1 Title:

- 2 Comparative Genomics Shows Differences in the Electron Transport and Carbon Metabolic
- 3 Pathways of *Mycobacterium africanum* relative to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and suggests
- 4 an adaptation to low oxygen tension
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6 Authors and Affiliations:

- 7 Boatema Ofori-Anyinam^{1,2,3}, Abi Janet Riley², Tijan Jobarteh², Ensa Gitteh², Binta Sarr², Tutty
- 8 Isatou Faal-Jawara², Leen Rigouts^{1,4}, Madikay Senghore², Aderemi Kehinde^{5,6}, Nneka
- 9 Onyejepu⁷, Martin Antonio^{2,8,9}, Bouke C. de Jong¹, Florian Gehre^{1,2,10}, Conor J. Meehan^{1,11*}
- ¹Mycobacteriology Unit, Institute of Tropical Medicine, Antwerp, Belgium
- ²Vaccines and Immunity Theme, Medical Research Council Unit, The Gambia, Banjul, The
 Gambia
- 13 ³Center for Global Health Security and Diplomacy, Ottawa, Canada
- ⁴Department of Biomedical Sciences, Antwerp University, Antwerp, Belgium
- ⁵Department of Medical Microbiology & Parasitology, University College Hospital, Ibadan,
 Nigeria
- ⁶Department of Medical Microbiology & Parasitology, College of Medicine, University of
 Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria
- 19 ⁷Center for Tuberculosis Research, Nigeria Institute of Medical Research, Lagos, Nigeria
- ⁸Division of Infectious and Tropical Diseases, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine,
- 21 London, United Kingdom
- ⁹Medical School, University of Warwick, Coventry, United Kingdom
- ¹⁰ Bernhard-Nocht Institute for Tropical Medicine, Hamburg, Germany
- ²⁴ ¹¹School of Chemistry and Biosciences, University of Bradford, Bradford, United Kingdom

26 *Corresponding Author: Conor J. Meehan, University of Bradford, Richmond Building,

27 Richmond Road, BD7 1DP, UK, c.meehan2@bradford.ac.uk

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29 Summary:

The geographically restricted *Mycobacterium africanum* lineages (MAF) are primarily found 30 31 in West Africa, where they account for a significant proportion of tuberculosis. Despite this phenomenon, little is known about the co-evolution of these ancient lineages with West 32 Africans. MAF and *M. tuberculosis* sensu stricto lineages (MTB) differ in their clinical, in vitro 33 and in vivo characteristics for reasons not fully understood. Therefore, we compared 34 genomes of 289 MAF and 205 MTB clinical isolates from the 6 main human-adapted M. 35 tuberculosis complex lineages, for mutations in their Electron Transport Chain and Central 36 Carbon Metabolic pathway in order to explain these metabolic differences. Furthermore, we 37 38 determined, in silico, whether each mutation could affect the function of genes encoding 39 enzymes in these pathways.

We found more mutations with the potential to affect enzymes in these pathways in MAF
lineages compared to MTB lineages. We also found that similar mutations occurred in these
pathways between MAF and some MTB lineages.

Generally, our findings show further differences between MAF and MTB lineages that may
have contributed to the MAF clinical and growth phenotype and indicate potential adaptation
of MAF lineages to a distinct ecological niche, which we suggest includes areas characterized
by low oxygen tension.

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48 **Running title**: The *M. africanum* respiratory chain and carbon metabolic pathway

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52

53 1 Introduction

The *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex (MTBC) consists of a group of human–adapted ecotypes- *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* sensu stricto, *Mycobacterium africanum*, *Mycobacterium canetti* and animal-adapted ecotypes (1-4). There are seven known MTBC lineages (L) associated with particular geographic regions and adapted to specific human populations. These are the five lineages that make up *M. tuberculosis* sensu stricto (lineages 1-4 and lineage 7) and the two *M. africanum* lineages (lineages 5 and 6). Africa uniquely has a representation of all seven lineages.

61 MTBC strains from the seven lineages differ on average by about 1200 single nucleotide 62 polymorphisms (5), with clear distinction between MAF and MTB lineages (6-8).

MTB Lineages 2 and 4 are more widespread geographically, more pathogenic and more 63 transmissible, while MAF Lineages are exclusively found in West Africa and less transmissible 64 (5, 9, 10). Clinically, MTB L4 is relatively more virulent than MAF L6 as evidenced by 65 significantly faster progression, in contacts of infectious cases, to active disease (11). MAF 66 lineages are associated with extrapulmonary disease and MAF L6 more commonly causes 67 68 disease in immunocompromised persons and those with lower Body Mass Index, implying a more opportunistic pathogen (10, 12). Furthermore, MAF L5 and L6 grow markedly slower 69 70 than MTB and prefer microaerobic growth conditions (13-15). Reasons for these differences are not completely known, although ours and other's previous studies have attempted to 71 explain some of the observations. A study documented non-synonymous SNPs or frameshift 72 mutations in some genes associated with growth attenuation in MAF and higher mutation 73 frequency in genes necessary for transport of sulphur, ions and lipids/fatty acids across the 74 cell membrane (14). Another reported under-expression of, and MAF L6 specific mutations 75 76 in, dormancy regulon genes, a network of genes crucial for the survival of MTB during hypoxia 77 or anaerobiosis (15, 16).

Genes that encode proteins involved in nutrient metabolism and respiration, which are closely linked and together govern bacterial growth and survival, and those of unknown function, the conserved hypotheticals, are highest among the 4173 MTB H37Rv genes reported, emphasizing the importance of the nutrient metabolic and respiratory pathways (17).

As obligate aerobes, the mycobacteria respire and produce energy from varied nutritional or 83 energy sources, such as carbon sources (18, 19). These enable the bacteria even to maintain 84 metabolism without growth. The nutritional demands of the mycobacteria have been a topic 85 86 of interest for over 100 years. Pioneering work throughout the 20th century elegantly showed that mycobacteria had unique nutritional requirements (20-29). Central to these findings was 87 88 that different members of the MTBC were supported by different nutritional sources and consistent results of multiple phenotypic studies led to differentiating members of the MTBC 89 based on their nutritional requirements (20, 30). For instance, it was observed that MTB 90 91 showed eugonic growth on glycerol, while colonies of MAF and *M. bovis* were dysgonic, 92 indicating an inability to properly utilize this carbon source. MAF and *M. bovis* were only able 93 to show luxurious growth in the presence of sodium pyruvate (20, 30). Furthermore, MAF was 94 found to grow small umbilicated colonies, which on paraffin embedded thin sections revealed 95 extension deep into the media, rather than the surface (31).

Almost all the energy used by the bacteria is derived from the Central Carbon Metabolic Pathway. After nutrients are metabolized through this pathway, reducing equivalents are generated that eventually enter into the Electron Transport Chain for the generation of significant amounts of Adenosine Triphosphate (ATP) (18, 32).

100 Mycobacteria generate ATP via substrate level phosphorylation and oxidative 101 phosphorylation, which produces more ATP through the activity of the F₁-F₀ ATP synthase in 102 the Electron Transport Chain. Substrate level phosphorylation alone is insufficient to support 103 growth of these bacteria (18).

104 Genome sequencing analyses show that the mycobacteria possess a branched respiratory pathway for electron transfer from electron donors to acceptors under different growth 105 conditions. However, it appears that the transfer of electrons to oxygen, which seems to be 106 107 the most preferred terminal electron acceptor, occurs with little plasticity, given that only two 108 terminal oxidases have been found in mycobacteria, the bioenergetically more efficient aa3type cytochrome c and the less efficient cytochrome bd-type menaquinol oxidases (33). 109 During hypoxia or anoxia, mycobacterial growth is inhibited, even in the presence of alternate 110 terminal electron acceptors within the branched respiratory chain such as fumarate and 111

112 nitrate reductase. However, mycobacteria are still able to adapt and maintain metabolic113 functions (33).

114 Therefore, an intact Central Carbon Metabolic pathway and Electron Transport Chain are 115 essential to mycobacterial growth and survival.

The importance of comparative genomics in unravelling the basis of distinct metabolic 116 117 phenotypes in the MTBC has been shown. Using molecular genomic approaches, previous authors found that the inability of *M. bovis* to use glycerol and carbohydrates as sole carbon 118 sources and its requirement for pyruvate in growth media was caused by a single nucleotide 119 polymorphism in the pykA gene, encoding pyruvate kinase, resulting in a Glu220Asp amino 120 121 acid substitution and causing the disruption of sugar catabolism (34). This mutation was also found in 3 MAF strains tested in the same analysis. Additionally, the authors showed that a 122 frameshift at codon 191 of the *qlpK* gene of the same *M. bovis* strain led to an incomplete 123 124 coding sequence and the inability to use glycerol, although this glpK mutation was not present 125 in all *M. bovis* strains.

Therefore, we aimed to investigate the genes involved in central carbon metabolism and respiration in the MTB and MAF lineages using a whole genome sequencing approach coupled with comparative genomics. We find important differences between the MAF and MTB lineages in their energy and nutrient metabolic pathways that likely contributed to the phenotypic differences observed between these lineages.

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132 2 Materials and Methods

133 2.1 Ethical Statement

The study was conducted within the framework of an intervention trial of Enhanced Case Finding (ECF) in the Greater Banjul Area of The Gambia (Clinicaltrials.gov NCT01660646), piloted in 2012 and conducted between 2013 and 2017. This study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations of the Joint Gambia Government/MRC Ethics Committee and the Institute of Tropical Medicine, Antwerp Institutional Review Board. The protocol, including bacterial sub-studies, was approved by the Joint Gambia Government/MRC Ethics Committee and the Institute of Tropical Medicine, Antwerp

Institutional Review Board. Nigerian isolates were collected from Southwest Nigeria within the West African Node of Excellence for TB, AIDS and Malaria (WANETAM) with the recommendations of the University of Ibadan and University College Hospital, Ibadan Joint Ethical Review Committees and the Nigerian Institute of Medical Research, Institutional Board (35). All subjects gave written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and were anonymized.

147

148 2.2 Bacterial isolates

149 In The Gambia, MTB L4 followed by MAF L6 are the most isolated MTBC lineages. For almost

a decade, the prevalence of all the MTBC lineages isolated in The Gambia has remained

151 constant at 4.3% (L1), 2.5% (L2), 0.8% (L3), 57.2% (L4), 1.0% (L5), and 35.4% (L6) (36).

Within the framework of the ECF study conducted in the Greater Banjul Area, we sequenced 152 280 MAF L6 (32%), 3 MAF L5 (0.3%), 19 MTB L1 (2.2%), 36 MTB L2 (4%)(Beijing), 10 MTB L3 153 (1%) and 534 (60.5%) MTB L4 consisting of 85 MTB L4 Cameroon (9.6%), 15 MTB L4 Ghana 154 (1.7%), 224 MTB L4 Haarlem (25.3%), and 211 MTB L4 LAM (23.9%). Given that only 3 MAF 155 156 L5 were isolated from The Gambia within the period of analysis, we included 6 MAF L5 from Nigeria (Eastern West Africa), to improve the representativeness of this lineage. 157 Of this dataset, we analyzed the whole genome sequences of all 280 MAF L6 strains, the 3 158 159 MAF L5 isolated from The Gambia and the 6 MAF L5 from Nigeria, resulting in a total 289 MAF strains. For the MTB lineages, we analyzed a total 205 strains consisting of all 19 MTB 160

161 L1, all 10 MTB L3 and 15 MTB L4 Ghana, 35 MTB L2 and a random number of L4 Haarlem

162 (44), Cameroon (36) and LAM (46), while ensuring that all MTB L4 sublineages isolated were

represented and isolates from each year of isolation, 2012 to 2014, were included.

164 2.3 DNA Extraction

Genomic DNA was extracted from loopfuls of pure MTBC colonies grown on Lowenstein-Jensen media (37) using the Maxwell 16 DNA Purification Kit (Promega). DNA from Nigerian strains was extracted using the Cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (38).

168 2.4 Whole-genome sequencing

Sequencing of MTBC isolates was performed at MicrobesNG, Birmingham; GenoScreen, France; FISABIO, Valencia or the Beijing Genome Institute (BGI), Beijing. Sequencing reads were generated on a HiSeq or Miseq platform (IIIumina). Quality control was performed for each provider to ensure adequate sequencing depth (>30X) and genome coverage (>95% of the H37Rv reference strain). Raw Illumina reads have been deposited in the ENA with accession <to be undertaken on acceptance>.

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176 2.5 Bioinformatics Analysis

177 2.5.1 Mapping and Variant calling

We used Snippy version 3.1 for the analysis of genomes. Briefly, paired-end raw reads of each 178 179 sample were mapped to the *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv reference genome (GenBank accession number: NC 000962.3) using BWA-MEM 0.7.12 (39). Mapped reads were converted to the 180 SAM/BAM format and sorted using Samtools 1.3 1 (40). Variant calling was done using 181 Freebayes 0.9.20 (41). Variants were called only if ≥10 reads covered variant positions and 182 183 \geq 90% of those reads differed from the reference. Genes were annotated with SnpEff 4.1 (42). Samples were assigned to MTBC lineages based on the classification of Coll and colleagues 184 (43) using the VCF output of snippy and the PhyResSE SNP list (44). 185

186 2.5.2 Phylogenetic analysis

Using the Snippy output folders of all isolates and custom python scripts, a SNP alignment and a count of all excluded invariant sites were created. A maximum-likelihood (ML) phylogeny was inferred using RAxML version 8.2.9 (45) executing a thousand rapid bootstrap inferences under the general time-reversible (GTR) model, with ascertainment bias correction using the Stamatakis reconstituted DNA approach (46, 47). The resulting tree was exported to interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) for visualization (48).

193 2.5.3 Protein Predictions

194 The effect of amino acid substitutions were predicted using PROVEAN software tools at 195 default settings (PROVEAN protein) (49-51). The PROVEAN NCBI non redundant 2012

196 database is a newer and larger sequence database than SIFT databases (52) but comparable 197 to SIFT in prediction accuracy. A PROVEAN score of \leq -2.5 implies that the amino acid 198 substitution could impact negatively on protein function.

199

200 3 Results and Discussion

Given that generalists and specialists differ in the vastness of their ecological niches (53), and thus carbon sources, we compared the specialist MAF lineages (289 strains) to the generalist MTB lineages (205 strains) for genomic differences in their Electron Transport and Carbon metabolic pathways. These pathways are intrinsically linked and are central to deriving energy (ATP) from carbon sources (Figure 1).

206 Understanding differences in metabolism and respiration between the MTBC lineages is also pertinent for tackling TB as mycobacterial central metabolism and respiration have re-207 emerged as potential targets for TB chemotherapy. The new TB drug, Bedaquiline (TMC207) 208 209 and the drug candidate, Telacebec (Q203), both target the respiratory chain (54-56) and even the repurposed drug Clofazimine, and another new drug, Delamanid, reportedly interfere 210 211 with redox cycling and cellular respiration by generating Reactive Intermediates (57-61). Thus respiratory inhibitors may offer the next generation of core drugs against mycobacterial 212 213 diseases (62) and there is a pressing need to understand the differences in these processes 214 between the different lineages of the MTBC.

It is now increasingly apparent that genetic and metabolic differences between the MTBC 215 human-adapted lineages have the potential to affect transmission, diagnostics and treatment 216 (5, 63-68). Moreover, niche adaptation is influenced by the metabolic requirements of an 217 organism, a consequence of evolution. However, the extent of such genetic changes and their 218 potential metabolic effects has not been well explored. In this study, we found a large number 219 of mutations with the potential to negatively affect gene function (hereafter referred to as 220 harmful mutations), particularly in MAF lineages (Figure 2 and Figure 4). However, we also 221 observed that similarities in these pathways occurred between some MTB and MAF lineages 222 potentially due to convergent evolution. 223

224

3.1 Mutations in genes encoding Central Carbon Metabolic pathway enzymes.

We examined mutations in all genes in the glycolytic pathway, the Tricarboxylic Acid cycle and the Methylcitrate Cycle. Genes and enzymes in these pathways contribute directly to the growth and virulence of the MTBC, by generating products that feed directly into the Electron Transport Chain (69). Therefore, mutations, with the potential to affect proper function of these genes and their gene products, would have obvious consequences downstream, for energy generation, survival and ultimately, the virulence of members of the MTBC.

232 **3.1.1 The Glycolytic Pathway**

In MAF lineages, all genes leading to the breakdown of sugars to 2-phosphoglycerate at the 233 seventh step (Figure 2 and Figure 3), were generally conserved. However, at the critical stage 234 235 of pyruvate metabolism, mutations with the potential to affect the normal function of Enolase 236 (eno), Pyruvate kinase (pykA) and Pyruvate carboxylase (pca) were detected. Enolase is 237 responsible for the penultimate step of glycolysis, where 2-phosphoglycerate is converted to Phosphoenolpyruvate. Pyruvate kinase modulates the irreversible reaction converting 238 239 Phosphoenolpyruvate to Pyruvate while Pyruvate carboxylase drives the conversion of Pyruvate to Oxaloacetate. Of these three genes, it had previously been shown, in *M. bovis* 240 and 3 MAF strains, that the mutation in *pykA* rendered the critical enzyme pyruvate kinase 241 inactive, resulting in a metabolic block at the level of pyruvate biosynthesis (34). We also 242 confirm this mutation in the MAF strains we analyzed in our study (Figure 2). However, to the 243 244 best of our knowledge this is the first report on lineage-specific mutations with potentially harmful effects in the essential gene eno, in MAF L6. eno is found on the surface of many 245 pathogenic bacteria and beyond its primary role in glycolysis, aids in tissue remodeling and 246 247 invasion of host cells (70). This gene was recently reported as a novel target for the 2aminothiazoles of the aminothiazole (AT) series, that exerted its effect by inhibiting eno in 248 249 MTB H37Rv (L4 strain). Therefore, the potentially harmful mutations we detected in *eno* may 250 affect energy metabolism and potentially contributes to the metabolic block at the level of 251 pyruvate biosynthesis, further reducing the fitness of L6.

252 Unlike the MAF lineages, MTB lineages, notably, did not have any potentially harmful 253 mutations in *eno* and *pykA* (Figure 2 and Figure 3), implying a general ability to complete 254 glycolysis. However, mutations were detected in Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase (*pgi*) in L4

LAM and in Phosphofructokinase B (*pfkB*) in MTB L3, at the second and third steps of glycolysis 255 respectively, where Glucose-6-phosphate is converted to Fructose-6-phosphate and 256 subsequently to Fructose-1-6-biphosphate (Figure 3). pgi is essential for the in vitro growth 257 258 of *M. tuberculosis*, and *M. smegmatis pqi* mutants are glucose auxotrophs. Moreover, an 259 additional role for pgi in cell wall biosynthesis was reported (37, 71-73). Therefore, pgi is 260 important and the effect of the predicted harmful mutations we detected in pgi in L4 LAM should be investigated. However, the defect in *pfkB* in MTB L3 is unlikely to affect glycolysis 261 given that Phosphofructokinase activity has so far only been associated with *pfkA*, where a 262 263 *pfkA* deletion mutant was neither able to grow on glucose in vitro nor to have any detectable 264 Phosphofructokinase activity; the mutant could not be rescued by expressing *pfkB* (32, 74).

Interestingly, additional genes, Pyruvate carboxylase (*pca*) in MAF L5 and MTB L3 and Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (*pckA*) in MTB L4 Cameroon, were mutated at the level of pyruvate metabolism (Figure 3). *pca* and *pckA* secrete enzymes that contribute significantly to the control of metabolic flux to glycolysis, gluconeogenesis and anaplerosis. These genes carry out functions related to cholesterol detoxification and lipogenesis during intracellular survival and *pckA* was shown to be essential for virulence in *M. bovis* (75, 76).

271 **3.1.2 The Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle**

At the final stage of glycolysis, pyruvate is generated and converted to Acetyl Coenzyme A (Figure 1 and Figure 3), that is fed into the critical Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle (TCA), for the release of reducing equivalents into the Electron Transport Chain. Therefore, the ability to complete this cycle, whether by progression through all stages of the cycle or via the crucial glyoxylate by-pass, is essential for the generation of ATP.

277 Overall, genes encoding enzymes of the TCA cycle were largely conserved in MAF and MTB 278 lineages, however, in MTB L1-L3, L4 Haarlem, L4 Ghana and MAF lineages, we found 279 potentially harmful mutations in Isocitrate lyase (*icl2a*) and Isocitrate dehydrogenase (*icd2*).

Emphasizing the importance of the glyoxylate shunt, *M. tuberculosis* strains lacking both ICLs are unable to grow on fatty acids in vitro, establish and maintain a chronic infection in mice and were said to be the most severely attenuated strains (32, 77). In our analysis, we found the frameshift mutation previously found in H37Rv, an L4 strain (78), which we, for the first time to the best of our knowledge, also report in MTB L4 Haarlem and Ghana, MTB L1, L2, L3,

285 MAF L5 and L6, yet, interestingly, not in MTB L4 Cameroon and LAM (Figure 2, Figure 3 and 286 Table 1).

As stated earlier, in section 3.1.1, Pyruvate carboxylase (*pca*), that converts pyruvate to oxaloacetate towards the final stage of glycolysis, was mutated in L5, however, at the last step of the TCA cycle, malate dehydrogenase (*mdh*) that converts malate to oxaloacetate, was also mutated (Figure 2, Figure 3 and Table 1), implying that both routes for the production of oxaloacetate in MAF L5 have mutated genes. Given that oxaloacetate feeds not only into the TCA cycle but also into the methylcitrate cycle, impaired function of *mdh* may affect energy metabolism in MAF L5.

Overall, with major blocks in Central Carbon Metabolism in MAF lineages, the number of 294 reducing equivalents produced via the central carbon metabolic pathway for electron 295 transport may be lower. MTB lineages largely had a conserved glycolytic pathway and TCA 296 297 cycle, however, different MTB lineages have previously been shown to have different growth 298 rates and patterns (79-81). Notably, the growth rate of MTB L3 is reportedly lower compared to other MTB lineages (79, 80). Therefore, in MTB lineages/sublineages where we found more 299 300 potentially harmful mutations, particularly in MTB L3, further investigations on the effect of these mutations on energy metabolism need to be carried out as slower growth of these 301 lineages may be directly linked to impaired energy metabolism. 302

303

304 3.2 Mutations in genes encoding Electron Transport Chain enzymes

As reducing equivalents, like NADH, from the Central Carbon Metabolic Pathway deliver electrons into the Electron Transport Chain, NADH dehydrogenases serve as the gateway of the Electron Transport Chain in the MTBC and electrons are transferred from NADH oxidation to quinone reduction and ultimately to ATP synthase for ATP production in greater quantities (Figure 1). Therefore, defects in the Electron Transport Chain are bound to affect the net yield of ATP generated.

Relative to MTB lineages, MAF lineages had multiple mutations predicted to affect the normal
function of genes encoding key enzymes of the Electron Transport Chain (Figure 4 and Figure
5).

Potentially harmful mutations were detected in *ndhA*, *pruB*, *qcrC*, *ctaB*, *frdA*, *atpHG*, *sdhA* and *ald* (Figure 4, Figure 5, Table 2 and Supplementary File S3). Interestingly, for some MTB lineages, mutations predicted to affect gene function were also found in *ndhA*, *Rv0249c*, *frdB*, *atpD*, and *nuoDHF* (Figure 4, Figure 5, Table 2 and Supplementary File S4).

318 3.2.1 NADH dehydrogenases

319 To receive NADH from central metabolism into the Electron Transport Chain, *M. tuberculosis* 320 possesses two NADH dehydrogenases, NDH-1 and -2. NDH-1 has 14 subunits (*nuo*A-N) while two copies of NDH-2 exist in *M. tuberculosis: ndh* and *ndhA*. Between the two NADH 321 dehydrogenases, an essential role of *ndh* for the growth of *M. tuberculosis* was reported 322 previously and a function of *ndh* in recycling NADH and maintaining an energized membrane 323 was documented (33, 82). Even though *ndhA* was previously reported to be dispensable for 324 growth, it was recently shown that both *ndh* and *ndhA* differentially control oxygen 325 consumption (82). In fact, ndh was also shown to be dispensable for growth of M. tuberculosis 326 327 but deletion of both *ndh* and *ndhA* prevented growth altogether in standard media and resulted in attenuated growth in mice (82, 83). We found a potentially harmful mutation in 328 329 ndhA in all MAF L5. Given the adaptation of MAF lineages towards a microaerophilic lifestyle, ndhA may be redundant in MAF L5 and defects in this gene may have coincided with the 330 331 adaptation to a microaerophilic lifestyle (84).

No potentially harmful mutations were detected in the essential *ndh* in any analyzed genome.
This implies that the function of *ndh* is likely conserved across the MTBC lineages.

334 3.2.2 Succinate dehydrogenases

Succinate dehydrogenase 1 (*Rv0247c-Rv0249c*, SDH-1) functions during aerobic respiration when oxygen and nutrients are abundant, while SDH-2 (*sdhABCD*) functions during hypoxia/anaerobiosis, when nutrients are limited (33, 85, 86) (Figure 5). Succinate dehydrogenases are a direct link between the TCA cycle and electron transport and typically reduce succinate to fumarate (87).

The only potentially harmful mutations we detected in the Succinate dehydrogenases were in *sdhA* of SDH2 in a clade of MAF L6 and in SDH1, *Rv0249c*, in a clade of MTB L1 (Figure 4). Given the essential role of SDH1 for growth and survival, where the deletion of SDH1 was

shown to impair the rate of respiration through the Electron Transport Chain and to reduce
cell viability (85), future studies should determine if electron transport and aerobic respiration
are affected in certain MTB L1 strains, as recent studies report slower growth and a lower
odds to grow in culture for MTB L1 and the MAF lineages (67, 79).

347 3.2.3 Cytochrome bc1-aa3 complexes and Cytochrome bd oxidase

Electrons from Succinate dehydrogenases, move into the quinone pool, ready for transfer to the third and fourth complexes Cytochrome bc1-aa3 (*qcrABC* and *ctaBCDE*), during aerobic respiration, when oxygen is abundant, and to the less efficient cytochrome bd oxidase (*cydABCD*) when oxygen is limited (Figure 5).

352 The bc1-aa3 complexes are the major respiratory route in mycobacteria under standard 353 aerobic conditions and are essential for growth where they play a key role in oxidative phosphorylation and electron transport that yields more ATP (33, 88), yet in our analysis, we 354 355 detected potentially harmful mutations in *qcrC* and *ctaB* of the bc1-aa3 complexes in MAF lineages and intact gene complexes in MTB lineages (Figure 4 and Figure 5). To the best of our 356 knowledge, this is the first work demonstrating that the critical bc1-aa3 complex is mutated 357 in MAF lineages. This is perhaps crucial to understanding the difference in energy metabolism, 358 particularly oxidative phosphorylation, between the MTB and MAF lineages, especially 359 360 because MAF lineages preferentially grow microaerobically (15, 84, 89-91) and significantly 361 under-express the dormancy regulon required for adaptation to oxygen limitation (15). Notably, the Imidazopyridine amide in Phase 2 clinical trials, Telacebec (Q203), inhibits qcrB 362 of Cytochrome bc1, further emphasizing the importance of this complex for the survival of 363 MTB. Therefore, the predicted harmful mutations we found in *qcrC*, the heme of the 364 365 cytochrome bc1-complex, in MAF L6 (Figure 4 and Figure 5) likely impairs aerobic respiration and growth in this lineage severely, given that qcrC, like qcrB, is essential for survival (86). 366 367 Similarly, *M. smegmatis* strains that had mutations in the bc1-aa3 complex were significantly 368 growth impaired, confirming the essentiality of the bc1-aa3 respiratory pathway for mycobacterial growth. Recently, it was also confirmed that *M. tuberculosis* requires the bc1-369 aa3 complex to attain optimal growth rates and high titres in mice (83). 370

Taken together, our analysis provides further support for the view that MAF is adapted to a distinct niche, less dependent on aerobic respiration and more adapted to a microaerobic

373 lifestyle (15). Reasons for this potential niche adaptation and the benefit to the pathogen in374 its interaction with its host should be investigated further.

375 Ultimately, with an impaired bc1-aa3 complex, ATP yield will be reduced overall. This is likely 376 the case in MAF lineages. Therefore, we postulate that ATP yield through oxidative 377 phosphorylation in the MAF lineages is lower compared to the MTB lineages.

378 3.2.4 ATP Synthase

The F₁-F₀ ATP synthase itself, the target for Bedaquiline (54, 92), is rather conserved in the 379 different lineages. However, in MAF L5 and MTB L2 we detected potentially harmful 380 mutations in *atp* genes (Table 2). The F_1 - F_0 ATP synthase operon is encoded by *atpIBEFHAGDC* 381 382 and is required for survival as all genes in the operon are essential (71, 93). A defective ATP synthase may coincide with the microaerophilic lifestyle of MAF. However, for MTB L2, it is 383 not clear what the advantage is for acquiring mutations in genes encoding ATP synthase. 384 385 Interestingly though, compared to MTB L4, MTB L2 was found to have a lower growth rate 386 (79).

387 3.2.5 Fumarate reductase

The branched respiratory chain of *the* MTBC permits anaerobic survival. During hypoxic or 388 anaerobic conditions when oxygen is limited, Fumarate reductase (FRD, frdABCD) and Nitrate 389 reductase (NAR, narGHJI) can serve as terminal electron acceptors to maintain the membrane 390 391 potential. Therefore, these enzymes are critical. Moreover, further studies of *sdh* suggested 392 that FRD could partially compensate for a lack of SDH activity (94). Defects in any of the subunits of *frd* could limit the overall function of the FRD complex. Notably, the attenuated 393 394 strain H37Ra grown under low-oxygen conditions showed a lag in gene expression of frdA and frdB (95). The mutations we found in frdA and frdB in MAF L5 may be related to the adaptation 395 of this lineage to a hypoxic or microaerophilic lifestyle. Therefore, the effect of mutations on 396 gene function in MAF L5 and MTB L4 sublineage, Haarlem, should be determined 397 398 experimentally.

399 3.2.6 Alanine dehydrogenase and Proline dehydrogenase

Other key dehydrogenases that contribute to redox balance of NADH for initiation of electron
 transport were also mutated in the MAF lineages (Figure 4 and Figure 5), indicating potential

redox imbalance in MAF lineages with the likelihood to impede electron transport. From our 402 analysis, all MAF lineages had potentially harmful mutations in Alanine dehydrogenase (ald) 403 and all MAF L5 had potentially harmful mutations in Proline dehydrogenase (pruB). Proline 404 405 dehydrogenase is associated with the adaptation to hypoxia, slow growth rate and is essential for growth (71, 93, 96, 97). Alanine dehydrogenase has been shown to play a role in redox 406 407 balance during low oxygen conditions and the downshift of *M. tuberculosis* to the state of nonreplicating persistence. *ald* mutants had altered NADH/NAD ratios and significant delays 408 in growth resumption after reaeration. Additionally, induction of *ald* rescued the bc1-aa3 409 complex mutant while its disruption made the growth defect of the mutant worse (97, 98). 410

Given that *ald* and the bc1-aa3 complex were mutated in all MAF in our analysis, MAF lineages are most probably natural mutants of *ald* and the bc1-aa3 complex. It is possible that these mutations in the MAF lineages contribute significantly to their slower growth compared to MTB due to impaired energy production. Moreover, these polymorphisms further support the adaptation of MAF to a hypoxic niche.

416

417 3.3 Additional Mutations and similarities between MTBC lineages in the Central

418 Carbon Metabolic Pathway and Electron Transport Chain

We detected several other mutations in genes of the Central Carbon Metabolic pathway and Electron Transport Chain that could potentially impact on enzyme function (Supplementary File S5). However, their PROVEAN scores were above the cut-off for harmful mutations and thus any impact may be slight or only due to neutral evolution. *cydB* and *narG*, highly important genes in the Electron Transport Chain also had several mutations, but none predicted to be potentially harmful (Supplementary File S5).

For multiple genes in the Electron Transport Chain and the Central Carbon Metabolic pathway, we either found the same mutation occurring in the same gene or different mutations occurring in the same gene in the different MTBC lineages. These mutations may confer a selective advantage and/or contribute to adaptation (Supplementary File S5).

429 Of these, only those mutations detected in *pca* in MTB L3 and MAF L5, those detected in *icl2a*430 and those found in *ndhA* are potentially harmful.

Overall, more similarities occurred between MTB L1, MTB L3 and the MAF lineages. This is 431 interesting as the MAF lineages, MTB L1 and L3 lineages all reportedly grow relatively slower 432 than the MTB L2 and L4 lineages (14, 67, 79, 80, 99). We postulate that the slower growth 433 434 rate of these lineages and the similarities we observe in their metabolic pathways, may be 435 linked to their similar migration and dispersal patterns in Africa and Eurasia (100), where L2 436 and L4 have become widely dispersed, while L5, L6, and L7, had more geographically restricted expansion, adapting to more specific hosts. This may have influenced niche 437 adaptation, where L2 and L4, in line with increased dispersion and range expansion, also 438 increased their replicative/growth capacity and ability to transmit, while the more host 439 440 restricted lineages maintained a lower replicative/growth potential in line with expansion in 441 situ.

442

443 3.4 Limitations

Limitations of our analysis include the small sample size of MAF L5 analyzed. In the Gambia 444 and other countries in Western West Africa, the prevalence of L5 is significantly lower than 445 L6 (36). In our isolation of the 289 MAF strains included in this study, only 3 from The Gambia 446 447 were MAF L5. However, to ensure that the mutations we detected in L5 from The Gambia were more representative of the MAF L5 lineage, we included L5 from Nigeria (Eastern West 448 Africa), where the prevalence of L5 is high and L6 is significantly less likely to be isolated (101). 449 450 Another limitation is that we did not experimentally confirm any of our in silico phenotype predictions. 451

452

453 **4** Conclusion

In this comparative analysis, we describe genomic differences between the MTB and MAF lineages in genes encoding enzymes of the Electron Transport Chain and the Central Carbon Metabolic pathway, which may explain the differences in the clinical- and in vitro phenotype described for the MAF and MTB lineages. In vitro, MAF lineages grow significantly slower than MTB lineages and MAF L6 is, clinically, less virulent than MTB L4, as evidenced by significantly lower progression of MAF L6 infected individuals to active TB disease (11). Again, in vitro, MAF

lineages show microaerobic growth and clinically, are associated with extrapulmonary 460 461 disease, implying a preference for regions with low oxygen (10, 15). Furthermore, MAF L6 more commonly causes disease in immunocompromised persons, implying a more 462 463 opportunistic pathogen (12, 13). Generally, it appears from our analysis that compared to 464 MTB lineages, MAF lineages had the most mutated Central Carbon Metabolic and Electron 465 Transport Pathways, with mutations occurring in critical components of each pathway. The combined effect of a defective Carbon Metabolic Pathway and Electron Transport Chain in 466 MAF lineages, likely contributes to the reduced fitness of the MAF lineages. We speculate that 467 468 our findings may contribute to 1 - the slower growth of MAF lineages, 2 - relative attenuation 469 of the MAF L6 lineage compared to MTB lineages and 3 - host specificity to West Africans.

It is intriguing that in the different MTBC lineages multiple harmful mutations occurred in the same gene. These similarities largely found in MTB lineages 1, 2, 3 and the MAF lineages, indicates there may be a selective advantage for this. Interestingly, these lineages, compared to MTB L4 strains, have been associated with slower growth and cytokine induction patterns suggestive of immune evasion (8, 14, 67, 79-81, 99, 102, 103).

If the potentially harmful mutations we report on in this analysis affect energy metabolism in the different MTBC lineages, fitness will differ and ultimately the infection and transmission potential of these lineages. Therefore, our findings are not only relevant for TB product development but also for transmission studies and interventions. The literature already provides credence to and evidence for our hypothesis (9, 81, 104, 105).

480 4.1 Future Proposed Investigations

481 4.1.1 Functional Studies

Significant genomic differences between MTB and MAF lineages presented in this analysis 482 warrant further studies in order to properly characterize the regulatory network of MAF. 483 Recently, the regulatory network of H37Rv (MTB L4) was characterized yet what pertains to 484 485 MAF lineages is not clearly defined, even though it has been shown that master regulators 486 like PhoPR and Rv0081 as well as the DosR regulon are underexpressed and/or mutated in MAF (15, 106-108). It is possible that the PhoPR system controls other components of the 487 488 respiratory and central metabolic pathway although this is yet to be shown. We suspect that 489 the potentially harmful mutations we report on will produce different growth phenotypes

(Table 3). Therefore, we propose functional genomic assays followed subsequently by in vitro 490 491 and in vivo characterization of mutants to confirm the contribution to growth and survival 492 that each gene makes. Such studies on the MAF lineages are limited, but not for MTB, 493 particularly the generalist MTB L4. Recent studies provide data describing functional 494 consequences of synonymous SNPs (109-111), i.e. caution needs to be taken in inferring the 495 relative significance or impact of observed genomic mutations from sequencing data alone. 496 Therefore, further studies to correlate genotype with phenotype are necessary and our 497 findings serve as a prelude to such experimental studies.

498 4.1.2 Investigate Bioenergetics in MAF lineages

It is highly plausible that adaptation of MAF lineages to growth under low oxygen 499 500 (microaerobic) conditions could be a strategy to escape the harmful effects of ROS 501 generated as electrons leak from a defective respiratory chain and react with built up 502 oxygen (112). Moreover, reduced aerobic respiration or oxygen consumption in the MAF 503 lineages could potentially affect the sensitivity of rapid diagnostics like the automated MGIT 960 system, that depends on oxygen consumption to detect growth (113). Interestingly, the 504 505 percentage of MAF in certain parts of West and Central Africa was reported to have 506 suddenly and sharply declined over the last decade (4, 114-117), which could possibly be 507 due to the introduction and use of new diagnostics like the MGIT 960 system. Of note, we 508 recently detected, in a retrospective analysis based on genotyping, that 84% of strains that did not grow in the MGIT 960 system were MAF L6 (Ofori-Anyinam et al., unpublished). 509 510 Since growth and survival, driven by nutrient and energy metabolism, sustain pathogen 511 transmission, and given that the success of drugs and phenotypic diagnostics rely on 512 metabolic properties of the bacteria, understanding metabolism in these bacteria is 513 essential. We hypothesize that MAF lineages generate less ATP and are more exposed to ROS than MTB lineages (Table 3). Therefore, we propose studies to investigate energy 514 metabolism in MAF lineages relative to the MTB lineages, including whether MAF lineages 515 are more exposed to ROS during growth. 516

517 **4.1.3 Host Genetics**

518 One common feature of host specificity is genomic decay. Genomes of specialists usually 519 show signs of genome decay evidenced by gene deletions or gene inactivation via point 520 mutations. A driving force for the accumulation of mutations in some key electron transport

and carbon metabolism genes in the specialist/host-restricted MAF lineages could indicate 521 adaptation of the MAF lineages to a specific host, West Africans, or a niche within the host, 522 due to altered or loss of function of these genes. This potential niche adaptation could be 523 524 driven by a precise feature of the host environment that favors the association between MAF lineages and West Africans such as has been described for some diseases (118). Some findings 525 have been made, including MAF lineage-specific mutations in genes and pseudogenes 526 involved in vitamin B12 and vitamin B3 metabolism, important cofactor biosynthetic 527 pathways for many cellular functions. Unlike MAF though, MTB is fully capable of synthesizing 528 529 vitamin B12. Therefore, it has been suggested that the mutations in the vitamin B12 pathway 530 of the MAF lineages may affect their host range to West Africans. According to a study in the 531 United States, black persons reportedly have higher levels of vitamin B12 relative to other ethnicities (8, 10, 119-121). Future studies should investigate the molecular mechanisms 532 533 underlying host specificity.

534

- 5355Supplementary Information536Supplementary File S1537Supplementary File S2538Supplementary File S3539Supplementary File S4540Supplementary File S5
- 541

542 6 Author Contributions

BO, FG, BdJ and CM designed the study. BO, FG, AR, TJ, BS and CM undertook analyses. BO,
BdJ, FG and CM wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed discussion and reviewed the
final manuscript.

546

547 **7** Competing financial interests

548 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

549

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Figure 1: Link between central carbon metabolism and the Electron Transport Chain. 896 Reducing equivalents like NADH and FADH2 enter into the Electron Transport Chain that 897 drives the production high amounts of ATP for cellular 898 of processes

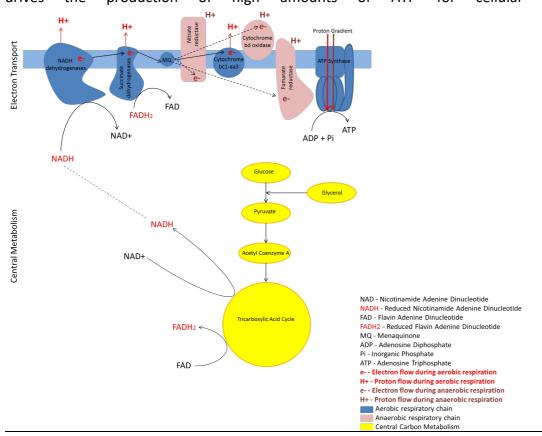
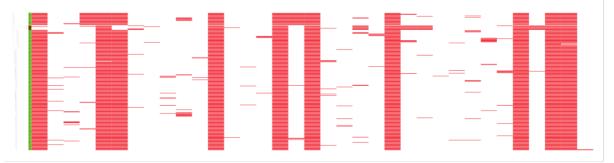
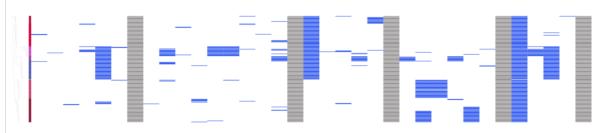


Figure 2: Mutations detected in the Central Carbon Metabolic Pathway of a) MAF L6 and MAF L5 and b) MTB L4 Ghana, L4 Haarlem, L1, L3, L2, L4 Cameroon and L4 LAM. Red and blue coloured bars represent nonsynonymous mutations detected in 50-100% of strains per lineage in the associated genes shown below each set of bars indicating mutations. Genes emboldened red have mutations detected predicted to be harmful in MAF lineages, genes emboldened blue have mutations detected predicted to be harmful in MTB lineages and genes emboldened purple have mutations detected predicted to be harmful in the same gene in MTB and MAF lineages. Grey bars indicate that no nonsynonymous and/or predicted harmful mutations were detected in the corresponding gene below each set of grey bars. First column colour indicates the lineage: a) MAF L6 (green) and MAF L5 (brown), b) MTB L4 Ghana (brown), L4 Haarlem (red), L1 (lilac), L3 (purple), L2 (blue), L4 Cameroon (pink) and L4 LAM (dark red).







aceE acn citA dlaT eno fba fum gap glcB glpD1glpD2 glpK glpX gpgP icd1 icd2 icl1 icl2a icl2b korA korB lpdC mdh pca pckA pfkA pfkB pgi pgk pgmAppgk prpC prpD pykA tpi

Figure 3: Mutations in the Central Carbon Metabolic Pathway of MAF and MTB. Genes with a **red** colour code have harmful mutations in MAF lineages, indicated next to the gene. Genes with a **blue** colour code have harmful mutations in MTB lineages, while genes in **purple** have harmful mutations in the same gene in MAF and MTB lineages.

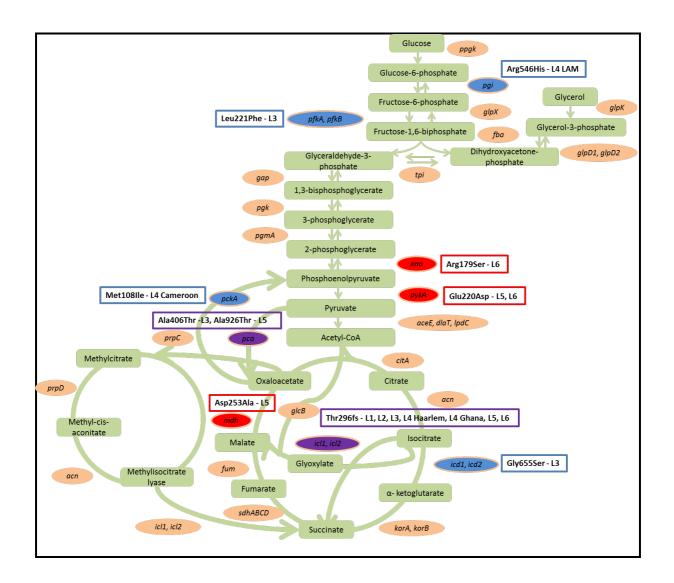


Figure 4: Mutations detected in the Electron Transport Chain of a) MAF L6 and MAF L5 and b) MTB L4 Ghana, L4 Haarlem, L1, L3, L2, L4 Cameroon and L4 LAM. Red and blue coloured bars represent nonsynonymous mutations detected in 50-100% of strains per lineage in associated genes shown below each set of bars indicating mutations. Genes emboldened red have mutations detected predicted to be harmful in MAF lineages, genes emboldened blue have mutations detected predicted to be harmful in MTB lineages and genes emboldened purple have mutations detected predicted predicted to be harmful in the same gene in MTB and MAF lineages. Grey bars indicate that no nonsynonymous and/or predicted harmful mutations were detected in the corresponding gene below each set of grey bars. First column colour indicates the lineage: a) MAF L6 (green) and MAF L5 (brown), b) MTB L4 Ghana (brown), L4 Haarlem (red), L1 (lilac), L3 (purple), L2 (blue), L4 Cameroon (pink) and L4

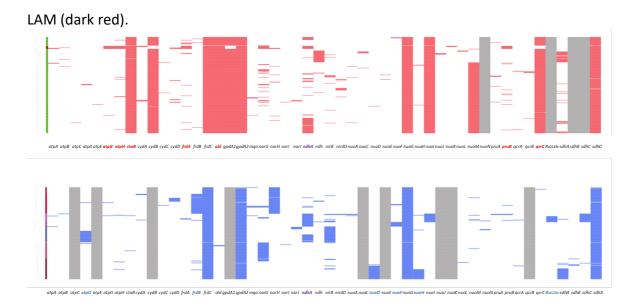


Figure 5: The core and alternate respiratory chain of mycobacteria during in vitro exponential growth when oxygen is abundant and when oxygen is limited. Mutations in MAF lineages are indicated in red boxes next to each affected complex. Mutations in MTB are indicated in blue boxes next to the affected gene while mutations found in the same gene in both MAF and MTB are shown in purple boxes. The core chain consists of type I NADH:menaquinone oxidoreductase (NuoA-N), succinate: menaquinone oxidoreductase 1 (SDH1), cytochrome aa3-bc supercomplex (Qcr-Cta) and F1F0-ATPase while the route used during oxygen limitation is composed of Type II NADH:menaquinone oxidoreductase (Ndh); succinate:menaquinone oxidoreductase (SDH2); nitrate reductase (Nar); Fumarate Reductase (Frd) and cytochrome bd oxidase (Cyd), a high affinity terminal oxidase allowing hypoxic survival.

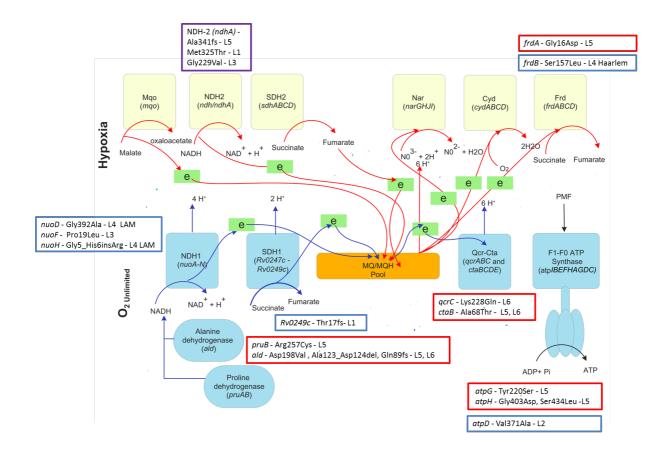


Table 1: Potentially deleterious mutations in genes encoding enzymes in the Central Carbon

Metabolic Pathway. List of all mutations found to be potentially harmful by PROVEAN (marked by a *) are listed. The full list of mutations is given in supplementary table S5.

Gene	MTB amino	МТВ	MAF amino	MAF
	acid change	Lineage	acid change	Lineage
pgi*	Arg546His	clade of L4		
		LAM		
pfkB*	Leu221Phe	L3		
eno*	Arg8Gly	L1, L2, L3	Arg8Gly	L5, L6
	Lys429Gln		Arg179Ser	
pykA*			Glu220Asp	L5, L6
pca*	Ala406Thr	L3	Ala926Thr	L5
icd2*	Gly655Ser	L3	Val447Met	L6
	Leu254Val		Lys117Asn	
mdh*			Leu326lle	L5, L6
			Ala112Thr	
			Asp253Ala	
icl2a*	Gly179Asp	L1,L2,L3,L4	Ala146Thr	L5, L6
	Thr296fs	Haarlem, L4	His151Arg	
		Ghana	Gly179Asp	
			Thr296fs	
pckA*	Met108lle	L4	Lys422Thr	L5
	Ala536Gly	Cameroon,		
		clade of L4		
		LAM		

Table 2: Potentially deleterious mutations in genes and gene subunits encoding ElectronTransport Chain enzymes. List of all mutations found to be potentially harmful by PROVEAN(marked by a *). The full list of mutations is given in supplementary table S5.

Gene	MTB amino	МТВ	MAF amino	MAF
	acid change	Lineage	acid change	Lineage
ndhA*	Asn360Ser	clade of L2	Ala341fs	L5
	Met325Thr	L1		
	Gly229Val	L3		
pruB*			Arg257Cys	L5
qcrC*			Lys228GIn	L6
ctaB*			Ala68Thr	L5, L6
cydB			Met98lle	L6
frdA*			Gly16Asp	L5
frdB*	Ser157Leu	L4 Haarlem		
atpG*			Tyr220Ser	L5
atpH*			Gly403Asp	L5
			Ser434Leu	
atpD*	Val371Ala	L2		
nuoD*	Gly392Ala	clade of L4		
		LAM		
nuoH*	Gly5_His6insArg	clade of L4		
		LAM		
nuoF*	Pro19Leu	L3		
Rv0249c	Thr17fs	clade of L1		
*				
ald*			Gln89fs	L5, L6
			Asp198Val	
			Ala123_Asp124del	

Table 3: Future proposed experiments.

Examination	Proposed Experiments	Predicted Phenotype/	
		Expected outcome	
Experimentally determine if	Mutagenesis experiments,	It is expected that the	
mutations detected in eno,	complementation studies,	reported mutations will lead	
pca, pgi, pckA, korB, fba,	Growth studies.	to attenuated growth.	
aceE and glpK of the	Mutagenesis studies would	J	
Glycolytic Pathway and TCA	involve introducing the		
cycle contribute to slow	mutations detected into L2,		
growth.	L4 or H37Rv and testing for		
0.0	attenuated growth through		
	growth studies or by		
	complementing MAF and		
	MTB L1 and L3 with a wild-		
	type allele and testing for		
	complementation of		
	growth.		
Experimentally determine if	Mutagenesis experiments,	It is expected that the	
mutations detected in <i>ndhA</i> ,	complementation studies,	reported mutations will lead	
pruB, qcrC, ctaB, frdAB,	Growth studies.	to attenuated growth.	
sdhA, atpDHG, ald, Rv0249c,	Mutagenesis studies would	to attenuated growth.	
	-		
	C		
respiratory pathway	mutations detected into L2,		
contribute to slow growth.	L4 or H37Rv and testing for		
	attenuated growth in		
	growth studies or by		
	complementing MAF and		
	MTB L1 and L3 with a wild-		
	type allele and testing for		

	complementation of		
	growth.		
Energy generation, in the	ATP quantitation assays.	MAF lineages will generate	
form of ATP, for cellular		less ATP via the respiratory	
processes		chain compared to MTB	
		lineages	
ROS accumulation and DNA	Flow cytometry experiments	Higher levels of ROS in MAF	
damage in MAF cultures	and terminal	cultures and greater DNA	
relative to MTB	deoxynucleotidyl	damage of MAF relative to	
	transferase dUTP nick end	MTB.	
	labelling (TUNEL) assay.		
Host-Pathogen interactions	Host genetics and Genome-	Specific genes in West	
driving geographic	wide association studies.	Africans have undergone	
restriction of MAF lineages		strong positive selection	
to West Africa		and increased the	
		susceptibility of West	
		Africans to MAF infection,	
		permitting host	
		restrictedness.	