A genomic platform for epidemiological surveillance and vaccine antigen discovery using long-read amplicon sequencing

David Fernando Plaza[1,2,†], Julia Zerebinski[1,2], Ioanna Broumou[1,2], Maximilian Julius Lautenbach[1,2], Billy Ngasala[3], Christopher Sundling[1,2], Anna Färnert[1,2]

[1] Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine Solna and Center for Molecular Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

[2] Department of Infectious Diseases, Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden

[3] Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

[†] e-mail: david.plaza@ki.se

Abstract

Many vaccine candidate proteins are under strong selective pressure to diversify in terms of antigenicity.

We present a sequencing and data analysis platform for epidemiological surveillance and discovery of

indel-rich vaccine antigens by long-read circular consensus sequencing (CCS) in multiclonal pathogen

isolates. Our platform uses 40 PCR primers to asymmetrically barcode and identify multiclonal infections

in pools of up to 384 samples. We validated the method using 235 mock infections combining 10 synthetic

variants of the indel-rich gene merozoite surface protein 2 of *Plasmodium falciparum* at different

concentrations and infection complexities, as well as 95 isolates from *P. falciparum*-infected residents of

Nyamisati, Tanzania. We also constructed a fully automated analysis pipeline that streamlines the

processing and interpretation of epidemiological and antigenic diversity data from demultiplexed FASTQ

files. This platform can be easily adapted to other polymorphic antigens of interest in *Plasmodium* and

other human pathogens.

Keywords: Genomic surveillance, long-read sequencing, antigen discovery, epidemiology

There were 241 million cases of malaria and 627 thousand deaths from the disease in 2020[1]. An effective

vaccine against malaria is a cost-effective and urgently needed strategy to reduce the disease burden and

potentially eradicate malaria in the future[2]. RTS,S/AS01 (Mosquirix™) is the first malaria vaccine to be

recently endorsed by the World Health Organization for use in children[3]. Nevertheless, the protection

conferred by RTS,S/AS01 is strain-specific[4], therefore limiting the effectiveness of this vaccine in regions

where *P. falciparum* circulates with a high genetic and antigenic diversity[5]. New approaches to survey the

pool of genetic diversity in highly polymorphic antigens from *P. falciparum* and other pathogens will

accelerate the development of strain-transcending vaccines.

Merozoite surface protein 2 (*msp2*) is highly expressed in the blood stage of *P. falciparum*[6]. The protein

has two highly conserved domains in the N and the C termini flanking a highly polymorphic central region.

The locus is a hotspot for indels of up to 300bp[7], making its sequencing and assembly, especially for

multiclonal infections, a challenging task using short-read sequencing[8]. Insertions, deletions or tandem

repeats larger than the read lengths in short-read sequencing represent another significant mapping and

assembly challenge.

Here, we present a multiplex long-read amplicon sequencing platform for the accurate genotyping of

indel-rich antigens using the malaria vaccine candidate MSP2 as a proof of concept. The use of this circular

consensus sequencing (CCS) technology to obtain single-base resolution data on polymorphic antigens

will facilitate the implementation of a comprehensive genomic surveillance strategy for infectious

diseases caused by highly diverse pathogens and will allow the in-depth structural and antigenic

characterization of vaccine candidates capable of eliciting strain-transcending immunity.

Results

CCS on pools of amplicons provides insights into complex infections with high sequence accuracy

Combining nested PCR, asymmetric barcoding of amplicons and CCS, we developed a platform for the

genotyping by sequencing of loci rich in structural variants, in up to 384 pooled controls and clinical

isolates (Fig. 1). With an average read length of 28300 bp and a mean insert size of 862 bp, every *msp2*

amplicon was sequenced 32 times on average, generating circular consensus reads where most

sequencing errors (previously estimated to be one error every 13048 bp in CCS reads[9]) are properly

amended. We observed no correlation between template concentration in a series of mock infection

controls including single *msp2* variants and the number of reads resulting from those samples

(Supplementary Fig. 1). Similarly, there was no correlation between sample parasite density (parasites/µl)

and the number of CCS reads for microscopy-positive samples in the Tanzania cohort (Supplementary Fig.

2).

Variant calling specificity and sensitivity can be estimated from synthetic mock infection controls

Size and sequence variant calling for clinical isolates was based on the accuracy of variant detection in

synthetic mock infection controls. These controls corresponded to 235 single or mixed serial dilutions

including various molar ratios of synthetic reference sequences for *msp2* HB3 (LR131339 REGION:

250760..251530), CD01 (PfCD01_020011700), Dd2 (PfDd2_020009600), SN01 (PfSN01_020009800), KE01

(PfKE01_020009300), SD01 (PfSD01_020012300), GN01 (PfGN01_020012100), 7G8 (Pf7G8_020011500),

GB4 (PfGB4_020009800) and 3D7 (PF3D7_0206800), that were barcoded separately and pooled together

before adaptor ligation and sequencing (Supplementary Table 1). Serial dilution of single-variant mock

infections showed that the correct size (Fig. 2a) and sequence (Fig. 2b) variant for reference alleles can be

detected with read coverages higher than 50% at concentrations of 10 copies/µl for all the variants and

down to 1 copy/µl for 6 out of 10. We observed that all samples with barcode bc1034, including the 100

copies/μl dilution for variants SD01, GN01, 7G8, GB4, CD01, Dd2, SN01 and KE01, did not yield reads above

background levels (Supplementary Fig. 3) and were therefore not included in the sensitivity analysis.

Quantification of left-over noise after the noise-reduction module (see below) revealed that the mean

read coverage for the most common size variant miscall in 235 mock infections was 3.5% of reads (SD 5.4,

95% CI 2.8-4.2%) (Fig. 2c). A downstream analysis of sequence variants for the same pool of mock

infections showed that the mean read coverage for the most common sequence variant miscall was 4.5%

of the reads (SD 5.9, 95% CI 3.8-5.3%) (Fig. 2d). The mean read coverage for size variant miscalls at

different molar ratios and dilutions in the synthetic mock infections (Fig. 2c) allowed us to setup a variant

calling threshold of 14% (the mean read coverage of the most prevalent variant miscall in all the mock

infections plus 2 standard deviations (SD)). Similarly, a coverage threshold was defined in the calling of

nucleotide sequence variants (Fig. 2d) equivalent to 16% or the mean coverage of the most common

sequence miscall in the synthetic controls plus 2 SD. For the same 235 mock infections, a total of 1140

correct size variant calls were expected; nevertheless, 926 (81.2%) of those were detected in the dataset

with a total of 360 above the noise threshold (31.2% of the expected, false negative rate (FNR): 0.688).

Furthermore, 7407 size variant miscalls were detected, from which only 9 had read coverages above or

equal to the established 14% threshold (False positive rate (FPR): 0.001). As for sequence variants, 1312

correct calls were expected in the 235 mock infections. From these, 467 (35.6%) were detected with 342

above the noise threshold (26.1% of the expected, FNR: 0.739). In addition, 8082 sequence variant miscalls

were detected and only 8 of those showed read coverages above the corresponding variant calling cutoff

of 16% (FPR: 0.001). Finally, size and sequence variant calling thresholds at FPRs of 0.01 and 0.05 were

calculated (Supplementary Table 2). The selection of FPR significantly affects the number of variants that

can be detected in individual isolates, with less stringent FPRs (lower variant calling thresholds) resulting

in a closer match between the number of variants (clones in a clinical isolate, else referred as multiplicity

of infection (MOI)) expected and observed, however compromising the sequence accuracy of the variants

called (Supplementary Fig. 4).

Size variant genotyping for clinical isolates can be simulated by in silico PCR on CCS reads

Even though sequencing with single nucleotide resolution is the optimal tool to assess isolate complexity

and relatedness in molecular epidemiological surveys[10, 11], most of the available genetic diversity data for

P. falciparum relies on the genotyping of size variants in *msp2*, *msp1* and *glurp*[12]. *In silico* PCR on CCS reads

with the widely used family-specific (IC1 and FC27) primers for *msp2*[13] was applied to call size variants on

isolates which could then be compared to data previously generated by nested PCR (using the same

primers) and analysis of fragment sizes by capillary electrophoresis (CE)[14]. Fully sequenced and annotated

genomes for a number *P. falciparum* strains became available (PlasmoDB[15]) in the years following the

original *msp2* genotyping publication[13] and we used these sequences to design forward oligos that

incorporate new base substitutions (Supplementary Fig. 5 and Supplementary Table 3).

In silico PCR on the library of synthetic mock infections using the original and the newly designed primers

followed by size variant calling showed that the eight size variants expected (three different sequence

variants correspond to FC292) were detected. In addition, a clinical isolate corresponding to an FC316

variant and spiked into some of the mock infection samples was found in 10 samples at an FPRs of 0.001

(Fig. 3a). Only three miscalls were detected in 5 out of the 321 (1.6%) mock infections analyzed using the

same FPR. Lastly, *in silico* PCR for size variant genotyping in clinical isolates that were sequenced in a

separate library, showed that 52 (54.7%) out of 95 isolates were IC1-positive (Fig. 3b) while 59 (62.1%)

were FC27-positive (Fig. 3c). Sixteen samples (16.8%) were found to be double positive for IC1 and FC27.

Even though amplification conditions vary widely in the PCR programs for size variant genotyping by CE

and the barcoding of *msp2* amplicons, we decided to compare the specific size variants being called by CE

and CCS on 24 *msp2*-positive samples from Tanzania that were randomly selected. A 7bp plus or minus

window in the CE calls was used to account for the size variant binning required when using this method[14].

We found that for 15 out of 24 *msp2*-positive samples (62.5%, Supplementary Table 4) there was at least

one match in the size variants called by the two methods with high relative fluorescence units (RFU>300)

and read coverage values (≥14% of reads in the sample).

Isolate-derived msp2 sequences allow the analysis of antigen structural conservation and the

construction of isolate phylogenies

Finally, isolate phylogenies, analysis of B-cell epitope conservation and prediction of T cell epitopes were

computed for the same 95 *P. falciparum* isolates. Conservation analysis of unique MSP2 variants of *P.*

falciparum in the IC1 (n = 37) and FC27 (n = 34) families for isolates from Tanzania shows that there are

well defined regions which are highly conserved in the two families (Fig. 4a) and that could be targeted

by vaccine-elicited antibodies to confer strain-transcending protection. We used the consensus sequences

derived from the multiple alignment Fourier transform (MAFFT) of the MSP2 variants present in the

isolates to map linear epitopes bound by well-characterized monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) raised against

the 3D7 and FC27 variants[16]. We observed that epitopes present in conserved regions (6D8, 1F7/6C9/9H4

and 4D11/9G8) can also be present in the variable regions of some of the clinical isolates sequenced (Fig.

4a). Furthermore, sequences of a polymorphic locus like *msp2* are instrumental in the construction of

phylogenies describing the degree of relatedness between different *P. falciparum* isolates. We show that

msp2 sequences from clinical isolates can be used to construct phylogenies for the two families of the

gene (Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c).

Non-redundant T cell epitopes with wide human population coverage were detected in the MSP2

variants from a set of clinical isolates

To explore how sequence diversity could be affecting the immunogenicity of different antigen variants,

we computed binding predictions for all the MSP2 15-mer peptides from the same Tanzania isolates

against the widely representative HLA class II alleles DRB1*03:01, DRB1*07:01, DRB1*15:01, DRB3*01:01,

DRB3*02:02, DRB4*01:01 and DRB5*01:01 using IEDB-AR[17]. 126444 T cell epitopes were found in unique

variants of MSP2 sequenced for Tanzania isolates (Supplementary Table 5). From these, 2217 peptides

(Supplementary Table 6) were non-redundant while 29 epitopes out of the 2217 were predicted as strong

binders based on an adjusted rank equal or lower than 1% (99th binding percentile) (Supplementary Table

7).

An iterative analysis pipeline streamlines the processing and interpretation of epidemiological and

antigenic diversity data from demultiplexed FASTQ files

In order to streamline the analysis of *msp2* genotyping data, a fully-automated pipeline was assembled in

Galaxy, a language-agnostic platform that integrates tools written in R, Python and other programming

languages (https://github.com/dfplazag/CCS-Pfal-msp2.git). We observed that the size variant miscalls

with the highest read counts corresponded to sequences up to 3 bases longer or shorter than the expected

correct calls (Supplementary Fig. 6a). To reduce the read coverage for these miscalls, an iterative noise

reduction strategy was applied where sequences called on a first iteration of the pipeline were used to

remove from the original dataset highly similar sequences (up to 3 mismatches based on the 4-mismatch

difference for the *msp2*s in the strains CD01 and HB3, Supplementary Fig. 6b) which were also up to 3

nucleotides longer or shorter than the sequence called. This approach resulted in a read count reduction

of more than 50% for 13 out of the 22 most prevalent size variant miscalls in the dataset (Supplementary

Fig. 6c) and a small increase in the number of correct size variant calls from 348 without the noise

reduction module to 360 in the set of 235 mock infections. The pipeline is composed of two workflows.

The first workflow (Supplementary Fig. 7) takes a collection of demultiplexed FASTQ files and a table with

sample names to deliver a tabular dataset including every read assigned to a sample for all the samples in

the library and a table with the number of reads for each sample. Workflow 1 also calculates the baseline

read count for a sample to be considered *msp2*-positive based on the mean number of reads miss-

assigned to water controls plus 2 SDs. Outputs from workflow 1, in addition to a FASTA file with the *msp2*

ortholog in *P. billcollinsi* and a second FASTA with the size variant genotyping oligos for *msp2* designed by

us and others are the inputs for a second analysis workflow (Fig. 5a). Workflow 2 (Supplementary Fig. 8)

runs in two iterations with the noise reduction module filtering out common size variant miscalls between

the first and the second iterations (Fig. 5b). While both iterations call size and sequence variants, only

iteration two proceeds to construct nucleotide and protein sequence alignments and phylogenies,

compute read coverage matrices for size variants in all the samples genotyped, predict T cell epitopes and

calculate MOI values for every sample. Workflow 2 can be easily customized to the study of other

polymorphic antigens in *P. falciparum* and other pathogens.

Discussion

Here, we introduce a long-read amplicon sequencing platform that we believe can be transformative in

unlocking the genetic diversity of antigens rich in structural variants. Our platform is also ideal to target

and assess the diversity in polymorphic antigens of relevance for the development of immunity to human

pathogens for which vaccines are not currently available.

We show that sensitivity and specificity for the CCS genotyping platform can be accurately estimated using

complex synthetic mock infections. Most errors introduced during sequencing are amended when

individual sequences resulting from each polymerase pass on the circularized template are aligned while

producing consensus reads. Moreover, the size and sequence variants called for the synthetic sequences

allowed us to define coverage thresholds that can be adjusted to eliminate PCR or sequencing artifacts

from the dataset at different FPRs. For single-variant mock infections, we called the correct size and

sequence at concentrations of 10 copies/µl in all the 10 variants tested and down to 1 copy/µl in 6 out of

the 10.

Multiclonal infections represent a significant challenge in the genotyping of pathogen isolates by short-

read sequencing. While a logistically cumbersome approach consists of the sorting and sequencing of

individual pathogens present in the isolate[18], long-read sequencing of complete amplicons circumvents

the need for sorting and sequencing of individual clones or the use of algorithms that try to differentiate

and assemble short reads derived from a mix of variants[19]. The use of CCS in the determination of infection

complexity showed that relaxing the stringency in the calling of variants results in a much better match

between the expected and the observed number of co-infecting alleles, although compromising the

sequence accuracy of the variants called. Variant calling thresholds can therefore be adjusted depending

on the intended application, with higher FPRs (e.g. in average, seven clones can be identified for infections

with expected MOI: 10 at an FPR: 0.05) used for epidemiological surveillance and lower FPRs (e.g. in

average, one clone can be identified for infections with expected MOI: 10 at an FPR: 0.001) applied to

antigen discovery and vaccine development.

Phylogeny reconstruction and the study of multiclonal infections are now made possible by the availability

of amplicon sequencing data. Phylogenetic analysis of clones recovered from clinical isolates will be a

pivotal tool in the genomic surveillance of infectious disease outbreaks. The ease and low cost of

sequencing amplicons for thousands of isolates will also allow the study of population structure and gene

flows at a scale that is beyond the current data generation and analysis capacity of whole-genome

sequencing approaches[20]. In malaria, the use of highly polymorphic *msp2* sequences as clone-specific

"fingerprints" will allow the study of recrudescence and treatment failure with unprecedented resolution

joining the battery of markers already in use for sequencing-based follow-up of drug resistance in clinical

trials such as *cpp*, *msp7*[12], *ama1-D3*[21], *cpmp*[22] and *csp*[4].

The analysis of antigenic diversity will support the development of highly polymorphic antigens as vaccine

candidates in two different fronts. First, by identifying fully conserved regions that can then be targeted

by the host immune response therefore conferring strain-transcending protection. Second, by informing

the production of multivalent cocktails including variable domains for dozens or hundreds of antigens.

The high-throughput analysis of T cell epitopes present in indel-rich antigens can be used to study host-

pathogen dynamics with exquisite resolution when coupled to the genotyping of HLA[23, 24] for the individual

harboring specific antigen variants.

A complete survey on the antigenic repertoire of highly polymorphic antigens such as MSP2 could inform

the development of a strain-transcending polyvalent antigen cocktails. mRNA as an antigen delivery

system has been proven to be effective in eliciting powerful and protective immune responses against

SARS-CoV-2[25]. In the future, antigen delivery in the form of codon-optimized mRNAs or alternative

delivery platforms for multivalent antigen formulations might be capable of eliciting immunity against

dozens or even hundreds of circulating antigen variants in a single vaccine shot imitating, in a way, the

protection against clinical disease conferred by repeated exposure to multiple infections.

The implementation of Galaxy for cheap, high-performance computing, facilitates the understanding and

sharing of non-sensitive isolate data amongst epidemiologists, wet lab scientists and computational

biologists alike. Analysis pipelines and data histories can be easily shared since all the storage and

computation takes place in the cloud. Furthermore, the decentralization of storage and computation

guarantees the robustness of the data processing and analysis infrastructure. Last but not least, cloud

computing infrastructure provides an unparalleled platform to foster international collaborations where

analyses can be ran and monitored in real time by collaborators anywhere in the world[26].

In conclusion, our long-read platform for amplicon sequencing, provides an instrumental tool for the study

of complex infections and can be easily adapted to the genotyping of other antigens rich in structural

variants. Furthermore, the detailed structural information gained from the sequencing of polymorphic

vaccine candidates can now inform the design of polyvalent vaccines capable of transcending the limited

protection conferred by formulations targeting individual antigen variants.

References

1.   WHO World malaria report 2021. (2021).

2.   Sauboin, C., Van Bellinghen, L.A., Van De Velde, N. & Van Vlaenderen, I. Economic Impact of

Introducing the RTS,S Malaria Vaccine: Cost-Effectiveness and Budget Impact Analysis in 41

Countries. *MDM Policy Pract* **4**, 2381468319873324 (2019).

3.   Sinnis, P. & Fidock, D.A. The RTS,S vaccine-a chance to regain the upper hand against malaria?

Cell **185**, 750-754 (2022).

4.   Neafsey, D.E. et al. Genetic Diversity and Protective Efficacy of the RTS,S/AS01 Malaria Vaccine.

N Engl J Med **373**, 2025-2037 (2015).

5.   Pringle, J.C. et al. RTS,S/AS01 malaria vaccine mismatch observed among Plasmodium

falciparum isolates from southern and central Africa and globally. *Sci Rep* **8**, 6622 (2018).

6.   Otto, T.D. et al. New insights into the blood-stage transcriptome of Plasmodium falciparum

using RNA-Seq. *Mol Microbiol* **76**, 12-24 (2010).

7.   Mwingira, F. et al. Plasmodium falciparum msp1, msp2 and glurp allele frequency and diversity

in sub-Saharan Africa. *Malar J* **10**, 79 (2011).

8.   Chaisson, M.J.P. et al. Multi-platform discovery of haplotype-resolved structural variation in

human genomes. *Nat Commun* **10**, 1784 (2019).

9.   Wenger, A.M. et al. Accurate circular consensus long-read sequencing improves variant

detection and assembly of a human genome. *Nat Biotechnol* **37**, 1155-1162 (2019).

10.   Black, A., MacCannell, D.R., Sibley, T.R. & Bedford, T. Ten recommendations for supporting open

pathogen genomic analysis in public health. *Nat Med* **26**, 832-841 (2020).

11.   Neafsey, D.E., Taylor, A.R. & MacInnis, B.L. Advances and opportunities in malaria population

genomics. *Nat Rev Genet* (2021).

12.   Gruenberg, M., Lerch, A., Beck, H.P. & Felger, I. Amplicon deep sequencing improves

Plasmodium falciparum genotyping in clinical trials of antimalarial drugs. *Sci Rep* **9**, 17790

(2019).

13.   Snounou, G. et al. Biased distribution of msp1 and msp2 allelic variants in Plasmodium

falciparum populations in Thailand. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* **93**, 369-374 (1999).

14.   Liljander, A. et al. Optimization and validation of multi-coloured capillary electrophoresis for

genotyping of Plasmodium falciparum merozoite surface proteins (msp1 and 2). *Malar J* **8**, 78

(2009).

15.   Aurrecoechea, C. et al. PlasmoDB: a functional genomic database for malaria parasites. *Nucleic*

Acids Res **37**, D539-543 (2009).

16.   Adda, C.G. et al. Antigenic characterization of an intrinsically unstructured protein, Plasmodium

falciparum merozoite surface protein 2. *Infect Immun* **80**, 4177-4185 (2012).

17. Dhanda, S.K. et al. IEDB-AR: immune epitope database-analysis resource in 2019. *Nucleic Acids*

Res **47**, W502-W506 (2019).

18. Nair, S. et al. Single-cell genomics for dissection of complex malaria infections. *Genome Res* **24**,

1028-1038 (2014).

19. Zhong, D., Koepfli, C., Cui, L. & Yan, G. Molecular approaches to determine the multiplicity of

Plasmodium infections. *Malar J* **17**, 172 (2018).

20. Amambua-Ngwa, A. et al. Major subpopulations of Plasmodium falciparum in sub-Saharan

Africa. *Science* **365**, 813-816 (2019).

21. Lerch, A. et al. Longitudinal tracking and quantification of individual Plasmodium falciparum

clones in complex infections. *Sci Rep* **9**, 3333 (2019).

22. Lerch, A. et al. Development of amplicon deep sequencing markers and data analysis pipeline for

genotyping multi-clonal malaria infections. *BMC Genomics* **18**, 864 (2017).

23. Carlson, J.M. et al. Impact of pre-adapted HIV transmission. *Nat Med* **22**, 606-613 (2016).

24. Cotton, L.A. et al. Genotypic and functional impact of HIV-1 adaptation to its host population

during the North American epidemic. *PLoS Genet* **10**, e1004295 (2014).

25. Abbasi, J. COVID-19 and mRNA Vaccines-First Large Test for a New Approach. *JAMA* **324**, 1125-

1127 (2020).

26. Langmead, B. & Nellore, A. Cloud computing for genomic data analysis and collaboration. *Nat Rev*

Genet **19**, 208-219 (2018).

Methods

Clinical P. falciparum isolates

Venous blood samples were collected in Nyamisati, Pwani Region, Tanzania, in 1999 and 2016 where the

population has been followed longitudinally since 1985. At the time of the 1999 survey, parasite

prevalence was 64.8% by qPCR[27]. By 2016, prevalence had decreased to 10.2%[28]. Ninety six individuals

were included from the 1994 survey: 80 previously shown to be qPCR positive for *P. falciparum* malaria

and 16 who tested negative[29]. The 25 isolates included from the 2016 survey were positive by microscopy

for *P. falciparum*. This study was approved by the Regional Ethical Committee in Stockholm, Sweden, and

the Ethical Review Board of the National Institute for Medical Research in Tanzania.

Construction of mock infections including synthetic sequences from 10 reference msp2 variants

To assess the specificity and sensitivity of sequence and variant calling, genes encoding *msp2* in the *P.*

falciparum reference strains HB3 (LR131339 REGION: 250760..251530, FC27, 292 bp CE variant), CD01

(PfCD01_020011700, FC27, 292 bp CE variant), Dd2 (PfDd2_020009600, FC27, 412 bp CE variant), SN01

(PfSN01_020009800, FC27, 292 bp CE variant), KE01 (PfKE01_020009300, FC27, 373 bp CE variant), SD01

(PfSD01_020012300, IC, 434 bp CE variant), GN01 (PfGN01_020012100, IC, 539 bp CE variant), 7G8

(Pf7G8_020011500, IC, 485 bp CE variant), GB4 (PfGB4_020009800, IC, 533 bp CE variant) and 3D7

(PF3D7_0206800, IC, 473 bp CE variant) were chemically synthesized (GeneScript) and inserted into the

pUC57 vector by EcoRV (GAT | ATC) blunt ligation. Mixed mock infections were prepared by diluting 1, 10,

100, 1000, 10000 or 100000 copies/µl of pUC57 with the different *msp2* cassettes in water to simulate

MOIs of 1 to 10 (Supplementary Table 1). Each mock infection was assigned to a unique barcode

combination.

DNA extraction and complete amplification of the msp2 open reading frame

For all the clinical isolates, DNA was purified from frozen packed cells in EDTA using QIAamp DNA blood

mini kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer instructions. Concentrations were measured by Nanodrop

and the DNA was stored at -80C before use. Taking advantage of the high degree of conservation in the

5' and 3' ends of the *msp2* gene, one previously described primer for 5' annealing (msp2_fw: 5'-

ATGAAGGTAATTAAAACATTGTCTATTATA-3')[13] that encodes *msp2*'s START codon, as well as a newly

designed 3' primer (msp2_rv2: 5'-TTATATGAATATGGCAAAAGATAAAACAA-3') that anneals to the end of

the *msp2* open reading frame and that encodes *msp2*'s STOP codon were used for a first round of

amplification in 15µl reactions. Six units of Phusion Hot Start II DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific), 1x

Phusion HF Buffer (Thermo Scientific), 0.5µM msp2_fw, 0.5µM msp2_rv2 and 1µl purified DNA were

mixed in individual wells of 96-well PCR plates. The first amplification program included 5 steps: 1) 98°C

for 30s, 2) 98°C for 10s, 3) 58.1°C for 30s, 4) 72°C for 40s and 5) 72°C for 5min, with 40 cycles of steps 2-

4.

Asymmetrical sample barcoding and pooling

Low parasitemias of *P. falciparum* had been previously shown to require nested amplification to

specifically detect rare PCR templates[30]. For this, barcoded oligos were designed for a second round of

nested amplification. Forty standard PacBio barcodes from the Sequel_RSII_96_barcodes_v1 collection

(barcodes bc1001 to bc1020 in the forward primer and barcodes bc1031 to bc1050 in the reverse) were

added to the 5' end of high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-purified primers annealing

directly downstream or upstream of msp2_F and msp2_rv2, respectively (Supplementary Table 8).

Combinations of these primers allowed the barcoding of 384 individual samples in four 96-well PCR plates

(Supplementary Fig. 9) for each CCS library that was processed. A reaction volume of 50µl was used for

the nested amplification. Twenty units of Phusion Hot Start II DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific), 1x

Phusion HF Buffer (Thermo Scientific), 0.5 µM forward and reverse primers and 1µl template (product

from the first PCR) were used for amplicon barcoding. A PCR program with 7 steps was used: 1) 98°C for

30s, 2) 98°C for 10s, 3) 50°C for 30s, 4) 72°C for 40s, 5) 98°C for 10s, 6) 72°C for 40s and 7) 72°C for 5 min;

with steps 2-4 ran in 5 cycles (annealing of the 3' region of the barcoding primer only) followed by 35

cycles of steps 5 and 6 (annealing along the entire length of the barcoding primer). After barcoding,

selected wells containing synthetic mock infection and negative controls, were ran on an agarose gel to

verify the presence or the lack thereof of PCR products. The 12 wells from individual plate rows were

pooled and cleaned (QIAquick PCR Purification Kit, QIAGEN), and the 30µl elutions resulting from every

prep were combined and vortexed thoroughly. Fragment sizes for clean-pooled samples were verified by

agarose gel electrophoresis. Concentration, as well as 260/280 and 260/230 nm ratios, were measured in

a Thermo Scientific Multiskan GO.

Single Molecule Real Time (SMRT) library construction for CCS and Lima demultiplexing

PacBio libraries were produced using the SMRTbell™ Template Prep Kit 1.0 according to manufacturer's

instructions. In brief, 500 ng of DNA (amplicon) was purified using PB AMPure beads before DNA damage

repair and end-repair followed by ligation of hair-pin adaptors to generate a SMRTbell™ library for circular

consensus sequencing. The library was then subjected to exo treatment and PB AMPure bead wash for

clean-up. Each 384-plex library was sequenced in a single SMRTcell™ 1M for the PacBio Sequel I

instrument using a Sequel 3.0 polymerase and 480 minute movie time, allowing for approx. 32 passes of

the polymerase on the barcoded *msp2* products (16 passes on the positive strand + 16 passes on the

negative strand). CCS reads were assigned to individual samples and primers were computationally

trimmed using the Lima package (in asymmetric mode) that is included in the SMRT Link toolbox (version

10.0.0.108728). Isolates collected in Nyamisati were sequenced twice to assess the reproducibility in the

calling of size and sequence variants. FASTQ files were deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive[31]

(Study PRJEB46950, samples ERS12142522 to ERS12143174).

In silico PCR for size variant genotyping

To assess the presence of size variants for the FC27 and IC1 families of *msp2* that could be compared to

previous size variant genotyping surveys using nested PCR and CE-based fragment sizing[14], FASTQ files for

individual samples were collapsed into an individual tabular file with the unique read identifier in column

1 and the read sequence in column 2. Positive or negative strand reads were identified and filtered into

two separate tables based on the presence of the tags 5'-AATTTCTTTATTTTTGTTACC-*read-*

GTTTTAATTTCAGCAACAC-3' or 5'-GTGTTGCTGAAATTAAAAC-*read*-GGTAACAAAAATAAAGAAATT-3',

respectively. These tags correspond to the annealing regions on the *msp2* sequence for the barcoding

oligos used during library construction on the positive or the negative strands of the gene. The two tables

were converted to FASTA and negative strand reads were reverse-complemented and concatenated tail-

to-head to the reads from the positive strand into a single FASTA file. A blastn-short search optimized for

sequences shorter than 50 bases was ran on this FASTA file[32, 33], using the sequence from the eight oligos

widely used for size variant genotyping of *msp2*[13] and the ten new primers designed for this study as

queries. The primers designed for this study incorporate base substitutions observed for the annealing

sites in the *msp2* variants of reference strains ML01, GN01, IT, SD01, TG01, GB4, KE01, Dd2, CD01 and HB3

(Supplementary Table 3). Expectation value cutoff was set to 0.001. Since *msp2* is a low complexity locus[34],

low complexity regions were not filtered out for the analysis. Maximum number of hits to include in the

output dataset was set to 1'000'000. 95% was used as identity cutoff and gaps were not allowed. A

minimum query coverage per alignment was adjusted to 100%. All the alignments meeting the expected

value criteria (-max_hsps) were included in the final output. Output format (-outfmt) was set to Tabular

(first 12 columns in Supplementary Table 9). This file was split into 18 separate subfiles, each containing

the mapping results for individual oligos based on the Query accession column using the *Filter Tabular*

function (version 2.0.0.) from Galaxy, filtering by regex expression matching and including lines matching

the name of the 18 genotyping oligos (Supplementary Table 3). The results for forward and reverse oligos

were inner joined (Both 1st & 2nd file) with the *Join two files* wrapper using the saccver column (unique

CCS read identifiers) as the key. Annealing strand for both forward and reverse oligos was calculated

following equation (1):

$$(1)\ Annealing\ strand\ = \frac{ssend\ (End\ of\ alignment\ in\ subject) - sstart\ (Start\ of\ alignment\ in\ subject)}{|ssend - sstart|}$$

A stringent CCS read filtering process was applied with the following criteria: 1) Number of alignment

mismatches (mismatch) = 0 for both forward and reverse oligos, 2) qend = 30 for both forward and reverse

oligos, 3) No alignment gaps allowed (gapopen = 0) and 4) Forward and reverse oligos map to opposite

strands of the CCS read reflected as a positive strand value for the forward oligo and a negative strand

value for the reverse oligo. Size variant calling was computed for each filtered CCS read using equation

(2):

$$(2)\ Size\ variant\ (in\ bp)\ = \frac{Rvstrand\ \times\ (sstartFw - sstartRv)}{|Rvstrand|} + 1$$

Where:

sstartFw = Start of alignment in subject (CCS read) for the forward primer (ICF or FC27F)

sstartRv = Start of alignment in subject (CCS read) for the reverse primer (ICR or FC27R)

Rvstrand = Annealing strand of the Rv oligo (ICR or FC27R)

Collections of called size variants and their supporting read coverages (proportion of reads in the sample)

for all the samples genotyped were collapsed into read coverage matrices using the *Column Join On*

Multiple Datasets function on Galaxy. Samples and their called size variants were hierarchically clustered

(complete linkage) using Gene Cluster 3.0 with Euclidean as the distance metric. Heat maps were

visualized using TreeView 3[35].

Size variant genotyping of msp2 by nested PCR and CE

In order to validate size variant calls from *in silico* PCRs on CCS reads, we performed size variant

genotyping of *msp2* by nested PCR and fragment sizing by CE as previously described[14] in a selection of 24

P. falciparum-positive isolates. In brief, 20µl reactions to amplify the *msp2* locus were prepared by mixing

0.02 units/µL of AmpliTaq DNA polymerase (ThermoFisher Scientific), 1x AmpliTaq Buffer II (ThermoFisher

Scientific), 250nM msp2_fw, 250nM msp2_rv, 2.0mM MgCl2, 125µM dNTP mix and 3µl purified DNA in

individual wells of 96-well PCR plates. This first amplification program included 6 steps: 1) 95°C for 5 min,

2) 58°C for 2 min, 3) 72°C for 2 min, 4) 94°C for 1 min, 5) 58°C for 2 min and 6) 72°C for 5 min with 25

cycles of steps 2-4. Next, nested PCR was used to separately amplify VIC- or 6-Carboxyfluorescein-labeled

IC1- or FC27-specific products, respectively, in 20µl reactions. These included 0.05 (IC1 reaction) or 0.02

(FC27 reaction) units/µL of AmpliTaq DNA polymerase (ThermoFisher Scientific), 1x AmpliTaq® Buffer II

(ThermoFisher Scientific), 300 (IC1 reaction) or 125 (FC27 reaction) nM of forward and reverse 5'-labeled

primers (Snounou G *et al,* 1999 in Supplementary Table 3), 1mM MgCl2, 125µM dNTP mix and 1 µl PCR

product from the first reaction. The nested amplification program included 6 steps: 1) 95°C for 5 min, 2)

58°C for 1 min, 3) 72°C for 1 min, 4) 94°C for 30s, 5) 58°C for 1 min and 6) 72°C for 5 min with 23 cycles of

steps 2-4. Products lengths from the nested reaction were then analyzed in an ABI 3730 PRISM® DNA

analyzer. Size variants were called using the GeneMapper® Software 5 and a threshold of 300 relative

fluorescence units (RFU).

Phylogenetic and sequence conservation analysis of isolates in the library pool

All sample-labelled barcode-free reads from clinical isolates were concatenated to the sequence of

msp2_fw and the reverse-complemented sequence of msp2_rv2 in the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. A

FASTA file was created for unique combinations of samples and non-redundant (in the same sample)

nucleotide sequences passing the coverage cutoffs for size and sequence variant calling. Sequences were

aligned with MAFFT[36] using the E-INS-i accuracy-oriented method that is suitable for sequences with large

unalignable regions (Gap extend penalty 0.0, gap opening penalty 1.53) and sequences in the resulting

alignment were reordered according to pairwise similarity. The reference sequence for the ortholog of

msp2 present in *P. billcollinsi* (PlasmoDB: PBILCG01_0209400)[15, 37] was added to the alignment and used

as the tree root in the phylogenetic analysis that followed. The ortholog of *msp2* in *P. billcollinsi* is the only

one in the subgenus *Laverania* that is closely related to the *P. falciparum* clade where no subfamily (IC1

or FC27) can be identified from the presence of annealing sites for size variant genotyping oligos

(Supplementary Fig. 10). Maximum likelihood trees were constructed with IQ-TREE[38] using 1000 bootstrap

replicates (-bb). 1000 replicates were used for the SH-like approximate likelihood ratio test (SH-aLRT, -

alrt) that was calculated for individual tree branches. Trees were visualized and annotated using iTOL v6[39].

Branches supported by more than 80% of the bootstrap replicates were highlighted in the resulting trees.

In order to study protein sequence conservation, non-redundant reads in the library passing the variant

calling cutoffs were translated using Galaxy *transeq* version 5.0.0 in frame one before computing IC- and

FC27-specific alignments with MAFFT (E-INS-I method, gap extend penalty for group-to-group alignment:

0.123, gap opening penalty at group-to-group alignment: 1.53) using a BLOSUM62 matrix. Alignments

were visualized with Jalview[40]. Valdar[41] conservation scores for every residue in the resulting alignments

were calculated with AACon[42]. The linear epitopes of well-characterized mouse monoclonal antibodies

against the 3D7 and FC27 variants of MSP2[16] were mapped to the alignment consensus sequences for the

IC1 and FC27 families.

 Prediction of T cell epitopes on MSP2 variants in the Immune Epitope Database and Analysis Resource

 (IEDB-AR)

To test the usefulness of the obtained protein sequences in the study of T cell responses specific to MSP2

variants, HLA class II binding predictions were computed with the MHC-II Binding prediction tool from

IEDB-AR[17] for unique combinations of samples and protein sequences using a seven HLA allele set

described to capture 50% of the immune response (DRB1*03:01, DRB1*07:01, DRB1*15:01, DRB3*01:01,

DRB3*02:02, DRB4*01:01, DRB5*01:01)[43]. This set has been validated previously in the identification of

dominant epitopes independent of ethnicity or HLA variability[44]. Peptide lengths were set to 15 amino

acids and epitopes were identified using the consensus method combining four prediction algorithms (NN-

align[45], SMM-align[46], CombLib and Sturniolo[47]) with top performances[48]. Epitopes with an adjusted rank

equal or lower to 1% (99th percentile of binders) were defined as high-affinity binders[44].

Construction of an end-to-end pipeline for the analysis of *msp2* diversity, epidemiology and antigenicity

To accelerate data processing, variant calling and the generation of downstream epidemiological and

antigen biochemistry insights, we designed a fully automated Galaxy-based analysis pipeline made of two

separate workflows that run on tandem (Fig. 5). The first workflow takes as inputs a collection of

demultiplexed FASTQ files (one file per sample in the sequencing library) and a renaming two-column

tabular file with the name of each FASTQ file in the collection in the first column and the names of the

matching samples in the second. This first workflow renames the FASTQ files of the sequencing library,

counts the number of reads per sample and calculates the minimum number of reads required for a

sample to be considered *msp2*-positive based on the average number of reads assigned to the different

water controls in the library plus 2 standard deviations. A downstream workflow two takes as inputs a

tabular file with the collapsed renamed collection (output from workflow 1), a tabular file with the number

of reads per sample (output from workflow 1), a FASTA file with the ortholog gene of *msp2* present in *P.*

billcollinsi[37] (to be used as tree root in the construction of isolate phylogenies) and a FASTA file with the

sequences of the oligos used for size variant genotyping. This second workflow filters out *msp2*-negative

samples, classifies reads as belonging to the IC1 or FC27 families of *msp2* and calculates size variants for

each individual read. A suit of epidemiologically relevant outputs are provided by the pipeline including

sequence- and size variant-based number of co-infecting clones (MOI) per sample and maximum

likelihood phylogenetic trees for the *msp2* variants present in the library. Finally, the pipeline completes

the *msp2* sequence for each read in the dataset by adding to the 5' and 3' ends the corresponding oligos

used in the first PCR of the library construction protocol and translates the reads into protein sequences

that are then used to predict T cell epitopes, construct multiple sequence alignments and calculate linear

epitope abundance matrices. Nine versions of workflow two are available using all the variant calling

cutoff combinations from Supplementary Table 2 in order to match FPRs for size and sequence variant

calling of 0.001, 0.01 and 0.05. All pipelines and accessory files can be found in GitHub

(https://github.com/dfplazag/CCS-Pfal-msp2.git).

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the study participants and research teams contributing to the clinical

malaria isolates collected in Tanzania. The project was funded by the Swedish Research Council (VR MH

2018-04468 and 2018-02668) and the Stockholm County Council (Project grant SLL20150135 and FoUI-

953118). The authors would also like to acknowledge the National Genomics Infrastructure (NGI) /

Uppsala Genome Center and UPPMAX for providing assistance in sequencing and computational

infrastructure. Work performed at NGI / Uppsala Genome Center has been funded by RFI / VR and Science

for Life Laboratory, Sweden. The data handling and storage were enabled by resources provided by the

Swedish National Infrastructure for Computing (SNIC) at the Uppsala Multidisciplinary Center for

Advanced Computational Science partially funded by the Swedish Research Council (VR 2018-05973). The

Galaxy server that was used for some calculations is in part funded by Collaborative Research Centre 992

Medical Epigenetics (DFG grant SFB 992/1 2012) and German Federal Ministry of Education and Research

(BMBF grants 031 A538A/A538C RBC, 031L0101B/031L0101C de.NBI-epi, 031L0106 de.STAIR (de.NBI)).

Finally, we are grateful to Dr. Carlos Fernando Suárez for the insightful discussions on the population

dynamics of circulating T cell epitopes from *P. falciparum*.

Figures and legends

Fig. 1

Fig. 1. Library construction and analysis pipeline for *msp2* genotyping by circular consensus sequencing.

a, Full-length *msp2* was amplified in a first round of PCR that used primers annealing to the conserved 5'

and 3' ends of the *msp2* gene. In the nested PCR that followed, *msp2* amplicons were asymmetrically

barcoded using primers from the conserved 5' and 3' regions of the gene but annealing directly

downstream and upstream from the annealing sites for the forward and reverse oligos, respectively, used

in the first PCR reaction. Asymmetric amplicon barcoding allowed for the accurate pooling and

computational identification of up to 384 individual samples using a combination of 40 different barcodes.

Thereafter, SMRTbell adaptors were coupled to the barcoded amplicons resulting in single-stranded

circularized constructs containing both strands of *msp2*. Circularized *msp2* amplicons were sequenced in

32 polymerase passes (16 on each strand) and the resulting sequences for each amplicon were aligned to

produce circular consensus reads. **b,** Circular consensus sequences (CCSs) were de-multiplexed with Lima

and a combined FASTA file was created with all these indexed CCSs reads. Size variant genotyping was

done by *in silico* PCR on this FASTA file using the IC1 and FC27 primer sequences designed by Snounou *et*

al, 1999, in addition to new primers designed for this study as queries in a Blastn search against the

dataset. Isolates and size variants were hierarchically clustered and visualized in two sequencing coverage

heatmaps for IC1 and FC27. In addition, CCS reads were bioinformatically coupled to the primers from the

first PCR to construct isolate phylogenies or be translated into amino acid sequences to allow the

prediction of structural elements, the study of sequence conservation, as well as the presence of B and T

cell epitopes.

Fig. 2

Fig. 2. Sensitivity and specificity in the calling of size and sequence variants, as well as variant calling

thresholds can be established using mock infections with synthetic constructs of *msp2*. Serial dilutions

of pure synthetic *msp2* from the reference lines SD01 (IC434), GN01 (IC539), 7G8 (IC485), GB4 (IC533),

3D7 (IC473), CD01 (FC292), Dd2 (FC412), SN01 (FC292), KE01 (FC376) and HB3 (FC292) were prepared and

individually barcoded (each step in the dilution series with a unique barcoding combination), pooled

together and sequenced. Dataset noise was measured as the read coverage for the most frequent miscalls

in each sample. The correct **a,** size and **b,** sequence variants were called for a range of template

concentrations (number of template copies) in single-clone mock infections. Coverage for the correct

variant (Correct sizevar or Correct seqvar), the most common variant miscall (1st miscall) and the second

most common variant miscall (2nd miscall) in the IC1 (in blue) and FC27 (in red) families of *msp2* are shown.

Percentage of reads per sample for **c,** size and **d,** sequence variant correct calls and miscalls present in a

set of 235 synthetic mock infections of different complexity (from 1 to 10 clones per infection mixed in

different molar ratios to emulate possible infection scenarios found in clinical isolates). Read coverage

was measured in the first and second iterations of the analysis workflow, showing that the noise reduction

module introduced between the two iterations significantly reduces the percentage of reads in the sample

assigned to the three most frequent size variant miscalls (Mann-Whitney pairwise comparison, **** P

value < 0.0001). Mean and SD are shown. Based on these, thresholds for variant calling were set to the

mean coverage of the most common miscall plus two standard deviations, being these 14% and 16% for

size and sequence variants (shown as dotted lines in **c,** and **d,**), respectively.

Fig. 3

Fig. 3. Size variant genotyping simulated by *in silico* PCR on CCS reads from synthetic mock infections and clinical isolates. **a,** Variant calling for 321 mock infection controls. Mock infections were prepared with 10 synthetic gene variants of *msp2* (in parenthesis) in concentrations of 1 to 100000 copies per reaction. Infections ranged in complexity from 1 to 10 variants per mixture. One clinical isolate (FC316) was spiked-in and detected in 11 samples included in the pool. IC443, IC395 and IC383 are miscalls present in 5 out of 321 mock infections (1.6%). **b,** IC1 and **c,** FC27 size variant genotyping for 95 clinical isolates collected in Nyamisati, Tanzania, in 1999 and 2016. Size variant calling is shown for synthetic mock infections used as positive controls in the CCS libraries where the isolates were sequenced and including a mix of one IC1 (3D7, IC473) and one FC27 (HB3, FC292) variant. Isolates, mock infections and size variants were grouped by complete hierarchical clustering using Euclidian as the distance metric.

Fig. 4

Fig. 4. Conservation of MSP2 protein sequences and phylogenetic analysis of malaria isolates based on

msp2. Amino acid and nucleotide sequences were aligned with MAFFT. **a,** Valdar conservation scores were

plotted for every residue position in the alignment for the IC1 and FC27 families. MSP2 regions potentially

targeted by broadly-neutralizing (strain-transcending) antibodies show high Valdar conservation scores.

The location of epitopes recognized by previously characterized mouse monoclonal antibodies is shown

under each conservation plot. **b,** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree for 51 and 62 unique clones of

the IC1 (in blue) and FC27 (in red) families, respectively, found in isolates collected in Tanzania in 1999

and 2016. Tree branches supported by 80% or more of the bootstrapping replicates are marked with

purple circles. The tree was rooted using the ortholog of *msp2* present in the species *P. billcollinsi*

(*Laverania* subgenus). **c,** The detailed structure of the trees is shown in the dashed frame panels.

658 **Fig. 5**

a

b

Fig. 5. An iterative analysis pipeline streamlines the processing and interpretation of epidemiological

and antigenic diversity data from demultiplexed FASTQ files. a, General structure of the end-to-end

analysis pipeline constructed for *msp2* sequencing data in the bioinformatics analysis interface Galaxy.

The pipeline uses as sole inputs a collection of demultiplexed FASTQ files, and three accessory files used

for size variant genotyping, file renaming and the construction of isolate phylogenies. Different pipeline

outputs are also shown (see also Supplementary Fig. 7 and Supplementary Fig. 8) **b,** A more detailed

representation of workflow 2 shows the use of iterative noise reduction for the removal from the dataset

of common miscalls resulting from the addition or deletion of up to three bases during PCR amplification

or sequencing.

Online References

27.   Farnert, A. et al. Epidemiology of malaria in a village in the Rufiji River Delta, Tanzania: declining

673   transmission over 25 years revealed by different parasitological metrics. *Malar J* **13**, 459 (2014).

674   28.   Yman, V. et al. Persistent transmission of Plasmodium malariae and Plasmodium ovale species in

675   an area of declining Plasmodium falciparum transmission in eastern Tanzania. *PLoS Negl Trop*

676   *Dis* **13**, e0007414 (2019).

677   29.   Shokoples, S.E., Ndao, M., Kowalewska-Grochowska, K. & Yanow, S.K. Multiplexed real-time PCR

678   assay for discrimination of Plasmodium species with improved sensitivity for mixed infections. *J*

679   *Clin Microbiol* **47**, 975-980 (2009).

680   30.   Snounou, G. et al. High sensitivity of detection of human malaria parasites by the use of nested

681   polymerase chain reaction. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* **61**, 315-320 (1993).

682   31.   Toribio, A.L. et al. European Nucleotide Archive in 2016. *Nucleic Acids Res* **45**, D32-D36 (2017).

683   32.   Camacho, C. et al. BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* **10**, 421 (2009).

684   33.   Cock, P.J., Chilton, J.M., Gruning, B., Johnson, J.E. & Soranzo, N. NCBI BLAST+ integrated into

685   Galaxy. *Gigascience* **4**, 39 (2015).

686   34.   Feng, Z.P. et al. Abundance of intrinsically unstructured proteins in P. falciparum and other

687   apicomplexan parasite proteomes. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* **150**, 256-267 (2006).

688   35.   Eisen, M.B., Spellman, P.T., Brown, P.O. & Botstein, D. Cluster analysis and display of genome-

689   wide expression patterns. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **95**, 14863-14868 (1998).

690   36.   Katoh, K. & Standley, D.M. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:

691   improvements in performance and usability. *Mol Biol Evol* **30**, 772-780 (2013).

692   37.   Otto, T.D. et al. Genomes of all known members of a Plasmodium subgenus reveal paths to

693   virulent human malaria. *Nat Microbiol* **3**, 687-697 (2018).

38. Nguyen, L.T., Schmidt, H.A., von Haeseler, A. & Minh, B.Q. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective

stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol* **32**, 268-274

(2015).

39. Letunic, I. & Bork, P. Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v4: recent updates and new developments.

Nucleic Acids Res **47**, W256-W259 (2019).

40. Waterhouse, A.M., Procter, J.B., Martin, D.M., Clamp, M. & Barton, G.J. Jalview Version 2--a

multiple sequence alignment editor and analysis workbench. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1189-1191

(2009).

41. Valdar, W.S. Scoring residue conservation. *Proteins* **48**, 227-241 (2002).

42. MacGowan, S.A. et al. The Dundee Resource for Sequence Analysis and Structure Prediction.

Protein Sci **29**, 277-297 (2020).

43. Paul, S. et al. Development and validation of a broad scheme for prediction of HLA class II

restricted T cell epitopes. *J Immunol Methods* **422**, 28-34 (2015).

44. Grifoni, A. et al. Targets of T Cell Responses to SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus in Humans with COVID-

19 Disease and Unexposed Individuals. *Cell* **181**, 1489-1501 e1415 (2020).

45. Jensen, K.K. et al. Improved methods for predicting peptide binding affinity to MHC class II

molecules. *Immunology* **154**, 394-406 (2018).

46. Nielsen, M., Lundegaard, C. & Lund, O. Prediction of MHC class II binding affinity using SMM-

align, a novel stabilization matrix alignment method. *BMC Bioinformatics* **8**, 238 (2007).

47. Sturniolo, T. et al. Generation of tissue-specific and promiscuous HLA ligand databases using

DNA microarrays and virtual HLA class II matrices. *Nat Biotechnol* **17**, 555-561 (1999).

48. Wang, P. et al. A systematic assessment of MHC class II peptide binding predictions and

evaluation of a consensus approach. *PLoS Comput Biol* **4**, e1000048 (2008).