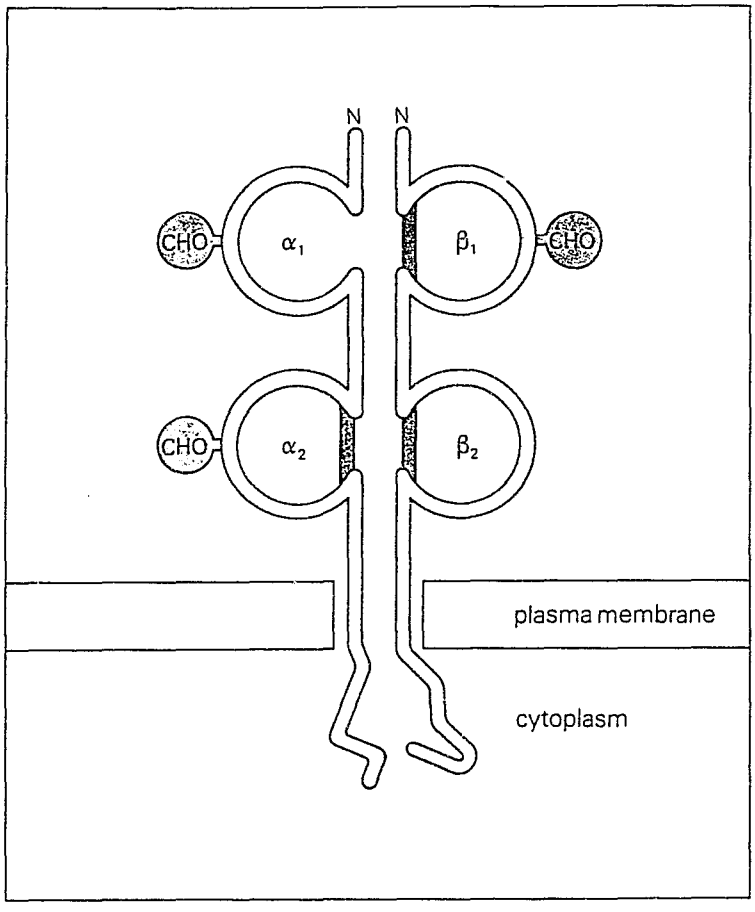

Figure 1.5 A schematic representation of a class II molecule (taken from Roitt *et al.*, 1989). CHO represents the complex-type oligosaccharide.

and β2 domain, has a mass of 28kD. Each chain carries at least one complex-type oligosaccharide. The slightly shorter β chain is the more variable of the two and contains the alloantigenic sites (Coleman *et al.*, 1992).

The polymorphic antigen binding site of class I and II molecules consists of β-pleated sheets flanked by two α helixes. A single antigenic peptide ligand fits into the groove of this binding site (Singh *et al.*, 1997).

1.6.3 Assembly and intracellular transport of class II molecules

Assembly of class II molecules takes place in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Owen *et al.*, 1981) and only properly assembled class II αβ heterodimers leave the ER (Sant *et al.*, 1991). A third chain, the invariant or γ chain, associates transiently with the αβ dimer during the biosynthesis of the class II molecule. This third chain is not absolutely required for assembly and surface expression of the αβ dimer, but increases the efficiency of the process (Claesson-Welsh and Peterson, 1985). The γ chain, which is a type II transmembrane protein, is responsible for targeting the αβ dimers to the endocytic pathway and for preventing the binding of peptides to the dimers while these are in the ER (Bakke and Dobberstein, 1990; Lotteau *et al.*, 1990).

In the ER, the γ chain forms a homotrimer (Marks *et al.*, 1990) and three class II αβ dimers attach to this and are transported from the ER (Roche *et al.*, 1991) through the Golgi to the trans-Golgi reticulum. Here the class II molecules are routed to the endocytic pathway (Neefjes *et al.*, 1990) where they are directed to the endosomes by the targeting signal in the tail of the γ chain (Bakke and Dobberstein, 1990). This γ chain is then degraded by endosomal proteases (Blum and Cresswell, 1988). The degradation of the γ

chain is essential for the binding of internalized antigen (Roche and Cresswell, 1990; Teyton *et al.*, 1990) which arrives through a series of steps, firstly in a coated pit, followed by early and late endosomes, and then the MIIC, a compartment identified in B cells. Finally it moves on to the lysosome (reviewed by Neefjes and Ploegh, 1992). During these steps in the endocytic pathway, the antigen is broken down into peptides, some of which associate with the class II molecules following degradation of the γ chain. The efficiency of peptide binding by class II molecules is aided by the low pH of the endosome (Jensen, 1990). Exactly where on this endocytic route the class II molecules bind peptides, and how the peptide-class II αβ complex is transported to the cell surface is not clear (reviewed by Neefjes and Ploegh, 1992). What is known for human B-lymphoblastoid cells, is that the class II molecules take 1-3 hours to traverse the endocytic route and appear at the cell surface (Neefjes *et al.*, 1990).

1.6.4 Antigen presentation

Antigens of intracellular and extracellular origin induce differing recognitions and responses from the immune system. Intracellularly derived peptides from antigens, such as proteins from viruses, are presented to $CD8^+$ T cells by MHC class I molecules which are expressed on virtually all cells. Binding of $CD8^+$ T cells result in the death of the presenting cell. Extracellularly derived antigens, for example, proteins in endosome related vesicles, are presented to $CD4^+$ T cells by the MHC class II molecules. These class II molecules are found on specialized antigen presenting cells (Singh *et al.*, 1997) such as B cells, macrophages and dendritic cells (Battegay *et al.*, 1996); although in many other class II^- cell types, IFNγ can induce expression of class II molecules (Steimle *et al.*, 1994). The $CD4^+$ T cells help B cells to produce

appropriate immunoglobulins (Singh *et al.*, 1997).

It is believed that class II molecules can also present endogenous antigens because antigens modified so that they are retained in the cytosol or ER can still be presented by class II molecules (Weiss and Bogen, 1991).

For class I molecules, exons 2 and 3 encode the amino-terminal extracellular domains that function as the peptide-binding site and are the most variable regions. The polymorphic residues line the peptide-binding cleft and interact directly with the peptide and/or T cell receptor (Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

It is proposed that the peptide-binding portion of class II molecules is similar to that of class I molecules (Bjorkman *et al.*, 1987). Crystal structures of class II molecules reveal peptides lying in an extended conformation in a peptide-binding groove on the surface of the MHC molecule (Stern *et al.*, 1994). Some peptide residues point down into the peptide-binding groove interacting with the MHC molecule; while others project up from the groove and are thus accessible for recognition by T cell receptors (Bjorkman *et al.*, 1987). Some of the amino acid residues of a peptide are crucial for efficient binding to MHC molecules and are called 'anchor' residues (Falk *et al.*, 1991). These make bonds with the peptide-binding 'pockets' of the MHC molecule (Bjorkman *et al.*, 1987) and define allele-specific peptide motifs (Singh *et al.*, 1997).

Class I molecules bind peptides which are approximately nine amino acids long (Hunt *et al.*, 1992) whereas class II molecules bind peptides which are 13-17 amino acids long (Rudensky *et al.*, 1991).

Class II-like genes encode a novel heterodimer, formed from the products of

the DMA and DMB genes, that appears to facilitate antigen presentation by MHC class II molecules (Morris *et al.*, 1994; Fling *et al.*, 1994). This heterodimer is not expressed on the cell surface, but co-localizes with class II molecules in the endosomal compartments (Denzin *et al.*, 1994). It is believed that this class II-like heterodimer functions either to: 1) bring processed peptides into the specialized endosomal compartment (MIIC) for binding to class II molecules, or 2) to act as a sink for class II associated invariant chain peptide, or 3) to act as a molecular chaperone for class II molecules (Beckman and Brenner, 1995).

The peptide transporter associated with antigen processing (TAP), was formerly referred to as the peptide supply factor (PSF) (Colonna *et al.*, 1992; Spies *et al.*, 1990) and is a member of the ATP binding cassette (ABC) superfamily of transporters. This TAP is a heterodimer encoded by TAP1 and 2 (Powis *et al.*, 1993) and serves to transport antigenic peptides, generated in the cytosol, across the ER where they are assembled with class I molecules (Kelly *et al.*, 1992; Spies *et al*, 1992), thus playing a role in maintaining adequate levels of peptide for binding to the class I molecules (Spies *et al.*, 1992).

Two other proteins, LMP2 and 7 are proposed to form part of the machinery that produces peptides for transport by the TAP complex (reviewed by Trowsdale, 1993).

1.6.5 Malfunctioning of class II expression

Absence of class II expression in all cell types is rare and is one feature of the bare lymphocyte syndrome. It results in severe immunodeficiency, multiple

infections, failure to thrive and often death (Griscelli *et al.*, 1989). Bare lymphocyte syndrome results from a failure of class II gene transcriptio Reith *et al.*, 1988). It is believed that transacting regulatory factors are responsible for this because there is no co-segregation of the genetic lesions causing bare lymphocyte syndrome with the MHC (de Préval *et al.*, 1985).

The class II transactivator (CIITA) is a 1130 amino acid protein necessary for constitutive expression of the class II genes on B cells and also plays a crucial role in the overall modulation of class II expression on other cell types. In an experiment to prove its regulatory function, it was shown that in class II- cells there is no CIITA expression, but after IFNγ treatment CIITA is expressed and the class II gene transcription follows (Reith *et al.*, 1995). CIITA is also involved in the expression of HLA-DM and the invariant chain genes (Chang and Flavell, 1995). A second regulatory factor for class II gene expression exists; it is called RFX5 and, not surprisingly, has a DNA binding domain (Reith *et al.*, 1988).

1.7 EVOLUTION OF THE MHC

Genes of the HLA region have been evolving for millions of years and much of the current polymorphism predates the separation of humans and chimpanzees approximately seven million years ago (Lawlor *et al.*, 1988), and even more significantly, the separation of mice and rats some ten million years ago (Figueroa *et al.*, 1988). Balancing selection appears to be in operation at this cluster because the extent of allele loss due to genetic drift, for the time that this region has been evolving, is less than expected (Takahata and Nei *et al.*, 1990). Another indication of the operation of balancing selection, is the unusually even distributions of HLA allele frequencies within human

populations without the predominance of any single allele (Hedrick and Thompson, 1983).

The class II genes, in particular, appear quite well conserved between humans and a number of other species. Mouse and human class II genes appear orthologous, i.e., it is relatively easy to trace the mouse and human class II genes back to a common ancestor. For class I genes, this has been a difficult and unsuccessful task (Boyson *et al.*, 1996). A large proportion of DRB1 polymorphism predates the separation of the lineages leading to humans and chimpanzees (Klein *et al.*, 1990). The DQA1 1.2 allele was found to be identical in sequence to the DQA1 1.2 equivalent in gorillas, indicating that this allele is more closely related to its gorilla counterpart than to other human DQA1 alleles (Gyllensten and Erlich, 1989).

With respect to the evolutionary relationship of class I loci between humans and other species, there has been little conservation of exon2 at the A or B loci during the 35 million years since rhesus monkeys and humans were thought to have last had a common ancestor. Also, as mentioned previously, a common ancestor for human and mouse class I genes has yet to be found (Boyson *et al.*, 1996). Homologues of HLA -A, -B and -C, however, are present in great apes (Lawlor *et al.*, 1988; 1991); while a homologue of the HLA -C region has yet to be found in the Old World primates. This suggests that the C locus is a recent occurrence in great apes and humans (Boyson *et al.*, 1996).

It is thought that class I and II genes arose by gene duplication and have remained closely linked throughout evolution (Powis and Geraghty, 1995). The advantage of gene duplication is that one copy can continue to perform its normal function, while the other is free to assume a new or altered function

(reviewed by Trowsdale, 1993). It is believed that the C locus is a duplication of the B locus (Boyson *et al.*, 1996).

A possible reason for keeping the MHC loci together in a cluster, is to aid in the exchange of genetic information by recombination or gene conversion (which has been shown to occur in mice) (Kuhner *et al.*, 1990). The DRB loci appear to have been generated by recombination in primates (Kenter *et al.*, 1992; Gyllensten *et al.*, 1991) and gene conversion is suggested to occur in exon2 of DRB1 genes in humans (Bergström *et al.*, 1998). Another possible reason for a close clustering of HLA genes is that advantageous combinations of alleles at different loci can be maintained. This is referred to as coevolution of function (Trowsdale, 1993). The TAP and LMP genes, too have remained closely linked to class I and II genes despite being totally unrelated to each other and class I and II genes (Powis and Geraghty, 1995). However, as described earlier, TAP and LMP gene products are involved with class I and II molecules in the antigen presentation process.

The DRB1, DQA1 and DQB1 loci behave as a single evolutionary unit within which extremely high linkage disequilibrium exists. Lower, yet significant levels of linkage disequilibrium also exist between these loci and DPB1, which is separated by approximately 500kb from the others (Klitz *et al.*, 1995). The recombination rate between DQB1 and DPB1 is approximately 0.8% (Begovich *et al.*, 1992) and yet alleles at the two peptide-transporter loci, TAP1 and 2, which are separated by only 15kb, appear to be in linkage equilibrium. It is proposed that two processes are in operation here: a hot spot for recombination between TAP 1 and 2; and strong selection on certain allele combinations across the DR-DP region (Klitz *et al.*, 1995). This selection probably aids in the fight against pathogens while avoiding harmful

autoimmunity (Kronenberg *et al.*, 1994).

The DPB1 locus appears to be one of recent origin which has undergone rapid evolution. It seems that diversifying selection on the DPB1 locus has intensified in the lineage leading to humans (Gyllensten *et al.*, 1996). Indeed, it has been found that inter-allelic gene conversion events between two DPB1 alleles during human spermatogenesis occurs at a high frequency (4.7×10^{-3}) (reviewed by Kronenberg *et al.*, 1994).

In view of the similarity of DQA1 locus alleles in humans, chimpanzees and gorillas, it has been suggested that point mutations, rather than interallelic recombination events, are responsible for the diversity seen at this locus. Point mutations do not erode allele similarity to the same extent as interallelic recombination events would. It is generally assumed that the similarity between the genes of these species is due to common ancestry, rather than convergent evolution (Gyllensten and Erlich, 1989). However, convergent evolution at the DRB1 locus has been proposed by Titus-Trachtenberg and colleagues. In their study, an amino acid substitution present in the Cayapa Indians of Ecuador, a population with reduced HLA class II allele variation due to a bottleneck during colonization of the Americas, arose via a different mechanism to the same amino acid change at the same position seen in Africa (Titus-Trachtenberg *et al.*, 1994).

The amount of polymorphism in the HLA -DR to -DQ region has been shown to be twice as extensive in West Africans than it is in North European Caucasians (Olerup *et al.*, 1991). A possible explanation for the loss of more than 50% of class II haplotypes in these Caucasian populations could be a founder /bottleneck effect, as assumed for the Cayapa Indians, with the

founding Caucasian population being too small to retain the complete range of haplotypes (Olerup *et al.*, 1991). This is, however, only valid if the 'out of Africa' theory of human origins is correct.

1.8 HLA INVOLVEMENT IN MATE SELECTION

In 1974 Lewis Thomas first suggested a relationship between human reproductive biology, pheromones, individual odour and MHC types (Thomas, 1974). Mouse studies have shown that there is a link between body odour and MHC gene variants (reviewed by Boyse *et al.*,1991). One study showed that mice tended to choose a mate which was different from themselves at MHC loci i.e. negative assortative mating, presumably due to the MHC involvement in body odour (Yamazaki *et al.*, 1976). This negative assortative mating could account for the observed excess level of heterozygosity at MHC loci and/or assist in the avoidance of inbreeding (Beauchamp *et al.*, 1985). However, not all strains studied followed this negative assortative mating; in one strain the males preferred MHC-identical females (Yamazaki *et al.*, 1976).

Results obtained from human studies have also been conflicting. A study on the South Amerindians found HLA -A and -B sharing proportions between couples to be very close to those expected from random mating (Hedrick and Black, 1997); whereas a study on Hutterites, a North American reproductive isolate of European ancestry, revealed fewer matches of HLA haplotypes (HLA -A, -B, -C, -DR, and -DQ) than expected, suggesting negative assortative mating (Ober *et al.*, 1997).

Hedrick and Black pointed out that the genes or gene clusters within the MHC which mediate mating preferences, if they exist, are not known. In their study,

HLA -A and -B genotypes were analysed separately, whereas in the Ober study an extended HLA haplotype was analysed. Thus, the haplotype study is probably more indicative of HLA involvement in mate choice. Also, olfactory receptor-like genes have been found in the MHC region, bringing up the possibility of the MHC making use of the olfactory system as a supplementary means of maintaining heterozygosity (Powis and Geraghty, 1995).

1.9 HLA AND AUTOIMMUNITY

Autoimmune diseases are a result of the immune system causing destruction or disruption of the body's own tissues and involve complex interactions between genetic and environmental factors (Vyse and Todd, 1996).

All individuals should be born free of autoimmune disease because clones which are reactive with host antigens are destroyed when they are encountered during foetal life (Adams, 1996). This changes, however, as one grows older because although somatic mutations can result in the production of beneficial clones of lymphocytes (to help us fight pathogens), clones of lymphocytes that react with self antigens also arise (reviewed by Adams, 1996).

The clones that react with "self" are called forbidden clones and can give rise to a number of different types of autoimmune disease. The effects produced by changes resulting from the presence of forbidden clones, fall into six groups:
1) the stimulation of a cell receptor, as occurs in Graves' disease
2) the blocking of a cell receptor, as is seen in myasthenia gravis
3) the destruction of specific cells, as occurs in type 1 insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) and multiple sclerosis
4) complement-mediated cytolysis, as occurs in systemic lupus erythematosis

5) perversion of a functional molecule, as occurs in C3 nephritic syndrome, and

6) autoimmune disease caused by unknown means (Adams, 1996).

Establishing which alleles confer susceptibility to particular autoimmune diseases has proved to be very difficult. Haplotypes associated with susceptibility to IDDM, for instance, include DRB1*0301 /DQA1*0501 /DQB1*0201 and DRB1*0401-5-7-8 /DQA1*0301 /DQB1*0302 (Valdes *et al.*, 1997). However, discrepancies between different population groups have been observed, with different alleles conferring susceptibility in different populations. Also, some alleles confer susceptibility in some populations and protection in others (reviewed by She, 1996).

With respect to rheumatoid arthritis, two susceptibility alleles associated with this autoimmune disease are DQB1*0301 and *0302 (Zanelli *et al.*, 1995). Particular amino acid motifs at position 70-74 of DRB1 alleles also confer a risk for developing this disease (Auger *et al.*, 1996). As mentioned for IDDM, susceptibility allele discrepancies between different populations are apparent here as well (Sattar *et al.*, 1990; Massardo *et al.*, 1990). Protection is offered by some DRB alleles and this protection is dominant over susceptibility, meaning that susceptibility genes can be seen in resistant individuals (Zanelli *et al.*, 1995). It has also been found that heterozygosity between protective and nonprotective DRB1 alleles can result in less severe rheumatoid arthritis (Deighton *et al.*, 1993).

In the case of coeliac disease, the presence of the haplotype DR3/DQA1*0501 /DQB1*0201 is a predisposing factor involved in susceptibility to the disease. There is also evidence to suggest that the sex of the parent and the sex of the

affected child greatly influences the risk conferred by this haplotype. In the Petronzelli study, it was found that paternal transmission of the haplotype occurred significantly more than expected to daughters with coeliac disease, but not to sons with the disease (Petronzelli *et al.*,1997).

Other alleles conferring susceptibility to autoimmune diseases include DRB1*1501, in the case of multiple sclerosis, (Steinman *et al.*, 1995) and alleles DQB1*0301 -0302 -0303 and -06, which have been implicated in the incidence of Bullous pemphigoid, a subepidermal blistering disease (Delgado *et al.*, 1996). TAP2 alleles have also been associated with a predisposition to autoimmune diseases, such as IDDM, but a direct cause and effect is hard to establish in the light of the linkage disequilibrium between alleles at the TAP2 and HLA class II loci (Caillat-Zucman *et al.*, 1995).

1.10 HLA AND TRANSPLANTATION

The outcome of a cell, tissue or organ transplant depends on the degree of "matching" of the relevant transplantation antigens of the donor and recipient; and the success of therapeutic immunosuppressive measures to prevent rejection (Chapel and Haeney, 1993)

HLA loci are prominently involved in transplantation phenomena and play a major regulatory role in cell-to-cell interaction and immune responses involving obligatory self-recognition (Coleman *et al.*, 1992).

Not all transplants require HLA matching. In liver or heart transplants and in skin or corneal grafts, HLA matching is not essential for graft survival. However, in renal and bone marrow transplants, HLA matching becomes

essential (Chapel and Haeney, 1993).

HLA Class II matching, especially of DR, appears more important than class I matching in renal transplantation; whereas a complete match of the MHC, from an identical twin or HLA-identical sibling, is most ideal for survival of a bone marrow transplant (Chapel and Haeney, 1993; Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

An immune complication of bone marrow transplantation is graft-versus-host disease (GVHD), a pathologic process wherein the T lymphocytes in the transfused donor marrow recognize the immunocompromised patient's cells as "foreign" and mount an immune response against them. This can lead to the death of the recipient (Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

HLA matched sibs have HLA alleles which are generally identical by descent; whereas HLA matched unrelated individuals have phenotypically matched alleles which are indistinguishable by the methods used for HLA typing. It is thought that the increased incidence of GVHD in marrow transplants between HLA matched unrelated individuals could be due to the use of HLA typing methods which failed to identify immunologically important genetic differences at the HLA loci. Another possible explanation for GVHD in cases where the HLA alleles are apparently matched, is the influence of non-MHC genes (Begovich and Erlich, 1995).

HLA allele frequencies differ significantly between different racial and ethnic groups, as do patterns of linkage disequilibrium. This information is important when considering tissue donors (Begovich and Erlich, 1995). It has even been suggested that surnames be used to create a database of potential

transplantation donors because there is some coincidence between HLA genetic structure and the surname pattern (Guglielmino *et al.*, 1996).

Immune-privileged sites of the body include the testes, the anterior chambers of the eyes and the brain. In these regions allogeneic or xenogeneic tissue grafts are not rejected. In the brain and eye this is thought to be due to the lack of lymphocyte surveillance (Barker and Billingham, 1977). However, testes have excellent lymphatic drainage (Head *et al.*, 1983) which makes testicular tissue survival unique (Selawry and Cameron, 1993). When T cells become activated, they express the cell surface molecule CD95 (also called Apo-1 or Fas) (Trauth *et al.*, 1989). This molecule is thought to deliver an apoptotic signal to the T cell when it is bound by the CD95 ligand, thus allowing for the disposal of lymphocytes after an immune response (Alderson *et al.*, 1995). CD95 ligand is highly expressed on the surface of testicular cells (Takahashi *et al.*, 1994). When T cells recognise a mismatch on a grafted testis cell and express CD95, they are promptly killed due to the ligand on the testis cell (Bellgrau *et al.*, 1995).

1.11 HLA AND ITS ROLE IN FOETAL TOLERANCE AND INTOLERANCE

In 1953, Medawar, who was aware of the effects of maternal-foetal Rh incompatibility, asked how it is possible that a pregnant mother can carry an antigenically foreign foetus. It has since been established that there exists a state of mutual tolerance between mother and foetus during normal gestation; immune responses against foetal cells in the mother, and against maternal cells in the foetus, are not elicited. It has also been established that classical HLA antigens, responsible for rapid rejection of allografts in humans are not present

on placental cells at the maternal-foetal interface. Maternal-foetal HLA incompatibility is actually thought to be beneficial during pregnancy (Ober, 1998).

The foetal extravillous cytotrophoblasts that come into direct contact with maternal uterine tissues during pregnancy, do not express any HLA class II genes, which are strongly immunogenic. In addition, class I HLA -A and -B loci are not expressed in trophoblast-cell populations. Therefore, expression of the most polymorphic and antigenic HLA genes is suppressed in cells in direct contact with the maternal immune system (Ober, 1998). What is expressed at the maternal-foetal interface, is the nonclassical class I gene HLA -G which is not very polymorphic. This relative lack of polymorphism, is thought to be a possible reason for foetal allograft tolerance (Beckman and Brenner, 1995; reviewed by Ober and Aldrich, 1997).

Foetal class II antigens must be recognized by the maternal immune system because maternal HLA antibodies are produced against paternally derived class II molecules (Ober, 1998). A study by Nelson and colleagues also suggests that there is maternal recognition of foetal class II molecules. The Nelson study also found that there were differing maternal immune responses to these antigens depending on whether there was compatibility or incompatibility with the foetus (Nelson *et al.*, 1993).

The mammalian maternal immune system has been presented with unique challenges during the evolution of the mammalian reproductive mode. For continued survival of the species, there had to be immunological tolerance of an allogeneic foetus, while maintaining antigenic diversity to fight pathogens. There is a possibility that the expression of the minimally polymorphic HLA

-G molecule at the maternal-foetal interface may facilitate the induction of local tolerance, inhibit NK-cell activity, perform antigen presentation and possibly immunomodulate the maternal T cell populations in the uterus (Ober, 1998).

In the case of recurrent spontaneous abortion (RSA) (reviewed by Gill, 1983) and unexplained infertility (UIF) (Ho *et al.*, 1994), it has been observed that couples are more likely to share HLA antigens. Genetic defects in the case of RSA appear to localize to the HLA -B /HLA -DR /HLA -DQ region (Ho *et al.*, 1994). Rat experiments have identified an MHC-linked region that has recessive genes influencing fertility, growth and resistance to chemical carcinogens (Gill and Kunz, 1979; Melhem *et al.*, 1993). Abnormal phenotypes, such as partial or complete sterility, retarded growth and enhanced susceptibility to several chemical carcinogens, may result from deletions of the MHC-linked genes (Lu *et al.*, 1993; Gill and Kunz, 1979). This region in rats corresponds to the B-DQ region in humans, suggesting that it may be involved with normal growth control in humans as well (Jin *et al.*, 1995).

Although DR alleles seem to be associated with RSA, and DQ alleles with UIF, there is evidence that HLA antigens themselves are not the etiological agents but rather are in linkage disequilibrium with a genetic defect responsible for embryonic loss (Jin *et al.*, 1995).

1.12 HLA AND INFECTIOUS DISEASES

In the early 1970's, clinical studies revealed a statistical correlation between HLA antigens and certain forms of disease. This raised the possibility that susceptibility to a number of different diseases may be markedly influenced by

host genetic factors. These genetic factors affected the host's immune response to specific antigenic challenge and were found to be closely associated with genes involved with HLA expression (McDevitt and Bodmer, 1972).

A large number of human diseases, immunological and nonimmunological, have been found to have a strong relationship with class II genes (Stastny *et al.*, 1983). Heterozygotes at the MHC loci would have an increased capacity to present a range of antigens from a range of pathogens compared to homozygotes; and extensive polymorphism at the MHC region is thought to make a population better able to cope with a large array of infectious pathogens (Hill *et al.*, 1991). Point mutations in the part of the gene encoding the HLA antigen's peptide binding groove, unlike for non-groove regions, give rise to amino acid changes more frequently than they do to an unaltered peptide sequence. This indicates that selection has been acting on the part of the gene encoding this groove at some stage during evolutionary history (Hughes and Nei, 1988; 1989).

The most frequent DPB1 allele in Africans is DPB1*01011. This allele, along with some others, is thought to offer protection against malaria. It is conceivable that there may be a specialized pathogen-driven selection and tendency towards "homozygote advantage" in operation at this locus (Meyer *et al.*, 1997). Conversely, evidence for "heterozygote advantage" also exists. In the case of a hepatitis B virus infection, individuals who are heterozygous for HLA class II region genes, HLA-DR and HLA-DQ, are more likely to be protected against a persistent hepatitis B virus infection (Thursz *et al.*, 1997).

Class II genes have also been shown to be associated with other infectious microorganisms. These include HLA -DQ and -DP alleles, implicated in

susceptibility to onchocerciasis (river blindness) caused by a helminth (Meyer *et al.*, 1994); and DQA1*0103 which has been found to be more frequent in multibacillary lepromatous leprosy (LL) patients than in paucibacillary tuberculoid leprosy (TT) patients. The frequency of DQA1*0102 is increased in patients with borderline LL, while DQA1*0201 is decreased in LL patients, compared to TT patients and controls (Rani *et al.*, 1993).

Why is HIV such a problem for the immune system? Two hypotheses have been put forward. One is that HIV is a "new" pathogen, with the result that the process of selection for genetic resistance to it has just begun (Kaslow *et al.*, 1996). The second is that HIV causes an autoimmune-like disease. It has been hypothesized that HIV antigens mimic alloantigens and induce chronic autoreactivity similar to GVHD (Habeshaw *et al.*, 1992). The reason for this suggestion is that there are similarities between HIV-1 and MHC class II molecules, and also that the binding site for HIV gp120 envelope protein on the CD4 molecule overlaps with the MHC class II binding site (Moebius *et al.*, 1992).

Similarly aged adults show highly variable rates of progression and development of AIDS (Centres for disease control, 1987). A mechanism which has been proposed for HIV-exposed but unaffected Gambian women is that "protective" HLA alleles present immunodominant viral peptides that generate a strong cytotoxic T cell response capable of neutralizing virus at the time of exposure, thus preventing established infection and seroconversion (Rowland-Jones *et al.*, 1995).

Numerous HLA class I alleles alone, a few class II alleles and a few HLA -A alleles in conjunction with TAP alleles seem to show some influence of HIV

sponsored disease progression. Some are associated with fast progression, others with slow progression or long term non progression; some are associated with frequently exposed HIV-seronegative individuals (Westby *et al.*, 1996).

1.13 USES FOR HLA TYPING

Apart from the need to type human leukocyte antigens before undertaking transplantation, or when trying to determine susceptibility to specific autoimmune diseases (Erlich and Bugawan, 1992), HLA molecules, particularly DQA1, can be of use in the forensic sphere. HLA DQA1 has been used frequently in forensic serology, stain investigations and for resolving paternity disputes (Ambach *et al.*, 1996).

To be of meaningful use in the forensic sphere, a population distribution of HLA alleles needs to be determined (Ambach *et al.*, 1996). Also, class I and II polymorphisms are useful in unravelling the historic relationships between ethnically distinct population groups and tend to confirm the results obtained from linguistic studies (reviewed by Riley and Olerup, 1992).

1.14 AIMS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

1) To estimate HLA class II allele and haplotype frequencies in major Malagasy ethnic groups.

2) To use these data to investigate the genetic interrelationships of some of Madagascar's ethnic groups and their possible progenitors.

CHAPTER TWO:
SUBJECTS AND METHODS

2.1 SUBJECTS

2.1.1 Malagasy individuals

Blood samples from unrelated Malagasy individuals were collected during the course of six field-trips conducted by members of the Department of Human Genetics, SAIMR, between 1992 and 1996. Each sample was associated with the ethnic group to which the individual, from which it was obtained, belonged.

The first part of the project involved DQA1 typing (discussed in section 2.2.2). Two different techniques were used here and different sets of ethnic groups were analysed with each.

The following Malagasy ethnic groups were studied using the dot blot procedure (section 2.2.2.1); sample sizes are given in brackets:

Antemoro (51)	Antesaka (51)	Merina (52)
Tsimihety (50)	Betsileo (52)	Sakalava (51)
Mahafaly (41)	Antandroy (44)	Antankarana (19)

Ethnic groups studied using the reverse dot blot procedure (section 2.2.2.2) were:

Antemoro (50)	Merina (50)	Tsimihety (50)

The same individuals used in the reverse dot blot procedure, were used in the second part of the project, which was the DPB1 typing (discussed in 2.2.3).

2.1.2 African individuals

Two African groups, namely Zambians and the Tsonga, were included in the study.

Zambian samples were collected by Professor A Flemming in 1996. In total, 50 unrelated Zambians were typed for DQA1 using the reverse dot blot procedure. Although the Zambian sample was made up of individuals from different ethnic groups, namely, Lozi (15), Nyanja (10), Bemba (15) and Tonga (10), all were regarded as a single group for the purposes of analysis. This was done because of the small number of individuals in each group.

The Tsonga occupy a region which stretches along the escarpment of the northern Drakensburg into southern Mozambique (Nurse *et al.*, 1985). During this study, 50 samples from unrelated Tsonga individuals (some from paternity testing) were used. All individuals were typed for DQA1 (reverse dot blot) and DPB1.

2.1.3 Indonesian individuals

The Indonesian samples used during this study were provided by JB Clegg, of the MRC Molecular Haematology unit of John Radcliff Hospital in Oxford. The individuals from whom the samples were obtained came from two regions: Ujung Pandang, in South Sulawesi, and Banjarmasin, in South Kalimantan (Borneo).

For DQA1 (reverse dot blot) typing, 28 individuals from South Sulawesi and 23 individuals from Borneo were used. For DPB1 typing, 39 individuals from South Sulawesi and 26 from Borneo were used. Because of the relatively small numbers, all individuals were regarded as belonging to a single group during analysis.

2.2 METHODS

Details of solutions mentioned in this section are given in Appendix A1.

2.2.1 Processing of blood

In this investigation, white blood cells were used as a source of DNA and this was extracted by the salting-out procedure devised by Miller and colleagues in 1988 (Miller *et al.*, 1988).

Blood was collected in tubes containing an anti-coagulant such as ACD or EDTA and then centrifuged to separate the red blood cells, white blood cells (buffy layer) and plasma. The red blood cells and plasma were stored appropriately for use elsewhere and the white blood cell rich buffy layers were stored at -20°C until required for DNA extraction.

The extraction method involved lysing the cells with a chilled solution of sucrose and the detergent Triton X-100. The mixture was then centrifuged to remove the unwanted lysed components which remained in the supernatant. The cellular proteins present in the precipitate were then digested by Proteinase K during an overnight incubation at 40°C. The incubation solution contained T20E5 (a solution of the buffering substance tris[hydroxymethyl]

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aminomethane and the chelating agent EDTA), SDS (a detergent) and proteinase K, all of which were added in the order stated here. Following incubation, the degraded proteins were "salted out" as a result of the addition of a volume of saturated NaCl. The salted out proteins were removed by centrifugation and the DNA was then precipitated by the addition of two volumes of absolute ethanol. The precipitated DNA was "fished out" on the disposable tip of an automatic pipette, washed once with ice cold 70% ethanol, air dried and finally resuspended in TE buffer. From here, the DNA was stored either at 4°C or -70°C.

2.2.2 DQA1 Typing

Two methods for DQA1 typing were tried. A dot blot procedure (discussed in 2.2.2.1) and a reverse dot blot procedure (discussed in 2.2.2.2).

2.2.2.1) DQA1 typing using a chemiluminescence dot blot procedure

2.2.2.1.1 **PCR amplification:**

Primer sequences:

5'- GGT GTA AAC TTG TAC CAG T -3' forward primer

5'- TTG GTA GCA GCG GTA GAG TTG -3' reverse primer

(taken from the 12th HLA workshop, Cape Town, South Africa).

The PCR reaction solution had a total volume of 25µl and contained the following:

0.5µl of the solution containing the DNA to be amplified

2.5µl of the buffer supplied with the *Taq* polymerase enzyme

2.5µl of a dNTP stock solution (each dNTP at a concentration of 1.25mM in this stock)

1µl of each primer (≡25 pmoles)

1.5µl of 25mM $MgCl_2$

1µl of SuperTherm Taq polymerase (≡0.5 units) (Advanced Biotech)

15µl H_2O (distilled and autoclaved)

1 drop mineral oil overlay

The amplification process was performed on a Hybaid thermocycler and the cycling conditions were:

1 cycle	94°C for 1 min
	55°C for 1 min
	72°C for 30 sec
29 cycles	94°C for 30 sec
	55°C for 1 min
	72°C for 30 sec
1 cycle	72°C for 5 min

Holding temperature of 25°C

The outcome of the PCR amplification process was determined by electrophoresing 5µl of PCR product in a 2% Agarose gel (HGT Agarose, supplied by FMC Bioproducts, made in 1XTBE and containing 0.3µg/ml ethidium bromide). Amplicons were electrophoresed at approximately 4 volts/cm for half an hour and then viewed on a UV transilluminator. A molecular weight marker, the Gibco 1kb λ ladder, was loaded on each gel, as well as a negative control to check for the absence of spurious DNA amplification.

2.5µl of a dNTP stock solution (each dNTP at a concentration of 1.25mM in this stock)

1µl of each primer (≡25 pmoles)

1.5µl of 25mM $MgCl_2$

1µl of SuperTherm Taq polymerase (≡0.5 units) (Advanced Biotech)

15µl H_2O (distilled and autoclaved)

1 drop mineral oil overlay

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29 cycles	94°C for 30 sec
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	72°C for 30 sec
1 cycle	72°C for 5 min

Holding temperature of 25°C

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2.2.2.1.2 **Dot blot procedure:**

The remaining 20µl of PCR product was prepared for blotting onto a nylon membrane by mixing it with approximately 220µl of denaturing solution (called the PCR denaturing solution) and heating it at 65°C for 30 minutes. Following this, an appropriate volume of PCR neutralizing solution was added. This volume was determined beforehand by establishing the proportions of the denaturing and neutralizing solutions, which when mixed together produced a solution with a pH of 7.0 (Theophilus *et al.*, 1989).

The single stranded PCR product was then transferred with the aid of a vacuum onto a nylon membrane which had previously been soaked in 2xSSC and assembled in the HYBRI·DOT ™ Manifold dot blot apparatus (supplied by BRL, Life Technologies, Inc.).

Following the transfer of PCR product to the nylon membrane, the samples were immobilized on the membrane by baking at 80°C for two hours.

2.2.2.1.3 **Hybridization to biotinylated probes and chemiluminescent detection of bound probe:**

Eight probes were used to determine DQA1 types. The first seven were taken from Helmuth *et al.*, 1990 and the last one, from the 12th HLA workshop, Cape Town (see table 2.1 for probe sequences).

PROBE NAME	PROBE SEQUENCE (5'-3')
DQA2	TTC CAC AGA CTT AGA TTT G
DQA3	TTC CGC AGA TTT AGA AGA T
DQA4	TGT TTG CCT GTT CTC AGA C
DQA1.1	CGT AGA ACT CCT CAT CTC C
NON DQA1.3	GTC TCC TTC CTC TCC AG
DQA1.2, 1.3, 4	GAT GAG CAG TTC TAC GTG G
DQA1.3	CTG GAG AAG AAG GAG AC
DQA1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4	ATG GCT GTG GCA AAA CAC

Table 2.1 Nucleotide sequences of probes used for the dot blot method of DQA1 typing. All probes were 5' biotinylated.

PROBE NAME	PROBE SEQUENCE (5'-3')
DQA2	TTC CAC AGA CTT AGA TTT G
DQA3	TTC CGC AGA TTT AGA AGA T
DQA4	TGT TTG CCT GTT CTC AGA C
DQA1.1	CGT AGA ACT CCT CAT CTC C
NON DQA1.3	GTC TCC TTC CTC TCC AG
DQA1.2, 1.3, 4	GAT GAG CAG TTC TAC GTG G
DQA1.3	CTG GAG AAG AAG GAG AC
DQA1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4	ATG GCT GTG GCA AAA CAC

Table 2.1 Nucleotide sequences of probes used for the dot blot method of DQA1 typing. All probes were 5' biotinylated.

Prior to probe hybridization, the nylon membrane was exposed to a prehybridization solution which contained liquid block (Fluoresceine Gene Images kit, Amersham) to bind to all available sites on the membrane. This step took place in a 42°C waterbath for one hour. Following this, the prehybridization solution was replaced with approximately 2.5ml of the hybridization solution which consisted of liquid block, 20xSSC, 10% SDS, hybridization component (Fluoresceine Gene Images kit) and 10 pmoles of one of the eight labelled probes (sufficient for a blot size of 11cm by 8cm). Hybridization was allowed to proceed in a 42°C waterbath for two hours.

Following hybridization, the membrane was put through four stringency washes to remove non-specifically bound probe. These washes included two 5xSSC washes, each for five minutes at room temperature; a 2xSSC/0.1%SDS wash, for 15 minutes at 58°C and a 1xSSC/0.1%SDS wash, for 15 minutes at 58°C.

Prior to antibody binding, a blocking step was again carried out in order to prevent non-specific binding of the antibody. This involved rinsing the membrane for one minute in Buffer 1 and then standing it in pre-antibody blocking solution for one hour at room temperature. Following this, the membrane was rinsed for one minute in Buffer 1 and then for one minute in Dilution Buffer (for equilibration purposes). The dot blot was then allowed to stand for one hour at room temperature in the antibody solution which contained 2.72E-03 U streptavidin-alkaline phosphatase conjugate (supplied by Boehringer Mannheim) and 25mg Bovine Serum Albumen (Sigma fraction V) in 5ml of Dilution Buffer.

Unbound conjugate was removed by washing the membrane for one minute in

Dilution Buffer, then for half an hour in Tween 20 solution (three ten minute washes), and finally for five minutes in Dilution Buffer. The membrane was then stained with CDP-STAR™ (Fluoresceine Gene Images kit) by pipetting 400µl of a 1:1 dilution of this stain in Dilution Buffer, onto a glass plate and placing the membrane on this (2 ½ minutes each side to allow for even staining). CDP-STAR™ is a chemiluminescent substrate for alkaline phosphatase whose action converts the substrate to an unstable molecule which produces light as it decays. The location of the bound alkaline phosphatase conjugated probe can then be detected by placing an unexposed sheet of X-ray film over the blot.

After the substrate had been applied, the membrane was incubated at 37°C for 15 minutes, to start the chemical reaction, and then the blot was exposed to Cronex 4 X-ray film overnight, or longer if necessary.

2.2.2.1.4 **Reprobing of the membrane:**

The dot blots were used several times over by reprobing with different probes. The previously used probe was first removed by soaking the blot in denaturing solution for ten minutes, rinsing twice with distilled water, neutralizing for ten minutes, rinsing twice again with distilled water and repeating the neutralizing step. The membrane was then soaked in 2xSSC for five minutes, after which it was ready for the prehybridization step.

2.2.2.2 DQA1 typing using a colorimetric reverse dot blot procedure

For this procedure, the Ampli Type^{R} HLA DQα PCR Amplification and Typing kit, from Perkin Elmer, was used. The protocol followed, was that

supplied with the kit with the exception that all the recommended solution volumes were halved and the supplied strips were cut down the centre in order to get 100 reactions out of a 50 reaction kit.

In brief, the procedure performed was a reverse dot blot method, where labelled PCR product was allowed to hybridize to strips containing various probes. Detection of PCR product bound to specific probes was by a colorimetric reaction catalyzed by horseradish peroxidase-streptavidin conjugate. The eight probes necessary for the identification of six common DQA1 alleles, DQA1 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2, 3 and 4, as well as one control probe, were present on the strips.

The PCR reaction solution had a total volume of 51µl, the contents of which (excluding the target DNA) were supplied in the kit. These included: i) a PCR reaction mix containing biotinylated primers, dNTP's and DNA polymerase in buffer; and ii) 8mM $MgCl_2$ stock. To 25µl of each of these, 1µl of DNA was added.

The amplification process was performed on a Hybaid thermocycler using the following cycling conditions:

34 cycles	94°C for 1 min
	60°C for 30 sec
	72°C for 30 sec
1 cycle	72°C for 7 min

2.2.3 DPB1 Typing

The typing of DPB1 alleles was done by sequencing a PCR amplified section

(exon2) of the gene. The procedure can be divided into four main parts: sample preparation; gel preparation and electrophoresis; analysis using the sequence analysis software; and identification of the alleles by comparing the sequences obtained to the known allele sequences.

2.2.3.1.1 **Sample preparation:**

Sample preparation involved a two-step PCR process (initial and secondary) with specific cleaning processes after each PCR reaction.

Primary and secondary PCR reactions made use of the same primer set:
5'- GCT GCA GGA GAG TGG CGC CTC CGC TCA T -3' forward primer
5'- CGG ATC CGG CCC AAA GCC CTC ACT A -3' reverse primer

The primary PCR reaction solution used for DPB1 typing contained the same concentrations of constituents as described for the DQA1 (dot blot) PCR reaction (section 2.2.2.1.1). The only modifications were that the total volume for the DPB1 reaction was 51µl instead of 25µl and 10pmoles of the DPB1 specific primers were substituted. In some cases 0.6µl of 2.5mM spermidine was added to PCR mixtures containing DNA which did not amplify readily.

The conditions of the primary PCR reaction were taken from Bugawan *et al.* (1990) and were as follows:

30 cycles 95°C for 30 sec
65°C for 30 sec
Holding temperature of 25°C.

As was the case for the DQA1 PCR reaction, PCR product was checked by

electrophoresing it in a 2% Agarose gel.

Prior to the secondary PCR reaction, the PCR product was cleared of excess dNTP's and other substances which could interfere with the secondary PCR reaction. This cleaning process involved adding 1µl of a mixture of *E. Coli* exonuclease I (≡5 units) and shrimp alkaline phosphatase (≡1 unit), to 5µl of PCR product and then incubating this for 15 minutes at 37°C, followed by a 15 minute incubation step at 80°C. The exonuclease I "removes" ssDNA such as primers and the shrimp alkaline phosphatase "removes" excess dNTP's.

The secondary PCR reaction was the so-called cycle sequencing reaction, during which dye chain terminators were incorporated into growing strands of DNA. The reaction solution contained: four different dichlororhodamine tagged ddNTP's (dR110, dTAMRA, dROX and dR6G), as well as non-labelled dNTP's (dITP, dATP, dCTP, dTTP), Ampli Taq DNA polymerase FS, $MgCl_2$, and buffer, all of which were in a solution supplied by Perkin Elmer Applied Biosystems in the ABI Prism dRhodamine terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit.

To the 6µl of cleaned DNA solution, 4µl of the kit "mix" (for sequence length of about 300 bases) was added, as well as two thirds of the amount of primer used in the primary PCR reaction. No oil overlay was needed because a Hybaid touchdown thermocycler fitted with a heated lid, was used.

The amplification program was as follows:

25 cycles	96°C for 30 sec
	50°C for 15 sec
	60°C for 4 min

Holding temperature of 10°C

The PCR products were stored in the dark because the fluorescent molecules which had been incorporated into the amplified DNA are light sensitive.

Following the secondary PCR, the products were once again cleaned to remove excess unincorporated labelled ddNTP's which would interfere with the reading of the fluorescent signals. Various cleaning protocols given in the ABI Prism dRhodamine terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit manual were tried. These included: ethanol / sodium acetate precipitation, ethanol / $MgCl_2$ precipitation and Centri-Sep spin columns (from Princeton Separations). All the methods were performed as directed in the manual and are not described here. The cleaning method ultimately used employed Sephadex spin columns and was performed as follows: a slurry of Sephadex G50 was prepared by mixing Sephadex and water in a ratio of 1g Sephadex to 16ml ddH_2O. The slurry was allowed to equilibrate overnight at 4°C and then columns were prepared by pipetting 0.9ml Sephadex slurry into old Centri-Sep column containers which had been well cleaned with ddH_2O. Before loading the samples, excess water in the columns was allowed to drain away for fifteen minutes and then each column was centrifuged for two minutes at 3000g to remove the remaining excess water. The samples were then cleaned as per the Centri-Sep cleaning protocol, which involved loading 20µl of the cycle sequencing PCR product onto the top of the Sephadex column matrix and then centrifuging for two minutes at 3000g to obtain the purified DNA in an Eppendorf tube positioned below the column. Samples collected from columns were vacuum dried for approximately one hour and then stored at -20°C in the dark until required.

2.2.3.1.2 **Single stranded cloning of PCR product:**

For a few selected samples, with unclassifiable results, single stranded cloning was attempted.

The samples to be cloned were amplified as per the primary DPB1 PCR reaction and then blunt ended with Klenow enzyme (2U/µl) for 40 minutes. The PCR product was then centrifuged through a Sephadex column (as discussed in 2.2.3.1.1) and ligated to *Sma* I digested M13mp19, with ligase, for two hours at room temperature. This was followed by heat inactivation of the enzyme at 70°C for five minutes.

Transformation of JM101 (*E coli*) competent cells with DNA in a ligation mix followed, by placing the competent cells, in the presence of $CaCl_2$, and ligation mix on ice for 40 minutes, heat shocking at 42°C for 90 seconds and then replacing on ice. The cells were then mixed with a solution of molten salt agar (60°C) containing IPTG, X-Gal and additional JM101 cells from an overnight culture (lawn culture), and poured onto Luria Agar plates. Once this top agar had set, the plates were incubated at 37°C overnight. A control plate was also prepared with non-transformed competent cells.

The overnight JM101 culture produced a lawn of bacteria across the entire plate. Transformed cells containing vector were present in the form of plaques on the lawn bacteria. Blue plaques indicated vector with no insert of target DNA and white plaques indicated vector containing an insert, or as was found to be the case in this study, a one base deletion in the vector's Lac Z gene at the cloning site.

Plaques were harvested by placing the plug of agar on which they were situated in a tube containing 2TY solution and untransformed JM101 cells; the resulting culture was then incubated at 37°C with vigorous shaking for five hours. Following this, the tube was centrifuged at 13000g to remove unwanted components into the pellet and PEG added to the supernatant in order to precipitate the phage containing the DNA to be extracted. Again the tube was centrifuged and then stored at -20°C until required for the isolation of the single stranded DNA.

Single stranded DNA was extracted from blue and white plaques using a sodium acetate and phenol / chloroform method and then electrophoresed on a 1% agarose gel to look for a band shift which would indicate the presence of a DNA insert.

The single stranded DNA extracted from white plaques was used directly in the cycle sequencing PCR reaction, using the M13 -40 primer, and the products then prepared for loading on the sequencing gel in the same manner as the non-cloned samples (described in 2.2.3.1.1).

2.2.3.2 **Automated DNA sequencing:**

A 4.3% acrylamide gel was used for electrophoresis of the samples. The gel "mix" contained urea, TBE, acrylamide-bisacrylamide and ddH_2O. This was filtered and then stored at 4°C in the dark. Just prior to pouring the acrylamide gel, APS (which initiates the crosslinking reaction carried out by the bis-acrylamide) and TEMED (a catalyst) were added. The gel was poured into a gel mould (held in a gel pouring apparatus supplied by Perkin Elmer) which consisted of two 36cm long glass plates held 0.2mm apart by spacers. The gel

was allowed to set for at least one hour before use.

The dried DNA samples from the cycle sequencing reaction were rehydrated in 3µl of a formamide dye, denatured at 94°C for at least two minutes and loaded directly onto the vertical gel assembled in the ABI Prism 377 DNA Sequencer. The ABI Prism 377 DNA sequencer was the apparatus used for electrophoresis and data collection. Conditions of electrophoresis as specified by the data collection software (ver 2.1) were as follows: voltage, 1.68kV; current, 18.4mA; and gel temperature, 51°C. The electrophoretic run was seven hours long.

Four fluorescent dyes, namely, dR110, dR6G, dTAMRA and dROX, were present in the cycle sequencing PCR reaction, each one attached to a different ddNTP. Each dye emits a different spectrum of wavelengths when excited by the instrument's laser light. As each fluorescently labelled band reaches the end of the gel, it is exposed to light from the laser and as a result, emits light of a wavelength which is characteristic of the dye at its 3' end. The light signal is converted to an electrical signal and recorded by the ABI Prism Collection software.

Following electrophoresis, the gel was analysed with the sequencing analysis software (ver 2.1.2) (ABI) and sequences printed out for comparison to known sequences.

See figure 2.1 for the nucleotide sequences of some of the DPB1 alleles studied. Regions A to F are the six polymorphic regions which characterize the alleles. Dashes indicate consensus with the sequence of the DPB1*0401 allele (taken from Bugawan *et al.*, 1990).

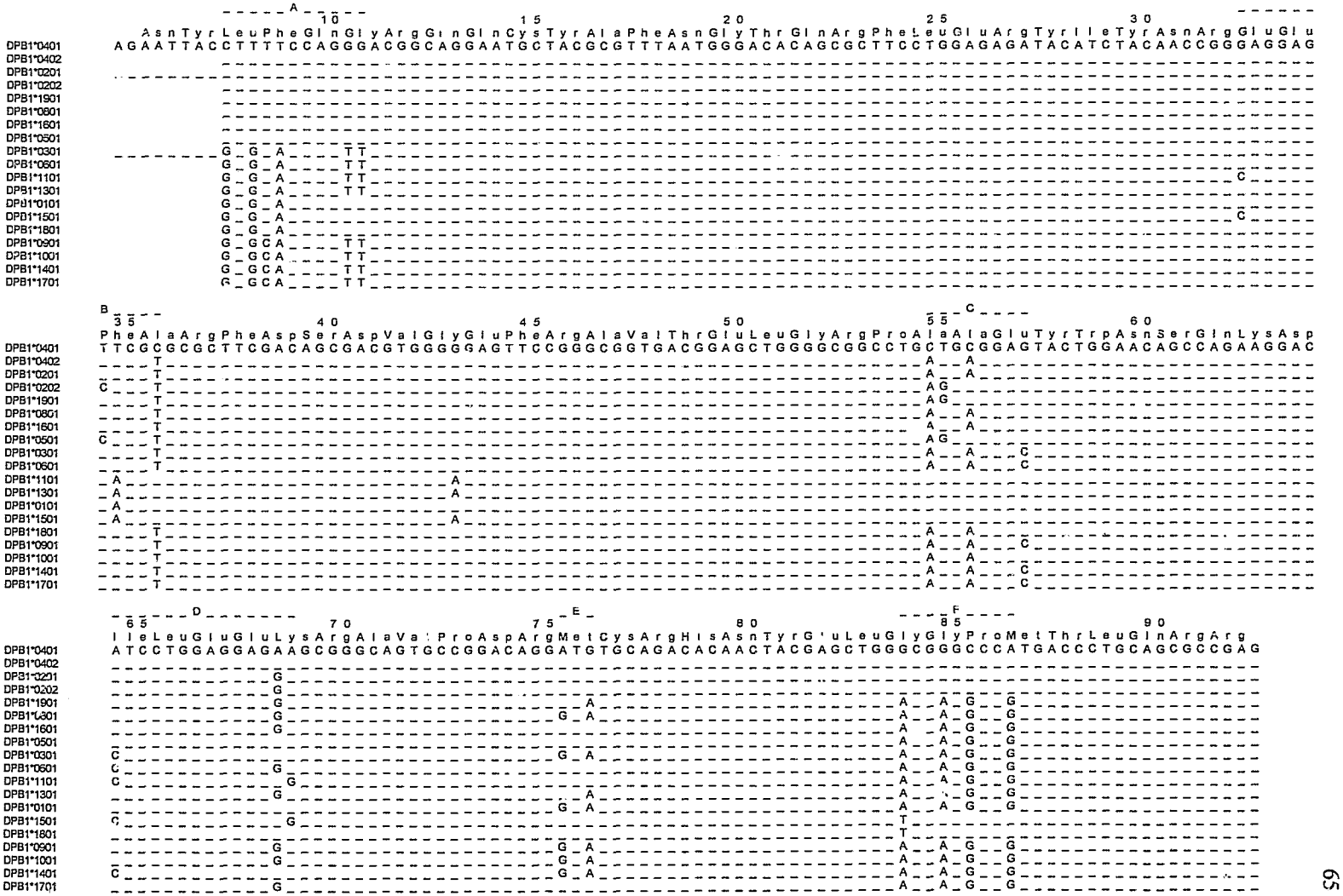

Figure 2.1 Nucleotide sequences (exon2) of some DPB1 alleles. Dashes indicate consensus with the DPB1*0401 allele. Polymorphic regions are indicated in red.

Figure 2.2 shows the expected (single letter code) amino acid sequences corresponding to the nucleotide sequences of the alleles identified for comparison. Allele sequences 1-56 (numbering on right hand side of figure 2.2) were taken from Zangenberg *et al.*, 1995 and the alleles corresponding to numbers 54-56 were newly described and thus termed new1-3. Allele sequences 57 and 58 were taken from Versluis *et al.*, 1995. Sequences 59-61 appear to be hitherto undescribed alleles which were characterized during the present study. Sequences 62-71 were found during a BLAST search of Genbank, and were named BLAST 1-10. Sequences 72-82 were found during an ENTREZ search of Genbank. Some had allele names and the rest were called ENTREZ 1-7. The Internet searches were performed in October 1998. Question marks indicate incomplete sequence.

Figure 2.3 shows the cloning site and surrounding sequence of the cloning vector, M13mp19 (Norrander *et al.*, 1983).

2.2.4 Statistical analyses

2.2.4.1 **Frequency distributions:**

Two types of frequency distribution were calculated from the observed HLA results: allele frequencies for the two HLA loci, DQA1 and DPB1; and estimated DQA1-DPB1 haplotype frequencies. The latter were estimated with the software package Arlequin ver 1.1 (Schneider *et al.*, 1997). The gametic phase of the genotypic data is unknown, therefore, haplotype frequencies were estimated using a maximum likelihood method which employed an Expectation-Maximization (E-M) algorithm. Frequencies were calculated for each of the population groups.

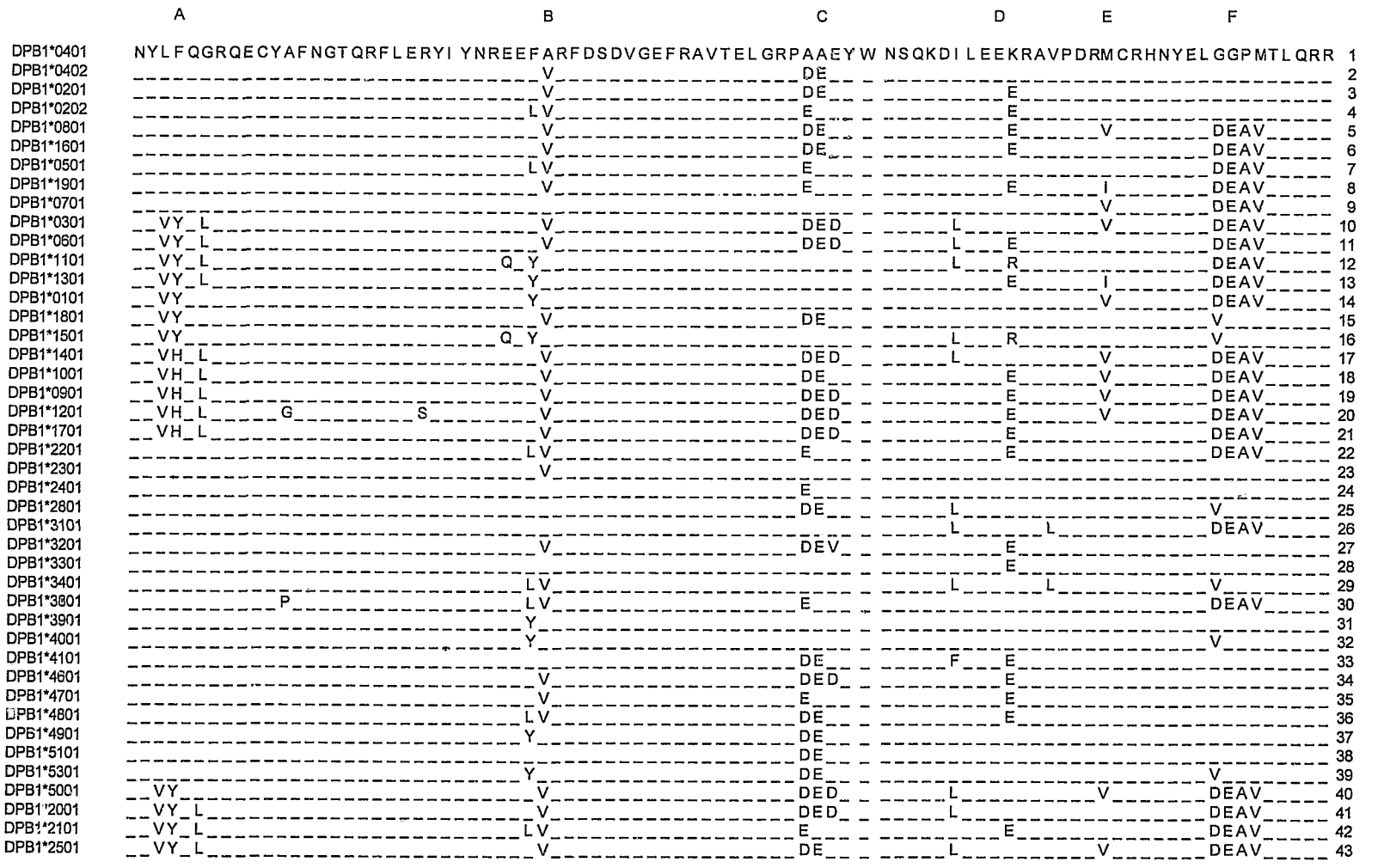

Figure 2.2 The amino acid sequences of all the alleles identified for comparison to nucleotide sequences obtained from the samples used in this study. Dashes indicate consensus with the DPB1*0401 allele.

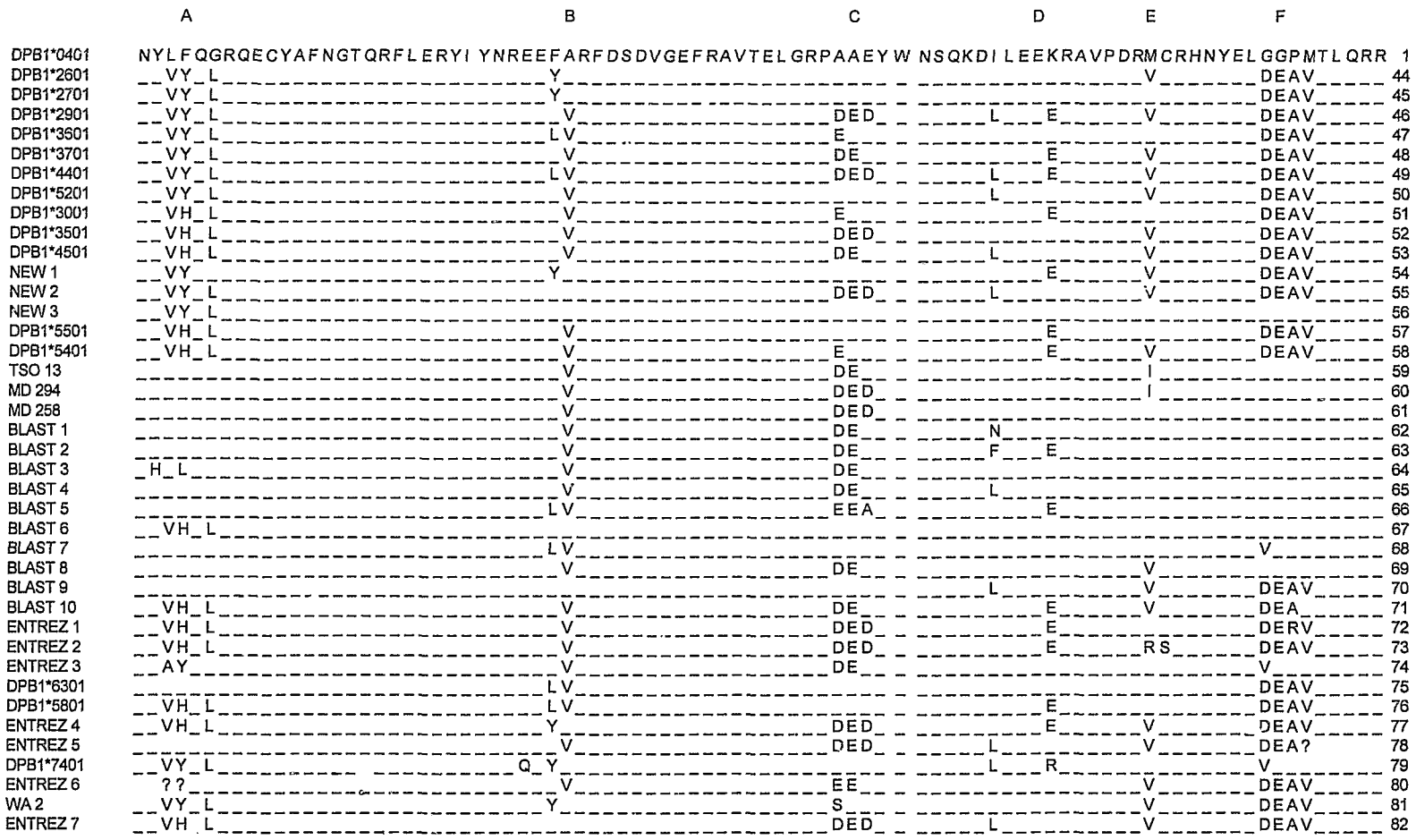

Figure 2.2 (continued) Question marks indicate incomplete sequences and dashes indicate consensus with the DPB1*0401 allele.

5'-TCGTATGTTGTGTGGAATTGTGAGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGAAACAGC

TATGACCATGATTACGCCAAGCTTGCATGCCTGCAGGTCGACTCTAGAGGAT

CCCC⇓GGGTACCGAGCTCGAATTCACTGGCCGTCGTTTTACAACGTCGTGAC

TGGGAAAACCCTGGCG-3'

Figure 2.3 Part of the sequence of the vector M13mp19 showing the cloning site (indicated by an arrow).

Allele frequencies were also calculated from phenotypic data (collected in the laboratory by others) on various "serogenetic" gene markers in the Merina, Antemoro, Tsimihety and Tsonga. These markers were PGM_1, ABO, Rh, MN and ACP. Corresponding allele frequencies for Indonesians and Arabs were obtained from the literature (Cavalli-Sforza *et al.*, 1994). DQA1 allele frequencies for Arabs were also obtained from the literature (Helmuth *et al.*, 1990).

2.2.4.2 **Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium:**

Checks for departure from Hardy-Weinberg expectation were done separately on data collected on each of the two HLA loci. Again, the Arlequin software package (Schneider *et al.*, 1997), which uses a form of Fisher's exact method, was employed to do this. The significance of deviations from expected heterozygosity was also tested for each of the loci, using a permutation based program supplied by A.B. Lane, in order to determine whether the heterozygosity levels were influencing the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium results.

2.2.4.3 **Gene diversity:**

This was calculated using the Arlequin software package and is equivalent to the expected heterozygosity. The value given is also the probability that two randomly chosen alleles or haplotypes, from a sample, are different (Schneider *et al.*, 1997).

2.2.4.4 **Pairwise linkage disequilibrium:**

Evidence of global linkage disequilibrium between all possible pairs of alleles

at the two HLA loci was assessed by the likelihood ratio procedure developed by Slatkin and Excoffier (1996).

In addition, D' values (Lewontin, 1964) were calculated for all possible haplotypes per population group (based on the alleles present in each group); as well as the expected number of chromosomes for each of those haplotypes per group (results given in Appendix A2). D' is an allele frequency independent measure of linkage disequilibrium and can take values of +1 to -1. The haplotypes with an expected number greater than three were checked to establish whether they were associated with a D' value close to +1 or - 1, which would indicate strong linkage disequilibrium.

2.2.4.5 **Exact tests of population differentiation:**

This was assessed by the Arlequin package which uses a modification of Fisher's exact test (Schneider *et al.*, 1997).

2.2.4.6 **Population admixture estimations:**

Admixture estimates are based on the principle that if an allele's frequency in different contributing populations is $p_1, p_2, \ldots p_i$ and the relative fractions contributed to the hybrid population by each are $m_1, m_2, \ldots m_i$, then the frequency of the allele in the hybrid population is expected to be $m_1p_1 + m_2p_2 + \ldots + m_ip_i$ (Bernstein, 1931).

A way of lessening the effects of sampling error is to extend the analysis to more than one allele at more than one locus (Elston, 1971). Elston's (least squares) method was used in the present study to estimate the possible

contribution of an African, Indonesian and Arabian group to the genetic constitution of a weighted average of three Malagasy groups.

2.2.4.7 **Principal coordinate analysis:**

The computer program Antana ver 1.5 (Harpending and Rogers, 1984/5), was used to calculate the principal coordinates for a two dimensional scatterplot of the HLA data and the non-HLA serogenetic data in various combinations. Principal coordinate analysis is related to principal component analysis and can also be referred to as PC analysis. It is a technique for simplifying multivariate data with the minimum loss of information (Cavalli-Sforza *et al.*, 1994).

A matrix of allele/haplotype frequencies (rows) and population groups (columns) was simplified using the singular value decomposition (SVD) program in Antana, into five eigenvalues. Eigenvalues represent the proportion of information contained within the principal coordinates. The two highest eigenvalues are selected to produce two scaled vectors which are used to create a two-dimensional scatterplot containing the most information from the data.

Principal coordinates are calculated by plotting all of the allele/haplotype frequencies, each one on a different axis (i.e., a multidimensional plot), for all the population groups studied and then drawing a regression-type line, such that the sum of the perpendicular distances of the points from the line are at a minimum. New positions are allocated to the population groups along the regression line, where they would lie if a perpendicular line was drawn from their original position to the regression line. This new positioning is referred to as the first principal coordinate. Similarly, a second principal coordinate,

orthogonal to the first, is produced and so forth (Cavalli-Sforza *et al.*, 1994). The first two principal coordinates were used to create the scatterplots seen in chapter three (figures 3.4 and 3.5).

2.2.4.8 Genetic distance and phylogenetic tree construction:

The genetic distance between two populations is a single number which represents the differences in allele frequencies, at one or several loci, between them.

The package DSW (Ota, 1995) was used to calculate the genetic distances between the ethnic groups studied and draw phylogenetic trees based on these distances. Two types of genetic distances were calculated: D_S (Nei's standard distance which is calculated from the genetic identities of pairs of groups) and D_A (which has values which are similar to F_{ST} values and reflects differences which have mainly arisen as a result of genetic drift). The neighbour joining method of Saitou and Nei (1987) was used for drawing the phylogenetic trees from matrices of pairwise genetic distances.

D_S or D_A genetic distances matrices generated from the DQA1 and DPB1 data, as well as those generated from the non-HLA serogenetic data, were correlated. A correlation coefficient between various pairs of matrices was calculated in the way described by Mantel (1967).

CHAPTER THREE:
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 DQA1 TYPING PROCEDURES

The dot blot method of DQA1 typing proved to be unsatisfactory. Not all signals on the blot were of equal intensity, which made interpretation of results very difficult. Some samples produced strongly positive signals where there should have been negative results, that is, some individuals appeared to have three alleles. A more stringent final wash (with 0.75XSSC) was tried for probes which had a GC content of more than 49%, but this did not make the results more clear cut. In cases where results were weak, a doubled concentration of probe was tried, but this did not improve the clarity of the results because specificity was compromised. Thus it became clear that results obtained by this method could not be trusted. Other possible explanations for the failure of the technique to work effectively include: the use of fluorescent labelling which is generally not as efficient as radioactive labelling; the use of unquantified DNA; and the reuse of blots in order to reduce the amount of reagents and DNA used (reuse of blots results in a decrease in the quality with each subsequent use, thus separate blots for each probe would have been more ideal).

At this point, the AmpliType^{R} HLA DQα PCR amplification and typing kit (Perkin Elmer) was used. The results obtained with this kit were taken to be correct, because the control DNA, supplied with the kit, typed correctly and the kit had undergone rigorous testing by the manufacturers. It was found that only approximately 30% of samples which had been typed by the dot blot method, had the same apparent genotype when typed with the Perkin Elmer

reverse dot blot kit.

It was then decided to abandon the dot blot typing technique and type all individuals with the reverse dot blot kit. Due to the expense of the kit however, the number of Malagasy ethnic groups studied had to be decreased from nine to three.

A further advantage of the reverse dot blot kit method, was that results were obtained in a much shorter time than with the dot blot method. Following the PCR reaction, each individual could be completely typed in the space of two hours. With the dot blot method, the membrane took a minimum of three hours to prepare and after that another one and a half days at least were required to obtain a result.

Figures 3.1 and 3.2 depict a dot blot and several reverse dot blot strips, respectively. The dot blot in figure 3.1 was probed with DQA 1.1,1.2,1.3,1.4 and, it just so happens, that all sample results for this probe, which were subsequently typed with the kit, were correct. However, results obtained with other probes were not always correct. In the case of the reverse dot blot strips in figure 3.2, all dots darker than the control (C) were taken as positive. Initially these strips were not cut down the centre as mentioned earlier; this was only done later when it was established that the same results were obtainable using half quantities of reagents and half of the strips.

3.2 DPB1 TYPING PROCEDURE

Three different cycle sequencing kits from Perkin Elmer were tried, namely the ABI Prism ™ dye terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit (referred to

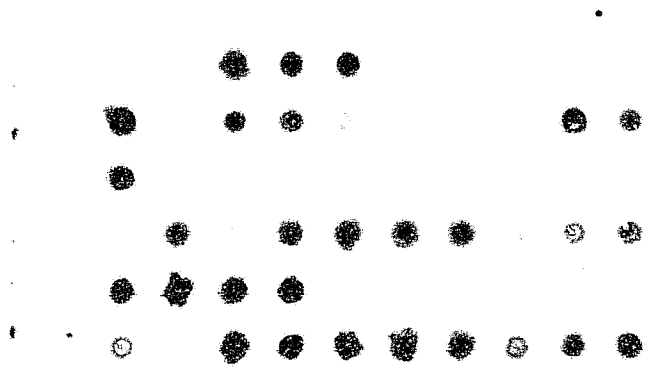

Figure 3.1 A dot blot probed with DQA1.1,1.2,1.3,1.4 using a doubled probe concentration (20 pmoles). Exposure time was 2 ½ days.

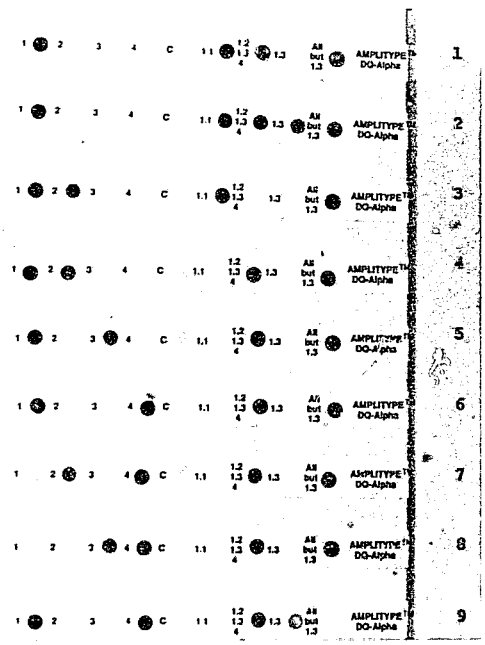

Figure 3.2 Reverse dot blot strips obtained using the AmpliType^{R} DQα PCR amplification and typing kit (Perkin Elmer). By way of example, individual 5 is typed as DQA1 1.2 / DQA1 3; while individual 2 types to DQA1 1.1 / DQA1 1.3.

as the original kit), the ABI Prism ™ dRhodamine terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit and the ABI Prism ™ BigDye terminator cycle sequencing ready reaction kit. The original kit rarely produced clearly readable results and often produced ambiguous results at crucial parts of the sequence. The BigDye kit was unpredictable; it sometimes gave excellent results but at other times gave signals which were too intense to read. This kit seemed more dependant on the template DNA concentration than the other two kits. The dRhodamine kit was found to be more consistent at giving good results and was the kit of choice.

Of the various cleaning methods tried, Centri-Sep spin columns were by far the best, however, Sephadex spin columns were sufficiently good for obtaining readable results and often gave results which were as good as those obtained after Centri-Sep cleaning.

Figure 3.3 shows sequences obtained using the dRhodamine cycle sequencing kit after Sephadex column cleaning. The sequences are from one of the six polymorphic regions, namely, region A of the DPB1 gene. There are six published variant sequences in this region which, in homozygous and heterozygous states, give rise to 21 possible combinations. The sequences from region A of three individuals are represented in the figure. Theoretically, peaks obtained from an individual who is heterozygous at some point, should be equal to each other and smaller than "homozygous peaks" (see the middle panel). However, this is not always the case. In some instances, "heterozygous peaks" were uneven, with one being half, or less than half, the height of the other. In such situations, the sequence obtained from the opposite strand was essential for correctly determining the base sequence on each chromosome.

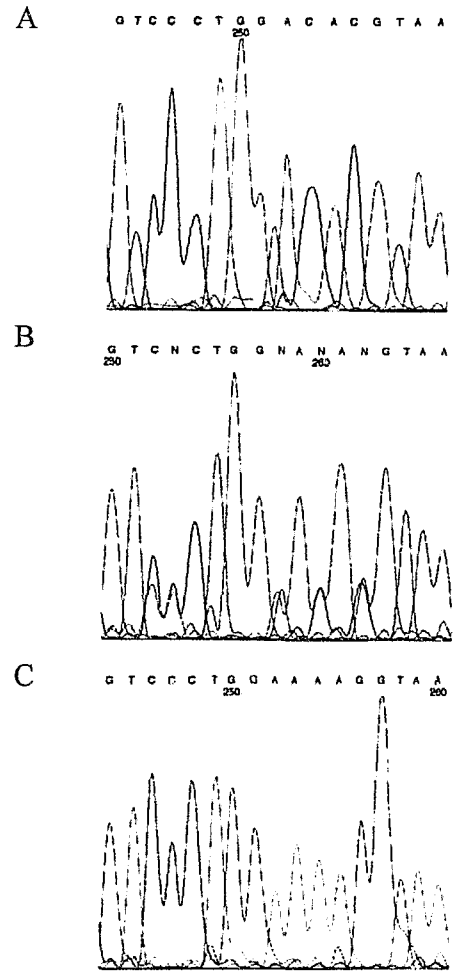

Figure 3.3 The output obtained from the ABI 377 automated DNA sequencer depicting three different sequence combinations (A-C) from region A of the DPB1 locus, from three different individuals. "N" indicates two even peaks at the same point i.e., heterozygosity (as seen in B). The third base here should theoretically also be an "N" because a "C" and "A" both occur at this point, however, the "C" signal was stronger, resulting in the computer allocating a "C" at this point.

Due to the large number of combinations which are possible when the six polymorphic regions are considered together, it is sometimes difficult to deduce which haplotypes are present in an individual, bearing in mind that sequences from two chromosomes are present. In some cases two or more combinations of alleles would give rise to the same heterozygous sequence. By way of an example, a particular heterozygous sequence could represent the following possible combinations of alleles: DPB1*0201/*0301 or DPB1*0402/ *2901 or DPB1*2501/*4601 or DPB1*0601/BLAST8.

Because of such phase uncertainties, between nine and eighteen samples had to be removed from each group prior to statistical analyses, which to some extent, may have biased the results. If there was a certain amount of population substructure which resulted in the association of particular alleles at the same locus in individuals, then discarding individuals who have one of these alleles could result in some degree of error. After discarding ambiguous genotypes, the number of usable samples remaining was as follows: 41 (out of 50) Antemoro individuals, 41 (out of 50) Tsonga individuals, 40 (out of 50) Tsimihety individuals, 36 (out of 50) Merina individuals and 47 (out of 65) Indonesians.

In order to avoid "loosing" samples because of uncertainties regarding phase, cloning of PCR product, into a modified M13 phage, was attempted without success. Unfortunately, limited time and resources prevented further work on this technique. It is thought that the cloning attempts may have failed due to biotin labels on the primers (the DPB1 locus was initially going to be used in a reverse dot blot technique).

3.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

3.3.1 Frequency distributions

3.3.1.1 **Allele frequencies:**

All six of the DQA1 alleles which can be detected with the AmpliType^{R} HLA DQα PCR amplification and typing kit (Perkin Elmer), were found to be present in all of the populations studied. Additional subtypes of some of these alleles are known (Migot *et al.*, 1995; Gyllensten and Erlich, 1988; Ambach *et al.*, 1996 and Cullen *et al.*, 1997) but the kit does not discriminate between them.

Allele frequencies for the six DQA1 alleles typed during this study were compared to frequencies reported for Indonesians (Helmuth *et al.*, 1990) and the Merina (Migot *et al.*, 1995) in the literature. A significant difference between the results reported in the Helmuth study and those obtained in this study, was found. The significance of this difference was determined using an exact method (Weir, 1996) which yielded a P value of less than 0.001. The estimated frequencies of two alleles, namely, 1.2 and 4, seem to account for a large part of the discrepancy. The Helmuth study found frequencies of 0.469 and 0.198, for the two alleles respectively; while frequencies obtained in the present study were 0.235 and 0.461, respectively. No significant difference was found between the allele frequencies reported by Migot *et al.* (1995) for the Merina and those estimated in the present study; the exact P value was 0.599.

Of the 82 DPB1 allele sequences listed in figure 2.2, only 26 were apparent

among the groups studied. Three of these do not seem to have been described previously, i.e., they were not found among the 79 alleles described in the literature or during BLAST and ENTREZ searches of the Genbank database. For the purpose of this study, the apparent new alleles were named MD258, MD294 and TSO13, after the code designated to the individual in which they were first seen. The MD258 variant was found in two Antemoro individuals and three Tsimihety individuals. The MD294 variant was found in one Tsimihety individual and the TSO13 variant was found in two Tsonga individuals. In total, eleven different DPB1 alleles were found in the Antemoro, thirteen in the Merina, fifteen in the Tsimihety, twelve in the Tsonga and thirteen in Indonesians.

As was the case for the DQA1 locus, frequencies of some of the DPB1 alleles found in this study were compared to those reported in the literature. Moonsamy and colleagues (1992) reported the frequencies of three of the DPB1 alleles they detected in their Indonesian sample, namely, DPB1*2801, *2901 and *3101. By comparing these allele frequencies with those generated in the present study (treating all remaining alleles as a single allele), an exact P value of less than 0.001 was obtained, which indicates a significant difference between the two sets of data. Migot and colleagues (1995) presented data on eleven alleles in the Merina. The comparison in this case yielded a P value of 0.038, which is also significant.

The comparison of DQA1 and DPB1 allele frequencies found in this study, with those reported in the literature, revealed that Indonesian frequency results differed significantly for both loci; while the Merina frequencies differed for the DPB1 locus but not the DQA1 locus. A possible explanation for the significant differences seen for the Indonesians could be that the samples used

in the present study were from different parts of this vast archipelago than those used by Helmuth *et al.* (1990) and by Moonsamy *et al.* (1992); the origins of the Indonesian samples in the literature are not mentioned. Sample sizes were also quite different, however sample size is taken into account with the exact method used. The Merina samples used by Migot *et al.* (1995) were from a rural community living in Manarintsoa (on the highlands); whereas the Merina individuals used in the present study came mainly from the capital city Antananarivo. This may have contributed to the significant difference seen at the more polymorphic DPB1 locus. Also, Migot *et al.* used an RFLP based method to type the DPB1 alleles, a technique which could only detect 29 out of the 59 DPB1 alleles known at that time. Thus, mistyping of alleles may have been a possibility and a reason for the significant difference seen.

Table 3.1 lists the frequencies of alleles at the DQA1 locus as determined in the present study and gives the Arab DQA1 results reported by Helmuth *et al.*, 1990. Table 3.2 gives the frequencies of the DPB1 locus alleles as determined in the present study.

Looking at the DQA1 allele frequencies listed in table 3.1, the most note worthy frequencies are those of the Tsonga and Tsimihety. The frequencies in these two groups are extremely close, thus indicating a possible large Tsonga contribution to the Tsimihety. The frequencies obtained for some of the alleles in the Zambians, especially allele 1.2, differ quite considerably from those obtained for the Tsonga and Tsimihety, indicating that the Zambians are not a strong candidate "parental" group for the Tsimihety.

The alleles DPB1*01011 and DPB1*01012, listed in table 3.2, translate to the

Allele	Antemoro N=50	Merina N=50	Tsimihety N=50	Tsonga N=50	Indonesians N=51	Arabs N=66	Zambians N=50
DQA1 1.1	0.1500	0.1000	0.1700	0.1700	0.1961	0.0758	0.1300
DQA1 1.2	0.2300	0.1400	0.2700	0.2500	0.2353	0.2424	0.4200
DQA1 1.3	0.0900	0.1200	0.0700	0.0800	0.0294	0.1212	0.0800
DQA1 2	0.1100	0.0400	0.0700	0.0600	0.0392	0.1970	0.0300
DQA1 3	0.1100	0.0300	0.1000	0.1000	0.0392	0.1364	0.0400
DQA1 4	0.3100	0.5700	0.3200	0.3400	0.4608	0.2273	0.3000

Table 3.1 DQA1 allele frequencies from the present study together with published data (Helmuth *et al.*, 1990) on an Arabian population.

same predicted amino acid sequence, but at the nucleotide level, there is a silent G to A transition at position +43 (position shown in figure 2.1). Although the *01011 allele was found in all the population samples studied, the *01012 allele was only detected in Tsimihety and Tsonga individuals. It should be born in mind, however, that the actual numbers of allele *01012 observed in the Tsimihety and Tsonga groups was small, two and one respectively. If larger samples were obtained, the picture may not remain as clear. With respect to other DPB1 alleles, it can be seen from table 3.2 that allele *1901 was also only found to be present in Tsimihety and Tsonga individuals. Allele *2601 was shared by Merina and Indonesian individuals, while a number of alleles were exclusive to particular groups. For instance, alleles *0501, *0901, *1401 and NEW2, were exclusive to Indonesians; allele *1101 was exclusive to the Tsimihety; alleles *3101 and *3301 were found exclusively in the Merina; allele *3401 was exclusive to the Tsonga; and alleles *3901 and *4001 were exclusive to the Antemoro. Apart from the alleles which appear to be newly described in this study, namely, MD258, MD294 and TSO13, all other DPB1 alleles were found in three or more of the five groups. Alleles *01011, *0201, *0301, *0401, *0402 and *1301 were present in all five groups.

All of the *1301 alleles encountered in this study had a silent G to A transition at position +43, as was the case for the *01012 allele, i.e., the reference sequence for allele *1301 which is given in figure 2.1 was never seen. For the purpose of this study, the allele was referred to as *1301 because it was the only version of the allele seen.

A particularly interesting finding was that the DPB1 allele *0501 has a frequency of 0.1809 in the Indonesians, but was not found to be present in any of the other groups studied, including the Merina. This is surprising because

Allele	Antemoro N=41	Merina N=36	Tsimihety N=40	Tsonga N=41	Indonesians N=47
DPB1*01011	0.3780	0.0833	0.3375	0.3780	0.0213
DPB1*01012	0.0000	0.0000	0.0250	0.0122	0.0000
DPB1*0201	0.0366	0.0833	0.0375	0.0244	0.0106
DPB1*0202	0.0000	0.0278	0.0125	0.0000	0.0213
DPB1*0301	0.0366	0.1250	0.0500	0.0122	0.0426
DPB1*0401	0.0732	0.0417	0.0750	0.0854	0.1170
DPB1*0402	0.1341	0.1250	0.1375	0.2317	0.0638
DPB1*0501	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.1809
DPB1*0901	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0213
DPB1*1101	0.0000	0.0000	0.0125	0.0000	0.0000
DPB1*1301	0.2561	0.2639	0.1625	0.1098	0.3298
DPB1*1401	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0106
DPB1*1701	0.0122	0.0139	0.0375	0.0244	0.0000
DPB1*1801	0.0244	0.0139	0.0250	0.0732	0.0000
DPB1*1901	0.0000	0.0000	0.0125	0.0122	0.0000
DPB1*2601	0.0000	0.0139	0.0000	0.0000	0.0106
DPB1*2801	0.0000	0.1806	0.0250	0.0000	0.1596
DPB1*3101	0.0000	0.0139	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DPB1*3301	0.0000	0.0139	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DPB1*3401	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0122	0.0000
DPB1*3901	0.0122	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DPB1*4001	0.0122	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
NEW2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0106
MD258	0.0244	0.0000	0.0375	0.0000	0.0000
MD294	0.0000	0.0000	0.0125	0.0000	0.0000
TSO13	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0244	0.0000

Table 3.2 DPB1 allele frequencies from the present study.

the popular belief is that the Indonesians were a major contributor to the Merina. It may indicate that the Indonesians, as represented here, contributed to a lesser degree than was previously thought.

Table 3.3 gives the frequencies of the serogenetic markers which were previously typed by others working in the same laboratory and which were analysed by the author. (ABO, MN and Rh typed by Mrs C. Freeman; and PGM and ACP typed by Mrs E. Ratshikhopa and Ms V. Ohlmeyer). The corresponding frequencies in Indonesians and Arabs were taken from Cavalli-Sforza *et al.*, 1994.

Frequencies of note in this table include those of the PGM_1 locus. There is a very close similarity between the frequencies of alleles at this locus in the Antemoro and the Tsonga; as well as the frequencies in the Tsimihety and Arabs. Apart from the PGM_1 and MN loci, the Arabs do not appear to have influenced the allele frequencies in the three Malagasy groups, suggesting that if they did contribute to the "genetic make-up" of the Malagasy, their input is likely to have been relatively small. At the MN locus, the Tsimihety and Indonesians were most similar. The cDe and CDe alleles of the Rh locus show frequencies close to opposite extremities for the Indonesians and Tsonga, with the Malagasy groups having intermediate frequencies. These two Rh frequencies and to a lesser extent, the cde frequency, favour a greater Indonesian input in the Merina; while the frequencies in the Antemoro and Tsimihety favour a greater Tsonga input. For the ACP locus, the A and B alleles in the Tsonga appear to have quite different frequencies from the frequencies seen in the three Malagasy groups.

Locus	Antemoro	Merina	Tsimihety	Tsonga	Indonesians *	Arabs*
PGM_1 1	0.8133	0.6667	0.7222	0.8189	0.7440	0.7190
2	0.1867	0.3333	0.2778	0.1811	0.2560	0.2810
N	83	93	36	127	100	100
ABO A	0.1751	0.1489	0.1800	0.1671	0.1660	0.1510
B	0.1675	0.1593	0.1673	0.1168	0.1800	0.1130
O	0.6574	0.6918	0.6527	0.7161	0.6540	0.7360
N	91	158	150	127	100	100
MN M	0.6053	0.6227	0.5461	0.5669	0.5320	0.6600
N	0.3947	0.3773	0.4539	0.4331	0.4680	0.3400
N	95	163	141	127	100	100
RH cDe	0.4954	0.2729	0.4524	0.7227	0.0370	0.1650
CDe	0.2717	0.5934	0.3339	0.0697	0.8890	0.4230
CDE	0.0000	0.0000	0.0047	0.0017	0.0110	0.0050
Cde	0.0000	0.0017	0.0231	0.0000	0.0000	0.0090
cDE	0.0924	0.0337	0.0626	0.0815	0.0630	0.1500
cde	0.1404	0.0983	0.1232	0.1250	0.0000	0.2450
cdE	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0040
N	92	163	141	127	100	100
ACP A	0.3023	0.2570	0.2917	0.1181	0.3690	0.1650
B	0.6861	0.7009	0.6806	0.8386	0.6310	0.8150
C	0.0000	0.0280	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0200
R	0.0116	0.0140	0.0278	0.0433	0.0000	0.0000
N	86	107	36	127	100	100

Table 3.3 Allele frequencies of the serogenetic markers used.
N equals the number of individuals typed.
* Because the exact sizes of Indonesian and Arab samples are unknown, N=100 was used for the purpose of estimation.

3.3.1.2 **Haplotype frequencies:**

The DQA1-DPB1 haplotype frequencies were estimated by the E-M method which forms part of the Arlequin package. This program indicated that there were 72 haplotypes with appreciable frequencies. The criterion used to classify haplotypes as appreciable or trivial was that a haplotype had to have an estimated frequency of greater than 1.000E-05 in order to be considered to be appreciable.

Looking at each group individually, a total of 42 possible haplotypes were estimated for the Merina, of which 26 were considered appreciable. Similarly, 26 out of 39 haplotypes for the Antemoro, 33 out of 49 haplotypes for the Tsimihety, 28 out of 42 haplotypes for the Tsonga and 23 out of 43 haplotypes for Indonesians, had frequencies in the category.

From table 3.4, which lists the haplotypes which occurred in at least one group at an appreciable frequency, it can be seen that each group contains a number of haplotypes which did not occur in any of the others. These will be referred to as exclusive haplotypes even though many, or all, of them would lose this status if larger samples were obtained. The Antemoro have six exclusive haplotypes, the Merina have seven, the Tsimihety have eight and the Tsonga and Indonesians each have ten. Five haplotypes were found in all groups. The haplotype frequencies were used for further statistical analyses.

As was the case for the (single locus) allele frequencies, some of the apparent haplotype frequencies also suggest a lesser than expected contribution of the Indonesians to the Merina. For example, the haplotype 1.2/1301 was found to be at a frequency of 0.13289 in the Indonesians and 0.05754 in the Tsimihety,

Apparent haplotypes DQA1 / DPB1*	Antemoro N=41	Merina N=36	Tsimihety N=40	Tsonga N=41	Indonesians N=38
1.1 / 01011	0.04076	0.00000	0.01314	0.09155	0.01316
1.1 / 0202	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 0301	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02632
1.1 / 0401	0.02439	0.00000	0.03203	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 0402	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01820	0.00000
1.1 / 0501	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02904
1.1 / 1301	0.04461	0.09722	0.09233	0.06098	0.10254
1.1 / 1701	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 1801	0.00000	0.01389	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 1901	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 3301	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 3901	0.01220	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / 4001	0.01220	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.1 / MD258	0.01220	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 01011	0.06577	0.013[illegible]	0.06684	0.05069	0.00000
1.2 / 01012	0.00000	0.00000	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 0201	0.03659	0.01389	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 0202	0.00000	0.02778	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 0301	0.01220	0.01389	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 0401	0.01960	0.01389	0.01312	0.05815	0.07587
1.2 / 0402	0.06098	0.00000	0.00000	0.05438	0.00000
1.2 / 0901	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02632
1.2 / 1301	0.00000	0.00000	0.05754	0.00000	0.13289
1.2 / 1701	0.00000	0.00000	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / 1801	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.01971	0.00000
1.2 / 2801	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01493
1.2 / MD258	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
1.2 / TSO13	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000

Table 3.4 Apparent DQA1-DPB1 haplotype frequencies in the groups studied.

Apparent haplotypes DQA1 / DPB1*	Antemoro	Merina	Tsimihety	Tsonga	Indonesians
1.3 / 01011	0.08537	0.04167	0.01396	0.00000	0.00000
1.3 / 01012	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
1.3 / 0201	0.00000	0.01389	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
1.3 / 0202	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01316
1.3 / 0301	0.00000	0.01882	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
1.3 / 0401	0.01220	0.00000	0.01104	0.01502	0.00000
1.3 / 0402	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.02908	0.00000
1.3 / 0501	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01316
1.3 / 1301	0.00000	0.05063	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
1.3 / 1801	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01687	0.00000
1.3 / 1901	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
1.3 / NEW2	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01316
2 / 01011	0.07317	0.00000	0.01717	0.01220	0.00000
2 / 0201	0.00000	0.04027	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
2 / 0301	0.01220	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
2 / 0401	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
2 / 0402	0.00000	0.01528	0.05783	0.01220	0.01316
2 / 0501	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02632
2 / 1701	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
2 / TSO13	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
3 / 01011	0.02488	0.00000	0.04607	0.03969	0.00000
3 / 0301	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
3 / 0402	0.03353	0.00000	0.02893	0.04568	0.00000
3 / 1301	0.01475	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
3 / 1701	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
3 / 1801	0.02439	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
3 / 2801	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.05263
3 / MD258	0.01220	0.00000	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
3 / MD294	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000

Table 3.4 (cont.) Apparent DQA1-DPB1 haplotype frequencies.

Apparent haplotypes DQA1 / DPB1*	Antemoro	Merina	Tsimihety	Tsonga	Indonesians
4 / 01011	0.08810	0.02778	0.18033	0.18393	0.01316
4 / 0201	0.00000	0.01528	0.00000	0.02439	0.01316
4 / 0301	0.01220	0.07840	0.02500	0.00000	0.00000
4 / 0401	0.01699	0.02778	0.01880	0.00000	0.04255
4 / 0402	0.03964	0.10972	0.03824	0.07217	0.05263
4 / 0501	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.11570
4 / 1101	0.00000	0.00000	0.01250	0.00000	0.00000
4 / 1301	0.19674	0.11604	0.01262	0.04878	0.10668
4 / 1401	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01316
4 / 1701	0.01220	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000
4 / 1801	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.03659	0.00000
4 / 2601	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.01316
4 / 2801	0.00000	0.16667	0.02500	0.00000	0.07718
4 / 3101	0.00000	0.01389	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
4 / 3401	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01220	0.00000

Table 3.4 (cont.) Apparent DQA1-DPB1 haplotype frequencies.

but appears to be absent from the Merina, Antemoro and Tsonga. A second haplotype is that of 4/0501 which was found to be at a frequency of 0.1157 in the Indonesians, but was absent from all the other groups studied. This latter finding, however, is another manifestation of the high *0501 allele frequency in the Indonesians, mentioned above, and so is not additional proof for questioning the degree of Indonesian contribution to the Merina.

Two haplotypes, 4/0402 and 4/2801, occur at a greater frequency in the Merina than in the other groups and suggest the existence of an additional "parental" group which was not studied. It is, however, possible that drift and natural selection may have taken place on the island; factors which are not taken into account. Other haplotypes suggesting the existence of additional "parental" groups are 1.3/01011, 2/01011 and 4/1301 for the Antemoro and 2/0402 for the Tsimihety.

A haplotype which argues in favour of a large African, Tsonga-like, contribution to the Tsimihety is 4/01011. This is also supported by the fact that D' for this combination is slightly higher in the Tsimihety than it is in the Tsonga (0.341 vs 0.262) as would be expected.

3.3.2 Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, gene diversity and linkage disequilibrium

All of these were assessed by using the Arlequin package and the results are summarized in table 3.5. For the Merina, Antemoro, Tsimihety, Tsonga and Indonesians, only samples from individuals with results for both DQA1 and DPB1 were used during these analyses.

Group and size (number of chromosomes)	Total number of apparent haplotypes with significant frequencies	HWE: Exact P DQA1 locus	HWE: Exact P DPB1 locus	Gene Diversity (based on the estimated haplotypic data)	Probability that global linkage equilibrium exists
Merina 72	26	0.32328 +/- 0.00095	0.01440 +/- 0.00030	0.9343 +/- 0.0147	0.000229605 +/- 4.61739e-05
Antemoro 82	26	0.97776 +/- 0.00039	0.05357 +/- 0.00051	0.9377 +/- 0.0148	0.023060300 +/- 0.00050228
Tsimihety 80	33	0.03166 +/- 0.00055	0.52422 +/- 0.00076	0.9712 +/- 0.0062	0.036676900 +/- 0.000597243
Tsonga 82	28	0.36202 +/- 0.00118	0.12683 +/- 0.00049	0.9548 +/- 0.0087	0.182117000 +/- 0.001225080
Indonesians 76	23	0.76148 +/- 0.00115	0.85337 +/- 0.00051	0.9330 +/- 0.0149	0.159655000 +/- 0.001153150
Zambians 100		0.93236 +/- 0.00084		* 0.7149 +/- 0.0278	

Table 3.5 A summary of the results obtained using the Arlequin package.

* DQA1 locus only.

+/- figures indicate standard deviation.

Both DQA1 and DPB1 loci for the Tsonga and Indonesians, as well as the DQA1 locus for Zambians conformed to Hardy-Weinberg expectation. This suggests that these are randomly mating populations and that factors such as migration, mutation and selection are relatively unimportant. An exact P value of more than 0.05 was considered to be indicative of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, while a value of less than 0.05 was considered to be possible evidence of disequilibrium. This means that one in twenty samplings are expected to appear to not be in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium even though the population actually is. The Malagasy groups did not always conform to Hardy-Weinberg expectation; the DQA1 locus did in the Merina and Antemoro, but not in the Tsimihety. The DPB1 locus conformed to Hardy-Weinberg expectation in the Tsimihety, but not the Merina and although it did in the Antemoro, the P value was close to 0.05. It seems that there are more discrepancies than might be expected from sampling error and other factors may be influencing results here. One such factor could be the possible mistyping of alleles, which may occur if there are novel alleles existing in particular population groups not being detected due to the phase of sequences not being known. Another cause could be that the DQA1 typing kit may be "blind" to certain alleles in these populations (during development, the kit was tested on U.S. Caucasoids, U.S. Hispanics, African-Americans and Japanese individuals). A third factor could be population substructuring, which is known to exist in the Merina. Negative assortative mating could also result in a detectable deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium as has been shown to occur in Hutterites, a North American reproductive isolate of European ancestry (Ober *et al.*, 1997). Another possible cause for deviation from equilibrium is natural selection, including overdominance.

Overdominant selection or heterozygote advantage has been proposed to be operational in the HLA region (Hughes and Nei, 1989). However, the proportion of heterozygotes occurring at each locus, for each of the groups studied, does not coincide with the discrepancies seen for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, i.e., the level of heterozygosity does not appear to be influencing the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) results. For example, the P value obtained for the HWE assessment for the Tsimihety (DQA1 locus) was 0.03166, indicating significant evidence of disequilibrium; while the corresponding heterozygosity level had a P value (assessed by permutation; program supplied by A. B. Lane) of 0.959, indicating that the heterozygosity level was very close to what was expected. Similarly, when a P value of 0.85337 was obtained for the HWE assessment of the DPB1 locus of Indonesians, indicating equilibrium, a significant excess of heterozygotes was found (P=0.045). In the case of the DQA1 locus of the Antemoro, high P values were obtained for both the deviation from expected heterozygosity and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium; while low P values were obtained for both assessments in the case of the DPB1 locus of the Merina.

Deviations from Hardy-Weinberg expectation can be caused by deficiencies and excesses of particular genotypes without there being any overall excess of deficiency of heterozygotes and this may be the case for some of the population-system combinations referred to above.

During the gene diversity calculation, each haplotype was regarded to be a single locus. High diversity values normally predict high observed heterozygosity rates and all groups showed very high gene diversity. The lowest diversity, 71.49%, was seen in the Zambian group, but this was based on the less polymorphic DQA1 locus alone. Despite this, the value obtained

was still very high. The diversities of the remaining groups ranged from 93.3% to 97.12% but it should be born in mind that these values were based on the estimated haplotype frequencies. Haplotype frequencies are more powerful than the allele frequencies alone, for investigating relationships between groups because there are many more potential haplotypes than single locus alleles.

For the detection of global linkage disequilibrium between DQA1 and DPB1 alleles, a P value of less than 0.05 was considered to be indicative of significant linkage disequilibrium. Alleles at the DQA1 and DPB1 loci of the Tsonga and Indonesians appeared to be in global linkage equilibrium, i.e., there appears to be a random association of alleles. However, the P values obtained are not very high which suggests that a degree of linkage disequilibrium may become more apparent if a larger sample was obtained. There appears to be significant linkage disequilibrium between alleles at the two loci in the three Malagasy groups studied. The most likely reason for this is that these groups are derived from two or more parental populations who had different haplotype frequencies and there has been insufficient time for linkage equilibrium to be established.

In addition to checking for the existence of global linkage disequilibrium using the Arlequin package, D' values (Lewontin, 1964) were calculated for all possible haplotypes in each of the groups (data tabulated in Appendix A2). A D' value of +1 or - 1 would indicate that maximum linkage disequilibrium exists, whereas a value of 0 would indicate that complete linkage equilibrium exists. Although many of the haplotypes in each population sample exhibited D' values which were different to 0, only those haplotypes with high indications of linkage disequilibrium and which had expected chromosome numbers of greater than three were looked at.

No haplotype among the Tsonga showed great evidence of linkage disequilibrium. This is consistent with the global result obtained using the Arlequin package. The two haplotypes showing the most evidence of significant linkage disequilibrium were 1.1 / 0402 (D' = -0.537942) and 1.2/01011 (D'= -0.463598).

Among the Indonesians, one haplotype, 1.2/0501, showed complete linkage disequilibrium, with a D' value of -1, indicating that despite being expected, it was not observed. This haplotype was not expected to be present in any of the other groups due to the apparent absence of the *0501 allele from these groups. No other haplotype showed much evidence of linkage disequilibrium, the rest having D' values less than those mentioned for the Tsonga.

A different picture was seen among the Malagasy groups where more haplotypes showed evidence of linkage disequilibrium. The three haplotypes among the Antemoro which showed the most evidence of disequilibrium were 1.2/1301 (D'= -1), 4/1301 (D'= 0.664081) and 2/01011 (D'= 0.461707). Among the Merina, four haplotypes with substantial evidence of linkage disequilibrium were 4/2801 (D'= 0.820624), 4/0402 (D'= 0.715721), 4/0201 (D'= -0.678187) and 4/01011 (D'= -0.574924). The only two haplotypes showing substantial evidence of disequilibrium among the Tsimihety were 1.1/01011 (D'= -0.77098) and 4/1301 (D' = -0.757308). Again the picture seen here is consistent with the probabilities given in the last column of table 3.5, where significant linkage disequilibrium between alleles at the two loci was found among the Malagasy groups and not the two "parental" groups.

3.3.3 Population differentiation

The results of the test done to detect significantly different allele frequency distributions between pairs of groups, are shown in tables 3.6 and 3.7. Table 3.6 shows results from DQA1 allele frequency data and includes Zambian data. Table 3.7 shows results from DPB1 allele frequency data. These population comparisons were calculated by Arlequin and results are given in the form of exact probabilities, with a P value of less than 0.05 indicating a possible significant difference.

When assessing the DQA1 data, the Merina were found to be significantly different from all other groups, which, as mentioned previously, suggests that the Indonesians may not have contributed as much to the Merina as is believed. No significant difference was found between Indonesians and African groups, which was surprising.

When populations were compared by using the DPB1 data, more significant differences were apparent. Indonesians were found to be highly significantly different from all other groups; the group to which they were least different, was the Merina. The Merina were also highly significantly different from the Antemoro and Tsonga. Being very different from both "parental" groups studied, strongly suggests the existence of a additional "parental" group(s). The DPB1 data also revealed a relatively high similarity between the Tsimihety and Tsonga.

Being a more polymorphic locus, the DPB1 results are probably more informative and indicative of the actual population relationships than the DQA1 results are.

	Antemoro	Indonesians	Merina	Tsimihety	Tsonga
Indonesians	0.22765 +/- 0.0133				
Merina	**0.03436** +/- 0.0099	**0.04700** +/- 0.0096			
Tsimihety	0.37017 +/- 0.0098	0.38625 +/- 0.0140	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000		
Tsonga	0.58765 +/- 0.0254	0.07695 +/- 0.0136	**0.01540** +/- 0.0093	0.11420 +/- 0.0147	
Zambians	0.19755 +/- 0.0164	0.23475 +/- 0.0264	**0.00200** +/- 0.0018	0.12587 +/- 0.0099	0.25215 +/- 0.0395

Table 3.6 Differentiation test results between all pairs of populations using the DQA1 data. The values shown are probabilities of obtaining equal or greater differences by resampling from a group formed by pooling data from the particular pair of groups. Bold figures indicate significant differences (significance level = <0.0500). +/- figures indicate standard deviations.

	Antemoro	Indonesians	Merina	Tsimihety
Indonesians	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000			
Merina	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000	**0.00717** +/- 0.0068		
Tsimihety	0.84980 +/- 0.0220	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000	0.13095 +/- 0.0170	
Tsonga	0.10010 +/- 0.0159	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000	**0.00000** +/- 0.0000	0.43280 +/- 0.0339

Table 3.7 Differentiation test results between all pairs of populations (as described for table 3.6) using the DPB1 data.
Bold figures indicate significant differences (significance level = <0.0500). +/- figures indicate standard deviations.

No differentiation tests were done using the haplotypic data because this would only have been possible if each occurrence of each haplotype was known with certainty, i.e., with the observed numbers as integers. A $\chi 2$ test on the phenotypes could have been done but this would have entailed pooling many haplotypes to avoid the bias caused by small numbers in each class and this procedure was considered to be unsatisfactory.

3.3.4 Admixture calculations

The results from admixture calculations are only relevant if parental populations have been correctly chosen. Also, genetic drift and natural selection (particularly in the case of HLA genes) can interfere with the correct interpretation of results.

Admixture was estimated using the data in different forms (allelic and/or haplotypic frequencies) and combinations of populations (including or excluding the Arabs). At all times, an African group represented by the Tsonga appeared to have contributed the most to the general Malagasy group, whose allele frequencies represented a weighted average of the allele frequencies of the three Malagasy groups studied. There is no way of knowing whether the Tsonga were direct contributors to the Malagasy gene pool. They were chosen as being possibly representative of the African population/s who did contribute because they occupy an area which is relatively close to Madagascar.

When the DQA1 and DPB1 allele frequencies were used, an estimated contribution of 64.45% from the Tsonga and 35.54% from Indonesians was found. Using DQA1-DPB1 haplotypic data, an estimated contribution of 59.71% from the Tsonga and 40.29% from Indonesians was found. When the

allele frequencies of the other non-HLA systems were used in combination with either the separate DQA1 and DPB1 allele frequencies or the DQA1-DPB1 haplotypic frequencies, very similar results were obtained for both combinations: 56.81% from the Tsonga, 43.19% from Indonesians; and 55.39% from Tsonga, 44.61% from Indonesians, respectively. When the non-HLA data of all the groups, including the Arab non-HLA data, was used, the apparent Tsonga contribution was 48.99% and that of the Indonesians, 38.15%; the possible Arab contribution accounted for the remaining 12.86%. Very similar results were obtained when DQA1 data was added to the non-HLA data: 48.78% from the Tsonga, 38.21% from Indonesians and 13.01% from Arabs. Unfortunately, there does not appear to be any published DPB1 allele frequency data on Arabian populations.

From the admixture results, it would appear that the Malagasy as represented by the averaged Tsimihety, Merina and Antemoro, had their greatest contribution from an African source, followed by an Indonesian and then an Arabian source. On the basis of non genetic information, the Antemoro are thought to have a more substantial contribution from Arabs than the other Malagasy groups studied. It would have been interesting to see what the apparent Arab contribution would have been had more Malagasy groups been studied. Also, having more Malagasy groups would have allowed analysis of data on separate highland and lowland groups, to see if there was a difference in parental contributions to these, as suggested by other molecular studies (Morar *et al.*, 1996; Dangerfield, 1998).

3.3.5 Principal coordinate analysis

Principal coordinates were calculated for the HLA allele frequency data, the HLA haplotypic frequency data, the non-HLA serogenetic data, the HLA allele frequency data with non-HLA serogenetic data, and the HLA haplotypic frequency data with the non-HLA serogenetic data. No clustering was particularly evident from any of the principal coordinate plots. However, in all cases, the Antemoro, Tsimihety and Tsonga samples fell within one half; and the Merina and Indonesians fell within the other. When the Arabs were included, "they" fell into the same quadrant as the Merina and Indonesians.

When the non-HLA serogenetic data were used with DQA1 data, the Arabs were located closest to the Antemoro. However, when the non-HLA serogenetic data were used alone, Arabs were roughly equidistant from the Antemoro, Merina and Indonesians. The Tsonga and Indonesians were always at the extremities of the second principal coordinate (Y axis).

Figures 3.4 and 3.5 show principal coordinate plots of the data. Figure 3.4 shows the plot obtained from the DQA1-DPB1 haplotypic data. Figure 3.5 shows the plot obtained from the non-HLA serogenetic and DQA1 data. Once again, more Malagasy groups would have been useful in determining a clustering pattern.

At first glance, the distance separating the Tsonga and Tsimihety in figure 3.5 seems large (considering how similar their DQA1 allele frequencies were), but this is mainly due to the distance along the horizontal axis . This separation is obviously due to the non-HLA serogenetic data, as can be seen by the relative closeness of the two samples in figure 3.4 which contains the haplotypic HLA

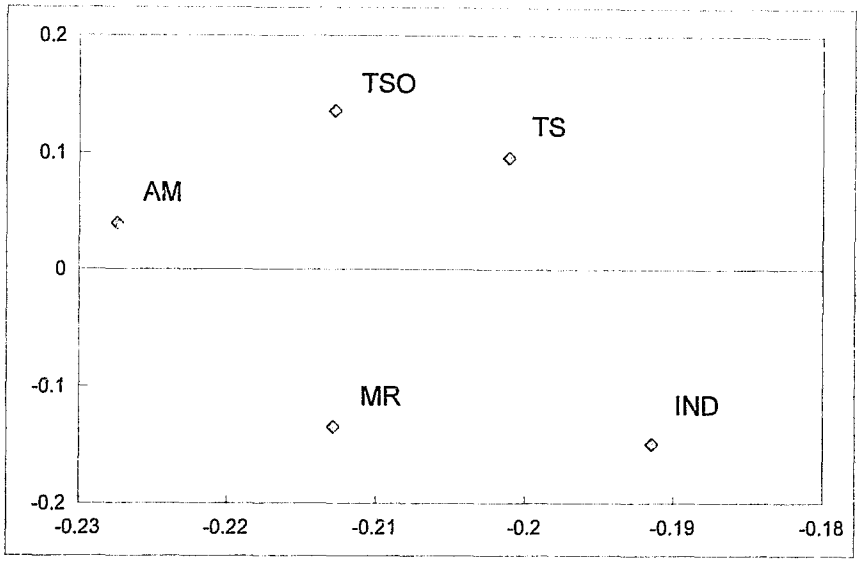

Figure 3.4 Principal coordinate plot of haplotypic HLA data (the scale is arbitrary).

KEY: TSO = Tsonga
AM = Antemoro
TS = Tsimihety
MR = Merina
IND = Indonesians

(Percentage data contained within horizonal coordinate =38.3%
Percentage data contained within vertical coordinate =21.6%)

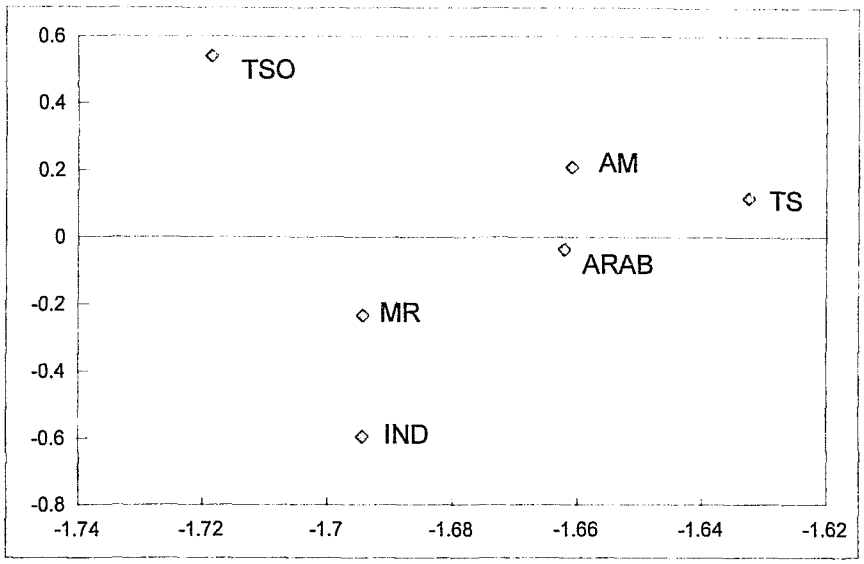

Figure 3.5 Principal coordinate plot of the non-HLA serogenetic data with the DQA1 data (the scale is arbitrary).

KEY: TSO = Tsonga
AM = Antemoro
TS = Tsimihety
ARAB = Arabs
MR = Merina
IND = Indonesians

(Percentage data contained within the horizontal axis =69.6%
Percentage data contained within the vertical axis =14.8%)

data. Also, the distance between the Merina and Indonesians in both figures (3.4 and 3.5) again suggests a lesser contribution of Indonesians towards the Merina than might have been expected.

3.3.6 Genetic distance and phylogenetic trees

Two different genetic distances: Nei's standard genetic distance (D_S) and the D_A genetic distance, were calculated by Ota's DSW program. The various genetic distance matrices obtained were correlated with each other according to the method developed by Mantel (1967) and phylogenetic trees were constructed by the neighbour joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987). Two representative phylogenetic trees are shown in figures 3.6 and 3.7.

Estimations of the correlation coefficient ρ ("r"), between the various genetic distance matrices varied from 0.721 to 0.996, indicating that all matrices correlated well (1.0 being an exact match). The lowest "r" value, 0.721, was obtained from a comparison of the D_S matrices of the non-HLA serogenetic data and haplotypic HLA data which may possibly indicate the influence of natural selection, although sampling error and genetic drift would seem to be more likely reasons.

Excellent correlation was found between the D_S and D_A genetic distance matrices obtained from the same data sets, with "r" values ranging between 0.821 and 0.986. This suggests that both genetic distance measures are appropriate for inferring phylogenetic relationships between the group of populations studied.

In all phylogenetic trees, the Tsonga and Indonesians were separated by the

greatest branch length, while Malagasy groups fell in between. This picture would be expected if the Malagasy are an admixture of African and Indonesian population groups. Another feature present in the phylogenetic trees, is that the Antemoro and Tsimihety were placed on the same branch as the Tsonga, while the Merina were placed on the same branch as the Indonesians. This division of groups supports the hypothesis that Indonesians were a major contributing population to central highland groups (represented by the Merina), while Africans were a major contributing population to surrounding lowland groups (represented by the Tsimihety and Antemoro).

Depending on the data set or genetic distance calculation used, the Tsimihety and Antemoro would reverse their positions with respect to the Tsonga. For all phylogenetic trees (D_A and D_S) except the "D_S tree" for haplotypic HLA data, the Antemoro appear to be closest to the Tsonga, whereas on the "D_S tree" for haplotypic HLA data (figure 3.6), the Tsimihety appear to be closer to the Tsonga.

When data sets included Arabian data, the Arabs were placed at the bottom of the "African" branch. The expected "closeness" between the Antemoro and Arabs was not evident. Arabs appeared to be closer to the Tsimihety and Merina. Figure 3.7 shows the Arabian placement on the D_S tree from non-HLA serogenetic and DQA1 data.

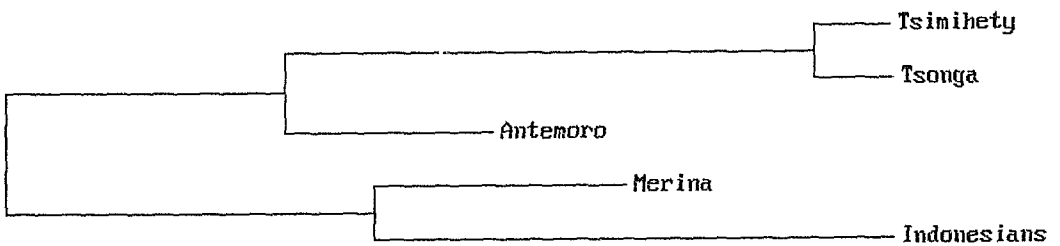

Figure 3.6 Phylogenetic tree obtained from D_S distances calculated from the haplotypic HLA data. (No Arab data were available)

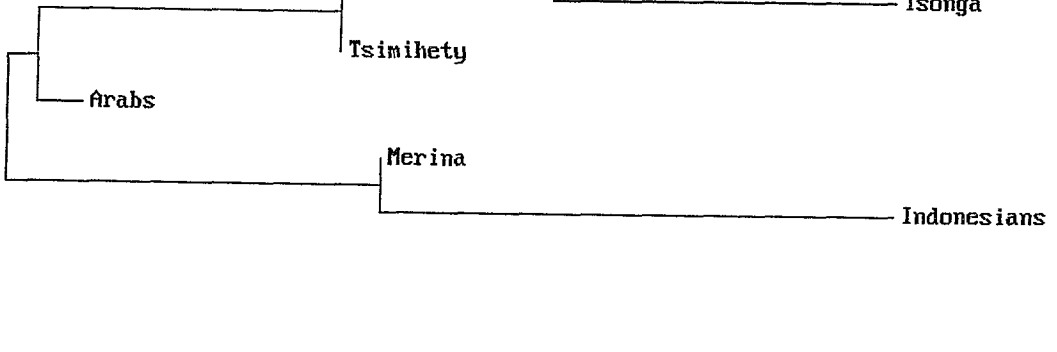

Figure 3.7 Phylogenetic tree obtained from D_S distances calculated from the non-HLA serogenetic and DQA1 data.

CONCLUSIONS:

The study of DQA1 and DPB1 allele and haplotype frequencies was used to make inferences about the evolutionary history of the Malagasy. The two loci were chosen because they are both highly polymorphic and are situated close enough to each other to yield haplotypic information.

Linkage disequilibrium between loci, which together with other things, is indicative of recent admixture, was apparent between these two loci in the Malagasy but not in the two "parental" groups studied.

Two obstacles to the use of these loci in population studies were, however, encountered during this study. The first was that allele identification is not a trivial exercise; it was considered necessary in the case of the DPB1 locus to sequence the polymorphic region and even then, uncertainties about phase resulted in information loss. The second limitation was that the financial and time constraints limited sample sizes and the number of ethnic groups which could be studied. The results would have been more conclusive if more Malagasy and potential "parental" groups could have been studied.

Despite these limitations, the results obtained are consistent with the trend established by other genetic studies, i.e., that lowlanders appear to be more African than highlanders and that highlanders appear to be more Indonesian. However, an allele (DPB1*0501) which was found at a substantial frequency in Indonesians, and which was absent from the highland population sample (Merina), questions the magnitude of the Indonesian contribution to the genetic makeup of this highland group. More evidence of one or more additional "parental" groups, possibly of Southeast Asian extract was also found.

This study succeeded in further emphasizing the existence of a substantial African contribution to the Malagasy, especially to the Tsimihety; and produced evidence which is consistent with a small contribution by Arabs.

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APPENDIX A1:

SOLUTIONS.

4.3% Acrylamide gel preparation

36g Urea

10ml 10X TBE

10.6ml chilled 40% Acrylamide-bisacrylamide

make up to 100ml with autoclaved, filtered distilled water.

Degas and filter this acrylamide solution and store at 4°C in the dark.

Just prior to pouring the gel:

add 200µl 10% APS

24µl TEMED

to 40ml acrylamide solution.

2% Agarose gel

2g HGT agarose

100ml 1X TBE

3µl Ethidium bromide (0.3µg/ml stock)

(volumes adjust according to size of gel being poured).

Buffer 1

8.77g NaCl (0.15M)

12.1g Tris (0.1M)

make up to volume (1 litre) with distilled water.

pH 8.0

Denaturation solution

58.2g NaCl (1M)

20g NaOH (0.5M)

make up to volume (1 litre) with distilled water.

dNTP stock

125µl dATP, dCTP, dGTP, dTTP (each a 10mM stock)

500µl autoclaved distilled water.

Dextran-formamide dye

20mg dextran

make up to 1ml in formamide.

Dilution Buffer

17.4g NaCl (0.3M)

12.1g Tris (0.1M)

make up to volume (1 litre) with distilled water.

pH 8.0

Ficoll dye

50% sucrose

50mM EDTA pH 7.0

0.1% Bromophenol blue

10% ficoll

Hybridization solution

(blot 11cm X 8cm)

625µl 20XSSC

5µl 10% SDS

125µl liquid block (supplied in "gene images" kit - Amersham)
1.75ml distilled water
25mg hybridization component (supplied)
biotin labelled oligonucleotide (10pmoles-single concentration; 20pmoles-double concentration)

1kb ladder
2.1ml 1X TE
250µl 1kb ladder
125µl ficoll dye

Neutralization solution
175.4g NaCl (3.0M)
60.6g Tris (0.5M)
make up to volume (1 litre) with distilled water.
pH 7.0

PCR denaturing solution
121.1mg Tris-HCl (10mM)
1.2g NaOH (0.3M)
make up to 100ml with distilled water.

PCR neutralizing solution
1.7ml Acetic acid (≡0.3M)
make up to 100ml with distilled water.

Pre-Antibody blocking solution
1.5ml liquid block (supplied in "gene images" kit - Amersham)

13.5ml Dilution buffer (above)

Pre-Hybridization blocking solution

750µl liquid block (supplied)

14.25ml Buffer 1 (above)

Proteinase K solution

1.4ml distilled water

0.4ml Proteinase K (10mg/ml)

0.2ml 10% SDS

8µl 0.5M EDTA

(500µl sufficient for four extractions).

Saturated NaCl

40g NaCl (concentration not important)

100ml distilled water.

(Agitate before use and allow NaCl to precipitate out).

20XSSC

350.7g NaCl (3M)

176.5g Na citrate (3M)

make up to volume (2 litres) with distilled water.

Streptavidin-Alkaline Phosphatase (antibody) solution

(blot 11cm X 8cm)

50mg Bovine serum albumin

10ml Dilution buffer

40µl Streptavidin-AP (5000 X dilution)

Sucrose-Triton X Lysing Buffer

7ml 1M Tris-HCl (autoclaved)

3.5ml 1M $MgCl_2$

7ml Triton X-100

make up to 700ml then added 76.65g sucrose.

(Sufficient for ten extractions)

T20E5

0.6ml 1M Tris-HCl (20mM)

0.3ml 0.5M EDTA (5mM)

make up to 30ml with distilled water.

pH 8.0

10XTBE

109.02g Tris-base (0.9M)

55.64g Boric acid (0.9M)

7.44g EDTA (0.2M)

make up to volume (1 litre) with distilled water.

pH 8.0

1XTE

121.1mg Tris-HCl (10mM)

37.2mg EDTA (1mM)

make up to volume (100ml) with distilled water.

Tween 20 solution

2.25ml Tween 20

750ml Dilution Buffer.

APPENDIX A2:

D' VALUES AND EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES FOR ALL POSSIBLE HAPLOTYPES PER POPULATION GROUP.

ANTEMORO:

HAPLOTYPE (DQA1/DPB1*)	D'	EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES
1.1/0.011	-0.281129	4.6494
1.1/0201	-1	0.45018
1.1/0301	-1	0.45018
1.1/0401	0.215526	0.90036
1.1/0402	-1	1.64943
1.1/1301	0.055518	3.15003
1.1/1701	-1	0.15006
1.1/1801	-1	0.30012
1.1/3901	-1	0.15003
1.1/4001	1	0.15003
1.1/MD258	0.411765	0.30012
1.2/01011	-0.243501	7.12908
1.2/0201	0.999645	0.690276
1.2/0301	0.134199	0.690276
1.2/0401	0.049038	1.380552
1.2/0402	0.291864	2.529126
1.2/1301	-1	4.830046
1.2/1701	-1	0.230092
1.2/1801	-1	0.460184
1.2/3901	-1	0.230092
1.2/4001	-1	0.230092
1.2/MD258	-1	0.460184
1.3/01011	0.917292	2.78964
1.3/0201	-1	0.270108
1.3/0301	-1	0.270108
1.3/0401	0.084249	0.540216
1.3/0402	-1	0.989658
1.3/1301	-1	1.890018
1.3/1701	-1	0.090036
1.3/1801	-1	0.180072

1.3/3901	-1	0.090036
1.3/4001	-1	0.090036
1.3/MD258	-1	0.180072
2/01011	0.461707	3.40956
2/0201	-1	0.330132
2/0301	0.250936	0.330132
2/0401	-1	0.660264
2/0402	-1	1.209582
2/1301	-1	2.310022
2/1701	-1	0.110044
2/1801	-1	0.220088
2/3901	-1	0.110044
2/4001	-1	0.110044
2/MD258	-1	0.220088
3/01011	-0.401635	3.40956
3/0201	-1	0.330132
3/0301	-1	0.330132
3/0401	-1	0.660264
3/0402	0.197157	1.209582
3/1301	-0.476412	2.310022
3/1701	-1	0.110044
3/1801	0.99954	0.220088
3/3901	-1	0.110044
3/4001	-1	0.110044
3/MD258	0.438202	0.220088
4/01011	-0.248165	9.60876
4/0201	-1	0.930372
4/0301	0.033816	0.930372
4/0401	-0.251278	1.860744
4/0402	-0.046451	3.408822
4/1301	0.664081	6.510062
4/1701	1	0.310124
4/1801	-1	0.620248
4/3901	-1	0.310124
4/4001	-1	0.310124
4/MD258	-1	0.620248

MERINA:

HAPLOTYPE (DQA1/DPB1*)	D'	EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES
1.1/01011	-1	0.59976
1.1/0201	-1	0.59976
1.1/0202	-1	0.20016
1.1/0301	-1	0.9
1.1/0401	-1	0.30024
1.1/0402	-1	0.9
1.1/1301	0.962233	1.90008
1.1/1701	-1	0.10008
1.1/1801	0.999201	0.10008
1.1/2601	-1	0.10008
1.1/2801	-1	1.30032
1.1/3101	-1	0.10008
1.1/3301	0.999201	0.10008
1.2/01011	0.031101	0.839664
1.2/0201	0.031101	0.839664
1.2/0202	0.999164	0.280224
1.2/0301	-0.206286	1.26
1.2/0401	0.224527	0.420336
1.2/0402	-1	1.26
1.2/1301	-1	2.660112
1.2/1701	-1	0.140112
1.2/1801	-1	0.140112
1.2/2601	-1	0.140112
1.2/2801	-1	1.820448
1.2/3101	-1	0.140112
1.2/3301	-1	0.140112
1.3/01011	0.432091	0.719712
1.3/0201	0.053121	0.719712
1.3/0202	-1	0.240192
1.3/0301	0.036381	1.08
1.3/0401	-1	0.360288
1.3/0402	-1	1.08
1.3/1301	0.214667	2.280096
1.3/1701	-1	0.120096
1.3/1801	-1	0.120096

1.3/2601	-1	0.120096
1.3/2801	-1	1.560384
1.3/3101	-1	0.120096
1.3/3301	-1	0.120096
2/01011	-1	0.239904
2/0201	1	0.239904
2/0202	-1	0.080064
2/0301	-1	0.36
2/0401	-1	0.120096
2/0402	0.293714	0.36
2/1301	-1	0.760032
2/1701	-1	0.040032
2/1801	-1	0.040032
2/2601	-1	0.040032
2/2801	-1	0.520128
2/3101	-1	0.040032
2/3301	-1	0.040032
3/01011	-1	0.179928
3/0201	1	0.179928
3/0202	1	0.060048
3/0301	0.386286	0.27
3/0401	-1	0.090072
3/0402	-1	0.27
3/1301	-1	0.570024
3/1701	0.999258	0.030024
3/1801	-1	0.030024
3/2601	-1	0.030024
3/2801	0.344642	0.390096
3/3101	-1	0.030024
3/3301	-1	0.030024
4/01011	-0.414924	3.418632
4/0201	-0.678187	3.418632
4/0202	-1	1.140912
4/0301	0.133023	5.13
4/0401	0.223691	1.711368
4/0402	0.715721	5.13
4/1301	-0.228575	10.830456

4/1701	-1	0.570456
4/1801	-1	0.570456
4/2601	0.998327	0.570456
4/2801	0.820624	7.411824
4/3101	0.998327	0.57456
4/3301	-1	0.57456

TSIMIHETY:

HAPLOTYPE (DQA1/DPB1*)	D'	EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES
1.1/01011	-0.77098	4.59
1.1/01012	-1	0.34
1.1/0201	-1	0.51
1.1/0202	1	0.17
1.1/0301	-1	0.68
1.1/0401	0.309719	1.02
1.1/0402	-1	1.87
1.1/1101	-1	0.17
1.1/1301	0.479741	2.21
1.1/1701	0.196787	0.51
1.1/1801	0.39759	0.34
1.1/1901	1	0.17
1.1/2801	-1	0.34
1.1/MD258	-1	0.51
1.1/MD294	-1	0.17
1.2/01011	-0.265502	7.29
1.2/01012	1	0.54
1.2/0201	0.086758	0.81
1.2/0202	-1	0.27
1.2/0301	0.315069	1.08
1.2/0401	-0.352099	1.62
1.2/0402	-1	2.97
1.2/1101	-1	0.27
1.2/1301	0.115195	3.51
1.2/1701	0.543379	0.81
1.2/1801	0.315069	0.54
1.2/1901	-1	0.27

1.2/2801	-1	0.54
1.2/MD258	0.086758	0.81
1.2/MD294	-1	0.27
1.3/01011	-0.409101	1.89
1.3/01012	-1	0.14
1.3/0201	0.641577	0.21
1.3/0202	-1	0.07
1.3/0301	-1	0.28
1.3/0401	0.089421	0.42
1.3/0402	0.047619	0.77
1.3/1101	-1	0.07
1.3/1301	-1	0.91
1.3/1701	-1	0.21
1.3/1801	-1	0.14
1.3/1901	-1	0.07
1.3/2801	-1	0.14
1.3/MD258	-1	0.21
1.3/MD294	-1	0.07
2/01011	-0.273227	1.89
2/01012	-1	0.14
2/0201	-1	0.21
2/0202	-1	0.07
2/0301	-1	0.28
2/0401	-1	0.42
2/0402	0.798426	0.77
2/1101	-1	0.07
2/1301	-1	0.91
2/1701	-1	0.21
2/1801	-1	0.14
2/1901	-1	0.07
2/2801	-1	0.14
2/MD258	-1	0.21
2/MD294	-1	0.07
3/01011	0.185962	2.7
3/01012	-1	0.2
3/0201	-1	0.3
3/0202	-1	0.1

3/0301	-1	0.4
3/0401	-1	0.6
3/0402	0.176	1.1
3/1101	-1	0.1
3/1301	-1	1.3
3/1701	-1	0.3
3/1801	-1	0.2
3/1901	-1	0.1
3/2801	-1	0.2
3/MD258	0.62963	0.3
3/MD294	1	0.1
4/01011	0.341179	8.64
4/01012	-1	0.64
4/0201	-1	0.96
4/0202	-1	0.32
4/0301	0.264706	1.28
4/0401	-0.216667	1.92
4/0402	-0.130909	3.52
4/1101	1	0.32
4/1301	-0.757308	4.16
4/1701	-1	0.96
4/1801	-1	0.64
4/1901	-1	0.32
4/2801	1	0.64
4/MD258	-1	0.96
4/MD294	-1	0.32

TSONGA:

HAPLOTYPE (DQA1/DPB1*)	D'	EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES
1.1/01011	0.258086	5.76932
1.1/01012	-1	0.170068
1.1/0201	-1	0.340136
1.1/0301	-1	0.170068
1.1/0401	-1	1.190476
1.1/0402	-0.537942	3.229898
1.1/1301	0.464305	1.530612

1.1/1701	-1	0.340136
1.1/1801	-1	1.020408
1.1/1901	-1	0.170068
1.1/3401	-1	0.170068
1.1/TSO13	-1	0.340136
1.2/01011	-0.463598	7.749
1.2/01012	-1	0.2501
1.2/0201	-1	0.5002
1.2/0301	-1	0.2501
1.2/0401	0.574551	1.7507
1.2/0402	-0.0612	4.74985
1.2/1301	-1	2.2509
1.2/1701	-1	0.5002
1.2/1801	0.025683	1.5006
1.2/1901	-1	0.2501
1.2/3401	-1	0.2501
1.2/TSO13	0.333333	0.5002
1.3/01011	-1	2.47968
1.3/01012	1	0.080032
1.3/0201	-1	0.160064
1.3/0301	1	0.080032
1.3/0401	0.111907	0.560224
1.3/0402	0.171548	1.519952
1.3/1301	-1	0.720288
1.3/1701	-1	0.160064
1.3/1801	0.163548	0.480192
1.3/1901	1	0.080032
1.3/3401	-1	0.080032
1.3/TSO13	-1	0.160064
2/01011	-0.462081	1.85976
2/01012	-1	0.060024
2/0201	-1	0.120048
2/0301	-1	0.060024
2/0401	0.128945	0.420168
2/0402	-0.122428	1.139964
2/1301	-1	0.540216
2/1701	0.468085	0.120048

2/1801	-1	0.360144
2/1901	-1	0.060024
2/3401	-1	0.060024
2/TSO13	0.468085	0.120048
3/01011	0.030386	3.0996
3/01012	-1	0.10004
3/0201	-1	0.20008
3/0301	-1	0.10004
3/0401	-1	0.70028
3/0402	0.292985	1.89994
3/1301	-1	0.90036
3/1701	-1	0.20008
3/1801	-1	0.60024
3/1901	-1	0.10004
3/3401	-1	0.10004
3/TSO13	-1	0.20008
4/01011	0.262011	10.53864
4/01012	-1	0.340136
4/0201	0.999379	0.680272
4/0301	-1	0.340136
4/0401	-1	2.380952
4/0402	-0.083881	6.459796
4/1301	0.157973	3.061224
4/1701	0.242424	0.680272
4/1801	0.242217	2.040816
4/1901	-1	0.340136
4/3401	1	0.340136
4/TSO13	-1	0.680272

INDONESIANS:

HAPLOTYPE (DQA1/DPB1*)	D'	EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHROMOSOMES
1.1/01011	0.524618	0.31744668
1.1/0201	-1	0.15797816
1.1/0202	-1	0.31744668
1.1/0301	0.524618	0.634893336
1.1/0401	-1	1.7437212

1.1/0402	-1	0.95084968
1.1/0501	-0.181384	2.69606124
1.1/0901	-1	0.31744668
1.1/1301	0.288118	4.91520728
1.1/1401	-1	0.15797816
1.1/2601	-1	0.15797816
1.1/2801	-1	2.37861456
1.1/NEW2	-1	0.15797816
1.2/01011	-1	0.38090364
1.2/0201	-1	0.18955768
1.2/0202	-1	0.38090364
1.2/0301	-1	0.76180728
1.2/0401	0.540292	2.0922876
1.2/0402	-1	1.14092264
1.2/0501	-1	3.23499852
1.2/0901	1	0.38090364
1.2/1301	0.350594	5.89774744
1.2/1401	-1	0.1[illegible]5768
1.2/2601	-1	0.18955768
1.2/2801	-0.602438	2.85409488
1.2/NEW2	-1	0.18955768
1.3/01011	-1	0.04759272
1.3/0201	-1	0.02368464
1.3/0202	0.606265	0.04759272
1.3/0301	-1	0.09518544
1.3/0401	-1	0.2614248
1.3/0401	-1	0.14255422
1.3/0501	0.325624	0.40420296
1.3/0901	-1	0.04759272
1.3/1301	-1	0.73690512
1.3/1401	-1	0.02368464
1.3/2601	-1	0.02368464
1.3/2801	-1	0.35661024
1.3/NEW2	1	0.02368464
2/01011	-1	0.06345696
2/0201	-1	0.03157952
2/0202	-1	0.06345696

2/0301	-1	0.12691392
2/0401	-1	0.3485664
2/0402	0.290445	0.19007296
2/0501	0.598863	0.53893728
2/0901	-1	0.06345696
2/1301	-1	0.98254016
2/1401	-1	0.03157952
2/2601	-1	0.03157952
2/2801	-1	0.47548032
2/NEW2	-1	0.03157952
3/01011	-1	0.06345696
3/0201	-1	0.03157952
3/0202	-1	0.06345696
3/0301	-1	0.12691392
3/0401	-1	0.3485664
3/0402	-1	0.19007296
3/0501	-1	0.53893728
3/0901	-1	0.06345696
3/1301	-1	0.98254016
3/1401	-1	0.03157952
3/2601	-1	0.03157952
3/2801	1	0.47548032
3/NEW2	-1	0.03157952
4/01011	0.291247	0.74594304
4/0201	1	0.37122048
4/0202	-1	0.74594304
4/0301	-1	1.49188608
4/0401	-0.210774	4.0974336
4/0402	0.6753	2.23432704
4/0501	0.331565	6.33526272
4/0901	-1	0.74594304
4/1301	-0.298028	11.54985984
4/1401	1	0.37122048
4/2601	1	0.37122048
4/2801	0.042255	5.58931968
4/NEW2	-1	0.37122048

APPENDIX A3:

ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE.

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Division of the Deputy Registrar (Research)

COMMITTEE FOR RESEARCH ON HUMAN SUBJECTS (MEDICAL)
Ref: R14/49 Turner

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE PROTOCOL NUMBER M 960722

PROJECT An investigation of the HLA Class II polymorphism in the Malagasy

INVESTIGATORS Miss A Turner

DEPARTMENT Human Genetics, SAIMR

DATE CONSIDERED 960726

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE *

Approved unconditionally

DATE 960805

CHAIRMAN. .....pp. (Professor P E Cleaton-Jones)

c c Supervisor: Dr A B Lane
Dept of Human Genetics, SAIMR

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DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and ONE COPY returned to the Secretary at Room 10001, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/~~we~~ fully understand the conditions under which I am/~~we are~~ authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/~~we~~ guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/~~we~~ undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee.

DATE...8-8-1996.....SIGNATURE .....

Author Turner A A
Name of thesis An Investigation Of The Hla Class Ii Polymorphism In The Malagasy Turner A A 1999

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