The effect of *in vitro* culture on unicellular eukaryotes: adaptation of *Trypanosoma brucei*
brucei bloodstream forms results in gene copy-number changes.

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21
22

Abstract

Most researchers who study unicellular eukaryotes work with an extremely limited number of
laboratory-adapted isolates that were obtained from the field decades ago, but the effects of
passage in laboratory rodents, and adaptation to *in vitro* culture, have been little studied. For
example, the vast majority of studies of *Trypanosoma brucei* biology have concentrated on
just two strains, Lister 427 and EATRO1125, which were taken from the field over half a
century ago and have since have undergone innumerable passages in rodents and culture.
We here describe two new *Trypanosoma brucei brucei* strains. MAK65 and MAK98, which
have undergone only 3 rodent passages since isolation from Ugandan cattle. Adaptation of
these strains to culture was accompanied by changes in gene copy numbers, some of which
were also evident when other lab-adapted strains, field isolates of *T. rhodesiense*, and the
genome strain TREU927 were compared. Reproducible increases were seen for genes
encoding histones, enzymes of mRNA processing and degradation, the cytosolic chaperone
HSP70, and two proteins required for the DNA damage response. These results indicate that
similar work with other eukaryotic pathogens would be worthwhile. Meanwhile, the two new
T. brucei strains should be useful to researchers interested in trypanosome differentiation
and pathogenicity. They have differing pathogenicities in mice and may also differ in their
propensity for stumpy-form differentiation, as judged by morphology and mRNA expression.
MAK65 grows better than MAK98 in bloodstream-form culture, and is uniformly diploid,
whereas MAK98 is triploid for chromosome 5. Genome sequence exceeding 100-fold
coverage is available for both strains.

Introduction

Trypanosoma brucei brucei and related parasites infect humans and various domestic
animals, and can be transmitted mechanically and venereally as well as by their definitive
host, the Tsetse fly. *T. brucei gambiense* is the subspecies that causes West African
sleeping sickness, while *T. brucei rhodesiense* causes East African sleeping sickness. *T.
brucei brucei* is found in cattle, but not humans; it differs from *T. brucei rhodesiense* only in
the absence of the *SRA* gene, which enables *T. rhodesiense* to survive in human plasma [1,
2]. Within Tsetse flies, *T. brucei* multiply as procyclic forms in the midgut, before migrating to
the salivary glands, where sexual reproduction occurs, with meiosis and gamete formation,
followed by gamete fusion [3, 4].

The *Trypanosoma brucei* genome consists of eleven megabase-length chromosomes, which
are generally diploid, and a variable number of "minichromosomes". The parasite escapes
the immune response by antigenic variation, expressing a single Variant Surface
Glycoprotein (VSG). The expressed *VSG* gene is located at a telomere, and can be changed
either through transcriptional switching or, more commonly, by genetic rearrangement. Every
parasite has at least 1000 alternative *VSG* genes or pseudogenes, which are located in sub-
telomeric arrays and on the minichromosomes [5]. DNA contents vary up to 30% between *T.
brucei* isolates [6]. Although some of this can be attributed to differing minichromosome
contents [6], the lengths of the megabase chromosomes also differ substantially both within,
and between, strains [6-8]. Variations in the numbers of *VSG* genes are to be expected, but
there are also other differences. Some genes are arranged in multi-copy arrays, which
facilitates high expression but also leaves the genes prone to homologous recombination.
For example, the beta- and alpha-tubulin genes are present in an alternating array, and one
study found fewer copies in *T. brucei gambiense* than in *T. brucei rhodesiense* or *T. brucei
brucei* [6]. The chromosome copy number might be expected to be made more uniform by
meiosis and mating, but although classical Mendelian inheritance is seen [9], triploid progeny
also appear to be relatively common [10, 11]; also, the sexual stage is not obligatory.

In the past few decades, nearly all studies of *T. brucei* molecular and cellular biology have
used just two strains: Lister 427, which was probably originally isolated from a cow in 1956
(see http://tryps.rockefeller.edu/DocumentsGlobal/lineage_Lister427.pdf), and EATRO1125,
which was isolated from a bushbuck in 1966 (see

http://tryps.rockefeller.edu/DocumentsGlobal/lineage_antat1.pdf). These strains have been
passaged innumerable times in rodents or culture. This selects for an accelerated growth
rate, which presumably reflect changes in metabolism and cell-cycle regulation. Stumpy
forms are growth-arrested bloodstream forms which are pre-adapted for differentiating into
procyclic forms. Prolonged passage clearly selects for a diminished ability to enter cell-cycle
arrest, and therefore loss of the "stumpy form" life-cycle stage. Since some genes that are
required for survival as procyclic forms are not needed in the bloodstream, prolonged culture
or rodent passage as bloodstream forms can also result in loss of the ability to differentiate
into proliferation-competent procyclic forms. This has, for example, occurred for the Lister
427 bloodstream forms currently used for genetic manipulation. Although several *T. brucei*
strains, including EATRO1125, have been maintained in such a way as to preserve their
differentiation capacity, we do not know whether their differentiation pathways are identical
to those found in natural populations.

Another problem is that many cultured cell lines that have the same name have been
maintained for decades in separate labs. As a consequence, the parasites that we study
now are likely to show considerable differences in gene copy numbers, sequence and
regulation compared with their ancestors and also between labs. This will have been
exacerbated by multiple cloning steps that have occurred during the selection of lines
suitable for genetic manipulation. Analysis of gene copy numbers indeed suggested that in
comparison with recently-isolated *T. rhodesiense*, common "lab" strains of *T. brucei* had
varying expansions in multicopy gene arrays encoding proteins required for rapid cell
division, and also differed from each other [12].

In this paper we set out to establish new *T. b. brucei* strains that have undergone minimal
passage since field isolation in order to expand the repertoire of trypanosomes available for
lab investigation. We describe the infection and culture characteristics of two new Ugandan
T. b. brucei strains that have very different disease profiles in mice. Available stocks of these
parasites have undergone only 3 mouse passages since their isolation from cattle. These
lines should be very useful for analyses of factors governing *T. brucei* disease course, tissue
distribution, and differentiation. In addition, we aimed to find out what happens when *T.
brucei* are adapted to bloodstream-form culture. The growth of the new trypanosomes was
slower than of standard lab lines but genome changes were rapid, with gene copy number
changes after only a few weeks.

Results and discussion

***In vivo* growth of two new *T. b. brucei* isolates**

T. b. brucei MAK65 was isolated from a cow in Banya parish, Apac district on Feb 1st, 2016,
while *T. b. brucei* MAK98 was isolated from the same place on July 30th, 2016. The identity
as *T. brucei* was confirmed by the presence of a 480bp band PCR of the rRNA internal
transcribed spacer, and absence of the SRA gene [13]. The strains were shown to be
different by microsatellite typing [14] (S1 text). The frozen cow blood was passaged once
through mice in order to make stabilates for further use.

To characterize the two isolates, we first infected 8-week-old swiss mice with 1000 parasites
each. Examples of the parasitaemias are shown in Figure 1A and B. Results suggested that
MAK65 was slightly less virulent than MAK98. We also infected rats with 5000 parasites,
after a single previous mouse passage to avoid artefacts due to differences in stabilate
viability. Parasitaemias were again lower for MAK65. We harvested the parasites 5 or 6 days
after infection (Fig 1C). We had hoped that the populations harvested earlier in infection
would show low expression of stumpy-form markers, and would therefore be suitable for
characterization of long-slender-form transcriptomes. On the contrary, the proportion of
stumpy forms (as judged by PAD1 staining [15]) was highest for MAK65 parasites at low
parasitaemia (Fig 1C, D). Conversely, in the rat with 50-times higher MAK98 parasitaemia,
no stumpy forms were detected (MAK98B) even though cell proliferation had clearly slowed.
These results hint that the two isolates might have differing tendencies to make stumpy

forms - or that stumpy forms are preferentially generated in locations other than the blood. A
lower threshold for stumpy formation in MAK65 might explain its lower virulence in mice [16].

Transcriptome analysis (E-MTAB-9320, S1 Table) revealed that parasites of the MAK65A
population had highest expression of mRNA encoding the procyclic-form surface protein
GPEET procyclin as well as other procyclic-specific mRNAs such as those encoding trans-
sialidase and enzymes of the citric acid cycle. Interestingly, although culture 98B did not
show PAD1 staining, the population with the lowest expression of stumpy-form markers was
98A. Comparison of the 65A and 98A transcriptomes with those of pure EATRO1125 long
slender and stumpy forms [17] confirmed that MAK65A indeed had a more stumpy-form like
expression pattern than 98A (Figure 1E). Although these were by no means pure
populations, the correlation was better than that obtained for *in vitro* stumpy-form
differentiation of EATRO1125 [18] (S1 Fig. A). We had previously suggested that poly(A)
selection also selects against long mRNAs [19]. Sequencing of mRNA prepared either by
poly(A) selection, or by rRNA depletion (using RNase H and complementary
oligonucleotides) firmly confirmed this (S1 Fig. B).

We also sequenced genomic DNA from the two new strains. The initial populations that were
sequenced were MAK65 from rats, and MAK98 cultured for 2 days (see below). We obtained
Oxford nanopore reads (E-MTAB-9318) as well as 72-nt paired-end Illumina reads at over
100-fold coverage (E-MTAB-9759). In combination these might allow *de novo* genome
assembly and should certainly be sufficient to enable assembly based on existing scaffolds.
To minimize manipulation, we did not clone these cells at any stage. Although *T. brucei*
populations are to some extent clonal [20, 21], we cannot rule out the possibility of mixed
infections, and some within-population variation is also to be expected.

***In vitro* growth of the two new *T. b. brucei* isolates**

To assess the abilities of the two new strains to grow *in vitro*, we placed trypanosomes
directly from mouse blood stabilates into HMI-9 medium and followed cell numbers, diluting
them regularly to prevent densities did not exceed 1.5x 10^6/ml. Both isolates grew rapidly
from stabilate but after 1-2 days, the growth slowed markedly and became intermittent
(Figure 2A-D) with average doubling times of 30-50 hours. This suggests that the parasites
had run out a nutrient that is available only *in vivo*, but were able subsequently to adapt to
growth without it. As expected, there were clear deleterious effects when the density
accidentally exceeded 2x 10^6/ml. To find out whether the growth in culture was
reproducible, new stabilates were thawed and placed into culture. The MAK65 cells again
adapted to culture quite readily, with an initial division time of about 17h which shortened to
about 11 h after 5 days (Figure 2E). During culture for a further 2 weeks, growth remained
somewhat erratic, with clear deleterious effects when the density accidentally exceeded 1.0
x10^6/ml, but the division times progressively decreased to about 7h (S2 Fig. A; cultures
MAK65cA, MAK65cB). Similar observations were made for two additional cultures initiated
from a new stabilate (S2 Fig. B; cultures MAK65cC, MAK65cD).

For MAK98, over the first 24h the division time was 8h (Figure 2F; this is the DNA that was
used for genomic sequencing). Cells were then divided into 10 replicate cultures with
different starting densities varying from 6000/ml to 2 x10^5/ml. Over the next 24h the division
time was 17±3h irrespective of the starting density (Figure 2G) and the maximum density
that was subsequently obtained was 1.5 x10^6/ml. Several additional attempts to culture
MAK98 from stabilates failed. Although this might be an artefact - a property of the particular
stabilates used - the subsequent slow growth of MAK98 in culture suggests that it is
intrinsically less culture-adaptable, or that perhaps only a small subset of the population is
adaptable. For prolonged growth, we first continued the MAK98 culture shown in Figure 2F,
giving culture MAK98 culture A; this grew erratically with an overall division time of 13h
despite never exceeding densities of 5x 10^5/ml (S2 Fig. C). Later, we initiated a new culture
from a frozen stock made from the initial two-day culture; this resulted in culture MAK98
culture B, which after a further week achieved a division time of 11h (S2 Fig. D).

Very surprisingly, neither strain survived in medium containing methyl cellulose, which we
use routinely for passage of EATRO1125 bloodstream forms. Results of preliminary
experiments suggested that it was possible to obtain procyclic forms by cultivating the cells
with cis aconitate at 37°C for 24h, then placing them in procyclic-form medium (SDM79) at
27°C, but this has not been investigated in detail.

For future genetic manipulation attempts, the MAK65 line appears preferable because it is
uniformly diploid, and appears to be more stable in culture than MAK98.

***In vitro* growth affects gene ploidy**

To find out how culture affects the genome, we sequenced MAK65 that had been cultured
for 5 weeks (65 culture A, 65 culture B, S1 Fig. A, E-MTAB-10457) and 2 weeks (65 culture
C, 65 culture D, S1 Fig. B, E-MTAB-10457); and MAK98 that had been cultured for 7 weeks
(MAK98 culture A, S1 Fig. C, E-MTAB-10466) and 3 weeks (MAK98 culture B, S1 Fig. D, E-
MTAB-10457).

Given the uncloned nature of the starting population we, expected to see selection of
parasites with better abilities to grow in culture, and perhaps of new mutations. Once the
starting genomes have been assembled, it will be possible to do detailed analyses of single
nucleotide polymorphisms that were selected. In the meantime, however, we measured
variations in gene copy number. We had previously found differences in numbers of multi-
copy genes between lab-adapted trypanosomes and *T. b. rhodesiense* isolated from patients
[12, 19], but these analyses were constrained by the limited number of trypanosome
populations available and in particular, the absence of data for un-passaged versions of the
lab-adapted strains. Copy-number calculations were based on the assumption that most
genes are diploid. Only central chromosome regions containing conserved regions were
considered and for multicopy genes, only one representative was considered (S2 Table).

First, we re-analysed the genomes of trypanosomes we maintain routinely in the laboratory,
comparing them with the previous previously-characterized *T. b. rhodesiense* strains, and
the reference "genome" strain, TREU927. We analysed data from three long-term-cultured
bloodstream-form lines (two Lister 427, one EATRO1125) and one Lister 427 procyclic-form
culture; all had been cloned at least ten years previously after genetic manipulation, and had
been published intermittently since. All were predominantly diploid. Figure 3 shows the copy
number distribution for the majority of genes - those with 0.5 - 2 copies per haploid genome;
and copy-numbers across the genome are shown in Figure 4. The *T. rhodesiense* genomes
were the most cleanly diploid among this group (Figure 3 and Figure 4F,G). These
trypanosomes were all derived from patients in a single sleeping-sickness focus and had
undergone minimal rodent passage [12]. The "genome" reference strain TREU927 was
initially chosen because the genome size is relatively small relative to other strains, and
because it is differentiation-competent. The source of the DNA for TREU927 sequencing is
not clear from the publication: it may have been derived from procyclic forms that had
recently-differentiated from blood parasites [7], but in that period isolation from rodent blood
was more common. Interestingly, although all TREU927 chromosomes were diploid, the
copy-number distribution was quite broad, suggesting population heterogeneity with low
levels of various gene duplications and deletions (Figure 3, Figure 4A). We discovered that
our EATRO1125 culture is trisomic for small regions of chromosomes 1 and 7, and
monosomic for a small segment for chromosome 11 (Figure 4B). These discrepancies most
likely represent intra-chromosomal duplications and deletions. We were also surprised to
discover that at the time of sequencing, our standard procyclic-form tet-repressor-expressing
Lister 427 line was trisomic for chromosome 6 (Figure 4B). Moreover, the "2T1" Lister 427
line, which contains a "landing pad" that allows targeting of plasmids to a specific rRNA
spacer [22] showed numerous copy-number differences from Lister 427 carrying pHD1313
[23], including a possible trisomy of part of chromosome 5 (Figure 4C). Such partial trisomies
might compromise attempts at homozygous gene deletion. They highlight the fact that

strains with the same name, but grown for protracted periods in different laboratories, may
have diverged considerably.

We next compared the genomes of the new strains with the previous ones. For both strains,
most genes were clearly diploid (Figure 3, Figure 5 A, B, D and E) except that MAK98 was
triploid for chromosome 5 (Figure B, E). This might be a remnant of mating, but could also
have arisen in the infected cow. It was interesting that the *T. rhodesiense* strains from
human patients showed somewhat more copy-number heterogeneity than the two cattle-
derived *T. brucei*. The difference is unlikely to reflect geographical origin since the *T.
rhodesiense* isolates were from Lwala, in Kaberamaido district, which is only about 100 km
from Banya (Apac district) and the dates of isolation were less than 5 years apart. The
difference is also unlikely to have been caused by growth in different hosts since cattle are a
reservoir for *T. rhodesiense,* and *T. rhodesiense* almost certainly undergoes genetic
exchange with *T. brucei* [24].

Surprisingly, just a week of culture was sufficient to broaden the ploidy distribution somewhat
for both MAK65 and MAK98 (Figure 5 A, B). This indicates selection of parasite
subpopulations with either deletions, or duplications of different chromosome regions.
Nevertheless, gene copy numbers of all MAK65 cultures looked broadly similar to the source
population; an example is shown in Figure 5D and the remainder are in S3 Fig. One of the
MAK98 cultures - MAK98B - also looked similar to the starting population although some
changes were evident (Figure 5F). In contrast, the MAK98A culture had an exceptionally
broad gene copy-number distribution profile, suggesting that an unusual number of genes
was present in more than 2 copies in the population (Figure 5B). Many small segments had
changed in copy number throughout the genome (Figure 5G), with some chromosome
segments present in triploid, tetraploid or more copies. We do not know whether the
additional gene copies are internal chromosome duplications, or extra small chromosomes.
However this result, combined with the slow growth rate, suggests that while adapting to
culture, the parasites suffered defects in chromosome replication and/or segregation.

***In vitro* growth selects for increased copies of a few specific genes**

Finally, we looked to see whether there were any consistent changes in copy numbers after
culture adaptation. First, we examined changes that happened in the MAK65 cultures and
MAK98 culture B. (We did not further consider MAK98 culture A because it appeared to be
severely compromised, but calculations are included in S2 Table.) It was immediately clear
that some genes were reproducibly affected. Table 1 is a list of all genes showing an
increase of at least one copy (per diploid genome) in all considered cultures, relative to the
source blood population, and Table 2 shows decreases; examples are also plotted in S3 Fig.
F-H. Increases were seen for histones, several paraflagellar rod proteins, the chaperones
HSP70 (major cytosolic isoform) and mitochondrial HSP60, two mitochondrial RNA editing
proteins and two translation factors, and the cyclin F box proteins CFB1 and CFB2. (These
share sequence; in TREU927 there are actually 5 genes encoding CFB1, followed by only
one encoding CFB2). In contrast, decreases were seen for rRNA genes and PIP39. The
change in rRNA genes is surprising since rRNA is needed for rapid growth, but PIP39
promotes differentiation to stumpy forms [25] so there could be selection for decreased
expression. A detailed alignment of the region that includes *HSP70* is shown in S4 Fig.. It
compares one MAK65 culture (culture A) with the starting population. The *HSP70* gene
(Tb927.11.11330) is arranged as tandem repeats, but is present only once in the reference
genome, because the (approximately 8) repeats were eliminated during genome assembly.
The alignment for the starting population reveals differences between the homologous
chromosomes (changes, relative to 927, seen in only half of the reads) and additional
heterogeneity. Comparing *HSP70* reads with those over the surrounding region, it is clear
that in the culture, amplification occurred within the tandem repeat, without affecting
neighboring genes.

If the changes that we saw in MAK65 and MAK98 are important for adaptation to culture,
then they should also be apparent in more established lab strains. S2 Table, sheet 2
includes all genes showing reproducible copy-number changes in culture-adapted parasites
relative to field isolates (see Table Legend for our definition of "reproducible"). The status of
the TREU927 parasites is questionable in the comparisons - they had not been cultured as
bloodstream forms but had undergone at least 40 rodent passages (see
https://tryps.rockefeller.edu/DocumentsGlobal/lineage_TREU927.pdf). In some cases,
genes that appeared to be slightly sub-diploid in the starting populations became slightly
more than diploid in the selected cells; the significance of this is unclear (see Legend to S2
Table), but it could indicate haploidy in a small proportion of cells. Interpretation of the
results is also complicated by the fact that selection for duplication for one gene may well
also affect the surrounding region. Nevertheless, changes in some genes were reproducible.
It is not surprising that tandemly repeated gene arrays were commonly affected, since the
arrangement facilitates recombination; but there was clear specificity because many
repeated genes showed no changes (S2 Table, sheet 3). Most cultures showed increases in
genes encoding histone H3 (Figure 6A) and histone H2A (Figure 6B). Others included AUK2
kinase (Figure 6C), which is involved in DNA repair [26]; marginal increases for PUF9
(Figure 6D), which stabilizes S-phase mRNAs [27]; and a putative monooxygenase (Figure
6E). Most cultures had increases in *HSP70* gene copy numbers (though some reads could
come from homologous genes) (Figure 6F) and the gene encoding the splicing factor TSR1
(Figure 6G) [28]. The numbers of genes encoding CFB1 or CFB2 were also reproducibly
increased (Figure 6H); from the read counts (also of the 3'-untranslated regions) it would
appear that the entire region had been amplified and it is not clear which gene was selected
for. The function of CFB1 is unknown [29], while CFB2 binds to, and stabilizes the mRNA
encoding the variant surface glycoprotein [30]. Gene copy numbers for REC8/SCC1, needed
for sister chromatid adhesion [31]), two flagellar proteins, an RNA polymerase III subunit,
and various other proteins of unknown function were also significantly increased. Among the
few significant decreases were genes encoding a pteridine transporter (Figure 6I) and, rather
oddly, the translation factor eIF3c (Figure 6I). Overall the increases seemed to be biased
towards genes likely to be required for rapid proliferation or stress tolerance.

Outlook

Our results show that cultured lines from the same original trypanosome isolate can have
differences in karyotype, and that gene copy numbers and even chromosome ploidies in cell
lines that are in routine use are very likely to differ between labs and clones, even if the
parasites had the same origin. Perhaps we should not be surprised, therefore, if some
results are not consistent between laboratories. It is perhaps also worth checking ploidies
when thinking about gene knock-outs - although Crispr-Cas approaches may to some extent
abrogate that problem.

Initial growth of the new parasites in culture was relatively slow, but usually began to speed
up after a few weeks. We do not know what is "missing" from the culture medium, relative to
mammalian blood and tissue fluids. The observed slow proliferation could reflect slow overall
metabolism in all of the parasites, but could also reflect a heterogeneous population, some
growing quite fast, and others dying. The extensive gene copy number changes seen after
only a few weeks of culture adaptation might be adaptive, but could also reflect errors in
DNA replication and chromosome segregation. Our observations on copy number are the tip
of the iceberg: a survey of just a single ~10 kb region revealed selection for smaller
insertions, deletions and point mutations (S4 Fig). More detailed studies of multiple cloned
parasite lines would be necessary to examine this.

It was intriguing that the trypanosomes used for TREU927 genome sequencing appeared to
have more genome heterogeneity than either the well-established cultured trypanosomes, or
the field isolates. Perhaps this reflected extensive rodent passage, with different selective
pressures relative to culture? Examination of historical stocks might clarify this. It would also
be really interesting to compare the genome of the original Lister 427 line [32] with those in

routine use today. The results clearly raise the question of how much other cultured - or
merely rodent-adapted - organisms differ from their original counterparts, and to what extent
the parasites that are studied in the laboratory are representative of those in the field.

We here provide two new *T. brucei* strains for biological studies, with differences in rodent
pathogenicity and the ability to grow in culture. Full genome assembly will enable a much
more thorough comparison between the uncultured and cultured cell populations, as well as
an assessment of the *VSG* gene repertoires of parasites subject to selection in the field. We
did not clone the isolated parasites, or the cultures, so it would be useful to compare several
cloned lines both genetically and biologically. The very different courses of infection in mice,
as well as differences in the apparent threshold for PAD1 expression, suggest that there
might be differences between MAK65 and MAK98 in tissue distribution. Results so far
suggest that although MAK65 appears to have a lower threshold for stumpy formation in
mice, and is consequently less virulent, it grows more readily in culture and is less prone to
genome changes than MAK98. The MAK65 line would therefore be ideal in order to find out
whether the numerous observations made concerning differentiation of the lab-adapted
EATRO1125 trypanosome line are also valid for trypanosomes that have not undergone
prolonged lab adaptation. Can the new lines make stumpy forms *in vitro*? Can they
differentiate directly from long slender forms? In either case, which signals are important?
Do they require cis-aconitate for differentiation? Do they infect Tsetse more readily than lines
in routine use? How do they respond to stress? Are the tissue distributions different and if
so, how does this impact pathogenicity and differentiation? We hope that labs with
appropriate expertise will investigate these questions.

Materials and Methods

Trypanosome samples and infections
Peripheral blood (3-4ml) from cattle was collected into an EDTA tube (BD Vacutainer). An
aliquot of the whole blood (600µl) was cryopreserved, a drop (10µl) was spotted on
Whatman paper for PCR diagnosis. To determine the genus of the Trypanosome isolates,
PCR was carried out on the Internal transcribed spacer (ITS-1) as described by Njiru et al
2004 [13].
To follow mouse infections, a stabilate was thawed and injected into a mouse. Once these
parasitaemias had attained about 5×10^7 trypanosomes/ml, 2-week-old inbred Swiss white
mice were infected with 500 parasites each. Parasites were counted by diluting 10µL of tail
blood into 1mL of phosphate-saline-glucose, then counting in a haemocytometer. Thin blood
smears were also prepared for immunofluorescence staining by fixed in methanol and
permeabilizing with 0.2%TritonX-100. Mice were euthanized if obvious terminal symptoms
were observed.
For RNA preparation, rats were infected with 5000 parasites each. Parasites were followed
using wet blood films. After the times shown in Figure 1, blood (3-4mL) was collected by
cardiac puncture and approximately 2.5ml drawn into a Paxgene tube. The Paxgene blood
was incubated at room temperature for one hour and thereafter centrifuged at 5000g for
10min. The supernatant was discarded, the pellet washed once with nuclease free water by
centrifuging at 5000g for 10min. The pellet was then resuspended in 1ml of Trifast reagent
(Peqlab, GmbH) and transferred to 1.5ml microfuge tube for RNA preparation.
Trypanosomes were cultured as described in [33], starting with frozen mouse blood. PAD1
staining was done at 4°C overnight and DNA was counterstained with DAPI. Stained slides
were blinded and evaluated by an independent observer.

Sequence analysis

Ribosomal RNA was depleted from the total RNA by hybridisation with antisense oligonucleotide and digestion with RNase H as described in [34].
Sequencing of genomic DNA and RNA was done using standard Illumina kits, and some genomic DNA was also sequenced using an Oxford nanopore device. Reads were aligned to the genome, then those aligning to open reading frames, annotated 3'-untranslated regions, and functional non-coding RNAs of the TREU927 genome were counted using the tryprnaseq [35]. The transcriptome data were analysed using DeSeqU1 [36].
To obtain gene copy numbers, all genomic DNA reads were allowed to align 20 times. We then selected unique genes, plus, for genes present in more than one copy, only a single representative copy. We then calculated reads per million per kilobase for this set of open reading frames. The result was a continuous distribution, with a strong peak. For each dataset we chose the modal RPKM value to represent a single-copy gene, then adjusted it slightly to get a symmetrical distribution as shown in S2 Table. We divided the other values by this to attain gene copy numbers.

Data availability

The genome sequences are available with accession numbers E-MTAB-9318 and E-MTAB-9759 for original strains, and E-MTAB-10457 and E-MTAB-10466 for cultures. The transcriptome results are deposited as E-MTAB-9320.

Ethical approval

The sample collection and work with experimental animals was approved by the Makerere University Animal use committee. The rodent experiment approval is SBLS/HDRC/19/012.

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Tables

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559 **Table 1**. Genes showing copy number increases after culture of MAK65 and MAK98 *T. brucei*. Diploid gene copy
560 numbers are shown. The haploid version is in Supplementary Table S2, sheet 1.
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GeneID	Annotation	Class	MAK 65	MAK 98	MAK 65 cult- ure A	MAK 65 cult- ure B	MAK 65 cult- ure C	MAK 65 cult- ure D	MAK 98 cult- ure B	Aver age chan ge
11.11330	heat shock protein 70	Chaperone	18.3	20.3	23.6	25	26.6	25.1	26.9	+6.8
7.2820	histone H2A	Chromatin	46.4	43.2	51.7	54	56.5	54.5	55.6	+8.8
1.2430	histone H3	Chromatin	37.6	26.5	55	58.5	61.3	57.9	31.2	+17. 4
5.4170	histone H4	Chromatin	42.3	63.4	49.4	49.6	51.5	50.6	70.5	+7.8
3.4290	paraflagellar rod protein PFR1	Cytoskeleton	9.7	10.5	12	12.9	13.3	13	13.1	+3
3.3770	paraflagellar rod protein PFC6	Cytoskeleton	3.9	4.2	5	5.2	5.7	5.2	5.6	+1.4
8.4970	paraflagellar rod protein PFR2	Cytoskeleton	7.5	7.9	8.9	9	9.4	8.9	9.3	+1.6
9.12550	glycosomal glycerol kinase GLK1	Glucose- glycerol	8.6	10.8	10.9	11.5	11.9	11.8	15.2	+3.2
8.1620	MSP-B, putative	Membrane protein	9.4	14.3	14	14.1	14.7	14.4	15.4	+4.2
11.15490	Tb-291 membrane protein	Membrane protein	6.3	6	9	9.5	10.6	9.4	9.1	+3.2
10.6510	mitochondrial HSP60	Mito.bio- genesis	5.5	5.9	6.9	7.4	7.8	7.4	7.8	+1.8
8.7260	kinetoplast-associated protein	Mito.DNA	4.3	3.1	6	6.6	7.3	6.1	4.5	+2
11.9570	hypothetical protein	Mito.pathway	2.8	5.2	6.2	6.6	6.7	6.4	6.6	+3.2
10.9720	RNA-editing protein REAP-1	Mito.RNA	3.2	6.7	5.2	5.5	5.5	5.7	8.8	+2.2
6.2230	TbRGG1	Mito.RNA	3	3.2	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.6	5	+1.6
10.2110	EF1-alpha	Translation	20.8	22.4	27	28.9	30.8	28.5	31.5	+8.2
10.4570	EF2	Translation	5.5	6.6	7.9	8.2	8.5	8.1	8.7	+2.6
1.4540	cyclin-like F-box protein CFB1	Ubiquitin	15.3	14.9	19.3	20.7	21.3	21	20.1	+5.2
1.4650	cyclin-like F-box protein CFB2	Ubiquitin	6.4	6.6	7.8	7.9	8.1	8.3	8	+1.6
5.1780	hypothetical protein, conserved	Unknown	3.6	5.7	4.6	4.7	5	4.9	7.9	+1.4
3.4740	glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase-like	Unknown	3.5	3.8	4.9	5.1	5.8	5.4	5.7	+1.8
4.3580	Domain found in a transcription factor	Unknown	4.6	4.9	5.8	5.8	6.1	5.7	6.3	+1.2

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564 **Table 2.**
565 Genes showing copy number decreases after culture of MAK65 and MAK98 *T. brucei*. Diploid gene copy
566 numbers are shown. The haploid version is in Supplementary Table S2, sheet 1.
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GeneID	Annotation	Class	MAK 65	MAK 98	MAK 65 cult-ure A	MAK 65 cult-ure B	MAK 65 cult-ure C	MAK 65 cult-ure D	MA K98 cult-ure B	Aver-age chan ge
8.4700	AAT5 Arginine transporter	Amino acid transport	14.8	10.6	12.1	11.4	11.6	11.9	9.3	-2.6
11.13020	calmodulin	Calcium	10	9.3	8	8	8.3	8.8	7.6	-1.6
11.7740	dynein light chain	Cyto-skeleton	7.3	7.4	4.3	3.8	3.8	4.4	5.6	-3
9.13820	KMP-11	Cyto-skeleton	8.8	8.3	7.3	6.5	6.6	6.9	6.6	-2
11.8680	DNA polymerase kappa	DNA	11	12.4	9.9	9.5	9.4	9.7	10.4	-1.4
9.6090	PTP1-interacting protein PIP39	Protein phos-phatase	30.5	15.9	28.2	26.5	27	27.9	14.8	-2.8
10.8300	U1A small nuclear ribonucleoprotein RBP14A	RNA pro-cessing	4.2	4.5	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.6	3.4	-1.6
11.18680	dynein light chain LC8 DYNLL1	RNA synthesis	4.7	4.6	3.2	3.2	2.9	3.3	3.1	-1.6
2.1931	18S ribosomal RNA	rRNA	24.1	23.5	18.8	18.2	18.1	18	22.1	-5
3.3441	28S alpha ribosomal RNA	rRNA	28.6	30	22.5	21.1	20.9	20.9	25.7	-6.6
7.6885	28S beta ribosomal RNA	rRNA	28.6	32.1	25.2	24.2	23.7	23.9	28.5	-4.2
3.3431	5.8S ribosomal RNA	rRNA	42.3	38.8	25.4	22.8	22.5	24.9	28.2	-16.8
9.2840	Fam77 cell surface phylome protein	Unknown	13.9	12.7	12.4	10.9	10.7	11.7	9.5	-2.6
1.40	hypothetical protein	Unknown	8.3	11.3	4.9	4.1	4	4.7	8.1	-3.8
5.297b	hypothetical protein	Unknown	14	14.2	10.4	9.5	9.4	10	11.9	-3.8
10.130	hypothetical protein	Unknown	7.8	7.4	4.4	3.8	4	4.3	5.5	-3.4
5.293b	hypothetical protein	Unknown	10.6	11.1	7.6	7.2	6.9	7.4	9.2	-3

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<u>**Legends**</u>

Figure 1

Growth of MAK65 and MAK98 strains in rodents.

A. Parasitaemias after infection of 3 mice with 1000 strain MAK65 parasites. "d" indicates

death and "k" indicates killing because of clear symptoms. The y axis scale indicates the

number by which the parasite concentrations were multiplied to obtain the scale. Thus

"100" indicates 10^8.

B. Parasitaemias after infection of 3 mice with 1000 strain MAK98 parasites.

C. Growth of both strains in rats before harvest for RNA purification. The percentage of

PAD1 positive cells at the time of harvest is indicated.

D. Example of PAD1 staining for sample 65A.

E. The transcriptomes of population 65A and 98A parasites (panel C) were compared and

the log2 ratio (65A/98A, Supplementary Table S1, sheet 1) is on the y-axis. The x-axis shows

published stumpy/long slender results for trypanosomes grown in mice [17].

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Figure 2.
Parasite densities in cultures from blood of mice infected with MAK65 or MAK98.
A, B: cultures from MAK65; C,D: cultures from MAK98; E: MAK65 cultures that were continued for DNA preparation (cultures A and B); F: MAK98 culture used both for "original strain" DNA preparation and for prolonged culture (cultures MAK98 A and B). G: MAK98 cultures initiated at different densities in order to determine the maximal cell density.

Figure 3.
Copy number distributions for different trypanosome strains and cultures.
After genome sequencing all reads were allowed to align 20 times. For a set of unique
genes, containing one representative each for repeated genes, reads per million reads were
calculated. Copy numbers for each gene were than calculated based on the assumption that
most genes are present once in every haploid genome (or 2 per diploid genome). The
numbers of genes with copy numbers between 1 and 4 are plotted here for the strains and
cultures indicated.
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Figure 4.

Gene copy numbers of older lines plotted across the genome.

Copy numbers were determined as in Figure 3. The approximate chromosome boundaries

are indicated on the plot; columns exceeding 8 copies are runcated at the top of each panel.

Red bars indicate departures from diploidy. The strain or culture is indicated on each panel.

A: TREU927 (genome strain); B: Cultured EATRO1125 bloodstream forms expressing the tet

repressor; C: Lister 427 2T1 bloodstream forms expressing the tet repressor and T7

polymerase (427_2T1) [37]; D: Lister 427 bloodstream forms expressing the tet repressor

(427_1313) [23]; E: Lister 427 procyclic forms (427_PC2060) expressing the tet repressor;

F, G: *T. b. rhodesiense* from humans, passaged 3 times in rodents [12].

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Figure 5.
Gene copy numbers for original and cultured MAK65 and MAK98
A. Copy numbers for original and cultured MAK65, as in Figure 3.
B. Copy numbers for original and cultured MAK98, as in Figure 3.
C - G: Copy numbers plotted across the genome, as in Figure 4. The courses of the cultures
are shown in supplementary Figure 2.
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Figure 6.

Copy numbers of selected genes that appear to be influenced by culture. The gene products and numbers are shown above each graph. Columns with green underlay are for non-culture-selected parasites, and those with blue underlay were culture-selected. Colours indicate the origin. The four T. b. rhodesiense isolates (Tbr) are from independent patients but have been assigned the same colour because they were all taken from a single clinic. The same colours are used in Supplementary table 2.

Supplementary text 1: Preliminary characterization

1. *T. brucei* isolates from cattle grown in mice

We inoculated and successfully grew 3 recently isolated *Trypanosoma brucei brucei* strains from cattle (Table 1) and made fresh stabilates.

Table 1

Isolate ID	Simplified name	Source Village/Parish	Source District	Date of Isolation
Tb065BAPC	MAK65	Bunya	Apac	25/5/2016
Tb236BAPC		Bunya	Apac	25/5/2016
Tb098AAPC	MAK98	Apuru	Apac	30/7/2017

For simplicity Tb065BAPC and Tb098AAPC are designated MAK65 and MAK98 in the paper, emphasizing their original characterization at Makerere University.

2. PCR characterization

Internal transcribed spacer (ITS)

We confirmed *Trypanozoon* status in all isolates by carrying out internal transcribed space (ITS) PCR, which yields a band size of approximately 480bp. We confirmed that the parasites were *T. brucei brucei,* and therefore not infective for humans, by PCR for the *SRA* gene [1]. Human-infective *T. brucei rhodesiense* yield a product of 284bp. In both cases *T. b. rhodesiense* LW042 [2] was used as a positive control.

Figure 1: PCR confirmation that MAK65 and MAK98 are *T. brucei brucei*: positive PCR for ITS-1 and negative result for *SRA*.

Microsatellites

Genotyping of the *T. brucei* strains was carried out using microsatellites designated for *T. brucei* (Table 1) as described in [3].

The three recently isolated strains were again compared with *T. b. rhodesiense* human isolate LW042 (Figure 2). Tb236B and MAK65 were similar and could be distinguished from both MAK98 and LW042. This was probably because Tb236B and MAK65 were isolated from cattle in the same village/parish.

696   Figure 2: Microsatellite analysis.

698   Microsatellite analysis of 1-Tb236B, 2-Tb065B, 3-LW042, 4-Tb098A using the primers
699   shown in Table 2.

700   **Table 2**

Locus (code)	Primer (outer)	Sequence (5'-3')	Primer (nested)	Sequence (5'-3')
Ch2/PLC (MS-1)	PLC-G2 PLC-H4	ttaagtggacgacgaaataacaaca ttcaaacaccgtcccccctcaataat	2/PLC-G 2/PLC-H3	caacgacgttggaagagtgtgaac ccactgacctttcatttgatcgctttc
Ch4/M12C12 (MS-2)	M12C12-C M12C12-B	aaacctcatccagtcgcactgg taccctcatcaagtggtcg	M12C12-A M12C12-D	tggacacacagaagcctaccg agtgtggtggtgcgtgcaaacttgg
Ch5/JS2 (MS-3)	JS2-C JS2-D	agtaatgggaatgagcgtcaccag gatcttcgcttacacaagcggtac	JS2-AFAM JS2-B	gattggcgcaacaactttcacatacg ctttcttccttggccattgtttactat

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S1 Figure
Transcriptome comparisons.
A. Comparison of published results for *in vitro* [18] and *in vivo* [17]. In each case the $\log_2$
ratio of stumpy-form to long-slender form EATRO1125 is shown.
B. Total RNA from MAK98 trypanosomes (sample A) was either selected on oligo d(T) to give
poly(A)+ RNA, or treated with RNase H and oligonucleotides complementary to the rRNA in
order to give ribo-minus RNA. The $\log_2$ ratio of poly(A)+ to ribo-minus was is on the y-axis
and the annotated mRNA length (log scale) on the x-axis. Results are in Supplementary table
S1, sheets 2 and 5.

A. Stumpy-form differentiation *in vitro* vs *in vivo*

B. Poly(A) selection depletes long mRNAs

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S2 Figure
Cultures of MAK65 and MAK98 used for genome sequencing.
In each case the upper panel shows parasite densities on a linear scale and the lower panel
shows cumulative parasite numbers on a log scale. The lines on the log scale graphs indicate
the part used for division time calculations. In each case DNA was harvested at the end of
the culture period, and stabilates were made.
A. MAK65 cultures A and B (cA and cB) were continued from those shown in Figure 2E to
give a total culture time of 30 days.
B. MAK65 cultures C and D (cC and cD) were freshly initiated from blood stabilates.
C. Mak98 culture A (cA) was continued directly from Figure 2F.
D. Mak98 culture B (cB) was continued from a frozen stabilate from Figure 2F. For genome
analyses results from the two final cultures were >99% identical so the counts were pooled.

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S3 Figure
Gene copy number distributions for replicate cultures of MAK65, and copy-number
differences.
A-E. Copy numbers were determined as in Figure 3. The approximate chromosome
boundaries are indicated on the plot; columns exceeding 8 copies are runcated at the top of
each panel. Red bars indicate departures from diploidy. The strain or culture is indicated on
each panel.
F-H: The plots are the same except that for each culture shown, the copy number in the
starting population was subtracted.

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S4 Figure

 A detailed comparison for one MAK65 culture

 All reads for MAK65 starting population, and culture A, were allowed to align once to the

 TREU927 genome. The resulting mapped reads were visualized using the Integrated genome

 viewer (Broad Institute). The region surrounding the gene encoding the major cytosolic

 HSP70 is shown. A key is below the alignment and few differences between the genomes

 are highlighted. The relative copy number for *HSP70* can be seen by comparing its read

 density with that over the surrounding single-copy regions.

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S1 Table

Transcriptomes of MAK65 and MAK98 trypanosomes grown in rats. For details see the top sheet of the table.

S2 Table

Gene copy numbers for MAK65 and MAK98 trypanosomes grown in rats and in culture. For details see the top sheet of the table.