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DIFFERENTIATION OF STRAINS OF *GIARDIA INTESTINALIS* BY IDENTIFICATION OF RESTRICTION FRAGMENT LENGTH POLYMORPHISMS (RFLP's) AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF A GENE LIBRARY.

A Thesis Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Microbiology

at

Massey University, Palmerston North
New Zealand

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1993
Giardia intestinalis is a flagellate protozoan which infects the gastrointestinal tract of humans and other mammals such as cats, dogs and farm animals. The organisms involved have been assigned to a single species, which might be taken to suggest the absence of host specificity, yet there is little epidemiological evidence to suggest that human infections are derived from nonhuman sources. This suggests some degree of host specificity which in turn implies the existence of different strains of Giardia intestinalis. Consequently, two related questions of public health interest can be raised: do animal strains of Giardia intestinalis infect humans and if not, how can cysts of human and animal origin detected in water samples be distinguished? If all or even some strains from animals fail to infect humans then it is probable that water may often be unnecessarily condemned as unsuitable for human use. Conversely, if animal strains infect humans then exclusion of animals from water catchment areas would be desirable. To clarify this situation, it is desirable to be able to distinguish individual strains of G. intestinalis and this thesis represents a preliminary attempt to do so using the techniques of molecular genetics.

Initial experiments attempted to detect Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLP's) produced by digests of total genomic DNA using a range of restriction endonucleases. The results were difficult to interpret because an excessive number of bands were produced. However, some denser bands, probably representing repetitive DNA sequences, were relatively well resolved and could allow comparisons between strains to be made. This repetitive DNA is GC-rich and was separated from most of the nonrepetitive genomic DNA by CsCl centrifugation in the presence of Hoechst 33258 stain. Using this approach, GC-rich fractions of DNA from several strains of G. intestinalis were compared using a variety of restriction endonucleases. Most did not reveal differences but digestion with some restriction endonucleases revealed minor differences. This demonstrated the potential usefulness of this approach in distinguishing between strains of Giardia but the procedure was laborious and required large amounts of DNA which could only be produced by the
culturing of organisms in bulk. This is not yet possible in the case of many strains of *G. intestinalis*, so it was concluded that an alternative approach using digests of total genomic DNA followed by electrophoresis, Southern blotting and hybridisation with specific DNA probes would represent both a better theoretical and practical approach. A desirable preliminary step to facilitate this approach is the production of a *Giardia* gene library and the latter part of this thesis describes this process.

The major problem encountered with the production of the library was that the DNA produced by a range of extraction methods was sheared and was present only in low concentration. This problem was traced to the presence of an excessive amount of polysaccharide which appeared to be strongly associated with unsheared DNA and hence caused it to be trapped at the interphase during phenol/chloroform extractions. As only the supernatant was retained, the high molecular weight DNA was largely lost during such extraction steps. This difficulty was overcome by precipitating the DNA with isopropanol at an early stage in the extraction method. This reagent does not precipitate the polysaccharides present in the cell lysate so that these are removed with the supernatant. The precipitated DNA was redissolved and, following conventional purification procedures, represented a high yield of unsheared DNA. Using this DNA, a library was made using LambdaGEM-11 Xho Half-site arms™ (Promega). Experiments showed that the library is representative of the genome of *G. intestinalis* and exceeded by 6-fold the number of clones required for a 99.9% probability that any particular sequence of interest is present.

The availability of such a library should permit the selection of suitable clones for use as probes to hybridise with total genomic digests to reveal differences between strains of *G. intestinalis*. The ability to distinguish strains would allow investigations of host specificity which may have implications for the formulation of testing procedures designed to prevent human infections of *G. intestinalis* but avoiding the unnecessary condemnation of water supplies containing *Giardia* strains that do not infect humans. The development of strain-specific probes would also serve as a useful epidemiological tool in tracing the source of infection within a community.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

God has made a way where there seemed to be no way
He works in ways we cannot see
He has made a way for me
He is my guide, He holds me closely to His side
With love and strength for each new day
He has made a way. (Don Moen)

My first thanks goes to the One who always has faith in me - no matter what.

I would like to thank the Department of Microbiology and Genetics for the use of facilities that have made this project possible. I would also like to thank my supervisor Assoc. Prof. John Clarke for guidance and support and for valuable help in the writing up of this thesis.

Thanks to Prof. Barry Scott and Yasuo Itoh of M.G.U. for help and inspiration in the construction of the gene library and Dr. George Ionas for help in the initial stages of this project. Thanks also to members of the Giardia group (past and present) - Phil, M & M's, Mitch, Jody, Dan, Morg, Kirsty and Erica for putting up with me, the Guess What?'s and sick jokes. You guys made the lab a fun place to be in (and ABBA Kirsty!).

Special awards for keeping sanity go to my great friends Merie, Sheree, Paul, Terence and Morgan - even if I destroyed yours. Awards for keeping humility go to Treacle, Roach, Ron, Stingle, Smurf, Jackie, Mitch, Paul, Vicki, Gail, Lo, Neroli and Garry, all the folk at C.C.C. (esp. the Worship Team) and Diana.

To my greatest support team - Dad, Mum, Cath, Ed, Cherith, Alan, Logan, Aaron, Nathan, Josiah, my grandparents, the Primes and all the other relleys - I thank God for the privilege of having such a great family.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.

*Giardia* is an aerotolerant anaerobic protozoan parasite of man and many other species of animals including mammals, birds and reptiles. On morphological grounds, three species have been proposed by Filice (43): *Giardia intestinalis; Giardia muris* and *Giardia agilis*. In addition, three more species; *Giardia psittaci, Giardia microti* and *Giardia ardeae* have recently been added to the list (33, 34, 39).

*G.intestinalis* is found in a wide range of mammalian hosts including humans while *G.muris* does not apparently infect humans but is found in animals especially rodents. Initially, it was thought that *Giardia* strains infected only one or a few host species which might imply that a different species or subspecies of *Giardia* is associated with each mammalian host (89). However in more recent studies, isolates from humans were shown to infect rats, mice, gerbils and other mammals at least under experimental conditions (89, 109). In contrast to this, other studies have shown *Giardia* isolates from humans were not easily transmitted to cats or dogs although cats and dogs are commonly and naturally infected with *Giardia*. Furthermore, there is little epidemiological evidence to support the conclusion that animal strains can be transmitted to humans with the possible exception of strains infecting beavers (1). This suggests that *G. intestinalis* strains show some degree of host specificity. If *Giardia* strains are host specific, it might reasonably be expected that some differences between strains would be found. However, there have been no consistent differences detected between *G. intestinalis* isolated from human and animal sources.

The lack of a test to distinguish between strains of *Giardia* means that any cysts detected in the environment, especially in water, have to be regarded (possibly incorrectly in many instances) as a danger to human health. Epidemiological evidence supports the conclusion that person to person transmission occurs primarily by the faecal-oral route. However, *Giardia* may be transmitted by food or may be waterborne (16).
While it is generally agreed that transmission by water occurs less often than transmission by other routes, it is nevertheless established that large outbreaks of giardiasis have been caused by contaminated water supplies (26a, 26b). This is unlikely to affect large conurbations where water supplies are adequately treated. However, small New Zealand towns with limited resources may fail to control and maintain water quality so such communities carry some risk of infection with waterborne Giardia cysts.

Cysts have traditionally been detected in water by a combination of filtration and staining. Recent improvements in filtration and staining techniques especially the application of immunological methods has increased the efficiency of the detection of cysts and at present, the mere detection of cysts in water is enough to justify the conclusion that it is unsuitable for use as potable water. However, this conclusion may be unjustified because the cysts may have been derived from an animal source and may be incapable of infecting humans. This thesis is concerned with this possibility and represents preliminary steps in a larger project designed to investigate the possibility of discriminating between various strains of G. intestinalis so that it may become possible to determine if cysts in water are or are not potentially infective for humans. To date, two general approaches, a classical biological approach and a molecular approach, have been employed in an effort to distinguish between Giardia strains.

The biological approach to strain differentiation has utilized such strategies as isoenzyme analysis (7, 12, 24, 80), drug sensitivity (17, 76), virulence and infectivity (4, 87), in vitro growth rates (13, 81), morphological differences using light and electron microscopy (33, 34, 39, 43), ability to axenize (81) and transmission studies (35, 65). In general, this approach was not successful although some minor strain variation was detected (16, 109, 118).

More recent approaches have employed molecular techniques such as the analysis of surface antigens (88, 113) and total proteins using SDS-Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blotting (73, 109). The Giardia genome
has also come under intense scrutiny with the use of such techniques as electrophoretic karyotyping (21, 112), Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) eg. to amplify ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene sequences (115, 118) and phage M13 fingerprinting (114). These techniques are discussed in greater detail elsewhere (see Chapter 2: Historical Review).

Another technique is to detect restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP's) which are formed when variation occurs in the sequence of a gene resulting in the creation or loss of specific restriction endonuclease sites. Noncoding regions of a gene are more likely to have varying sequences or allelic forms as random changes are less likely to have an adverse biological effect and consequently these regions do not have the same restriction on maintaining genetic sequence as coding regions. Thus strains may be differentiated by digestion of their DNA with restriction enzymes if changes have occurred within the genome. However, a few difficulties arise with this when using total genomic DNA digests as an excessive number of bands are generated (31, 37, 50, 89, 92). Because of this, following the initial use of total genomic DNA digests, we investigate here the possibility of examining a subcomponent of the total genomic DNA, namely the GC-rich fraction. However, this approach proved to be laborious and requires the in vitro culture of Giardia strains which in many, indeed most, cases is not yet achievable. Consequently, we also undertake at least the initial steps of what we believe to be a more productive approach namely Southern blotting of digests of total genomic DNA and hybridisation with selected probes. This, however, clearly requires the availability and selection of appropriate probes, the development of which would be greatly facilitated by the availability of a gene library. A major part of this thesis is concerned with the production of such a library.
CHAPTER 2: HISTORICAL REVIEW

2.1 THE BIOLOGY OF GIARDIA

2.1.1 Historical Background

*Giardia intestinalis* (syn. *duodenalis, lamblia, enterica*) was first discovered by Antony van Leeuwenhoek who, in 1681, observed the organism in his own stools (7, 16, 83). However, van Leeuwenhoek did not associate the organisms he saw were associated with the symptoms of disease he experienced. It was not until almost 200 years later that a physician, Vilem Lambl, described the organism he had found in children with dysenteric diarrhoea and associated the two (7, 16, 83). The cyst form of *G. intestinalis* was first noted by Grassi (1879) who first thought they might be coccidia and later associated them with the flagellated form of the organism (83).

Despite its early discovery, *Giardia* has only recently become universally accepted as a human pathogen. This delay occurred because *Giardia* infections are noninvasive and asymptomatic carriers are very common (1, 83). However, the occurrence of waterborne outbreaks of diarrhoea, the discovery of severe giardiasis in patients with hypogammaglobulinaemia and the fulfillment of Koch’s postulates in experimental human infections have confirmed its pathogenicity (1, 87).

2.1.2 Taxonomy and Nomenclature

*Giardia* belongs to the phylum Protozoa, subphylum Sarcomastigophora, class Zoomastigophora, order Diplomonadida and family Hexamitidae (70).

Filice (1952) divided the genus *Giardia* into three groups based largely on morphological criteria with an emphasis on the appearance of the median bodies: *Giardia intestinalis, Giardia agilis* and *Giardia muris* (43). Three additional species,
Giardia psitacci (33), Giardia microti (39) and Giardia ardeae (34), have recently been recognised as separate Giardia species. G. intestinalis is found in approximately forty different animal species including humans and other mammals, birds, and rodents (1, 16, 31, 53, 115). G. muris is primarily found in rodents and G. agilis is found only in amphibians (1, 16, 31, 53, 115). G. ardeae was isolated from the Great Blue Heron; Ardea herodias (34), G. microti was isolated from voles (39) and G. psittaci was isolated from a parakeet (33). The methods of species classification will be discussed later (see 2.4 Differentiation of Giardia).

2.1.3 Life Cycle and Morphology

Giardia has a diphasic lifestyle and exists in two forms; the binucleate trophozoite which is the vegetative stage and the quadrinucleate cyst which is the resistant, dormant stage (1, 104).

After a viable cyst is ingested it passes through the acidic stomach into the small intestine. Here excystation occurs within thirty minutes of ingestion to release two trophozoites from each cyst. The trophozoites attach, each by means of an adhesive disc, to the epithelial cells lining the upper small intestine and their activities are responsible for causing the symptoms of giardiasis (1, 5, 53).

The trophozoites multiply by binary fission. The nuclei divide first so that the cell has 4 nuclei followed by the flagella, sucking disc and finally the daughter cells separate. Encystment usually occurs in the large intestine and during this process the cell divides so that each newly formed cell has only two nuclei. As many as 100 million cysts can be shed by an infected host per day although cysts may be shed intermittently (71).

The Trophozoite Structure

The G. intestinalis trophozoite is approximately 10-12 µm long, 5-7 µm wide and 2-4 µm thick (1, 41, 71). The body of the trophozoite is pear-shaped, dorsoventrally
flattened and bilaterally symmetrical (Fig. 1), (41, 71). The cytoskeleton consists of a funis (body), a median body, a concave sucking disc on the ventral surface and four pairs of flagella (1, 41, 71). Golgi apparatus, two identical nuclei and lysosomal vacuoles are also present. Glycogen and ribosomal granules are present in the cytoplasm but mitochondria, peroxisomes, smooth endoplasmic reticulum and nucleoli have not yet been identified (1).

The median bodies lie behind the sucking disc as a pair of large, curved, tranverse, darkly staining organelles. Median bodies are unique to *Giardia* and are composed of microtubules arranged either irregularly or in ribbons. It has been suggested that they may help support the posterior end of *Giardia* or may be involved in energy metabolism. (1, 71).

The large ventrally located (concave surface) sucking disc is used to attach the trophozoite to surfaces and acts as a suction cup in attachment to the intestine (1, 71). The disc appears to be fairly rigid and is comprised of microtubules, cross-bridges attached to the microtubules and unique structures called microribbons which are perpendicular to both the microtubules and the cross-bridges. The microtubules contain tubulin whereas the microribbons contain a set of *Giardia*-specific proteins, found only in the ventral disc, called giardins (27, 28, 94).

The four pairs of flagella (anterior, caudal, posterior and ventral) are comprised of microtubules in the typical eukaryotic '9+2' arrangement (1, 41). Although flagellar motion is associated with motility the failure to find a selective inhibitor of flagellar function has meant the role of flagella is not yet well known (1). Studies have shown that adherence can occur in the absence of flagellar movement and that antibiotics which inhibit the adherence of *Giardia* spp. have no apparent effect on flagellar function (1). These results indicate that flagella are not important in adherence.

The two nuclei of *Giardia* trophozoites are morphologically identical and symmetrically positioned on either side of the midline (1). The nuclei each contain a haploid genome, the same number of chromosomes and replicate at approximately
Fig. 1: *G. intestinalis* trophozoites from an *in vitro* culture: (a) Scanning Electron Micrograph showing the edge of the ventral sucking disc and the flagella (scale and magnification shown) (b) Nomarsky Differential Interference Microscope (400x magnification). The nuclei, suction disc and flagella are visible.
the same time (2, 117). Furthermore, both nuclei appear to be transcriptionally active and also contain copies of ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes (63, 109). Thus *Giardia* spp. are unique in possessing two nuclei that are equivalent by all criteria. This raises the question of the selective advantage gained by the maintenance of two nuclei and the possibility of the exchange of genetic material (1).

The Cyst Structure.

*G. intestinalis* cysts are oval or eliptically shaped and range from 6-10 µm in size (1, 107). The cyst wall is approximately 0.3-0.5 µm thick, smooth in appearance and composed of a layer of fibrils arranged in a felt-like web. The cyst has a fibrous (filamentous) outer wall and an electron-dense inner membrane (Fig.2).

Proteins and sugars excluding chitin are found to be present in the cyst wall. The presence of a major sugar component, N-acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc), in cysts but not in trophozoites suggests that the synthesis of this outer cyst wall sugar during encystation may be a key biochemical process of encystation (1, 58). Inside the cyst wall, the organelles and structures found in the trophozoite can also be found. However, some are modified in shape (1, 41). Two or four nuclei, depending on whether nuclear division has occurred, are found at one pole of the cyst. Axonemes of the flagella, vacuoles, ribosomes and fragments of the ventral disc are also present (1, 41).

2.1.4 Cultivation

The establishment of *in vitro* or *in vivo* cultures of *Giardia* require the isolation of the organism from an infected host.
Fig. 2: *G. intestinalis* cysts: (a) Fluorescent Light Microscope using fluorescently-labelled antibody to the walls of cysts isolated from human faeces (400x magnification) (b) Nomarsky Differential Light Microscope showing an *in vitro* cultured cyst. The axonemes and suction disc are clearly visible (1000x magnification).
In Vitro Culture.

The development of an axenic (free of exogenous cells) culture medium for the *in vitro* growth of *G. intestinalis* trophozoites, TY1-S33 medium (82), has enabled the cultivation of large quantities of *G. intestinalis* trophozoites required for DNA extraction and analysis, metabolic activity and other studies.

The trophozoites form a monolayer when incubated anaerobically in tissue culture flasks, containing TY1-S33 medium, at 37°C and can be maintained following subculture and the addition of fresh medium to the flask (see Chapter 3). The pH (6.85-7.0) of the medium, as well as incubation temperature, is also important (45). Modified TY1-S33 medium, the medium used in this laboratory, contains bovine serum, bile salts, yeast extract, cysteine, ferric ammonium citrate and ascorbic acid (see appendix). Cysteine and low oxygen concentration are absolute requirements for axenic cultivation of trophozoites as without the presence of cysteine at required levels, the trophozoites are unable to attach to the culture flask and are also unable to divide (85).

Although axenic cultures have been successfully established for *G. intestinalis* and *G. ardeae* isolates, no satisfactory methods are available for culturing *G. muris*, *G. agilis* or *G. psittaci* *in vitro* nor for culturing the cysts of any *Giardia* spp. found in water samples (71). The development of axenic cultures from *G. intestinalis* cysts requires the cysts to undergo excystation. A variety of methods are available (18, 40, 42, 103, 106), many of which require the use of an acid medium to induce excystation followed by final incubation in a growth medium at 37°C. A different method of excystment is normally used for *G. muris* isolates due to the physiological differences between *Giardia* species (40).

*G. intestinalis* trophozoites can undergo encystment *in vitro* by the replacement of growth medium with modified TY1-S33 medium containing additional bile to a final concentration of 5 mg/ml.
**In Vivo Culture**

Animal models have been successfully used to cultivate *G. intestinalis* and *G. muris*. Most frequently used are laboratory strains of rats, mice, and hamsters. However, it is essential that such animals are found to be free of *Giardia* themselves before cultivation of strains or species under investigation can begin.

*G. intestinalis* can be cultured *in vivo* following the inoculation of 'Giardia-free' neonatal mice with trophozoites or 'Giardia-free' adult mice with large quantities of cysts (> $10^3$ cysts) (79). *G. muris* can also be cultured *in vivo* by the inoculation of mice with cysts (> $5 \times 10^3$ cysts) (79). The cysts are collected from the faeces of the infected mouse whereas the trophozoites are harvested following sacrifice of the mouse and removal of its intestine.

### 2.2 GIARDIASIS

#### 2.2.1 Pathogenesis and Clinical Illness

For many years *G. intestinalis* was considered to be either nonpathogenic or an opportunistic pathogen for humans because of the large numbers of asymptomatic carriers (71). Children are more frequently affected with giardiasis than adults. Factors other than age, such as infective dosage, host type, enteric bacterial infection, malnutrition, variable pathogenicity among strains of *Giardia* and reduced gastric acidity, may also play an important role in the determination of the degree of infection and the manifestation of the clinical symptoms of giardiasis (57, 71).

A minimum of ten viable ingested cysts are required for infectious dose (99). The incubation period (from infection until the symptoms occur) is usually 14 days, although this period may often last less than one week (1) and the prepatent period before *Giardia* can be detected in the stools is 10-31 days (71). Acute giardiasis usually lasts 3-4 days and is characterised by many symptoms; the most common of which is diarrhoea with loose, foul-smelling stools that are greasy, frothy or bulky
Other symptoms that usually accompany the disease are, in descending order of occurrence: weakness, weight loss, abdominal cramps, nausea, greasy stools, abdominal distention, flatulence, vomiting, belching and fever (44). The diarrhoea is thought to be caused by low-grade inflammation of the intestine brought about by the attachment of the parasites to the mucosa. Most of the other symptoms experienced appear to be secondary to the diarrhoea and either caused by it or, in severe cases, by dehydration (1, 44, 71).

The dense colonisation of trophozoites on the surface of columnar epithelial cells at the base of the villi of the intestine interferes with the absorption of fats and other nutrients by limiting the area available to absorb nutrients. This causes an increase in cell turnover leading to an accumulation of mucous and cytoplasm covering the intestine. Such malabsorption can lead to steatorrhoea, vitamin deficiencies (particularly vitamin B$_{12}$), interference with protein absorption, disaccharidase deficiency, hypocarotinemia, low serum folate levels, increased fat content of the faeces and, in children, a failure to thrive particularly in developing countries. (1, 44, 71). There are also reports that Giardia may cause low levels of all forms of gamma globulin (hypogammaglobulinemia) and diseases of the bile tract, liver, pancreas, and large bowel (6, 95). In addition, Giardia has been implicated with nodular lymphoid hyperplasia, mesentric adenitis and rectal bleeding (1, 44).

Several studies of chronic giardiasis have been demonstrated where the patients carried the parasite for up to 5 years. In such cases, constipation was common alternating with episodes of diarrhoea. Also associated with this syndrome were nasal allergies, asthma and an intolerance to milk (44). Fortunately giardiasis, although extremely uncomfortable, is not fatal.

2.2.2 Immunity

The humoral immune response appears to be critical for the elimination of infection both in human and animal models of giardiasis. While it is likely that secretory IgA is the most important component of this response it may also be possible that the
parasite may evade the immune response by the production of *Giardia* IgA protease and antigenic variation (1). Whether the antibody response in humans is T-cell dependent is unknown although the antibody response is cell-mediated (CD4) in *G. muris* infected mice (1).

Important forms of nonimmune protection include the intestinal mucous layer, intestinal motility and human breast milk for infants.

### 2.2.3 Diagnosis and Treatment

#### Diagnosis

The most commonly used method for the diagnosis of giardiasis is by direct microscopic examination of the stool for cysts and trophozoites (1, 71).

The detection of *Giardia* cysts in faeces requires multiple examinations of faecal samples as some hosts excrete cysts intermittently. Two to three faecal samples should be collected one to three days apart (75). In addition, the symptoms of illness may begin approximately 1-7 days before the excretion of cysts begins so the examination of faecal samples from such patients should be repeated where diagnosis of giardiasis has not been established (1, 71). Because cysts may be excreted intermittently by an infected host, only a positive result has any true meaning as a negative test does not prove that the patient is *Giardia* free.

Although a variety of techniques are available for the recovery and detection of *Giardia* cysts from faecal samples, the simplest, most commonly used, method involves the direct microscopic examination of faecal smears stained with a non-specific stain such as Trichrome or Grams iodine. The concentration of *Giardia* cysts with the use of zinc sulphate, percoll or sucrose gradients before staining is also common.

*Giardia* cysts can also be detected by a number of stains that are available
commercially. These stains include a Direct Fluorescent Antibody assay (DFA) (Cellab; Meridian), an Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay (ELISA) (Cellab) and an Indirect Fluorescent Antibody assay (IFA) (Meridian). An Enzyme Immuno Assay (EIA) (ProSpecT/Giardia™ test kit; Alexon Biomedical Inc.) specific for GSA65, a 65 kilodalton trophozoite antigen (100), is also available (79). The IFA and EIA assays are reported to be more specific and less labour intensive than the use of phase contrast microscopy to detect cysts stained non-specifically with iodine or trichrome or not stained at all (1, 102).

Treatment.

There are four main drug families that are used in treating giardiasis. These include quinacrine (Atabrine™); the nitroimidazoles: metronidazole (Flagyl™), tinidazole (Fasigyn™), nimorazole (Naxogin™) and ornidazole (Tiberal™); paromomycin (Humatin™) and furazolidone (Furoxone™). Each of these drugs is effective in curing the disease yet all, except Humatin, have some serious side effects (1).

Quinacrine is a highly effective (80-90% success rate) antimalarial drug that is usually administered as a 5-10 day treatment programme (1, 44). While gastrointestinal side effects are commonly experienced, other side effects such as nausea, vomiting, dizziness, severe skin rash and discolouration of the urine may also occur.

The broadspectrum nitroimidazoles are very effective for the treatment of giardiasis (62). However, their mechanism of action involves their reduction to either radicals or to intermediate compounds that bind to DNA or protein molecules. Consequently, these drugs are carcinogenic and should not be used for long term treatment.

Metronidazole is more than 90% effective when given as a 5-day treatment but concerns have been raised over its mutagenic qualities in bacteria and its ability to cause tumours in rats and mice (1, 44). Frequent side effects experienced with the use of this drug include nausea, headaches, dry mouth and metallic taste, skin rash
and vomiting (1, 44). Tinidazole is effective as a single dose treatment. However, although this drug is well tolerated by many patients (1), side effects such as allergic reactions, stomach upset, furry tongue and dark urine may occur (1, 44).

Nimorazole is administered as either a single dose (2g) or as a 12 hourly treatment over 36 hours. Commonly experienced side effects when using this drug include skin reactions, drowsiness, nausea and pyrosis (1). Ornidazole is given as either a single dose or a 2-day treatment (1). As with the other nitroimidazoles, patients undergoing ornidazole treatment for giardiasis may experience side effects such as headaches, dizziness and gastrointestinal intolerance.

Furazolidone is used for the treatment of giardiasis in small children because it is available in a liquid form. However, as with the nitroimidazoles, furazolidone is a suspected carcinogen as it binds to DNA and also inhibits respiration (1, 44). Paromycin (humatin) is used when the patient is pregnant as this drug has a minimal toxic effect on the patient and the foetus (1).

Patients who fail to respond to treatment usually respond to a second course of treatment either with the same drug or a new drug (1). Other factors such as rapid reinfection of the host, failure of the patient to comply with the treatment instructions, inactivation of the drug by superinfection with other organisms or any variations in the pharmacokinetics of drugs may also play a role in the failure of some drug treatments to eradicate infection.

The development of other effective drug treatments is hindered by the inability to perform clinical studies on many potential drugs. Such clinical studies are in turn limited by the difficulty in culturing Giardia spp. in patient samples and the lack of standardization of testing (1, 44). Ultimately, the development of an effective, single dose treatment drug with no/minimal side effects is desirable.
2.3 EPIDEMIOLOGY

2.3.1 Transmission

Transmission of giardiasis is facilitated by the diphasic lifestyle of *Giardia*. Trophozoites colonising the jejunum of the host encyst as they are passed through the distal portion of the small intestine and colon. These cysts remain viable in moist faeces until they are ingested. Infection follows ingestion of as few as ten viable cysts of *Giardia* (55, 99).

Although giardiasis is primarily transmitted person to person by the faecal-oral route, it may also be food or waterborne (1, 55). Mechanical transmission by insects has also been demonstrated experimentally where cysts have survived passage through the intestines of flies (99). However, the importance of this mode of transmission in the epidemiology of giardiasis is unknown at the present time (16).

(i) Direct Faecal-Oral Transmission

Since infection can occur with only a few *Giardia* cysts, populated areas with inadequate sanitation and a high proportion of susceptible individuals are at high risk of direct faecal-oral transmission of *Giardia*.

Studies in developing countries and in the poorer areas of developed countries support the importance of the faecal-oral mode of transmission especially in conditions of poverty, overcrowding, and where water supply and sanitation are inadequate (55). Childcare centres, preschools and kindergartens are also important to the spread of *Giardia* where despite good hygiene practises, young children show exploratory behaviour and place their fingers in their mouths (16, 55). Consequently, children in child-care centres not only have a greater chance of acquiring the infection but are subsequently likely to carry such infections to their families (16).

The possibility of transmission of *Giardia* by flies moving from faeces to food has
also been reported from India (46). In addition, the increased prevalence of giardiasis in homosexual males is most probably the result of faecal-oral transmission following certain sexual behaviour (96, 105).

The role of asymptomatic carriers may also serve as an important reservoir of *Giardia* cysts in the environment. Such people are less likely to seek medical treatment and so serve to continuously contaminate the environment (55).

(ii) Foodborne Transmission

Foodborne transmission of giardiasis occurs when faecally contaminated food is consumed. This contamination can be direct or indirect from faeces. Specifically, the cysts may be carried to food by water or by the use of wastes derived from human excrement in the fertilisation of garden and field crops especially since *Giardia* cysts have been shown to survive for as long as three months (93).

Only 3 reports of common-source outbreaks of eating contaminated food have been published (16) although a number of foods have been shown to harbour cysts including strawberries, Christmas pudding and lettuce (16). Contamination of food by food handlers who practise substandard hygienic practices may play a role in the transmission of disease in developing countries (55). The foodhandlers may act as reservoirs for the transmission of disease. Infected children may also transmit the cysts by sharing their food with their friends or younger siblings (16, 55). In addition, *Giardia* cysts may survive on moist foods which are not cooked prior to eating (49).

(iii) Waterborne Transmission

Waterborne giardiasis, the least common mode of transmission, currently ranks number one as a cause of waterborne illnesses and number four as a cause of waterborne outbreaks in the United States although its significance as a disease-causing agent did not become firmly established until the 1960's (5, 26a, 54).
In developed countries, waterborne outbreaks of giardiasis have occurred primarily in areas where water supplies were contaminated either by a failure of filtration systems or by direct contamination of water supplies with sewage (25). Craun (1986) compiled valuable statistical data from in excess of 42 waterborne outbreaks of giardiasis in the United States reported over the past 25 years and showed that the majority of these resulted from the consumption of untreated surface water or surface water in which disinfection was the only treatment (26b). 12% of the outbreaks resulted from ineffective or malfunctioning filtration (26b).

Watershed investigations and animal surveys have indicated that wild and domestic mammals represent a significant reservoir of *Giardia* cysts in areas devoid of any substantial human activity (1, 5, 56). Beavers, in particular, have been implicated in several waterborne outbreaks (5, 56). However, proving that the beavers were the source of contamination has not yet been possible because there is, at present, no means to identify the species of origin of a cyst detected in a water sample (1, 5, 56).

(iv) Control Measures

Measures to control *Giardia* infections should be directed towards:

1. Prevention of the contamination of water and food with *Giardia* cysts.
2. Destruction or removal of cysts which manage to reach food or water.
3. Reduction in the number of asymptomatic carriers that are chronic cysts passers.
4. Improvement in personal hygiene to reduce the risk of person to person transmission (55).

Prevention of the contamination of water or food with cysts is dependant on the availability and the use of safe faecal waste disposal systems, the treatment of human faeces used as fertilisers to kill cysts, and the protection of sources of drinking water from contamination with infected material, whether derived from humans or potential animal reservoirs. In developing countries, many opportunities remain for human
sewage to contaminate the water supply; the major contribution of which is the indiscriminate defaecation habits of many people in developing countries because they do not have latrines (55). Most importantly, improved methods of water and waste management systems require financial and educational support. This is seldom forthcoming for developing countries where such assistance is most needed.

Unfortunately, *Giardia* cysts are not routinely susceptible to the usual levels of chlorine that are recommended for drinking water (26b) therefore treatment of infected water supplies involves the combined use of disinfection and filtration (59, 74). As such methods are impractical in most developing countries, due to cost and the lack of piped drinking water, the simple method of boiling drinking water is sufficient if fuel supplies are available (55).

Treatment of all people with recognised symptomatic giardiasis and symptomatic cyst carriers is important to eliminate reservoirs of infection. Improved personal hygiene by better preparation and storage of food and water, handwashing and control of insects which may transfer cysts from faeces to food also serve as measures of control. Such measures not only reduce the number of sources for community spread, but also reduces the opportunity of direct person to person spread of giardiasis.

### 2.3.2 Host Specificity

A controversial aspect of *Giardia* epidemiology is that of host specificity, particularly whether or not *Giardia* exists as a zoonosis (zoonosis = disease of animals that is transmissible to humans). Two schools of thought have emerged on this issue. One school adopted the view that, with rare exceptions, the *Giardia* of mammals are host specific (52) thereby excluding animals as sources of human infection. The other school holds that *Giardia* are not highly host specific and bases this belief on demonstration of the apparent transfer of *Giardia* infection between different animal species and the apparent lack of host specificity in human isolates of *G. intestinalis* (35, 84).
Most of the earlier cross-transmission studies have been criticized, either because of assumptions made about the cyst sources, the status of the host (care was not taken to prove that the recipient animals were free of their own *Giardia* before the experiments began) or inadequate controls (10). However, *Giardia* infections have been successfully established in other selected species. The Mongolian gerbil can readily support the establishment of patent host infections from cysts derived from several host species (9). In addition, beavers and muskrats were successfully infected with cysts derived from human faeces but only by using large numbers of viable cysts (35). Because of their association with waterborne outbreaks of giardiasis, the beaver and the muskrat must be considered as possible intermediate reservoirs for *Giardia* spp. capable of infecting humans. However, because of the evidence for their harbouring different *Giardia* species from those that have been described for humans, as well as the potential contributions from other unevaluated sources such as birds and humans, it is not possible at this time to assign a major role in waterborne transmission to these animals (35).

Current methods of detection of cysts found in water cannot differentiate between the various species of *Giardia* based on their host origin or recognise different strains within a species. This may lead to false conclusions about the origin of the cysts and condemnation of the water as unsuitable for drinking because many animals have indigenous infections of *Giardia* species that are totally unrelated to the species producing giardiasis in humans (11). As most cysts are morphologically indistinguishable from each other, an investigator cannot tell whether the cysts detected in a water sample originated from a human or some other species of mammal or bird; they are simply *Giardia* cysts of unknown origin. One exception is that *G. microti* cysts are very different from those of humans and other animals in that the mature cyst contains two completely formed trophozoites and presents a considerably different appearance when viewed microscopically (11). Consequently, the resolution of whether or not giardiasis is a zoonotic infection will depend on clarification of the issue of species determination.
2.4 SPECIES DETERMINATION AND STRAIN VARIATION

There are two important questions in current *Giardia* research. Firstly, is cross transmission of *Giardia* between animals and humans possible (i.e. is *Giardia* a zoonosis?) and secondly, is it possible to distinguish between strains of *Giardia* which do infect humans from those that do not and thereby trace the source of infection within a community? Species determination and strain variation are essential starting points in answering these questions and have been extensively examined using a variety of methods.

2.4.1 Species Determination.

Determination of *Giardia* species has classically been made by two predominant methods: (i) host of origin and (ii) morphology by light microscopy, primarily by the appearance of the median body (1).

Species determination by host of origin is probably invalid because *Giardia* spp. from different hosts (e.g. cat, beaver and guinea pig) frequently appear identical by a number of methods including morphology and genetic analysis, whereas different isolates from the same host species can be markedly different (89). Contradictory results from experimental transmission of *Giardia* isolates from one host to another have also posed difficulties for species determination by host of origin alone (35, 65).

In contrast to the difficulties of species determination by host of origin, electron microscopy of the cyst and trophozoite has improved the ability to detect morphological differences between organisms that appear the same under the light microscope. Using such methods, the number of species has increased from those proposed by Filice (43) (see section 2.1.2) with the recognition of *G. psittaci* (33), *G. microti* (39) and *G. ardeae* (34).
2.4.2 Strain Differentiation.

The classical biological approach to strain differentiation has utilised such strategies as drug sensitivity (17, 76), virulence and infectivity (4, 87), *in vitro* growth rates (13, 81), morphological differences using light and electron microscopy (33, 34, 39, 43), ability to axenise (81), isoenzyme analysis (7, 12, 24, 80) and transmission studies (35, 65). In general, this approach was not successful although some minor strain variation was detected (16, 109, 118). These studies have included isolates from humans, cats, beavers and guinea pigs and seem to show that differences are not associated with host of origin (1).

More recent approaches to both strain and species identification have employed molecular techniques such as electrophoretic karyotyping (21, 112), the analysis of surface antigens (88, 113), SDS-Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (PAGE) analysis of total proteins and Western blotting (73, 109), Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) eg. using primers to amplify ribosomal RNA (rRNA) sequences (115, 118) and DNA fingerprinting (114). Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLP’s) are also an important technique employed (31, 37, 50, 89, 92, 111).

Electrophoretic karyotyping has separated *G. intestinalis* isolates into two distinct groups (112) but such large grouping is not useful epidemiologically. However, pulsed-field separations of the chromosomes of *G. intestinalis, G. muris* and *G. ardeae* demonstrated marked differences in the sizes and apparent number of chromosomes, and at very high stringency, little cross-hybridization of total DNA or specific DNA probes was observed among the three species (21). Consequently, electrophoretic karyotyping is a more useful method for species determination than for strain differentiation.

SDS-PAGE of total *Giardia* proteins have so far yielded no conclusive differences between *G. intestinalis* isolates. Other methods, such as the analysis of isoenzymes, have also experienced difficulties in detecting differences among *Giardia* isolates. Isoenzyme analysis did not reveal host differences although four distinct groups were
detected (7). Consequently, all of the experimental data so far accumulated suggests that *G. intestinalis* isolates from different host species are similar (1).

Restriction enzyme digestion and Southern blotting of total genomic DNA from a variety of *G. intestinalis* isolates showed great similarities (89). This suggests that all the strains are closely related. However, the large genomic size of *G. intestinalis* (8 x 10^7 bp) creates smears when digested with restriction enzymes making isolation of individual bands of interest difficult.

Although *G. intestinalis* in humans and other animals is similar by a number of criteria, this does not necessarily imply that cross infection can occur (16). Therefore a much more sensitive method is required to identify strains. To this end, several techniques involving the analysis of DNA at the molecular level have been examined such as the use of phage M13 fingerprinting, the examination of the *Giardia* ribosomal RNA genes and the construction of genomic libraries.

Phage M13 fingerprinting of digested total genomic DNA of *G. intestinalis* showed results comparable to those seen in higher eukaryotes but has yet to yield significant differences between isolates (114).

Recent techniques have utilised and revealed the potential usefulness of rRNA gene sequences in determining the source of infection in outbreaks and may also facilitate studies of virulence and infectivity (31, 115, 118). The ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes of *G. intestinalis* are unusual for several reasons (5):

1. The RNA's themselves are the smallest yet reported for any eukaryotic organism.
2. The genes encoding them are found as a small tandemly repeated unit of 5.6 kb in size.
3. The genes are extraordinarily GC-rich, even in regions which are highly conserved between all other eukaryotic rRNA genes.
4. The sequence and restriction map of these genes are also known.
5. rRNA encoding chromosomes in *G. intestinalis* undergo a high frequency of rearrangement (67). However, the significance of this finding is unknown.

6. rRNA genes are present on the ends of at least six telomeres (67).

Total genomic DNA of *G. intestinalis* can be separated into two distinct populations of different densities by centrifugation through caesium chloride gradients containing Hoescht dye 33258 (92). The upper, less dense, band is AT-rich compared to the lower, more dense population and comprises approximately 90% of the total DNA encoding single copy DNA and structural genes such as alpha and beta tubulin (92). The lower, more dense, band is GC-rich and comprises approximately 10% of the total DNA. This GC-rich fraction is enriched for rRNA sequences (92) therefore its isolation and analysis using restriction enzyme known to cleave within the rRNA sequence raise its potential usefulness in characterising differences between *Giardia* isolates. This technique will be examined later in this thesis (see Chapter 4).

PCR has been used to amplify a segment of the 18S rRNA gene sequence of *G. intestinalis* to analyse whether polymorphism is present among isolates. By sequencing and hybridisation to sequence-specific probes, the *G. intestinalis* isolates could be divided into three groups based on their rRNA gene sequence (118). However, additional sequence analysis is required so that isolates can be separated into more than three groups.

PCR has also been successfully used to demonstrate significant differences between species of *Giardia*. *G. intestinalis* isolates show different banding patterns to those of *G. muris* isolates after amplification of rRNA genes using random arbitrary GC-rich primers (Ionas *et al*, in press). Similarly, a comparison of the rRNA genes of *G. intestinalis, G. muris* and *G. ardeae* revealed significant differences (115). The rRNA genes of *G. muris* and *G. ardeae* are significantly larger (7.6 kb) than those of *G. intestinalis* (5.6 kb) primarily because of a much larger intragenic spacer region in *G. muris* and *G. ardeae*. Differences were also found in the coding regions for the 5.8S rRNA and the 3' region of the LS rRNA. PCR analyses, using primers specific for different parts of the beta-giardin gene, also distinguished both *G. muris* and *G.
ardae from various isolates of *G. intestinalis* (78) but failed to detect any differences between the human-derived and animal-derived isolates of *G. intestinalis* (36).

The construction of total genomic libraries play a crucial role in the analysis of genes of interest with respect to size, composition, sequence and copy number of genes (15, 20, 31, 32, 47, 51, 77, 78, 115). A genomic library also offers many possibilities in both species determination and strain differentiation of *Giardia* isolates. The isolation of suitable species-specific (host-specific) and strain-specific clones could be used to create DNA probes useful as epidemiological tools and thus provide many of the long-awaited answers to the question of zoonotic transmission of *Giardia*. This thesis is concerned with the production of a gene library from *G. intestinalis* as preliminary approach in the identification of such probes.
3.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.2.1 Retrieval of frozen trophozoite cultures

Materials

1) TY1-S33 media preincubated to 37°C (see appendix).

2) 50 ml Falcon™ tissue culture flask

3) Frozen *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 11 trophozoite culture (see 3.2.5)
   This is a New Zealand strain isolated from a human faecal sample and
   obtained for this study from the Massey University Dept. of Microbiology and
   Genetics Culture Collection.

Method

A frozen trophozoite culture stored at -80°C was quickly thawed in either hot
tap water or a 37°C waterbath and transferred to a 50ml Falcon™ culture
flask 3/4 full of TY1-S33 media. After addition of the trophozoites, the flask
was completely filled with media to exclude oxygen and incubated on its side
for 30 min at 37°C. By this time many of the trophozoites had attached. The
media was then discarded and the flask containing the trophozoites refilled
with media. This was incubated for a further 4 hours at 37°C. After this time,
the media was again discarded and the flask refilled. This ensured that all the
(dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), used to preserve the trophozoites, had been
diluted out. The flask containing the trophozoites was reincubated on its side
at 37°C and the culture fed every 3 days by discarding the old media and
refilling the flask with fresh TY1-S33 media. Such cultures formed a
complete monolayer of cells and were regularly subcultured.
3.2.2 Subculture of Giardia trophozoites

Materials

1) TY1-S33 media preincubated to 37°C (see appendix).

2) 50ml or 750ml Falcon™ tissue culture flasks.

Method

5ml of an exponential growth phase (rapidly growing) trophozoite culture was inoculated into a 50ml Falcon™ culture flask. TY1-S33 media was added to completely fill the flask and thereby remove any oxygen present. The flask containing the trophozoites was incubated at 37°C, the culture fed every 2-3 days (see 3.2.1) and eventually subcultured to another flask.

3.2.3 Treatment of Contaminated Cultures

Materials

Modified TY1-S33 medium for contamination was used. This contained TY1-S33 medium with the following antibiotics added depending on the nature of the contamination.

1) TY1-S33 medium - see appendix

2) Tetracycline (Tc) 10 mg/ml
   Tetracycline         100 mg
   Methanol to          10 ml

This stock solution was stored at -20°C. Tetracycline was added to TY1-S33
medium to produce a final concentration of 10 µg/ml.

3) Streptomycin (Str) 50 mg/ml
   Streptomycin sulphate      250 mg
   Sterile Water             5.0 ml

This stock solution was sterilized by passage through a sterile 0.2µ filter and stored at -20°C. Streptomycin was added to TY1-S33 medium to produce a final concentration of 50 µg/ml.

4) Chloramphenicol (Cm) 50 mg/ml
   Chloramphenicol      250 mg
   Ethanol             5.0 ml

This stock solution was stored at -20°C. Chloramphenicol was added to TY1-S33 medium to produce a final concentration of 50 µg/ml.

5) Norfloxacin (Nor) 200 mg/ml
   Norfloxacin (Sigma N-9890) 2.0 g
   Ethanol                  10 ml

As the norfloxacin did not dissolve in ethanol, a suspended solution was formed. This was vigorously shaken to produce an even suspension before use. Norfloxacin was added to TY1-S33 medium to produce a final concentration of 10 µg/ml. This stock solution was stored at -20°C.

6) Amphotericin B 10 mg/ml
   Amphotericin B        100 mg
   Sterile Water         10 ml

This stock solution was sterilized after passage through a sterile 0.2µ filter
and stored at -20°C. Amphotericin B was added to TY1-S33 medium to produce a final concentration of 10 µg/ml.

Method

Although culture manipulations were carried out aseptically in a Class 2 Biohazard Cabinet, contamination of trophozoite cultures did occasionally occur particularly if the frozen stock cultures were contaminated. Tetracycline, streptomycin and chloramphenicol were added to TY1-S33 media when bacterial contamination occurred. However, the most common bacterial contaminant that occurred in stock cultures, a Gram-negative rod, was treated with the addition of a norfloxacin/ streptomycin combination (using the concentrations described above). Fungal contamination was treated with the addition of amphotericin B to culture medium.

Treatment: Old media was discarded and the culture flask washed several times with fresh TY1-S33 media. Preincubated antibiotic modified media was then added and the flask incubated at 37°C. This procedure was repeated twice daily, then daily as necessary.

3.2.4 Preparation and harvesting of large-scale trophozoite cultures.

Materials

1) TY1-S33 Media preincubated to 37°C - see appendix.

2) 750ml Falcon™ tissue culture flasks.

3) 60ml of G. intestinalis strain Hast 11 trophozoites in the exponential phase of growth.
4) Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) - see appendix

5) Tris-EDTA (TE) Buffer - see appendix

6) 50 ml Falcon™ centrifuge tubes

**Method**

2 ml aliquots of *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 11 trophozoites in the late log phase of growth were inoculated into each of 28, 750 ml Falcon™ tissue culture flasks containing TY1-S33 medium and incubated for 1-7 days at 37°C.

4 flasks were removed from incubation at each 24 hour interval. Of these 4 flasks, 2 were incubated in ice water for 10 minutes prior to harvesting to detach trophozoites from the walls of the flask while the other 2 flasks were used immediately for harvesting. All 4 flasks were shaken vigorously to detach the trophozoites and a 5 ml sample was removed for counting.

Cultures were removed from each flask and centrifuged at 2500g for 10 min to pellet the cells. TY1-S33 media was added to fill each of the flasks and these were reincubated at 37°C.

Pellets from each flask were resuspended in 10 ml of PBS and centrifuged at 2500g for 10 min. After a second wash with PBS, each pellet was resuspended in 5 ml of sterile TE buffer and either used immediately for DNA extraction or stored at -70°C until further use.
3.2.5 Counting trophozoite population numbers.

Materials

1) PBS - see appendix
2) Haemocytometer and coverslips
3) Phase contrast microscope
4) Hand tally counter

Method

A clean cover slip was applied to the haemocytometer and each haemocytometer chamber loaded with 8-10µl of well-mixed trophozoite suspension by capillary action. At each of the four corners of the chamber was a 1mm$^2$ ruled area divided into 16 squares in which *Giardia* trophozoites were counted.

The trophozoite numbers were counted with a hand tally counter. Counting trophozoites twice was avoided by counting only those touching the top and left boundary lines of each square. Each of the four 1mm$^2$ areas were counted in this manner. A total of four to six different haemocytometer chambers were loaded, counted and then averaged for each *Giardia* trophozoite suspension to achieve counting precision. If trophozoite numbers were too high to be counted, i.e. usually numbers greater than 300 trophozoites per 1mm$^2$ area, then a 2 or 3 fold dilution of the trophozoite suspension was made using PBS.

The formula for determining the number of *Giardia* trophozoites per 1 ml of suspension was as follows:
A graph was constructed showing the effect of time and chilling of flasks on the number of trophozoites harvested (see Fig. 3).

3.2.6 Cryopreservation of *Giardia* trophozoites

**Materials**

1) *Giardia intestinalis* strain Hast 11 trophozoites grown *in vitro* to late log phase.

2) Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)

3) TY1-S33 medium - see appendix

**Method**

*Giardia* trophozoites were harvesting by centrifuging at 2000g for 5 min. The pellet was resuspended in TY1-S33 medium and the number of trophozoites estimated using a haemocytometer (refer to section 3.2.5). The cell concentration was adjusted to 1.2 - 1.5 x 10⁹/ml with TY1-S33 medium (or trophozoite cultures were used as concentrated as possible).

0.25 ml of the cell suspension was pipetted into a labelled 1ml Nunc™ cryopreservation tube and 0.25ml of DMSO added very slowly to each tube. Tubes were carefully mixed, wrapped in laboratory tissue (to avoid rapid freezing of the trophozoites) and placed in a polystyrene container. The
polystyrene container was then placed in the -80°C freezer. After 24-48 hours, the tubes were removed from the container and stored in a labelled freezer box at -80°C until further use.

Note: As these cultures were used as a backup source, it was important to check that cryopreserved cultures were not contaminated or lethally affected by DMSO by retrieving some of the frozen cultures 1-4 weeks after freezing (refer to section 3.2.1).
3.3 RESULTS

The optimal conditions for growth and harvest of large numbers of *G. intestinalis* trophozoites were investigated by incubating 750 ml culture flasks containing strain Hast 11 for a period of 1-7 days. Flasks removed at 24 hour intervals were examined microscopically for the presence or absence and intactness of the cell monolayer (Table 1). A 5 ml sample was removed from each flask either immediately after microscopic examination or after incubation in ice water for ten min and the trophozoite numbers counted using a haemocytometer. These results are illustrated in Fig. 3. Trophozoite suspensions were centrifuged at 2500 g for 10 min and the presence or absence of a pellet noted (Table 1).
TABLE 1: Optimization of the conditions required for growth and harvest of *G. intestinalis* trophozoites (A = ice treatment; B = no treatment).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME OF INCUBATION (DAYS)</th>
<th>STATE OF MONOLAYER</th>
<th>ICE WATER INCUBATION YES/NO</th>
<th>NUMBER OF CELLS/ml</th>
<th>PELLET FORMATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>None formed</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1A</td>
<td>Present; not complete</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$1.53 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1B</td>
<td>Present; not complete</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$1.16 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A</td>
<td>Present; not complete</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$6.2 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>Yes but too small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2B</td>
<td>Present; not complete</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$4.1 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>Yes but too small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3A</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$2.78 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3B</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$2.2 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4A</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$8.1 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4B</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$6.4 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5A</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$1.07 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5B</td>
<td>Complete monolayer</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$9.0 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A</td>
<td>Incomplete monolayer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$1.22 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B</td>
<td>Incomplete monolayer</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$1.14 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7A</td>
<td>Incomplete monolayer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$1.02 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7B</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>$1.11 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Bands smaller than 0.5 kb were difficult to detect in gel photos.
Fig. 3: Comparison of the yield of *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 11 trophozoites taking trophozoites in suspension and total trophozoites following cooling of the culture to 0°C to suspend attached organisms.

Note: (a) the increase in the number of trophozoites in suspension following cooling to 0°C is minimal and (b) under these conditions the yield is maximal after 4 to 5 days.
3.4 DISCUSSION

The investigation outlined in this thesis required the in vitro production of large quantities of *G. intestinalis* trophozoites. To investigate the conditions which maximised the yield of trophozoites, *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 11 with typical growth characteristics was chosen for a preliminary investigation of its growth curve.

It was concluded from the conditions used that the maximum yield of trophozoites in the log phase of growth, \(2.78 \times 10^5\), was reached after approximately three days and the rate of growth subsequently diminished after this time (Fig. 3). However, maximum viability was maintained for a further two days so the cultures could be harvested either at day 3 or could be delayed for a further two days. At this stage of growth the lower flask surface is totally covered with trophozoites (13, 19) and many organisms are found in the supernatant.

Because many trophozoites are attached, it is standard practise to cool the culture flask to detach cells for harvest. However, under these conditions the increase in yield was minimal (Fig. 3) and as the attached trophozoites at this stage of growth represent such a small proportion of the total it was concluded that it was unnecessary to cool cultures for harvest. Instead, high numbers of trophozoites could be achieved by simply decanting medium containing suspended trophozoites. This also had the further advantage that a fresh culture of trophozoites could be prepared merely by replacing the medium and reincubating the flask at 37°C and in such conditions (data not shown) trophozoites could be harvested two days later.

Although detailed studies were not conducted on other strains, pilot experiments showed that the results obtained in this chapter could be extrapolated to that of others.
4.1 INTRODUCTION

Host specificity of *Giardia* strains has long remained as a central unanswered epidemiological question. If *Giardia* is host specific, it might reasonably be expected that some differences between strains would be found. However, there have been no consistent differences detected between strains of *G. intestinalis* isolated from human and animal sources. In this context, identification of individual strains would be a useful starting point.

Much of current *Giardia* research centres on techniques designed to detect genetic variation among different *Giardia* strains. In this chapter we examine the use of restriction enzymes to detect Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLP’s) in the *Giardia* genome. Initial experiments attempted to detect RFLP’s in total genomic DNA but in further experiments only repetitive sequences were examined.
4.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.2.1 Propagation of *G. intestinalis* isolates for DNA extraction

**Materials**

1) TY1-S33 Medium - see appendix

2) Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) - see appendix

3) Tris-EDTA solution - see appendix

4) Frozen aliquots of *G. intestinalis* strains Hast 11, Hast 76, Hast 86, Hast 68, NP 77, Ham 7, Ham 84, Whang 8, Whang 48 and Wang 3. These ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis* were isolated from human faeces and obtained from the Massey University Department of Microbiology and Genetics Culture Collection.

**Method**

A 0.5 ml aliquot of a *G. intestinalis* culture stored at -70°C was rapidly thawed, inoculated into TY1-S33 medium in a 50 ml Falcon™ tissue culture flask and incubated at 37°C until a complete monolayer of trophozoites had just formed (at this stage the trophozoites are in the exponential growth phase). 5 ml of this culture was removed and inoculated into each of four 750 ml Falcon™ tissue culture flask containing TY1-S33 medium and incubated at 37°C until a complete monolayer had just formed (usually 3-4 days).

Each 750 ml culture of trophozoites was harvested by centrifuging at 5000g for 10 minutes in a GSA rotor. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet resuspended in 20 ml of sterile PBS and recentrifuged at
5000g for 10 minutes in the Heraeus Christ® centrifuge. The preparation of trophozoites was washed twice more with sterile PBS, suspended in 5 ml of TE buffer and either stored at -70°C or used immediately for DNA extraction.

4.2.2 DNA extraction

Materials

1) Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate (SDS) 10%
   SDS (Sigma) 10.0 g
   Distilled Water to 100.0 ml

   This solution was stored at room temperature without autoclaving.

2) Pronase Type XIV 20 mg/ml
   Pronase (Sigma) 0.2 g
   Distilled water to 10.0 ml

   This solution was preincubated at 37°C for 3 h to self-digest contaminants, especially DNase activity, and filtered through a sterile 0.2 µ filter to remove precipitates. This was then stored at -20°C.

3) RNase (Ribonuclease 1) 10 mg/ml
   RNase from bovine pancreas (Sigma) 0.10 g
   RNase buffer (see appendix) 10.0 ml

   This solution was preincubated at 100°C for 15 min to destroy DNase activity. It was then stored at -20°C.

4) 5M Sodium perchlorate
Sodium perchlorate 61.22 g
Distilled water to 100.0 ml

This solution was stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

5) 10x Saline Tris-EDTA (STE) Buffer - see appendix

6) Phenol/Chloroform/Isoamyl alcohol - see appendix

7) Dialysis Tubing
10 mm flat width dialysis tubing was cut to approximately 20 cm lengths and boiled in 5% sodium carbonate solution. This process was repeated until no colour could be detected (approximately 3-4 times). The tubing was then boiled in distilled water once; in 0.001 M EDTA once; rinsed in distilled water and then boiled in distilled water. The dialysis tubing in the distilled water was then allowed to cool before being stored at 4°C.

8) 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) - see appendix.

9) 0.2 M EDTA - see appendix.

10) TE Buffer (for dialysis)
1 M Tris-HCl 40.0 ml
0.2 M EDTA 20.0 ml
Distilled water to 4000.0 ml

This buffer was freshly prepared before use.

11) G. intestinalis trophozoites as prepared in section 4.2.1.
Method

DNA was extracted from *G. intestinalis* trophozoites using the method of Ionas (55a).

Pelleted preparations (see section 5.2.1) suspended in 5 ml of TE buffer were thawed in a 37°C water bath. 0.5 ml SDS (10%) and 0.5 ml Pronase type XIV (10 mg/ml) were added to each trophozoite suspension and incubated at 50°C overnight to lyse the cells and digest their proteins. 0.1 ml RNase was added to the lysate and incubated for 60 minutes to digest the RNA. 5 M Sodium perchorate was then added to give a final concentration of 1 M and the lysate was incubated at 50°C for a further 60 min.

Phenol was melted in a 70°C water bath and added to chloroform and isoamyl alcohol to give a ratio of 25:24:1. This solution was mixed with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer. Air was bubbled through the preparation to facilitate mixing. The solution was cooled to room temperature and used as follows to deproteinate the lysate. An equal volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol solution was added to the lysate, gently mixed by repetitively inverting the centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 5000 g for 10 min at room temperature.

The upper (aqueous) layer, containing the DNA was removed using a 5 ml autopipette fitted with a sterile tip, the point of which was removed, placed into another centrifuge tube and re-extracted twice more with the phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol solution or until a white precipitate was no longer visible at the interface. The DNA was then placed into dialysis tubing and dialysed at 4°C against 4 L (total 16 L) of TE buffer with three changes over a 48 hour period. After dialysis the DNA was placed into a sterile universal bottle and stored at 4°C.
4.2.3 Isolation and removal of the GC-rich fraction of DNA.

Materials

1) Hoescht 33258 stain (1 mg/ml)
   Hoescht 33258 0.01 g
   Sterile water 10.0 ml

   This was stored at 4°C in the dark (ie. with tin foil around the glass bottle).

2) Caesium chloride (research grade)

Method

A protocol based on that of Ortega-Pierres et al (92) but with modifications was used.

7 g of CsCl was added to 7 ml of the DNA preparation to give a total volume of approximately 11 ml. 140 μl of Hoescht 33258 stain was added to this and the refractive index was checked using a refractometer. CsCl was then added until the refractive index reached 1.4. The solution was divided equally into 2 centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 55 K for 48 hours in the TST 60.4 swing bucket rotor (Sorvall®,Du Pont).

The DNA separated into 2 distinct bands visible under long wave UV light. Each band was carefully removed using a pasteur pipette, transferred into separately labelled eppendorf tubes and stored at 4°C.
4.2.4 Removal of CsCl by microdialysis

Materials

1) TE buffer - see appendix.

Method

CsCl was removed from DNA preparations using the method of microdialysis as described by Ward and Jarvis (116).

A petri dish containing a 1.0 cm flea (stirring bar) and approximately 40 ml TE buffer was placed on a magnetic stirrer. A membrane disc (Millipore type VS, pore size 0.25 µm, 47 mm diameter) was floated on the surface and the DNA containing caesium chloride were placed in drops on the filter. 100 µl drops of DNA (no more than 7 drops/filter) were placed symmetrically on the filter so as to keep the filter balanced and afloat. The DNA was dialysed for 45 mins, then removed from the filter to a labelled eppendorf tube and stored at 4°C.

4.2.5 Determination of DNA concentration and purity

Materials

1) TE Buffer - see appendix.

Method

(a) Spectrophotometric Method

50 µl of DNA was diluted with 950 µl of TE buffer and mixed gently so as not to shear the DNA. The optical density at 260 nm and 280 nm was measured using the Shimadzu® automatic spectrophotometer
zeroed against the dialysis buffer (viz. TE buffer = blank)

The following parameter allowed the DNA concentration to be determined from the 260 nm reading:

\[ E_{260} = 1 \text{ then the DNA concentration} = 50 \mu g/ml \]

i.e. \( E_{260} \) absorbance \( \times 50 \times \) dilution factor (20)
\[ = \text{DNA concentration in } \mu g/ml. \]

To determine if the purity was adequate, the absorption of the diluted sample at 260 nm and 280 nm was noted and the 260/280 ratio calculated. A ratio of greater or equal to 1.8 was considered to represent DNA of adequate purity.

4.2.6 Restriction enzyme digestion of \textit{G. intestinalis} DNA

Materials

A total of 10 different enzymes were used in this section:
Bam HI, Eco RI, Sma I, Fok I, Hinf I, Bgl II, Hae III, Kpn I, Apa I and Taq I. The restriction buffers (10x concentrated) used were supplied with purchase of the enzyme from the manufacturer.

1) 3M Sodium acetate - see appendix.

2) 95 % Ethanol - see appendix.

3) 70 % Ethanol - see appendix.
4) Tris-EDTA (TE buffer) + 0.05 % SDS + 20 % glycerol (Running Buffer).

1.0 M Tris-HCl (Ph 7.5) 0.10 ml
0.2 M EDTA (Ph 7.2) 0.05 ml
Glycerol 2.00 ml
10 % SDS 0.05 ml
Distilled water to 10.0 ml

This solution was stored at room temperature.

5) Bromophenol Blue Dye (10x concentration) - see appendix.

Method

Aliquots calculated to contain 30 µg of DNA were added to 1.5 ml eppendorf tubes containing 1/10th of the final volume of 10x reaction buffer plus sterile water to dilute to the final volume desired (not usually more than 150 µl). Restriction endonuclease was added to the mixture to give an concentration of 30 units. (Note that 1 unit of restriction enzyme is the amount required to digest 1 µg of DNA in 1 hr using the conditions specified by the manufacturer). The eppendorf tube, which contained the reaction mixture, was pulsed in the microfuge to ensure that all of the reaction mixture was at the base of the tube. It was then incubated at the temperature specified by the manufacturer for two hours. The reaction was stopped by heating at 65°C for 10 minutes for those enzymes sensitive to heat inactivation or by cooling to 0°C.

To concentrate the digest to a volume small enough to fit in the well of an agarose gel, the DNA was precipitated with ethanol by adding 1/10th of the volume of 3M Sodium acetate and mixed gently, followed by 2.5 volumes of cold (-20°C) 95 % ethanol. After gentle mixing this was
placed at -20°C or 4°C overnight.

The DNA was pelleted by centrifuging at 15000g for 30 minutes in a microfuge at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and 1 ml of 70% ethanol was added. The DNA was spun again for a further 30 minutes at 15000g (room temperature) to wash the proteins and salt from the surface of the pellet. After discarding the supernatant, the DNA pellet was dried under vacuum for 5-15 minutes in the Speedvac (dessicator). The pellet containing DNA was resuspended in 35 µl of running buffer. 5 µl of bromophenol blue dye was added and mixed well. This 40 µl suspension was then used for electrophoresis.

4.2.7 Agarose gel electrophoresis of restriction enzyme digests.

Materials

1) Tris Borate Buffer (TBB) - see appendix.

2) 1.0 % Agarose gel
   Agarose (AR grade) 1.0 g
   TBE buffer 100 ml

The agarose was dissolved by heating in the microwave (Med High; 4 min) and cooled to 50°C before use.

3) Ethidium bromide (10 mg/ml) - see appendix.

Method

The agarose gel was prepared as described in Sambrook et al (101). Digested DNA was size fractionated through a 1% agarose gel (size 20 x 15 x 0.6 cm³) in TBE buffer at 80 V for 4-5 hours. 10 µl of BRL 1
kb ladder was also run in each end lane to act as standard fragment sizes with which to compare the size of bands produced from the digests. Gels were stained with ethidium bromide for 10 minutes, destained with water for 1 hour and then photographed under shortwave UV light.

4.2.8 Determination of the size of DNA fragments.

Materials

1) 1 kb ladder™ (BRL)

Method

10 µl samples of the BRL 1 kb ladder were run alongside the DNA samples on agarose gels (see section 4.2.7). Following staining of the gel with ethidium bromide and subsequent photography of the gel under shortwave UV light, the mobility of each DNA band was measured as the distance from the middle of the well to the centre of the band. Fragment lengths were determined graphically from a plot of relative mobility (mm) versus fragment size (kb) on semilog graph paper.
4.3 RESULTS

A. Total genomic DNA

Total DNA from ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis* isolated from human sources were digested with the restriction enzymes Bam HI, Alu I, Apa I and Sph I. Digested DNA was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and the results indicate that in all cases a very large number of fragments were produced which led to smearing and hence diminished the resolution. This is illustrated with the Bam HI digest (Fig. 4).

B. Fractions of DNA

Total genomic DNA mixed with CsCl and Hoescht dye 33258 were centrifuged. The DNA separated into a higher buoyant density (GC-rich) band and a lower buoyant density (AT-rich) band (Fig. 5).

Total genomic DNA, AT-rich DNA (total DNA minus the GC-rich component) and GC-rich fraction DNA from *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 76 were digested with Bam HI and the products of digestion were run on agarose gels. The results (Fig. 6) show that the AT-rich DNA digest produced a smear as many bands were present. The GC-rich DNA digest showed three bands (of sizes 2.4 kb, 1.85 kb and 1.3 kb) and there was an absence of smearing. The total genomic DNA, while showing smearing, produced three bands more evident than the others. The sizes of these three bands corresponded to the three bands present in the GC-rich DNA digest. This is illustrated in Fig. 6.

The GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten strains of *G. intestinalis* was digested with Apa I, Fok I, Hae III, Hinf I, Sma I and Taq I restriction enzymes known to have restriction sites within the variable (spacer) regions of the 5.56 kb rRNA gene repeat. In addition, restriction enzymes Kpn I, Bgl II and Bam HI with recognition sites anywhere within the 5.56 kb rRNA repeat were used. These results are shown
in Figures 7-15 and summarised in Table 2.

Note that no differences in banding patterns of the ten strains were detected using Bam HI, Sma I, Apa I, Hinf I, Bgl II or Hae III (Figs. 7-12). However, digestion with enzymes Taq I, Kpn I and Fok I (Figs. 13-15) revealed distinctive differences in the number and intensity of the bands present between the strains. All experiments were performed at least twice and gave consistent results.
Fig. 4:

Bam HI digestion of total genomic DNA from ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 1); Ham 84 (lane 2); Wang 3 (lane 3); Ham 7 (lane 4); Hast 68 (lane 5); Hast 11 (lane 6); Whang 8 (lane 7); Whang 48 (lane 8); Hast 86 (lane 9); Hast 76 (lane 10).

Note that many bands were generated. This caused smearing and consequent loss of resolution of the bands, nevertheless three bands are clearly visible. No differences were detected between the isolates.
Diagram of the result obtained when total genomic DNA was centrifuged with CsCl in the presence of Hoescht dye 33258. The DNA separated into a lower buoyant density (AT-rich) band and a higher buoyant density, more diffuse, (GC-rich) band.
Fig. 6: Bam HI digestion of total genomic DNA (lane 2), AT-rich DNA (lane 3) and GC-rich fraction DNA (lane 4) from *G. intestinalis* strain Hast 76. Lane 1 contains the BRL 1 kb standard.

Note that the 3 prominent bands seen in the total DNA digest (lane 2) are diminished in intensity in the AT-rich band but appear in the digest of the GC-rich DNA with an almost complete absence of other bands.
Fig. 7: Bam HI digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 1); Ham 84 (lane 2); Wang 3 (lane 3); Ham 7 (lane 4); Hast 68 (lane 5); Hast 11 (lane 6); Whang 8 (lane 7); Whang 48 (lane 8); Hast 86 (lane 9); Hast 76 (lane 10). The outer left hand lane contains the 1 kb DNA ladder (BRL).

Note that no differences were detected between the isolates.

Fig. 8: Sma I digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*. The order of the isolates is identical to that listed above (see Fig. 7).

Note that no differences were detected between the isolates.
Fig. 9: Apa I digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 1); Ham 84 (lane 2); Wang 3 (lane 3); Ham 7 (lane 4); Hast 68 (lane 5); Hast 11 (lane 6); Whang 8 (lane 7); Whang 48 (lane 8); Hast 86 (lane 9); Hast 76 (lane 10). The outer lane contains the 1 kb DNA standard (BRL).

Note that no differences were detected between the isolates.

Fig. 10: Hinf I digestion of the GC-rich fraction from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*. The order of the isolates is identical to that listed above (see Fig. 9).

Note that no differences were detected between the isolates.
Fig. 11: Bgl II digestion of the GC-rich fraction from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 1); Ham 84 (lane 2); Wang 3 (lane 3); Ham 7 (lane 4); Hast 68 (lane 5); Hast 11 (lane 6); Whang 8 (lane 7); Whang 48 (lane 8); Hast 86 (lane 9); Hast 76 (lane 10). The outer right hand lane contains the 1 kb DNA standard (BRL).

Note that no differences were detected between the isolates.

Fig. 12: Hae III digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*. The order of the isolates is identical to that listed above (see Fig. 11).

Note that a smear was produced which implies that Hae III recognises many sites in the rDNA repeat. No differences were detected between the isolates.
Fig. 13: Fok I digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 1); Ham 84 (lane 2); Wang 3 (lane 3); Ham 7 (lane 4); Hast 68 (lane 5); Hast 11 (lane 6); Whang 8 (lane 7); Whang 48 (lane 8); Hast 86 (lane 9); Hast 76 (lane 10). The far right hand lane contains the 1 kb DNA standard (BRL).

Note that the differences observed between the strains appear to be that of band intensity rather than that of the presence or absence of a band.

Fig. 14: Kpn I digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis*. The order of the strains is identical to that listed above (Fig. 13).

Note that strains Ham 84, Wang 3, Ham 7, Hast 11, Whang 48 and Hast 86 (lanes 2-6, 8 and 9) all possess a band (approximately 5.6-5.7 kb) not found in NP 77, Whang 8 or Hast 76 (lanes 1, 7 and 10).
Fig. 15: Taq I digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand isolates of *G. intestinalis*: NP 77 (lane 2); Ham 84 (lane 3); Wang 3 (lane 4); Ham 7 (lane 5); Hast 68 (lane 6); Hast 11 (lane 7); Whang 8 (lane 8); Whang 48°”(lane 9); Hast 86 (lane 10); Hast 76 (lane 11). 

Note that two banding patterns appear. Those in lanes 3-10 are identical but lanes 2 and 11, which are identical, nevertheless differ from the other lanes in the loss of a 1.64 kb band (as shown). Lanes 1 and 12 contain the 1 kb standard (BRL).
TABLE 2: Observed and expected band size from restriction enzyme digestion of the *G. intestinalis* gene repeat contained within the GC-rich fraction of DNA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF ENZYME USED IN DIGESTION</th>
<th>EXPECTED BAND SIZE (kilobases)</th>
<th>OBSERVED BAND SIZE (kilobases)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apa I</td>
<td>1.44, 1.14, 0.5, 0.44, 0.36, 0.3</td>
<td>1.4, 1.15, 0.54, 0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bam HI</td>
<td>2.4, 1.85, 1.3</td>
<td>2.5, 1.9, 1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bgl II</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fok I</td>
<td>2.4, 1.1, 0.78, 0.5, 0.36, 0.32</td>
<td>3.0, 2.4, 1.1, 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hae III</td>
<td>0.85, 0.84, 0.74, 0.56, 0.54, 0.52, 0.46, 0.44, 0.38, 0.31</td>
<td>A smear was observed as Hae III has many recognition sites in the rRNA gene repeat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinf I</td>
<td>1.7, 0.83, 0.62, 0.56, 0.45</td>
<td>1.75, 1.45, 0.94, 0.74, 0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kpn I</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>approx. 5.7, 5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sma I</td>
<td>1.3, 0.6, 0.5, 0.38</td>
<td>1.3, 0.65, 0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taq I</td>
<td>1.3, 1.08, 1.03, 0.62, 0.5, 0.48</td>
<td>1.6, 1.3, 1.1, 1.05, 0.7, 0.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** Bands smaller than 0.5 kb were difficult to detect in gel photos.
4.4 DISCUSSION

Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) formation is due base changes resulting in the gain or loss of a restriction site. Such polymorphisms are detected when the DNA is digested with an enzyme recognising the new restriction site and the fragments separated by electrophoresis.

In this chapter, the total genomic DNA from each of ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis* was digested with restriction enzymes Bam HI, Eco RI, Alu I, Apa I and Sph I and the products of digestion were electrophoresed. The large number of fragments produced resulted in poor resolution of bands on the gel (Fig. 4). However, the large size of the *Giardia* genome ($8 \times 10^7$ bp) implies that multiple recognition sites will be present for any restriction enzyme so this result is not surprising.

This result is consistent with that of other workers (50, 89, 111) who found that the examination of ethidium bromide-stained gels usually did not show differences between DNA from *Giardia* strains. While the large number of bands do not allow detailed conclusions, their consistent conclusions were that the digests from all strains were very similar and that this similarity in banding patterns indicated a general lack of DNA-sequence divergance although the geographic locality and hosts of the strains were diverse.

Although many bands were generated, certain bands were more evident than others. These bands represent repetitive sequences which are GC-rich (92) and become more visible when most of the nonrepetitive genomic DNA is removed. This is achieved by ultracentrifugation of this DNA with Caesium chloride (CsCl) containing Hoescht dye 33258 (Fig. 5). The Hoescht dye preferentially binds to AT-rich DNA sequences and decreases their buoyant density (64) so that the combination of dye and centrifugation resulted in the separation of two bands, the lower of which was GC-rich DNA containing repetitive sequences (92).

Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLP’s) are most easily detected in a
repetitive sequence where a large number of copies of this variation are present. A new restriction site (possibly unique to one strain) created by a base mutation allows digestion with an enzyme recognising this site to demonstrate this polymorphism.

This approach has been shown to be useful for distinguishing various isolates of *Candida albicans* (77) so it should be useful for distinguishing strains of *Giardia* because *G. intestinalis* ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes are organised in tandem arrays of a 5.56 kb repeat containing both constant and variable regions (15, 32, 67, 92). This arrangement is illustrated in Fig.16 and the complete nucleotide sequence (Fig. 17) and restriction map of this tandem repeat are also known (51, 114). Furthermore, as mentioned previously, DNA isolated from *G. intestinalis* can be separated into two distinct populations with different buoyant densities by centrifugation through a CsCl gradient containing Hoescht dye 33258. The lower buoyant density AT-rich (total genomic DNA minus GC-rich fraction) comprises approximately 90% of the total DNA and is composed of nonrepetitive DNA encoding such structural genes as alpha and beta tubulin (92). The higher buoyant density band is extremely GC-rich and comprises approximately 10% of the total DNA. This GC-rich band is comprised of a 5.56 kb sequence, reiterated in tandem, which, based on results from restriction banding patterns, Southern blots and hybridisation of rRNA probes, indicates that this sequence contains the tandemly repeated DNA sequence which encodes mainly for ribosomal RNAs (92).

Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes have been shown to be very useful in the classification of many organisms because they are highly conserved (115). Thus, although we did not have the strain of *G. intestinalis* used to obtain the rRNA gene sequence (51), we could expect our strains to display banding patterns similar to those expected from the restriction map available. However, although conserved coding regions are present within rRNA genes, variable regions are also present and may differ in sequence between strains. It was restriction enzymes that had sites of recognition within these variable regions that were then used to demonstrate differences between strains of *G. intestinalis*. However, it is important to note that this study was not to show that bands produced from enzyme digests matched the
restriction map available from one strain of *G. intestinalis*, although this helped to
demonstrate that we were, in fact, examining the rRNA repeat, but rather to find if
the fragment lengths produced would distinguish strains.

Following the initial use of total genomic DNA digests, we examined a
subcomponent of the total genomic DNA, namely the GC-rich fraction.
Electrophoresed products from Bam HI digestion of total genomic DNA, AT-rich
DNA and GC-rich DNA (Fig. 6) showed that the GC-rich fraction produced fewer
bands as compared to that of the AT-rich and total genomic DNA so greater
resolution was achieved. AT-rich DNA and total genomic DNA both displayed
smearing due to an excessive number of bands present. This is because Bam HI has
a large number of recognition sites in the *Giardia* genome. However, three bands (of
sizes 2.4 kb, 1.85 kb, and 1.3 kb) were more evident than the others in the total
genomic digest. These corresponded to the three bands present (2.4 kb, 1.85 kb and
1.3 kb) in the GC-rich fraction digest. Each of these bands represents the fragment
sizes we anticipated from our knowledge of the sequence and restriction map of the
*G. intestinalis* rRNA repeat (see Table 2).

These results correspond to those of Ortega-Pierres *et al* (92) where the banding
patterns obtained with Bam HI digestion were consistent with the rRNA gene map
proposed by Boothryd *et al* (15) for the repeated unit. Furthermore, Ortega-Pierres *et
al* demonstrated that probes of large and small subunit rRNA obtained from *G.
intestinalis* hybridised to the three bands produced by Bam HI digestion of GC-rich
fraction DNA but failed to hybridise to any of the bands produced by Bam HI
digestion of AT-rich DNA. The hybridisation patterns produced were similar, if not
identical, to the restriction banding pattern produced by Bam HI digested GC-rich
DNA. This indicated that the GC-rich DNA population contains the tandemly
repeated DNA sequence which encodes mainly for rRNAs (92).

From this, it can be assumed that our results demonstrate that not only does the GC-
rich fraction DNA contain the rRNA gene repeat but that the reduction in the number
of bands produced, hence a reduction in smearing, enhances any ribosomal fragments
The next step was to find if any restriction enzyme was able to distinguish a strain by digestion of the GC-rich fraction of DNA. The GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of ten New Zealand strains of *G. intestinalis* was digested with restriction enzymes Apa I, Fok I, Hae III, Hinf I, Sma I and Taq I that were all known to possess recognition sites within the variable region of the rRNA gene repeat. In addition, restriction enzymes Kpn I, Bgl II and Bam HI with recognition sites anywhere within the 5.56 kb rRNA repeat were used.

Although no differences were detected in the banding patterns of the ten strains using Bam HI, Sma I, Apa I, Hinf I, Bgl II or Hae III (Figs. 7-12), the size of the bands observed correlated to the size of bands expected from our knowledge of the restriction map of the *G. intestinalis* rRNA repeat (Table 2). However, restriction enzymes Taq I, Kpn I and Fok I revealed distinctive differences between the strains (Figs. 13-15).

Digestion with Taq I (Fig. 15) demonstrated that strains NP 77 and Hast 76 (lanes 1 and 10) possess the fragment sizes we predicted from our knowledge of the rRNA gene repeat restriction map. However, strains Ham 84, Wang 3, Ham 7, Hast 68, Hast 11, Whang 8, Whang 48 and Hast 86 (lanes 2-9) all possess a 1.6 kb fragment larger than the other fragments produced and that we had not anticipated from our knowledge of the rRNA genes restriction map (Table 2).

Digestion of GC-rich DNA with Kpn I (Fig. 14) shows that strains Ham 84, Wang 3, Ham 7, Hast 68, Hast 11, Whang 48 and Hast 86 (lanes 2-6,8 and 9) possess a band just greater than the 5.56 kb rRNA gene repeat that is not found in strains NP77, Whang 8 or Hast 76.

Digestion of the GC-rich fraction of the ten strains of *G. intestinalis* with Fok I (Fig. 13) demonstrates that strains Ham 84, Wang 3, Ham 7, Hast 68, Whang 48 and Hast 86 (lanes 2-5,8 and 9) possess a 3 kb band that is 500 bp larger than the largest band.
we had anticipated (Table 2). It is arguable that this band is also possessed by strains NP 77, Hast 11, Whang 8 and Hast 76 (lanes 1, 6, 7 and 10) as the differences first observed appear to be that of band intensity rather than that of the presence or absence of a band. Hast 76 also appears to possess a band just greater than 2 kb in size but again the same explanation of band intensity rather than a difference in banding pattern could also be applied to this situation as on closer inspection of the gel it appears that NP 77, Ham 84 and Wang 3 (lanes 1-3) may also possess this band. It is therefore fair to assume that this band may also be present in the other six strains.

The differences detected between strains of *G. intestinalis* using restriction enzyme digestion of the GC-rich fraction of their DNA gives some hope that distinguishing between strains of *Giardia* using this approach is possible. However, this procedure is labourious and requires large amounts of DNA that can only be obtained from the *in vitro* culture of *Giardia* strains which in many, indeed most, cases is not yet possible. We are therefore unable, as yet, to use this technique to differentiate between strains of *Giardia* which infect animals from those that infect humans.
Fig. 16: Organisation of the *G. intestinalis* rRNA genes as a 5.56 kb repeating unit showing the presence of both constant and variable regions.
Fig. 17: The complete nucleotide sequence of the *G. intestinalis* rRNA gene repeat (Upcroft et al, 1990).
CHAPTER 5: CONSTRUCTION OF A GENE LIBRARY FROM

GIARDIA INTESTINALIS STRAIN NP 77

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Restriction enzyme digests of total genomic DNA from ten strains of G. intestinalis resulted in the generation of many fragments so the resolution of individual bands was poor. Enhanced resolution of bands and hence differentiation of strains was achieved using the GC-rich DNA fraction. This approach, however, is extremely labourious and requires a large amount of DNA. To extend this technique and reveal more subtle differences, Southern blots of digests of total genomic DNA and hybridisation with selected probes may be used to identify and to visualize a distinct set of restricted fragments. This, however, clearly requires the availability and selection of appropriate probes, the development of which would be greatly facilitated by the availability of a gene library.

This chapter is concerned with the production and evaluation of a gene library from G. intestinalis strain NP 77.
5.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

5.2.1 Preparation of high yield trophozoite cultures

Materials

1) TY1-S33 medium preincubated to 37°C - see appendix

2) Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) - see appendix

3) 50 ml Falcon™ centrifuge tubes

4) Tris-EDTA (TE) Buffer (pH 7.5) - see appendix

5) G. intestinalis strain NP 77 trophozoite culture. This culture was isolated from human faeces and obtained from the Department of Microbiology and Genetics, Massey University.

Method

The method described in section 4.2.1 was used.

5.2.2 Extraction of high molecular weight DNA

Several approaches were examined in an attempt to find a method that would produce intact, high molecular weight DNA.

a) Ionas 1989 (55a)

Materials

The materials described in section 4.2.2 were used.
Method

Trophozoites suspensions (as described in section 4.2.1) were either freshly prepared or stored at -70°C until use. Frozen trophozoite preparations were thawed in a waterbath before use. (Note: although trophozoite pellets were resuspended in 1 ml of TE buffer, the volume of TE buffer was increased to 15 ml upon subsequent adaptations of this method).

0.1 ml SDS (10%) and 0.1 ml Pronase type XIV (10 mg/ml) were added per 1 ml of trophozoite suspension and incubated at 50°C overnight to lyse the cells and digest their proteins. 0.2 ml RNase was added per 1 ml of lysate and incubated for 60 min to digest the RNA. 5M Sodium perchlorate was then added to give a final concentration of 1 M and the lysate incubated at 50°C for a further 60 min.

Phenol/Chloroform/isoamyl alcohol mixed with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer was used as follows to deproteinate the lysate. The upper (aqueous) layer containing the DNA was removed using a 5 ml sterile autopipette fitted with a sterile tip, the point of which was removed, placed into another centrifuge tube and re-extracted twice more with the phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol solution or until the white precipitate was no longer visible at the interface. The DNA was then placed into dialysis tubing and dialysed at 4°C against 4L (total of 16L) of TE buffer with three changes over a 48 hour period.

The DNA was concentrated by adding 1/10th of the volume of 3M sodium acetate, mixed gently, followed by 2.5 volumes of cold (-20°C) 95% ethanol. After gentle mixing this was placed at -20°C for at least 2h or 4°C overnight. The DNA was pelleted the next day following centrifugation at 15000g for 30 min in an SS34 rotor at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and an equal volume of 70% ethanol was added to wash the pellet. The DNA was centrifuged again at 15000g for a further 30 min. After discarding the
supernatant, the DNA pellet was dried under vacuum for 20 min in a
dessicator and finally resuspended in 500μl of TE buffer. The DNA was then
transferred to an eppendorf tube and stored at 4°C.

b) Nash et al, 1985 (89)

Materials

1) Extraction buffer
   50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)
   100 mM Nacl
   50 mM EDTA

This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

2) Extraction buffer + 1% SDS
   Extraction Buffer 100 ml
   SDS 1.0 g

This solution was stored at room temperature.

3) Proteinase K 20 mg/ml
   Proteinase K 20 mg
   Sterile Water 1 ml

This was stored as 50 μl aliquots, each containing 1 mg, at -20°C.

4) Ethidium bromide 10 mg/ml - see appendix.

5) TE Dialysis buffer (pH 7.5)
   50 mM Tris-HCl
   10 mM EDTA
This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

6) 3M Sodium acetate - see appendix.

7) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

8) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

9) TE buffer - see appendix.

Method

Pelleted preparations of trophozoites (as described in section 4.2.1), frozen in 0.5-1 ml of TE buffer, were thawed into an equal volume of extraction buffer. An equal volume of extraction buffer with 1% SDS was then added followed immediately by 1 mg of proteinase K. The mixture was incubated at 37°C for 2 hr, and extraction buffer was added to the lysate to a total volume of 16 ml. This was mixed with 23 ml of extraction buffer saturated with caesium chloride and 1 ml of ethidium bromide and was centrifuged for 18 hr at 216 000g in a Beckman VTI 50 rotor. A single band of DNA was removed by aspiration and the ethidium bromide extracted by partitioning five times with isopropanol.

The CsCl was removed by dialysis against TE buffer (3 hr with three changes of dialysate).

The DNA was precipitated with 2.5 volumes of 95% ethanol after the solution was first adjusted to 0.3M sodium acetate and left at -20°C overnight. The precipitate was recovered by centrifugation at 17 300g for 30 min at 4°C and was washed with 70% ethanol at room temperature. The precipitate was dried under vacuum for 20 min, resuspended in 250µl of TE buffer, and stored in an eppendorf tube at 4°C.
c) Strauss, 1990 (110)

Materials

1) Digestion buffer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Volume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5M NaCl</td>
<td>0.20 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1M Tris-HCl (pH8)</td>
<td>0.10 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2M Tris-EDTA</td>
<td>1.25 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled Water to</td>
<td>10.00 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After autoclaving, the following were added immediately before use:

- 10% SDS (see 5.2.2 (a)) 0.6 ml
- Proteinase K (see 5.2.2 (b)) 31.0 mg

2) Phenol/Chloroform/Isomyl alcohol - see appendix.

3) STE Buffer - see appendix.

4) 4M Lithium chloride

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lithium Chloride (LiCl)</td>
<td>3.39 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled water to</td>
<td>200 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was filter sterilized and stored at room temperature.

5) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

6) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

Method

Pelleted preparations (as described in section 4.2.1), were resuspended in 5 ml of digestion buffer and incubated, with shaking, in a 50°C water bath
overnight in tightly capped tubes to lyse cells and digest their proteins.

An equal volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol, with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer bubbled through, was added to the lysate to extract the nucleic acids and the samples centrifuged for 10 min at 1700g in the Heraeus Christ® centrifuge. The samples were thoroughly extracted three times in this way or until there was no white material remaining at the interphase. The top (aqueous) layer containing the DNA was removed to a new tube and then dialysed for 48 hr against TE buffer (four changes of 4 L) at 4°C.

After dialysis, the DNA was precipitated by adding one tenth of the volume of 4 M LiCl, mixed and 2.5 volumes of 95% ethanol. This was left at -20°C overnight and then centrifuged for 30 min at 17500g (4°C) the following day. The precipitate was washed with 70% ethanol, dried for 20 min under vacuum and resuspended in 150µl of TE buffer. The DNA solution was shaken at 65°C for several hours to facilitate solubilization and stored at 4°C until required.

d) Sambrook, Fritsch and Maniatis, 1989 (101)

Method

This method was based on that of Blin and Stafford (14).

Materials

1) Lysis buffer
   
   0.5 M EDTA (pH 8.0)
   
   100 µg/ml Proteinase K
   
   0.5% sarcosyl

   This was freshly prepared before use.
2) Phenol/Chloroform/Isoamyl Alcohol - see appendix.

3) STE buffer - see appendix.

4) Dialysis buffer
   50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)
   10 mM EDTA
   10 mM NaCl
   Distilled water to 4L

   This solution was prepared freshly as required.

5) 3M Sodium acetate - see appendix.

6) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

7) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

8) TE buffer - see appendix

Method

Pelleted preparations of trophozoites (as described in section 4.2.2) were resuspended in 1 ml of ice-cold TE buffer. 10 volumes of lysis buffer were added and the suspension of lysed cells incubated at 50°C for 3 hr in a shaking waterbath.

The DNA was gently extracted three times with an equal volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (see section 4.2.2) and centrifuged for 10 min at 2500g. If necessary, the interface was re-extracted with additional phenol solution and TE buffer ("backwashing"). The two top (aqueous) phases were pooled. The sample was dialysed against 4L of dialysis buffer (3
changes over 48 hr) at 4°C.

After dialysis, the DNA was precipitated (as described in sections 5.2.2 (a) and (b) and resuspended in TE buffer to a final volume of 150 µl. This was stored at 4°C.

e) van Keulen, 1992 (personal communication)

Materials

1) Lysis solution
   50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)
   0.1 M EDTA
   0.1 M NaCl
   Distilled water to 10.0 ml

   After autoclaving, the following were added to this solution immediately prior to use:
   10.0% sarcosyl 0.1 ml
   Proteinase K 1.0 mg

2) 10% Sarcosyl
   Sarcosyl 1.0 g
   Distilled Water to 10.0 ml

   This was stored at room temperature without autoclaving.

3) Proteinase K (20 mg/ml)
   Proteinase K 20 mg
   Sterile Water 1 ml

   This was stored as 50 µl aliquots (containing 1 mg) at 20°C.
4) 3M Sodium acetate - see appendix.

5) Isopropanol

6) Sterile Water

7) Phenol/Chloroform/isoamyl alcohol - see appendix.

8) STE buffer - see appendix.

9) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

10) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

11) TE buffer - see appendix.

12) 2% Cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CTAB (Sigma)} & \quad 2.0 \text{ g} \\
\text{Distilled Water to} & \quad 200 \text{ ml}
\end{align*}
\]

This was stored at room temperature without autoclaving.

13) High salt buffer

\[
\begin{align*}
2.4 \text{ M NaCl} \\
10 \text{ mM EDTA}
\end{align*}
\]

14) Chloroform

**Method**

Fresh preparations of pelleted trophozoites (see section 4.2.2) were resuspended in 5 ml of lysis solution and incubated for 30-45 min at 65°C.
An equal volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol, with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer bubbled through, was added to the lysate followed by centrifugation for 10 min at 2500g. The top (aqueous) layer was removed and the DNA precipitated by the addition of one tenth of the volume of 3M sodium acetate, gently mixed, and 0.6 volumes of isopropanol. Most of the nucleic acids were then pelleted by centrifugation for 10 min at 2500g. Any nucleic acids that failed to pellet were collected by their attachment to a sterile glass rod, removed as a spool of DNA and added to the DNA pellet.

The DNA pellet was resuspended in 600 µl of sterile water using an autopipette with a sterile tip, the end of which had been removed, and divided over 6 eppendorf tubes (100 µl in each). An equal volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol, with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer bubbled through, was added to each tube, gently mixed, and centrifuged for 2 min in a microfuge. This step was repeated, after which the top (aqueous) layer was removed and the DNA precipitated by the addition of one tenth of the total volume of 3M Sodium acetate and 2.5 volumes of 95% ethanol and left at -20°C for 2 hr. The DNA was pelleted by centrifugation in a microfuge for 15 min at 4°C. The DNA pellet was washed in 70% ethanol and recentrifuged for 15 min in a microfuge at room temperature.

Each DNA pellet was resuspended in 700µl of sterile water and 500µl of 2% CTAB solution added. This was left at room temperature for 10 min and centrifuged for 10 min in a microfuge. 200µl of high salt buffer was added to each tube and the pellet resuspended with an autopipette fitted with a sterile tip, the end of which had been removed and left overnight to facilitate suspension (as high molecular weight DNA does not easily resuspend in salt solutions).

When the DNA was in solution, or close to it, the solution was diluted 1:1 with sterile water and an equal volume of chloroform added. This was
centrifuged for 5 min in a microfuge and the top (aqueous) layer, containing DNA, removed. The aqueous layer was twice extracted with phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol followed by two ethanol precipitations. (Note that these techniques have been previously described in this method). The DNA was finally resuspended in TE buffer to a total volume of 300µl.

**Note:** If the amount of cells was small (< 10⁷) the CTAB precipitation step was omitted as most of the carbohydrates were removed by isopropanol precipitation.

### 5.2.3 Examination of the state of the DNA

The DNA extracted from all five methods previously described (5.2.ii a-e) was examined by running 5µl samples of DNA (with 5µl bromophenol blue dye) through a 0.4% agarose gel at 50V for 18-24 hr at 4°C (101). BRL high molecular weight markers™ were run in each outer lane to check that the DNA was intact and undegraded (i.e. DNA size >> 25 kb).

### 5.2.4 Determination of DNA concentration and purity.

**A. Spectrophotometric Method**

As described in section 4.2.5. However, the presence of RNA gave an overestimation of the amount of DNA present so DNA concentration was determined using a combination of concentration standards and fluorometric methods.

**B. Concentration Standards**

5µl of standard amounts of phage Lambda DNA were run through a 0.4% agarose gel (101) at 50V overnight, alongside 10 µl, 5 µl and 1 µl samples of
**G. intestinalis** NP 77 DNA, to give final concentrations of 5.0 ng, 10.0 ng, 20 ng, 50 ng, 100 ng and 200 ng of Lambda DNA respectively. The concentration of the sample DNA was calculated by comparison of intensity, after staining with ethidium bromide, to the standards.

### C. Fluorometric Method

**Materials**

1) **10x TNE Buffer**
   - Trizma base 12.1 g
   - EDTA 3.70 g
   - NaCl 58.4 g
   - Distilled water 800 ml
   - HCl conc to pH 7.4
   - Distilled water to 1000 ml

   This solution was filtered and stored at 4°C.

2) **Hoescht stock solution (1 mg/ml)**
   - Hoescht 33258 10.0 mg
   - Distilled water 10.0 ml

   This was stored at 4°C protected from the light. The stock was good for at least 6 months.

3) **Calf thymus DNA stock solution (1 mg/ml in 10 mm Tris-HCl; 50 mM EDTA, pH 8).** This was prepared by the supplier and stored at 4°C.

4) **Working dye solution B** (for measuring DNA samples between 100 ng/ml and 2000 ng/ml final concentration).
   - Hoescht stock solution 100.0 µl
Method

The TKO 100 mini fluorometer™ (Hoefer Scientific instruments) is designed to detect relative fluorescence at 460 nm, making it ideal for DNA assays based on the binding of bis benzimidizole (Hoescht 33258).

The fluorescence enhancement of Hoescht 33258 dye is highly specific for DNA, binding preferentialy to A-T rich regions and binds twice as well to dsDNA as to ssDNA. Consequently, the presence of RNA in the sample does not interfere with the quantitation of DNA as RNA enhancement is usually well below 1% of that produced by the same concentration by weight of DNA. This makes the fluorometric method ideal for estimating the DNA content of *G.intestinalis* samples containing RNA.

The TKO 100 was turned on at least 15 min before use. Calf thymus DNA was used as the reference standard as it is approximately 40% G-C and 60% A-T in nucleotide content which is comparable with *Giardia* DNA. The 10x TNE Buffer stock solution was diluted to give a 1x TNE working solution containing Hoescht 33258 dye (working dye solution B). The TKO 105 glass fluorometry cuvette was filled with 2ml of working dye solution B. The sides of the cuvette were wiped clean and the cuvette placed in the sample chamber - always in the same orientation ("G" imprint to the front).

The machine was adjusted to zero with the scale knob at 50% sensitivity (i.e. 5 clockwise turns of the knob from the fully counter clockwise position). 2 µl of calf thymus DNA (1 mg/ml) was delivered into the 2ml of dye solution in the cuvette and mixed by pipetting in and out without introducing bubbles.
into the solution. The cuvette chamber was closed and the "scale" knob adjusted until the display read "1000" indicating 1000 ng/ml. This was repeated twice more until the reference standard read "1000" reproducibly. The cuvette was emptied and drained thoroughly between samples.

DNA samples of *G.intestinalis* strain Hast 11 were measured in the same manner in units of ng/ml. Each sample was blanked by adjusting the 'zero' control knob each time 2ml of working dye solution B was loaded. The 'scale' control knob was not adjusted.

\[
e.g. \quad 2 \, \mu l \, \text{DNA added} = 2 \, \mu l \, \text{DNA}/2ml = 1 \, \mu l \, \text{DNA/ml}.
\]

So if the scale read '250' this means the concentration of DNA in the sample was 250ng/ml for 1 µl of sample therefore the total DNA concentration was 250µg/ml.

5.2.5 Establishing Conditions for partial digestion of high molecular weight DNA.

Materials

1) Sau 3A restriction enzyme (Boehringer Mannheim) with volume activity of 5 units/µl.

2) Sau 3A incubation buffer (10x concentrated).
   - Tris acetate 33 mM/L
   - Mg-acetate 10 mM/L
   - K-acetate 66 mM/L
   - dithiothreitol 0.5 mM/L
   - pH 7.9 (at 37°C)

(Boehringer Mannheim Incubation buffer A)
This was stored at -20°C in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions.

3) Sterile Water

4) 0.4% agarose gel
   - TBE buffer (see appendix) 200.0 ml
   - Agarose (Ultra Pure) 0.8 g

   This was heated in a microwave for 5 min on Med-High to melt the agarose and cooled to 50°C before pouring.

5) TBE buffer - see appendix

6) Ethidium bromide (10 mg/ml) - see appendix.

   Agarose gels were stained in the following ethidium bromide solution:
   - Ethidium bromide (10 mg/ml) 25 µl
   - Water 500 ml

7) BRL-High Molecular Weight Standard™

   This was stored at 4°C and used in accordance with the manufacturers instructions.

8) High molecular weight *G. intestinalis* DNA (180 µg/ml)

9) Bromophenol blue dye - see appendix.

10) Reaction buffer

   A 9:1 ratio of sterile water to 10x incubation buffer, respectively, was
prepared freshly and stored on ice.

Method

The method described in Sambrook et al (110) was used with some modifications.

A mixture containing 10 µg of G. intestinalis DNA and 15µl of restriction enzyme incubation buffer in a final volume of 150µl was prepared and mixed well by inverting the tube several times. 30µl of this mixture was dispensed into an eppendorf tube (tube 1). 15µl was dispensed into tubes labelled 2-8 and the remainder dispensed into tube 9. All tubes were chilled on ice.

2µl of restriction enzyme (containing 10 units of activity) was diluted to 0.0625 units/µl by the addition of 158µl of reaction buffer. 2µl of this dilution (containing 0.125 units) was added to tube 1 and mixed well. The concentration of the enzyme was thus 0.0625 units/µg DNA. 15µl of this reaction mixture was then transferred to tube 2. The enzyme concentration was now diluted to 0.0313 units/µg DNA. This tube was mixed well and the twofold serial dilution continued through to tube 8 (nothing was added to tube 9).

Tubes 1-8 were incubated in a 37°C waterbath for 1 hr. The reaction was stopped by heating the tubes at 65°C for 10 min. 3µl of bromophenol blue dye was added to each tube (1-9), mixed, and the samples analysed by electrophoresis through a 0.4% agarose gel. BRL High Molecular weight standards™, with accurate markers in the 10-48 kb range, were run on the two outside lanes. Electrophoresis was carried out very slowly (50V; 18 hr; 4°C) until the bromophenol blue was just about to migrate off the gel. The gel was stained in ethidium bromide for 10 min, destained for 1 hr, and photographed under shortwave UV light without overexposing the film.
Using the photograph and the markers, the amount of enzyme required to produce the maximum intensity of fluorescence in the 15-20 kb region of the gel was ascertained. This was accomplished by blocking off all the DNA of desired size from that of the undesired size. The various lanes of the gel were then compared to estimate the degree of digestion that produced the maximum amount of DNA of the desired size. As the intensity of fluorescence is related to the mass distribution of the DNA, to obtain the maximum number of molecules in this size range, half the amount of enzyme that produced the maximum amount of fluorescence was used in the large-scale partial digest. This corresponded to enzyme concentrations $3.9 \times 10^{-3}$ and $9.8 \times 10^{-4}$ units/µg DNA (see Fig. 18).
Fig. 18: Pilot-scale partial Sau 3A I digestion of intact genomic DNA from *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77.

Lane 1: $6.25 \times 10^2$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 2: $3.13 \times 10^2$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 3: $1.56 \times 10^2$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 4: $7.80 \times 10^3$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 5: $3.90 \times 10^3$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 6: $1.95 \times 10^3$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 7: $9.80 \times 10^4$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 8: $4.90 \times 10^4$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lanes 9 & 10: Undigested genomic DNA

Note that lanes 4, 5, and 6 produced the greatest amount of fluorescence in the 10-20 kb region of the gel hence half of each of these enzyme concentrations were used in the large-scale partial Sau 3A I digestions (Fig. 20).
5.2.6 Large Scale preparation of partially digested DNA.

Materials

The materials used in this section were the same as those used in section 5.2.iii except for the following:

1) RNase (1 mg/ml)
   
   RNase 10 mg
   RNase buffer (see appendix) 10 ml

This was preincubated at 100°C for 15 min to destroy any DNases and stored as 1 ml aliquots at -20°C.

2) Phenol/Chloroform/isoamyl alcohol - see appendix.

3) STE buffer - see appendix.

4) 3M sodium acetate - see appendix.

5) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

6) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

7) TE Buffer - see appendix.

Method

Using optimised conditions (see 5.2.5), digestions using 50 µg of high molecular weight, eukaryotic DNA was carried out using identical enzyme concentration, time, temperature and DNA concentration to those used for the pilot reaction (refer to section 5.2.5). The reaction was stopped by heating
the digest at 65°C for 10 min.

An aliquot of the DNA (1µg=15µl of the digest) was analysed by electrophoresis through a 0.4% agarose gel to check that the size distribution of the digestion products was correct. If the size distribution did not correspond to that observed in lanes 6 and 7 (corresponding to 3.9 x 10⁻³ [tube 5], 1.95 x 10⁻³ [tube 6] and 9.8 x 10⁻⁴ [tube 7] units of enzyme/µg DNA) of the pilot scale digest then the same concentration of enzyme was again added to the 50µg DNA digest and reincubated for 1 hr at 37°C.

After reincubation, a further 1µg aliquot of DNA was analysed by electrophoresis through a 0.4% agarose gel (as described above). When the size distribution of the products from the large-scale digest corresponded to that observed in the pilot-scale digest, 7µl of RNase (1 mg/ml stock) was added to each large scale digest and these were incubated for 15 min at 37°C.

The DNA was gently extracted with 2 volumes of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (with one tenth of its volume of STE buffer bubbled through it) and centrifuged for 3 min in a bench microfuge. The top (aqueous) phase was removed and 1 volume of chloroform added. This mixture was pulsed for 2 seconds in the microfuge. The DNA was precipitated following the addition of one tenth of the volume of 3M sodium acetate and 2 volumes of cold 95% ethanol. The DNA was left to precipitate overnight at 4°C.

The next day the DNA was pelleted by centrifuging at 4°C for 10 min in a microfuge. The 95% ethanol was drained off and an equal volume of 70% ethanol added to wash salt and proteins from the pellet. This was centrifuged for 10 min at room temperature in a microfuge. After removing the 70% ethanol, the pellet was dried for 20 min under vacuum and resuspended in 45µl of TE buffer.

A 1µl (1µg) sample of digested DNA electrophoresed through a 0.4% agarose
gel at 4°C overnight to check that there was no RNA and that the DNA remained in the same condition (i.e. 15-20 kb sized fragments) without further shearing.

**Note:** After examining the gel photo it was decided to proceed only with tubes 5 and 6 (Fig. 19). The DNA concentrations were measured using a fluorometer as follows (refer to section 5.2.iii(c)):

- Tube (5): DNA concentration = 300µg/ml = 0.3µg/ml
- Tube (6): DNA concentration = 300µg/ml = 0.3µg/ml

The DNA was stored at 4°C until further use.

### 5.2.7 Partial fill-in reaction for genomic DNA.

Size fractionation of genomic DNA is not necessary when using LambdaGEM-11 Xho I Half-Site Arms® (Promega). To construct a gene library using this method, it is only necessary to partially digest the genomic DNA with Sau 3A I and then fill-in the first two nucleotides of this site using Klenow and the incubation buffer supplied by the manufacturer.

The procedure outlined in the Promega Technical Bulletin No. 057 was used in this section (97).

**Materials**

1) Sterile water

2) Phenol saturated with TE buffer (pH 8.0)

Liquid phenol was mixed with one tenth of its volume of TE buffer and stored at 4°C in the dark.
3) TE buffer (pH 8.0) - see appendix

4) Chloroform

5) 20mM dATP: stored at -20°C

6) 20mM dGTP: stored at -20°C

7) Klenow: stored at -20°C

8) 10x React 4 Incubation Buffer (BRL): stored at -20°C

9) 3M sodium acetate - see appendix.

10) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

**Method**

7µg of partially digested DNA underwent partial end-filling in eppendorf tubes as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>TUBE 5</th>
<th>TUBE 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DNA (7 µg)</td>
<td>24.1 µl</td>
<td>23.3 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10x REACT 4</td>
<td>5.0 µl</td>
<td>5.0 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM dATP</td>
<td>2.5 µl</td>
<td>2.5 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM dGTP</td>
<td>2.5 µl</td>
<td>2.5 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KLENOV</td>
<td>4.0 µl</td>
<td>4.0 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WATER</td>
<td>11.9 µl</td>
<td>12.7 µl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL VOLUME</strong></td>
<td>50 µl</td>
<td>50 µl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These tubes were incubated for 30 min at 37°C. An extra 50µl of water was added after incubation to bring the total volume to 100µl.

1 volume of phenol and one volume of chloroform was added and the mixture centrifuged for 5 minutes in a microfuge. The top (aqueous) layer was removed and 50µl of water added to the lower phenol layer and centrifuged for a further 5 min ("backwashing"). This process was repeated. The aqueous layers were pooled (a total volume of 200µl) and 2 volumes of chloroform added. This was centrifuged for 1 min after which the top (aqueous) layer was removed and 100µl of water added to the lower chloroform layer and centrifuged for an additional 1 min ("backwashing"). The total volume of the pooled aqueous layers was now 300µl. 30µl of 3M Sodium acetate was added to this and mixed carefully. 2.5 volumes of 95% ethanol was added and the mixtures left overnight at -20°C to precipitate the DNA.

The next day, the DNA was pelleted after centrifugation for 10 min at 4°C in a microfuge followed by a 70% ethanol wash for 15 min at room temperature in a bench microfuge. Each pellet was dried, after decanting the 70% ethanol, for 25 min under vacuum, resuspended in 15µl of TE buffer and stored at 4°C until further use.

5.2.8 Ligation of insert to vector arms

Materials

1) Ligase 10x Buffer (New England Biolabs).

This was stored at -20°C
2) Sterile water

3) Lambda GEM-11 Xho I Half Site arms® (0.5µg)

This was stored at -20°C and used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

4) Positive control insert (pTI 11 = 16 kb plasmid; Promega).

These were stored at -20°C and used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

5) DNA ligase (New England Biolabs; 6.5 Weiss units/µl)

This was stored at -20°C and used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Method

The techniques outlined in Promega Technical Bulletin No. 057 were used (97).

Ligations were performed for DNA from both Tubes 5 and 6 as follows:

Tube   A = negative control (arms only)
        B = 1:1 (vector:insert ratio)
        C = 4:1 (vector:insert ratio)
        D = positive control (pTI 11)

Note: The concentration of DNA in tubes 5 and 6 was 0.3 µg/µl.
These reactions were mixed gently and incubated overnight at 4°C.

5.2.9 Small-scale packaging of ligated DNA

Packaging in vitro refers to the use of a phage-infected E. coli cell extract to supply the mixture of proteins and precursors required for encapsidating Lambda DNA. The following procedure uses Promega’s Packagene® in vitro packaging system.

Materials

1) Packaging extracts (Promega Packagene®)
These were stored at -80°C and used according to the manufacturers instructions.

2) Chloroform

3) SM Buffer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NaCl</td>
<td>5.8 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnesium sulphate</td>
<td>2.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1M Tris (pH 7.5)</td>
<td>50.0 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gelatin</td>
<td>20.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water to</td>
<td>1000.0 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was autoclaved in 50ml aliquots and stored at room temperature.

4) LB (Luria-Bertiaini) medium

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bacto-Tryptone</td>
<td>10 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacto-Yeast extract</td>
<td>5 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NaCl</td>
<td>5 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5M NaOH to pH 7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled water to</td>
<td>1 L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

5) LB plates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LB media (pH 7.5)</td>
<td>1 L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Davis agar</td>
<td>15 g</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was autoclaved and cooled to 50°C before plates were poured. Plates could be stored for up to one week at room temperature or 3 weeks at 4°C.
6) 1M Magnesium Sulphate (MgSO₄)
Magnesium sulphate 24.65 g
Distilled Water 100.0 ml

This was stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

7) 20% Maltose
Maltose 20 g
Distilled Water 100 ml

This was stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

8) TB Top Agar
Bacto-Tryptone 10 g
NaCl 5 g
Distilled Water to 1 L

This was divided into 50ml aliquots. 0.4 g of agar was added to each aliquot and these were stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

9) LB + Tet (15µg/ml) plates
LB agar (sterilized and cooled to 50°C) 1.0 L
Tetracycline (10 mg/ml) 1.5 ml

Plates poured could be stored for up to 3 weeks at 4°C.

10) Tetracycline stock solution 10mg/ml
Tetracycline 100 mg
Methanol 10 ml

This solution was stored at -20°C.
**Method**

The technique outlined in Promega's Technical Bulletin No. 057 was used (97).

**a) Packaging of the library**

Packagene® extracts were thawed on ice. (Note: the volume of the Packagene® extract is 50µl). 25µl of each extract was removed immediately after thawing and transferred to labelled eppendorf tubes.

2.5µl of each ligation (5A-D and 6A-D) was added to the appropriately labelled tube containing Packagene extract and mixed by gently tapping the bottom of the tube several times. These were incubated at 22°C for 3 hr.

After incubation, 222.5µl of SM buffer was added to each tube (250µg DNA/250µl = 1µg/µl DNA), mixed, and 25µl of chloroform added and mixed by gentle inversion. Packaged phage could be stored at 4°C for seven days with no drop in titre, or up to 3 weeks, although the titre may drop several fold.

**b) Titre of the Library**

It is necessary to titre the library to find the concentration of viable phage as only phage containing an insert can form plaques when grown on *E.coli* strain KW 251.

Two days before ligation and packaging were performed, a single colony of *E. coli* strain KW 251 bacteria was streaked on to a LB + Tet plate and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day a single colony from this freshly streaked plate was used to inoculate 50ml of LB medium supplemented with 0.2% maltose and 10mM MgSO₄. This was shaken overnight at 37°C and
stored immediately on ice the following day.

$10^2$, $10^3$ and $10^4$ dilutions of each tube of packaged phage (refer to (a) of this section) were made in SM buffer. 100µl of the diluted phage was added to 100µl of the overnight KW 251 culture and the phage allowed to absorb to the cells by incubation at 37°C for 30 min.

1ml of 1M MgSO$_4$ was added to 100 ml of TB top agar that had been melted and cooled to 45°C. 3ml of molten (45°C) TB top agar was added to each tube, mixed by quickly vortexing and immediately poured onto LB plates prewarmed to 37°C. The top agar was allowed to harden and the inverted plates incubated at 37°C overnight.

The next day the number of plaques was counted and the titre of the phage calculated using the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{(number of plaques)} \times \text{(dilution factor)}}{\text{(volume plated) = 0.1 ml}}} = \text{pfu/ml}$$

The packaging efficiency of the arms was also calculated as follows:

$$\frac{\text{(pfu/ml)}}{\text{(concentration of vector DNA packaged)} = \text{recombinants/µg λ DNA}}}$$

Titres from the various plates were compared to determine the optimal ratios of vector arms and genomic DNA insert for ligation.

The expected packaging efficiency for the LambdaGEM-11 Half-Sites Arms® positive control was $2 \times 10^6$ - $2 \times 10^7$ pfu/µg and that of the negative control
5.2.10 Large Scale Packaging of Ligated DNA

Materials

The same materials as those described in section 5.2.9 (trial packaging) were used.

Method

The same method was used as described in section 5.2.9.

The optimal ratios of vector arms and genomic DNA insert for ligation were found to be those of ligations 6C and 6D (refer to section 5.2.8). 2.5µl of ligated DNA from tubes 6C and 6D were added to each of 25µl of Packagene Extract® (as a scaled-up reaction). These reactions were named 6C1 and 6D1 respectively. 5 µl of ligated DNA from tube 6D was added to 50 µl of Packagene Extract as a larger reaction and was named 6D2. Reactions were mixed by gently tapping the bottom of the tube several times. Conditions and times of incubation were identical to those outlined in section 5.2.9. After incubation 222.5µl of SM buffer was added to each of packaging reactions 6C and 6D1. 445µl of SM buffer was added to packaging reaction 6D2. 25µl of chloroform was then added to all of the tubes to prevent bacterial growth during storage. The packaged phage were stored at 4°C.

Titration of each of the packaged phage reactions were performed by adding 100µl of diluted phage (10^2, 10^3 and 10^4 dilutions in SM buffer) to 100µl of an overnight culture of E. coli strain KW251 cells(see section 5.2.9 b) and the phage allowed to absorb to cells by incubation at 37°C for 30 min.

1 ml of 1M MgSO4 was added to 100 ml of TB top agar that had been melted and cooled to 45°C. 3 ml of molten top agar (45°C) was added to each
tube, mixed by quickly vortexing and immediately poured on to LB plates prewarmed to 37°C. The top agar was allowed to harden and the inverted plates were incubated at 37°C overnight. The next day the number of plaques were counted and the titre of phage and packaging efficiency of the arms were calculated as described in section 5.2.9.

5.2.11 Amplification of the Library

Materials

1) SM Buffer - see section 5.2.9.

2) 1M Tris-HCl - see appendix.

3) LB (Luria-Bertiani) plates - see section 5.2.9.

4) TB Top Agar - see section 5.2.9.

5) 1M MgSO₄ - see section 5.2.9.

6) 20% Maltose - see section 5.2.9.

7) LB (Luria Bertiani) medium - see section 5.2.9.

8) LB + Tetracycline (TC) (15µ/ml) plates - see section 5.2.9.

9) Tetracycline (Tc) 10 mg/ml stock solution - see section 5.2.9.

Method

The library of recombinant phage was amplified by growing a plate stock
directly from the packaging mixture as described by Sambrook et al (101).

An overnight culture of *E. coli* strain KW251 was prepared by inoculating a single colony growing on a LB + Tet plate into 50ml of LB medium supplemented with 0.5ml 20% Maltose and 0.5ml 1M MgSO$_4$.7H$_2$O and the flask incubated, with shaking, overnight at 37°C. The next morning the culture was removed and stored on ice until use.

Appropriate dilutions of the library from packaging mixtures 6Cl and 6D2 were made in SM buffer to give confluent lysis (approximately $10^5$ pfu when plated). 100µl of phage dilution was added to 100µl of *E. coli* KW251 and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. 5 tubes were prepared from each packaging mixture. 3ml molten top agar was added, the mixture briefly vortexed, and immediately poured on to LB plates prewarmed to 37°C. The plates were inverted and incubated for 6 hr at 37°C.

Plaques were not allowed to grow so large that they touched. This short period of growth minimized the chances for infection of bacteria with two different recombinants, thereby reducing the possibility of recombination between repetitive sequences carried by different recombinants with consequent "scrambling" of the library. It also minimized the opportunity for changes in the bacteriophage population that may occur because of differences in the rate of growth of different recombinants.

5ml of SM buffer was added to each plate and the plates were incubated overnight at 4°C. The bacteriophage suspension was removed from each plate with a sterile pasteur pipette and transferred to a sterile SS34 tube. Each plate was rinsed with a further 1ml of SM buffer and the suspensions pooled. Chloroform was added to the phage suspensions to give a final concentration of 1%. Cellular and agar debris were removed by centrifugation at 4000g for 4 min. The supernatant containing the phage was removed, chloroform added to a final concentration of 0.3%, and stored in a glass bottle at 4°C.
The amplified library was titred as described in section 5.2.9. Further steps involving concentration of phage were omitted as the titre of the phage was very high ($10^{10}$ pfu/ml).

5.2.12 Storage of the Library

Materials

1) Dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO)

2) 1ml sterile Nunc™ cryopreservation tubes

Method

The amplified and original packaged libraries were stored as 0.5ml aliquots in 1ml Nunc TM tubes with DMSO added to a final concentration of 7%. Tubes were wrapped in paper towels and placed in polystyrene container so that they froze slowly overnight at -80°C. The following day the tubes were removed to a labelled freezer box and stored at -80°C until required.

5.2.13 Demonstration of the representation of the library.

Material

1) LB-agarose plates
   Bacto-tryptone  10.0  g
   Bacto-yeast extract  5.0  g
   NaCl  5.0  g
   Agarose  15.0  g
   NaOH to pH 7.5
Distilled water to 1.0 L

This was autoclaved and cooled to 45°C before plates were poured. Plates were stored inverted at room temperature for one week or 4°C for one month.

2) LB Agar - see section 5.2.9

3) 20% Maltose - see section 5.2.9

4) 1M MgSO$_4$.7H$_2$O - see section 5.2.9

5) TB top Agarose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bacto-tryptone</td>
<td>10.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NaCl</td>
<td>5.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agarose</td>
<td>0.8 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled water to</td>
<td>100.0 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was autoclaved in 50ml aliquots and stored at room temperature. The agarose was melted in a microwave before use and cooled to 45°C before adding 0.5ml of 1M MgSO$_4$.

6) SM buffer - see section 5.2.9

7) Phage buffer 200ml

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Concentration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100mM NaCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10mM MgSO$_4$.7H$_2$O</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled water to</td>
<td>200ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.
8) RNase 1mg/ml
   RNase A 10 mg
   RNase buffer (see appendix) 10 ml

   This was preincubated at 100°C for 15 min and stored as 1 ml aliquots at -20°C.

9) DNase (1 mg/ml)
   1mg/ml stock solution of DNase I in 0.15M NaCl and 50% glycerol. This was divided into small aliquots and stored at -20°C.

10) 3M Sodium acetate - see appendix.

11) 95% ethanol - see appendix.

12) 70% ethanol - see appendix.

13) TE buffer - refer to appendix.

14) Restriction enzyme Hind III and its 10X reaction buffer were used according to the manufacturers instructions and stored at -20°C.

15) Polyethylene glycol (PEG) solution
   PEG 8000 80.0 g
   NaCl 46.8 g
   SM buffer 400.0 ml

   This was autoclaved and stored at room temperature until use.

16) 10% Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS)
   SDS 10.0 g
   Distilled Water 100.0 ml
This was stored at room temperature without autoclaving.

17) 0.25 M EDTA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EDTA</td>
<td>0.93 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled Water to</td>
<td>10.00 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

18) TE-saturated phenol

10 ml of TE buffer was added to 100 ml of liquid phenol to neutralise/reduce the acidity of the phenol. This was stored at 4°C in the dark until use.

19) Chloroform

This was stored at room temperature in the dark.

20) TBE buffer - see appendix.

21) Bromophenol blue dye - see appendix.

22) 0.7% Agarose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agarose (Ultra Pure)</td>
<td>2.1 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBE buffer</td>
<td>300.0 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The agarose was melted by heating in a microwave for 5-6 min on med-high and cooled to 50°C before pouring the gel.

23) Ethidium bromide (10 mg/ml) - see appendix.
A combination of the methods outlined by Current Protocols (29) and Sambrook \textit{et al} (101), with modifications, was used.

An overnight culture of \textit{E. coli} KW251 in LB medium supplemented with 2\% maltose and 10mM MgSO$_4$ was prepared (see section 5.2.9 (b)).

The phage library was diluted in SM buffer to give 10 PFU (Plaque Forming Units) when plated. 100\µl of phage dilution was added to 100\µl of KW251 cells and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. This was prepared in duplicate. 3ml of molten agarose (45°C) was added to each tube, quickly vortexed, and poured on to prewarmed (37°C) LB agarose plates. Agarose was used in both the LB plates and top agar as agar contains inhibitors of restriction endonucleases which may affect results. The plates were inverted and incubated at 37°C for 6 hours.

12 individual, well separated plaques were picked from each plate using sterile autopipette tips, the ends of which had been removed, and each plaque placed in an eppendorf tube containing 800\µl of SM buffer and 50\µl of chloroform. These were left overnight at 4°C for the phage to diffuse out of the agar into the SM buffer. An overnight culture of KW251 cells was also prepared (as described above).

The following day 50\µl of each phage suspension was diluted with 50\µl of SM buffer. 100\µl of diluted phage was added to 100\µl of an overnight culture of KW251 cells and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. 3 ml of molten Top agarose (45°C) was added to each tube. The tubes were vortexed, and the suspension poured on to LB agarose plates prewarmed to 37°C. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 6 hours. 5 ml of SM buffer was added to each plate and these were incubated overnight at 4°C.
The following day, the lysate was removed from each plate and centrifuged at 5K for 10 min at 4°C to pellet cellular debris. The supernatant containing the phage, was decanted into a 40ml centrifuge tube. RNase and DNase were added to give a final concentration of 1µg/ml, respectively, and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. 5 ml of PEG solution was added to each phage suspension, mixed well and the tubes were incubated on ice for one hour. The phage suspension was centrifuged at 5K for 30 min at 4°C to pellet the phage, the supernatant discarded and the tube drained. Each phage pellet was resuspended in 0.5ml of SM buffer and transferred to an eppendorf tube.

5 µl of 10% SDS and 10µl of 0.25M EDTA was added to each tube and incubated for 15 min at 68°C. The tubes were vortexed briefly and an equal volume of phenol (TE saturated) was added. The tubes were vortexed for 10 sec, left standing for 5 min for the phases to separate, vortexed for a further 10 sec and left standing for a further 5 min. The top (aqueous) layer containing the phage DNA was removed to a fresh eppendorf tube. 500µl of TE-saturated phenol and 500 µl of chloroform were added to each fresh tube, vortexed for 10 min, and left standing for 5 min. The top layer, containing the DNA, was removed to a fresh eppendorf tube where an equal volume of chloroform was added and the tube centrifuged for 5 min. The top layer was removed and the DNA ethanol precipitated by the addition of one tenth of the volume of sodium acetate, the solution mixed well, and 2 volumes of cold 95% ethanol. The tubes were left overnight at -20°C to precipitate the DNA.

The next day the DNA was pelleted following centrifugation for 15 min at 4°C in an Eppendorf machine. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet washed with 1 ml of 70% ethanol by centrifugation at room temperature for 10 min in an Eppendorf machine. The ethanol was discarded and the pellet dried under vacuum. Each pellet was resuspended in 50µl of TE buffer and the DNA concentration of each was determined with a fluorometer (refer to section 5.2.3 (c)).
1 μg of DNA from each of the 12 single recombinant clones was digested with Hind III, following the manufacturers instructions, in a total volume of 100 μl and incubated at 37°C for 2-3 hours. Complete digestion of the DNA from each clone was tested by running a 15μl sample of each digest with 3μl of bromophenol blue dye on a 0.8% agarose gel at 100V for 2 hours. The gel was stained for 10 min with ethidium bromide, destained for 1 hour and photographed under shortwave UV light.

A further 1.5 units of Hind III was added to each tube where the DNA of the clone appeared to be undigested or only partially digested and the digests were reincubated at 37°C for a further 2-3 hours.

The remainder of each digest was ethanol precipitated following the addition of one tenth of the volume of 3M sodium acetate and 2.5 volumes of cold (95%) ethanol and incubation at -20°C for 2 hours. The DNA was pelleted following centrifugation for 15 min at 4°C in an eppendorf machine and the pellet washed with 70% ethanol at room temperature (see section 5.2.ii). After drying each DNA pellet in the Speedvac™, the DNA digests from each clone were resuspended in 30 μl of sterile water and 5 μl of bromophenol blue dye. The fragments produced from digestion of the DNA from each clone were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis (0.7% agarose; 30 V at room temperature overnight).

5.2.14 Determination of the size of inserts

Materials

1) Lambda DNA digested with Hind III (molecular standard).

Method

The method described in section 4.2.8 was used.
5.3 RESULTS

Several methods were used to try to produce intact, high molecular weight DNA from *G. intestinalis* trophozoites (55a, 89, 101, 110). All the methods originally examined produced DNA that was sheared, and hence could not be used for the construction of a genomic library. A typical result is illustrated in Fig. 19. Subsequently, the method of van Keulen (personal communication) was used and produced intact, high molecular weight (> 55 kb) DNA in sufficient quantities for library construction (Fig. 19).

Intact, DNA from *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77 was partially digested with Sau 3AI to produce fragment sizes of 10-20 kb (Fig. 20). These were then end-filled and ligated into the DNA of a Lambda vector. DNA was packaged *in vitro* and the resulting phage was titred by plating on *E. coli* strain KW251. Under these conditions, only phage containing insert DNA were able to form plaques. Preliminary packaging experiments were conducted on a small-scale with positive and negative controls to confirm that the expected result was achieved (Table 3). Identical conditions were used in a large-scale reaction (Table 4) but as the results of both negative and positive controls were satisfactory in the small-scale reaction it was considered wasteful to repeat them. The resulting library was amplified, titred (Table 4) and stored at -80°C until further use. 12 single plaques were selected and each clone was amplified and its DNA extracted. The DNA from each was digested with Hind III. The results are shown (Fig. 21). Although the clones were digested with a number of different enzymes known to recognise sites in the arms of the vector, only partial digestion of each clone was achieved. Digests of twelve new clones produced similar results. Nevertheless, the average insert size could still be calculated (Table 5).
Fig. 19: Total genomic DNA extracted from *G. intestinalis* trophozoites using the methods of Ionas (lane 2), Strauss (lane 3), and van Keulen (lane 4). Lane 1 contains the High Molecular Weight DNA markers (BRL).

Note that only the method of van Keulen (lane 5) produced intact genomic DNA with a molecular weight of greater than 48 kb.
Fig. 20: Large-scale partial Sau 3A.I digestion of intact genomic DNA from *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77.

Lane 3: $3.90 \times 10^{3}$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 4: $1.95 \times 10^{3}$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 5: $9.80 \times 10^{4}$ enzyme units/microgram DNA
Lane 6: Intact genomic DNA (undigested control)

Note that the DNA represented in lanes 3 and 4 contained the highest number of 10-20 kb fragments, hence these digests were used in the ligation reactions and were referred to as 5 and 6, respectively.
TABLE 3: Titre of the small-scale library.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TUBE NUMBER</th>
<th>PHAGE TITRE (PFU/ml)</th>
<th>NUMBER OF RECOMBINANTS/µg λ DNA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A = Negative control</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E = Positive control</td>
<td>9.16 x 10⁷</td>
<td>9.16 x 10⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5C</td>
<td>1.89 x 10⁵</td>
<td>1.89 x 10⁵</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C</td>
<td>4.50 x 10⁵</td>
<td>4.50 x 10⁵</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5D</td>
<td>4.90 x 10⁵</td>
<td>4.90 x 10⁵</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6D</td>
<td>6.60 x 10⁵</td>
<td>6.60 x 10⁵</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: C and D refer to the molar ratio of arms:vector DNA used in the ligation reaction (C = 1:1; D = 4:1)
TABLE 4: Titre of large-scale and amplified libraries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TUBE NUMBER</th>
<th>PHAGE TITRE (PFU/ml)</th>
<th>NUMBER OF RECOMBINANTS/µg λDNA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6C1</td>
<td>1.73 x 10^6</td>
<td>1.73 x 10^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6D1</td>
<td>9.30 x 10^5</td>
<td>9.30 x 10^5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6D2</td>
<td>8.90 x 10^5</td>
<td>8.90 x 10^5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C1 Amplified</td>
<td>6.60 x 10^10</td>
<td>6.60 x 10^10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6D2 Amplified</td>
<td>3.60 x 10^10</td>
<td>3.60 x 10^10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 6C1 and 6D1 refer to packaging reactions of ligated DNA from tubes 6C and 6D, respectively, in which only 25ul of Packagene Extract™ was used. 6D2 refers to the large-scale packaging of ligated DNA from tube 6D using 50ul of Packagene Extract™.
Fig. 21: Hind III digestion of 12 clones from the *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77 gene library. The outer left and right hand lanes contain the High Molecular Weight DNA (BRL) and Lambda Hind III DNA markers, respectively.

Note that the banding pattern of each clone is different and that the common bands present in each digest are those of the vector arms.
TABLE 5: Average size of inserts present in the gene library.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLONE NUMBER</th>
<th>SIZE OF INSERT (kilobases)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.3 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19.6 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.5 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.8 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>18.5 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.0 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.1 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.5 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.8 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.9 kb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AVERAGE SIZE OF INSERT</strong></td>
<td><strong>16.4 kb</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The average insert size was calculated from the insert size of the ten best clone digests (29, 101).
5.4 DISCUSSION

Five methods were used in an effort to produce intact, high molecular weight DNA from *G. intestinalis* trophozoites. Intact DNA is required for the construction of genomic libraries. The DNA is partially digested with Sau 3AI in the initial steps of library construction, but if the DNA is not intact before digestion then, on comparison of digests with the undigested control DNA, it is difficult to distinguish between DNA that is sheared from DNA partially digested by Sau 3AI. More importantly, sheared DNA will not ligate with the vector DNA. The methods of Ionas (1988), Strauss (1990), Sambrook et al (1989) and Nash et al (1985) all produced sheared DNA (refer Fig. 18). The method of van Keulen et al (115) which involved the combination of two methods (101, 119) was also used but as sheared DNA was produced the result was not included in this thesis. However, as van Keulen et al were obviously able to produce intact DNA to construct a library (115), Harry van Keulen was personally approached for a detailed description of the method he had used. This detailed method is outlined in the materials and methods section of this chapter and repeatedly produced intact DNA (Fig. 18).

All methods of isolating DNA shared three basic steps: cell lysis using a detergent (eg. SDS or sarkosyl); removal of protein by phenol/chloroform extraction; and concentration of the DNA by ethanol precipitation. Comparison of these methods suggested several critical parameters for the generation of high molecular weight DNA (> 55 kb). Firstly, it is important to minimise the activity of endogenous nucleases either by freezing cells as soon as they are harvested or by extracting DNA immediately from fresh trophozoites and by the inclusion of EDTA in the lysis buffer. Dilution of the lysate and initial extraction steps (eg. phenol/chloroform extraction) also reduced nuclease activity and aided separation of the organic phase from the aqueous phase. Shearing forces were minimised by gentle (but thorough) mixing during extraction steps. Cost effectiveness was also an important consideration as ultracentrifugation using caesuin chloride was a time-consuming and costly process. The powerful proteolytic activity of proteinase K removed many of the cellular proteins. However, the most important factor in producing high yields of
intact DNA proved to be the inclusion of an isopropanol precipitation step (van Keulen’s method) after a primary single phenol/chloroform step. This step removes much of the polysaccharides present in the cell lysate.

*Giardia* strains contain high levels of polysaccharide and we concluded that the action of polysaccharides and proteins binding to the DNA present in the solution results in the loss of much of the intact DNA in the thick layer of white material formed at the interphase during phenol/chloroform extraction (119). Thus precipitation of the nucleic acids by the isopropanol, without precipitating polysaccharides and proteins, increased the yield of intact DNA. The other advantage of including this step was that since the DNA could be dissolved in a small volume the remaining steps could be performed in Eppendorf tubes thus reducing the amount of phenol/chloroform and other solutions required. Traces of polysaccharide still remaining could be removed by precipitating the DNA with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB). However, CTAB precipitation was not required for our DNA extractions as most of the polysaccharide was removed by the isopropanol precipitation step. Finally, the precipitation of DNA with 3M sodium acetate and cold 95% ethanol followed by a 70% ethanol wash removed any remaining organic solvents, salt and cellular proteins so that the intact DNA produced was relatively pure and free from inhibitors and was readily digested by Sau 3A I.

The intact DNA from *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77 was used to produce a gene library. A high titre ($10^6$ PFU/ml) of recombinant plaques (Table 4) indicated efficient packaging of the recombinant phage and consequently suggests that an appropriate library was produced. However, it is possible that the apparent library could represent merely a subfraction of the *G. intestinalis* genome and if so, the cloned DNA fragments could frequently be the same whereas in an adequate library of a large genome there would be great heterogeneity of the packaged DNA. Consequently, it was necessary to demonstrate that the library created is representative of the entire *Giardia* genome. It is not practical to show that each region of the *Giardia* genome is present in the library but a variety of methods can be used to show that the library is representative.
One method involves the screening of duplicate plaque lifts from a single plating of 10,000 to 50,000 clones with an actin hybridization probe. Each duplicating signal on the film is scored as a positive. Actin is used as the probe of choice with which to evaluate the library because it is small in size (approximately 1 kb), its sequence is highly conserved across species and probes are widely available (29). It was calculated that for a library constructed from *G. intestinalis*, which has a genome size of $8 \times 10^4$ kb and with insert sizes of 10-20 kb, that the number of positive clones will be approximately 10-20 if about 35,000 clones are screened (see calculations below) and the library is representative. However, this method involves the preliminary use of southern blots of genomic DNA to establish the optimal conditions of hybridization for the actin probe which is extremely laborious. An alternative method recommended for evaluating libraries is to take a calculated number of phage and show the inserts from each are different (29). This latter approach was used to evaluate the gene library produced for *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77.

Twelve single recombinant clones were selected, amplified and their DNA extracted. DNA from each of the clones was digested with Hind III to show that each contained a different insert (Fig. 21). At least 10 of the 12 recombinant clones selected were required to have inserts visible by ethidium bromide fluorescence, with an average size of 10-20 kb (29). Since this was achieved with our library, we conclude that it is likely to be representative of the *G. intestinalis* strain NP 77 genome.

Bearing in mind the size of the *G. intestinalis* genome ($8 \times 10^7$ bp), the question arises as to whether or not enough clones are present in the library to include all genomic sequences. The number of clones required for such a library can be calculated by a formula derived by Clarke and Carbon (1976; 24b).
where:

\[ N = \frac{\ln(1-P)}{\ln(1-\frac{1}{n})} \]

\[ P = \text{probability of including any DNA sequence in a random library of N;} \]

and:

\[ n = \text{size of the genome relative to a single cloned fragment (insert).} \]

Given that the size of the *Giardia* genome is $8 \times 10^4$ kb and the average size of the insert is 16.4 kb (Table 5):

\[ n = \frac{8 \times 10^4}{1.64 \times 10^1} = 4.88 \times 10^3 \]

So, for a 99.9% probability that we have created a complete library:

\[ N = \frac{\ln(1-0.999)}{\ln(1-\frac{1}{4.88 \times 10^3})} = 3.37 \times 10^4 \]

Hence $3.37 \times 10^4$ clones are required for an adequate library and so this number of clones should be used for any screening of the library for clones of interest.

To check that this number of clones was present in our library (note: the number of recombinant phage/µg of Lambda DNA calculated for reaction mixture 6D1 was used) the following calculations were made:
The number of recombinant phage/µg Lambda DNA = 9.30 x 10⁵ (Table 4). However, only 0.25 µg of Lambda DNA was used in this packaging reaction (refer to section 5.2.10). Therefore, the number of recombinant phage/µg Lambda DNA is 2.33 x 10⁵ in the total volume of the packaged phage (250 µl) i.e. 9.3 x 10² recombinant phage/µl.

As the minimum requirement for 99.9% probability that a complete library has been created is 3.37 x 10⁴ recombinants (clones), then for the 250 µl total volume of tube 6D1:

\[
\frac{\text{no. recombinant phage/microgram A DNA}}{\text{no. clones for a complete library}} = \frac{2.30\times10^5}{3.37\times10^4} = 6.82
\]

This means that our library was 6.82 times greater than that required for a minimum library and contained an adequate number of clones for a representative library.
Giardia intestinalis infects both humans and animals yet there is no strong evidence to suggest that animals represent a major source of infection for humans. Furthermore, when humans are infected with Giardia the clinical outcome may vary widely, thus many cases are asymptomatic whereas others develop severe and chronic diarrhoea. These and other considerations raise the question as to whether or not the strains of Giardia which infect humans vary in virulence and whether any or all of the strains which infect humans are derived from animals.

Such questions and detailed epidemiological studies could be addressed if methods were developed to distinguish individual strains or groups of strains of Giardia. This thesis represents the application of the techniques of molecular genetics to the problem of how G. intestinalis strains may be distinguished.

The concept that digests of total genomic DNA, followed by electrophoresis of the fragments produced, can give banding patterns which allow individual strains of microorganisms to be distinguished has been well established in practice (1, 20, 31, 37, 50, 77, 89). The simplicity of this technique led us to attempt it with Giardia.

A difficulty arose because the genome is large and gave rise to a large number of restriction products. The actual number of fragments produced depends on the total genomic length, the size of the recognition site (ie. a restriction enzyme recognising a 4 bp sequence is likely to produce more fragments than a 6 bp cutter) and the match or mismatch of the GC content of the genome relative to the restriction enzyme recognition sequence. Nevertheless, without a complete knowledge of the gene sequence, accurate predictions of the number of fragments cannot be made.

In the hope of finding a restriction enzyme that would digest total genomic DNA to produce a relatively small number of fragments, restriction enzymes Bam HI, Alu I,
Apa I and Sph I were used. It was found (Fig. 4), however, that these produced a large number of bands with resultant poor resolution so it was concluded that this approach was not a practical approach to distinguishing strains.

During these experiments it was observed that some bands were more dense than others and consequently probably represented repetitive sequences (92) corresponding to ribosomal DNA (15, 51, 60, 67, 68, 77, 90, 92, 108, 115). Hence we concluded that there may be some potential, in the context of strain recognition, in examining this portion of the DNA on its own and to use it to compare isolates. This approach was technically possible as Ortega-Pierres et al (92) has shown that total genomic DNA could be separated, by centrifugation in a CsCl gradient containing Hoescht dye 33258, into two distinct bands: an AT-rich band (total genomic DNA minus the GC-rich fraction) and a GC-rich band. The GC-rich band encoded mainly for ribosomal RNA genes which are present as a 5.56 kb tandemly repeated sequence (15).

Our results confirmed that Giardia DNA could be separated into two bands using the method described by Ortega-Pierres et al (92) and in subsequent experiments the bands produced were separated and individually cleaved by restriction endonucleases to find if the fragment lengths produced would distinguish the strains. Bam HI digestion of total genomic DNA, AT-rich DNA and GC-rich DNA showed that, as expected, the GC-rich fraction produced many fewer bands than that of the AT-rich or the total genomic DNA digests. This gave greater resolution of the banding patterns (Fig. 6). The dense bands in the total genomic digest corresponded to the three bands present in the GC-rich digest (2.4 kb, 1.85 kb and 1.3 kb in size). These fragments represented the rRNA genes present in Giardia as tandemly repeated sequences and corresponded to both the results of Ortega-Pierres et al (92) and the rRNA gene map proposed by Boothryd et al (15).

The GC-rich fraction of DNA from each of the ten strains was digested with restriction enzymes to see if strains could be distinguished. This is more likely to be achieved using enzymes which are known to cleave the DNA in the non-conserved region of the rRNA genes. Restriction enzymes Apa I, Fok I, Hae III, Hinf I, Sma
I and Taq I that are known to possess recognition sites within the variable region of the rRNA gene repeat were used as well as Kpn I, Bgl II and Bam HI with recognition sites anywhere within the rRNA gene repeat.

No differences were detected in the banding patterns of the strains using Bam HI, Sma I, Apa I, Hinf I, Bgl II or Hae III (Figs. 7-12). However, differences between the strains were observed with Taq I, Kpn I and Fok I (Figs. 13-15). These differences were not great and in most instances appeared to be differences of band intensity rather than the presence or absence of a band. Nevertheless, the fact that the differences were detected between strains demonstrated the potential usefulness of this approach in distinguishing strains of Giardia. However, this technique is laborious and requires the production of large amounts of DNA and its subsequent separation into two bands by CsCl centrifugation. The production of DNA is also laborious and requires the large-scale in vitro culture of Giardia. A further difficulty arises because the in vitro culture of most Giardia strains is not yet possible. Consequently, it was concluded that this technique does not represent a practical method to distinguish strains of Giardia or to compare these strains which infect humans with those that infect animals.

Thus two major problems arise with genetic approaches to strain differentiation: the laboriousness of the procedures involved and the ability to produce large quantities of DNA that in turn requires in vitro culture of Giardia which cannot usually be achieved. Both of these problems could be overcome if we could develop a probe representing a length of DNA which varies in different strains by possessing different endonuclease sites. Such a probe could also be used on relatively small quantities of DNA from Giardia strains which could not be cultured long term in vitro because such strains could be used to infect neonatal mice and subsequently purified as trophozoites from the intestine following attachment in vitro and extensive washing. Experiments in this lab have shown that strains recovered from mice give identical banding patterns to the inoculated strain (data not shown).

Subsequently, the identification of such a probe could be applied to all strains of
Giardia whether or not they can be cultivated in vitro. Furthermore, total genomic digests could be probed without DNA purification and fractionation with CsCl. These considerations led us to the conclusion that the construction of a gene library was an obvious and perhaps an essential preliminary to using this approach. The remainder of this thesis is concerned with the production of such a library.

The first task in the production of a gene library involves the production of intact, high molecular weight DNA because sheared DNA will not ligate with the vector DNA. This task proved to be a major problem.

Five methods were used in an effort to produce intact DNA from G. intestinalis trophozoites (55a, 89, 101, 110). The shortcomings of these methods have already been discussed. Van Keulen (personal communication) was able to produce high molecular weight DNA. A comparison of the method of van Keulen with the four other methods suggested that several important parameters are required for the production of intact DNA: (1) the lysates should be incubated at 50-60°C to minimize the activity of endogenous nucleases, (2) the lysate should be diluted to aid separation of the phases after phenol/chloroform extraction steps, (3) gentle mixing during extraction steps, (4) the use of proteinase K to aid the removal of most of the cellular proteins.

The above steps were common to all or most methods, however, van Keulen included the use of isopropanol to precipitate the DNA (which was then redissolved) after a primary single phenol/chloroform extraction. This removed much of the polysaccharides in the cell lysate since it remained in the supernatant and was discarded. This modification consistently achieved production of a good yield of high molecular weight DNA following extraction from G. intestinalis isolates.

DNA from G. intestinalis strain NP 77 was used to construct a gene library in Lambda phage (Promega). It was then amplified and stored at -70°C. While the high titre of the unamplified library (10⁶ PFU/ml) indicated efficient packaging of the recombinant phage and consequently suggested that an appropriate library had been
produced, it was desirable to demonstrate that the library was representative of the *Giardia* genome and did not represent merely a subfraction of the genome.

To demonstrate this, twelve recombinant clones were selected, amplified and their DNA was extracted and digested with Hind III. The results (Fig. 21) showed that the banding patterns observed for each clone were different so it was concluded that the twelve inserts were all different. At least ten of the twelve recombinant clones selected were required to have inserts visible by ethidium bromide fluorescence with an average size of 10-20 kb (29). Since this was achieved with our library, with a calculated average insert size of 16.4 kb (Table 5), we concluded that our library was likely to be representative of the entire *G. intestinalis* NP 77 genome.

To find if an adequate number of clones were present to represent all the DNA sequences of *G. intestinalis* (ie. to form a complete library), the formula of Clarke and Carbon (24b) was applied using the average insert size calculated earlier. The result of this calculation showed that our library was 6.82 times greater in size than that required for a minimum library. Consequently, it was concluded that our library contained an adequate number of clones.

While the production of a library does not in itself achieve the original objective of developing a method (using molecular genetics) to distinguish strains of *G. intestinalis*, nevertheless, it should help to facilitate this aim. For example, this library could be used to select a sequence which, while present in all *G. intestinalis* strains, is sufficiently variable between strains to such an extent that such differences can be detected by restriction enzyme digestion. Such a sequence, once identified, could be used to probe total genomic digests of *Giardia* strains from a range of hosts. Ultimately, this technique could serve both as a useful epidemiological tool in tracing the source of infection within a community and in answering the question of whether or not *Giardia* cysts present in water are infective for humans.

It may also be relevant to note that a library of *G. intestinalis* DNA will almost certainly be put to a variety of uses such as the isolation of clones containing genes
of interest for amplification and subsequent sequencing, promoter analysis, transcription and expression; and the identification of midrepetitive clones for species and strain specific probes used in probing PCR products.

We conclude that this library will facilitate the aim of distinguishing *Giardia* isolates but will also serve many other purposes and represents a valuable resource for the *Giardia* Research group in this, and perhaps other, departments.
Media and reagents commonly used in this thesis.

(i) TY1-S-33 Growth Medium

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trypticase Soy Broth</td>
<td>20.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yeast Extract (Difco No.0127-01)</td>
<td>10.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glucose</td>
<td>10.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NaCl</td>
<td>2.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K$_2$HPO$_4$</td>
<td>1.0 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KH$_2$PO$_4$</td>
<td>0.6 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-cysteine Monohydrochloride</td>
<td>1.5 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferric Ammonium Citrate</td>
<td>0.023 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-Ascorbic Acid</td>
<td>0.2 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bile Bacteriological</td>
<td>0.8 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benzyl Penicillen</td>
<td>0.06 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentamycin Sulphate</td>
<td>0.05 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vancomycin</td>
<td>0.02 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCTC 135 (Sigma No. N3262)</td>
<td>0.94 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bovine Serum</td>
<td>100.0 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled Water to</td>
<td>1 L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once all the ingredients were added, the volume was made up to one litre with distilled water and the medium mixed using a magnetic stirrer. After mixing, the medium was adjusted to pH 7.0 with 5M NaOH and clarified by positive pressure filtration through six pieces of Whatman TM filter paper followed by a non-sterile 0.45µm pore membrane to remove large particles that would clog the 0.2µm membrane.
Sterilization was achieved by filtering through a sterile supor™ 0.2µm pore
membrane that had been sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C for 15 min within
the filter unit. Sterile medium was stored at 4°C until use or for a maximum
length of 10-14 days.

*Note: Bovine serum was prepared in the laboratory by centrifugation of
bovine blood obtained from the AFFCO Meat Works (Feilding) and
stored at -20°C until use.

(ii) Phosphate Buffered Saline

NaCl 8.5 g
Na₂HPO₄·12H₂O 2.7 g
NaH₂PO₄·2H₂O 0.39 g
1M HCl or NaOH to pH 7.2
Distilled Water to 1000.0 ml

This solution was autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min and stored at 4°C until use.

(iii) 10x Tris-Borate Buffer (10x TBB)

Trizma Base 108.0 g
EDTA (disodium salt) 9.3 g
Boric Acid 55.0 g
Distilled Water to 1.0 L

This was stored at room temperature and diluted 1/10 in distilled water to
produce 1xTBB for use in gel electrophoresis.

(iv) RNase Buffer

10mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)
15mM NaCl

This was autoclaved and stored at room temperature until use.

(v) **1.0M Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)**

- **Trizma Base**: 121.1 g
- **5M HCl to pH 7.5**: 1000 ml

This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

(vi) **0.2M EDTA (pH 7.2)**

- **Ethylamine diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA)**: 7.44 g
- **5M NaOH (to pH 7.2)**: 1000.0 ml

This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

(vii) **Saline Tris-EDTA (STE) Buffer (x10)**

- **5.0 M NaCl**: 20.0 ml
- **1.0M Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)**: 50.0 ml
- **0.2 M EDTA (pH 7.2)**: 5.0 ml
- **Distilled Water to**: 100.0 ml

This was stored at room temperature after autoclaving.

(viii) **Tris-EDTA (TE) solution**

- **1.0 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)**: 1.0 ml
0.2 M EDTA (pH 7.2) 5.0 ml
Distilled Water to 10.0 ml

This was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

(ix) Phenol/Chloroform/Isoamyl alcohol

A 25:24:1 ratio, respectively, was prepared and stored at room temperature in the dark for up to 10 days.

(x) 3M Sodium acetate

Sodium acetate 49.2 g
Distilled Water to 200.0 ml

This solution was autoclaved and stored at room temperature.

(xi) 95% Ethanol

Absolute ethanol 95.0 ml
Distilled Water 5.0 ml

This was stored at -20°C.

(xii) 70% Ethanol

Absolute ethanol 70.0 ml
Distilled Water 30.0 ml

This was stored at room temperature.
(xiii) **Bromophenol Blue Dye (10x concentration)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bromophenol blue</td>
<td>0.05 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycerol</td>
<td>40.00 ml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled Water to</td>
<td>50.00 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This solution was stored at room temperature.

(xiv) **Ethidium bromide**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethidium bromide</td>
<td>100.0 mg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distilled Water to</td>
<td>10.0 ml</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was stored in the dark (i.e. wrapped in tin foil) at room temperature.
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