FLAgellum Member 8 modulates extravascular distribution of African

trypanosomes.

Estefanía Calvo Alvarez[1]*, Jean Marc Tsagmo Ngoune[1], Parul Sharma[1,2], Anneli

Cooper[3], Aïssata Camara[4], Christelle Travaillé[1,5], Aline Crouzols[1], Annette MacLeod[3]

and Brice Rotureau*[1,4]

[1] Trypanosome Transmission Group, Trypanosome Cell Biology Unit, INSERM U1201,

Department of Parasites and Insect Vectors, Institut Pasteur, Université Paris Cité,

Paris, France.

[2] Sorbonne Université, ED515 Complexité du Vivant, Paris, France

[3] Wellcome Centre for Integrative Parasitology, College of Medical, Veterinary, and Life

Sciences, Henry Wellcome Building for Comparative Medical Sciences, Glasgow,

Scotland, United Kingdom.

[4] Parasitology Unit, Institut Pasteur of Guinea, Conakry, Guinea.

[5] Photonic BioImaging (UTechS PBI), Institut Pasteur, Université Paris Cité, Paris,

France.

*Corresponding authors:

estefania.calvo@unimi.it & brice.rotureau@pasteur.fr

Keywords: *Trypanosoma brucei*, FLAM8, flagellum, extravasation, dissemination,

sensing

Short title: FLAM8 modulates extravascular trypanosome dissemination

27 6 Figures, 6 Supplementary Figures and 1 Supplementary Table

Abstract (231/300 words)

In the mammalian host, the biology of tissue-dwelling *Trypanosoma brucei* parasites is not completely understood, especially the mechanisms involved in their extravascular colonization. The trypanosome flagellum is an essential organelle in multiple aspects of the parasites' development. The flagellar protein termed FLAgellar Member 8 (FLAM8) acts as a docking platform for a pool of Cyclic AMP response protein 3 (CARP3) that is involved in signaling. FLAM8 exhibits a stage-specific distribution suggesting specific functions in the mammalian and vector stages of the parasite. Analyses of knockdown and knockout trypanosomes in their mammalian forms demonstrated that FLAM8 is not essential *in vitro* for survival, growth, motility and stumpy differentiation. Functional investigations in experimental infections showed that *FLAM8*-deprived trypanosomes can establish and maintain an infection in the blood circulation and differentiate into insect transmissible forms. However, quantitative bioluminescence imaging and gene expression analysis revealed that *FLAM8*-null parasites exhibit a significantly impaired dissemination in the extravascular compartment, that is restored by the addition of a single rescue copy of *FLAM8*. *In vitro* trans-endothelial migration assays revealed significant defects in trypanosomes lacking *FLAM8*. FLAM8 is the first flagellar component shown to modulate *T. brucei* distribution in the host tissues, possibly through sensing functions, contributing to the maintenance of extravascular parasite populations in mammalian anatomical niches, especially in the skin.

Author Summary (192/200 words)

Trypanosoma brucei parasites cause neglected tropical diseases termed human and

animal African trypanosomiases. Transmitted by the bite of an infected tsetse fly, upon

deposition in the skin of a mammalian host, these parasites occupy both the

vasculature and extravascular tissues. Currently, the biology of tissue-resident

parasites is not well understood, and the parasite factors that mediate extravascular

colonization are not known. Using quantitative *in vivo* bioluminescence imaging and

ex vivo gene expression quantification in host infected tissues and blood, we reveal

that the flagellar parasite protein FLAM8 modulates the extravascular dissemination of

trypanosomes in the mammalian host. FLAM8 is known to act as a docking platform

for signaling complexes in the flagellum, but we observe that it does not influence

parasite differentiation into transmissible stages. However, we show that the absence

of FLAM8 results in the loss of a key component of the flagellar adenylate cyclase

signaling complexes, and reduces parasite migration through endothelial cell

monolayers, suggesting that FLAM8 is important for parasite exchanges between the

intravascular and the extravascular compartments. This work identifies a key

trypanosome flagellar component involved in host-parasite interactions, including the

modulation of parasite tropism and extravascular dissemination.

Introduction

Trypanosoma brucei is an extracellular parasite responsible for African trypanosomiases, including sleeping sickness in humans and *nagana* in cattle. African trypanosomes are blood and tissue-dwelling protists transmitted by the bite of the blood-feeding tsetse fly (*Glossina* genus). In the mammalian host, parasites face different micro-environments, including deadly challenges by multiple types of host immune responses and variable availability of carbon sources. This requires major morphological and metabolic adaptations, driven by the activation of specific gene expression programs, that are critical for life-cycle progression [1-3]. Recently, the importance of extravascular tropism for *T. brucei* has been re-discovered in animal models: in addition to the brain, parasites occupy most mammalian tissues, especially the skin and the adipose tissues [4-7]. However, the role of extravasation and sequestration of trypanosomes in specific anatomical niches and the underlying molecular processes are not understood yet.

The trypanosome flagellum is an essential organelle anchored along the surface of the cell body and present in all stages of its development [8]. It is essential for parasite viability [9], cell division and morphogenesis [10], attachment to the tsetse salivary glands [11] and motility [12]. In the insect host, the flagellum remains at the forefront of the cell and is likely to be involved in sensory and signaling functions required for host-parasite interactions [13, 14]. In the mammalian host, flagellar motility was shown to be critical for establishment and maintenance of bloodstream infection [15]. Nevertheless, the contributions of the trypanosome flagellum to parasite tropism and spatiotemporal dissemination outside vessels in the mammalian host remained to be explored.

A proteomic analysis of intact flagella purified from the insect stage of the parasite identified a group of flagellar membrane and matrix proteins with unique patterns and dynamics [16]. Amongst them, one large protein (3,075 amino acids) termed FLAgellar Member 8 (FLAM8) is present only at the distal tip of the flagellum in the insect procyclic form [16-18]. Interestingly, FLAM8 is redistributed along the entire length of the flagellum in mammalian forms, including in stumpy transmissible stages [19], which may imply a stage-specific function for this protein. Therefore, we hypothesized that FLAM8 could be involved in host-parasite interactions or in developmental morphogenesis. Here, we investigated the roles of FLAM8 in mammalian form parasites *in vitro* in terms of survival, proliferation, motility, and differentiation, as well as the *in vivo* dynamics of the intravascular and extravascular parasite burden over the course of murine infection. Intriguingly, experimental infections in mice monitored and quantified by bioluminescence imaging and gene expression analyses demonstrated the involvement of FLAM8 in parasite dissemination in the extravascular compartments. In addition, *in vitro* transmigration studies detected impaired extravasation ability of *FLAM8*-deprived parasites, possibly resulting from the loss of components of flagellar adenylate cyclase signaling complexes.

Results

FLAM8 RNAi silencing does not affect parasite survival

The differential distribution of FLAM8 in the flagellum of the different trypanosome stages [19] raises the question of its specific functions during the parasite life cycle. To investigate the potential role(s) of FLAM8 in the mammalian host, bloodstream form parasites were first engineered for inducible RNAi knockdown of _FLAM8_ in a monomorphic strain expressing a mNeonGreen-tagged version of FLAM8. In order to monitor their behavior in mouse by whole-body imaging approaches, these _FLAM8::mNG FLAM8_[RNAi] mutants were subsequently transformed to overexpress a chimeric triple reporter protein [20]. Upon RNAi induction with tetracycline for 72 h _in vitro_, _FLAM8_ expression was reduced by 60% at the mRNA level (Fig. 1A) and became undetectable at the protein level by immunofluorescence (Fig. 1B). Parasite growth was monitored over 6 days upon induction of RNAi and no impact on proliferation was observed (Fig. 1C), which suggests that FLAM8 is possibly not essential for survival of mammalian forms of the parasite in cell culture conditions.

Then, the linear correlation between the emitted bioluminescence and the number of parasites was assessed in an IVIS Spectrum imager prior to _in vivo_ challenge (Fig. S1). To get insights into the function of FLAM8 in the mammalian host, groups of male BALB/c mice were infected by the intraperitoneal route with 10^5 parasites of the parental, non-induced and induced cell lines (Fig. 1D). _In vivo_ RNAi silencing of _FLAM8_ was maintained in mice by the addition of doxycycline in sugared drinking water 48 h prior infection and until the end of the experiment. The course of the infection was monitored daily by i) quantifying the parasitemia, and ii) acquiring the bioluminescent signal emitted by the parasites in the entire organism with an IVIS Spectrum imager. The number of parasites in the extravascular compartment at a given timepoint can be

extrapolated by subtracting the known number of trypanosomes in the vascular system

(parasitemia x blood volume, according to body weight) from the total number of

parasites in the organism (total bioluminescence). No differences were detected,

neither in the establishment of the infection and the subsequent variations in the

number of intravascular parasites (Fig. 1E, IV), nor in the number of parasites

occupying extravascular tissues (Fig. 1F, EV). Similar population profiles were

observed over the course of the infection for both intra- and extravascular parasites in

each of the three independent groups of infected mice (Fig. 1D-F). In the extravascular

compartment, no significant differences were detected in terms of parasite

dissemination over the entire animal body in any group (Fig. 1G).

FLAM8 knockout does not affect trypanosome growth *in vitro*

Considering that i) *FLAM8* RNAi silencing efficiency was only partial (40% *FLAM8*

mRNA left after 72 h of induction), ii) the efficacy of doxycycline-induced *FLAM8*

repression could have been even lower *in vivo*, and that iii) the parental strain used for

this first strategy was monomorphic (i.e. unable to differentiate into tsetse adapted

stumpy stages), we reasoned that a gene knockout approach in a pleomorphic strain

would be more appropriate to evaluate the potential role(s) of FLAM8 during the

mammalian host infection. Therefore, a ΔFLAM8 knockout cell line was generated in

pleomorphic trypanosomes by homologous recombination. The full replacement of one

FLAM8 allele and the partial replacement of the second one (to allow the use of a

shorter *in situ* rescue sequence than the long *FLAM8* coding sequence) by distinct

resistance cassettes was verified by whole-genome sequencing and PCR (Fig. S2).

The absence of full or truncated FLAM8 protein expression was further assessed by

quantitative immunofluorescence analysis with an anti-FLAM8 antibody [19] targeting

the region of FLAM8 that was not replaced in the second allele (Fig. 2A). This was also

confirmed at the mRNA level by RT-qPCR (Table S1). The trypanosome cell lines generated were further transformed to express the chimeric triple reporter construct [20], and the linear correlation between the bioluminescence signal and the total number of parasites was analyzed for all strains both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Fig. S3). In Δ*FLAM8* knockout parasites where a rescue copy of one *FLAM8* allele was added back into its endogenous locus, the FLAM8 distribution was restored along most of the flagellum length, as assessed by immunofluorescence analysis (Fig. 2A). This was confirmed by quantifying the total fluorescence intensities of the FLAM8 signal along the full flagellum length in all parasite strains (Fig. 2B): a background fluorescence signal was detected in knockout trypanosomes, while the rescue cell line presented an intermediate level of FLAM8 expression. No impact on parasite growth in culture conditions was observed (Fig. 2C). Next, we investigated whether the loss of FLAM8 could have impacted the total length of the flagellum based on the measurement of the signal obtained with the axonemal marker mAb25: no difference was observed among BSF lines (Fig. 2D). In addition, the absence of *FLAM8* did not affect parasite speed or linearity *in vitro*, neither in 0.5% methylcellulose liquid medium (Fig. 2E-F) nor in 1.1% methylcellulose viscous medium (Fig. 2G-H). Compatible with our previous observations after RNAi silencing, these results show that pleomorphic trypanosomes tolerated the loss of *FLAM8 in vitro*.

FLAM8 knockout affects trypanosome distribution in the mammalian host

Then, functional investigations in the mammalian host were performed by infecting BALB/c mice either with the pleomorphic parental strain, three distinct Δ*FLAM8* knockout subclones (resulting from independent recombination events) or one Δ*FLAM8* strain bearing a rescue copy of *FLAM8* (Fig. 3 and S4). The infections were monitored daily for 4 weeks by quantifying the parasitemia and the bioluminescence

signals emitted from whole animals (Fig. 3A). Null mutant parasites were able to

establish an infection in the bloodstream as well as in the extravascular compartment.

Within the vasculature, the overall amounts of parasites throughout the whole

experimental infection were slightly higher in mice infected with the three ∆*FLAM8*

subclones as compared to mice infected with the parental strain, except between days

5 and 12 with a lower and variable parasitemia observed just after the first peak of

parasitemia (Fig. 3B and D). On the other hand, quantitative analyses of extravascular

parasites showed a different scenario. Unlike in the intravascular compartment,

significantly lower numbers of extravascular trypanosomes were observed between

day 5 to 12, and from day 19 post-infection until the end of the experiment at day 27,

evidencing an impaired extravascular colonization for ∆*FLAM8* parasites as compared

to parental controls (Fig. 3C and E). To note, distribution profiles of all pleomorphic

strains were different from those observed in mice infected with monomorphic

parasites: larger amounts of trypanosomes were seen occupying the extravascular

compartment reaching up to $5\text{-}8\times10^{9}$ parasites, while the maximum amount found in

the bloodstream never exceeded 7×10^{7} trypanosomes (Fig. 3C and B, respectively).

Furthermore, quantification of the parasite spreading over the whole animal bodies

showed that the depletion of *FLAM8* resulted in significantly impaired dissemination of

∆*FLAM8* null mutant parasites in the extravascular compartment (days 5 to 14, 19 and

27 post-infection). This was mostly restored in trypanosomes bearing a rescue copy of

FLAM8 (Fig. 3F).

FLAM8 knockout impairs extravascular trypanosome dissemination

We reasoned that the accuracy of the intra- Vs. extravascular parasite population

estimation from bioluminescence detection on small regions of interest could be

limited. Therefore, the same experiment was repeated, with a lower time resolution,

yet with comparable trends in terms of extravascular parasite populations and parasite

dissemination according to the strain (Fig. 4A-C and S5). At the end of this second

experimental challenge (Day 24), most trypanosomes were removed from the vascular

system by saline perfusion prior to organ dissection. Individual organs were then

collected for quantifying the expression of different parasite genes by RT-qPCR. The

total number of parasites in each sample was calculated per mg of tissues by using a

Tubulin RT-qPCR standard curve. To better compare the variations of the parasite

populations in each compartment between strains, the Delta number of parasites was

calculated as the difference between the number of parasites in each tissue sample of

a given mouse and the number of parasites in the blood sample from the same mouse.

First, the absence of *FLAM8* transcripts was confirmed in animals infected with

Δ*FLAM8* parasites, whereas FLAM8 mRNAs were detected in mice infected with both

the parental and rescue strains (Table S1). Normalized *Tubulin* expression was then

used to compare the parasite densities between organs and strains (Fig. 4D-E and

S6). In all mice, the highest number of extravascular parasites was observed in the

skin. In all organs, a marked decrease in the number extravascular parasites was

detected from mice infected with Δ*FLAM8* parasites as compared to mice infected by

parental and rescue parasites (Fig. 4D and S6). When considering the average

difference between the number of parasites in organs versus blood by strains, the

statistically significant decrease in extravascular *FLAM8*-deprived parasite densities

appeared even more clearly (Fig. 4E). The rescue cell line recapitulated EV parasite

profiles in all organs examined with an average Delta number of parasites that was not

statistically different from that of the parental line.

We reasoned that this reduced extravascular dissemination of *FLAM8*-deprived

parasites could possibly be due to: (1) a lower proliferation rate, (2) a defect in motility,

(3) a higher rate of differentiation into non-proliferative stumpy forms, and / or (4) an

extravasation defect. The two first hypotheses could immediately be discarded as no

difference was observed between strains, neither in cell growth *in vitro* (Fig. 2C) and

in vivo (Fig. 3B and 4A), nor in cell motility *in vitro* (Fig. 2E-H). The two last hypotheses

were then successively tested.

The absence of FLAM8 does not affect parasite differentiation

The systemic reduction in the extravascular Δ*FLAM8* parasite population could result

from a disequilibrium in the parasite differentiation into non-proliferative transmissible

forms. Therefore, we assessed whether the absence of FLAM8 could have impacted

the differentiation of proliferative slender into transmissible stumpy forms in the blood

and organs by immunofluorescence or RT-qPCR. In cultured parasites, the absence

of *FLAM8* did not significantly alter differentiation (Fig. 5A-B), and freshly differentiated

FLAM8-deprived stumpy parasites were able to further differentiate and maintain *in*

vitro as procyclic trypanosomes, as were the parental and rescue strains (Fig. 5C-D).

In vivo, the natural differentiation of proliferative slender into non-proliferative stumpy

parasites was confirmed by RT-qPCR on blood and dissected organs at the end of the

experiment (Fig. 5E, Day 24 of the second *in vivo* challenge). For each sample, *Tubulin*

expression was used to normalize the *PAD1* mRNA levels to compare the average

levels of parasites expressing *PAD1* mRNAs over the total parasite populations

between organs and strains (Fig. 5E), with a higher Delta CqPAD1-CqTub correlating

with a lower amount of *PAD1* transcripts in the organ. *PAD1* transcripts were detected

in each organ at least in one individual, showing that all tested organs represent a

suitable environment for the parasites to differentiate into transmissible forms (Table

S1). In mice infected with the parental and rescue strains, the highest levels of *PAD1*

transcripts were detected in blood and skin, suggesting an accumulation or an

increased rate of differentiation in organs directly involved in parasite transmission

(Table S1). No *PAD1* transcripts were detected in the gut, liver and spleen in mice

infected with the parental and rescue strains, whereas *PAD1* transcripts were detected

in these three organs from mice infected with the Δ*FLAM8* strains. However, when

considering the average Delta CqPAD1-CqTub in the entire organisms by strains, the

relative proportions of parasites expressing *PAD1* mRNAs were not significantly

different among groups, confirming that FLAM8 is not involved in parasite

differentiation (Fig. 5E). In addition, an anti-PAD1 immunofluorescence staining of

blood smears sampled at the first peak of parasitemia visually confirmed the presence

of differentiated stumpy parasites in all infected animal groups (Fig. 5F, Day 5 of the

first *in vivo* challenge).

Parasite extravasation is impaired in *FLAM8*-deprived trypanosomes

To test the last hypothesis, we asked whether the absence of FLAM8 might influence

the way parasites traverse the vessel walls to access extravascular tissues. We first

established a transmigration assay using human umbilical vein endothelial cells

(HUVECs) grown to confluence on polyester transwell inserts with 3 µM pores,

separating two chambers to mimic the vascular endothelium *in vitro* (Fig. 6A). Once

HUVECs have reached confluence, 10^6 parental, *FLAM8*-deprived or rescue

trypanosomes were added to the upper chamber and incubated for 24h. The number

of trypanosomes that migrated through the endothelial monolayer into the lower

chamber and the number of non-migrating trypanosomes remaining in the upper

chamber of the transwell system were counted by flow cytometry to determine the

transmigration percentage. Interestingly, all *FLAM8*-knockout subclones showed a

significant reduction in transmigration relative to parental controls (25,6%, 70,7% and

33,8% of parasites crossing for KO1, 2 and 3, respectively) (Fig. 6B). Rescue

trypanosomes expressing only one *FLAM8* allele exhibited an intermediate

transmigration phenotype in which 59,2% of the parasites migrated through the

endothelial monolayer (Fig. 6B), which was lower than for parental trypanosomes but

significantly higher than for KO1 and KO3 null mutants (Fig. 6B). This demonstrates a

strong impairment of parasites lacking *FLAM8* to cross through a confluent layer of

endothelial cells, which was partially restored in rescue parasites.

Knowing that, in mammalian forms, FLAM8 was recently identified to be part of a

flagellar complex including the cyclic AMP response protein 3 (CARP3) [21], we

reasoned that this trans-endothelial crossing impairment could be caused by a defect

in sensing and / or signaling. To assess how the absence of FLAM8 was impacting

CARP3 localization and/or abundance, CARP3 distribution was investigated by

quantitative immunofluorescence in all strains upon methanol fixation (Fig. 6C-D). As

expected, CARP3 was detected along the entire flagellum length in parental

mammalian forms, but not in Δ*FLAM8* parasites where the fluorescent signal was

weaker and restricted to the distal part of the flagellum (Fig. 6C-D). This demonstrates

the presence of at least two distinct pools of CARP3, one being independent of FLAM8

for its localization to the anterior part of the flagellum. The presence of a *FLAM8* rescue

copy in Δ*FLAM8* parasites restored the detection of CARP3 along the entire flagellum,

yet in lower amounts than in parental cells (Fig. 6C-D).

In total, these data show that FLAM8 is likely involved in a cellular pathway modulating

trypanosome extravasation and consequently trypanosome dissemination in the

extravascular compartment of the mammalian host.

Discussion

The differential localization of FLAM8 from the very distal tip in tsetse midgut procyclic

parasites to the entire flagellum length in the mammalian-infectious stages [19]

prompted us to speculate that FLAM8 could play a distinct and specific role in each

host. Here, we present for the first time the connection of a flagellar protein with the

efficiency of trypanosomes to disseminate outside the mammalian host vasculature,

especially in the skin. Quantitative analyses of experimental animal infections

monitored by bioluminescence imaging and gene expression analysis showed that the

absence of FLAM8 impairs parasite extravasation and dissemination in the host

extravascular compartment over the time of the infection, which was mostly recovered

by the integration of a single rescue copy of the *FLAM8* gene in the endogenous locus.

1.   FLAM8 and trypanosome transmission

In the bloodstream*,* the balance between proliferative slender parasites and tsetse-

adapted stumpy forms responds to a quorum sensing mechanism involving the

production of oligopeptides and their reception through a specific transporter [22]. The

absence of FLAM8 did not alter the ability of the parasites to differentiate into

transmissible stumpy forms at the two observed time points (first peak of parasitemia

and 3 weeks after infection). Although stumpy proportions were not evaluated over the

entire course of the infection, this evidence suggests that FLAM8 does not play an

integral role in this process. In addition, the retained ability of *FLAM8*-deprived stumpy

cells to differentiate into procyclic forms *in vitro* suggests that they could further pursue

their cyclical development upon ingestion by a tsetse fly.

Extravascular trypanosomes occupy the interstitial space of several organs, including

the central nervous system, testes, adipose tissues, and skin [4-7, 23-25]. The

relevance of skin-dwelling trypanosomes in parasite transmission has been

demonstrated by xenodiagnosis experiments, early after the infective bite [26], or later

in the infection [4], even in the absence of detectable parasitemia. More recently, the

presence of extravascular trypanosomes was confirmed in the skin of confirmed and

suspected cases of sleeping sickness [27]. Here, we show that all tested organs

represent a suitable environment for the parasites to differentiate into transmissible

forms, yet the highest amounts of *PAD1* transcripts were detected in blood and skin,

suggesting an increased rate of differentiation, or an accumulation of differentiated

stumpy forms in organs directly involved in parasite transmission. In total, the impaired

spreading of *FLAM8*-null parasites over the extravascular compartment would

mathematically reduce the probability for parasites to be ingested by tsetse flies. This

could be especially significant for the skin, that has the highest parasite density, and

the highest overall parasite load due to its size, at the direct interface with insect

vectors.

2. On the possible cellular function(s) of FLAM8

Proliferative slender trypanosomes are highly mobile [28] and this motility was proved

to influence virulence *in vivo*. For instance, the lack of propulsive motility in flagellar

dynein light chain 1 (*LC1*) knockout mutants resulted in the inability of trypanosomes

to establish an infection in the bloodstream [15]. Here, *FLAM8* depletion in pleomorphic

mammalian forms did not alter parasite growth and cell motility neither in liquid

medium, nor in matrix-containing medium with a viscosity closer to the parasite micro-

environment *in vivo*. However, quantitative analyses showed that *FLAM8*-null

trypanosomes were less numerous in extravascular tissues as compared to parental

controls. Assuming that parasite motility could be different in tissues and interstitial

spaces with biophysical properties distinct from those in the blood [28, 29], one cannot

exclude that the motility of Δ*FLAM8* knockout parasites might be somehow altered in

the extravascular compartment. Intravital imaging for motility analyses at the cell level

would be needed to confirm this hypothesis.

Historically, most studies on *T. brucei* virulence in experimental infections have

considered the blood circulation almost as the sole host compartment parasitized by

trypanosomes, whereas extravascular parasite niches and the underlying exchanges

between both compartments have been underestimated for long. De Niz and

colleagues recently identified adhesion molecules as key players for tissue tropism

[30]. They showed that reservoir establishment happens before vascular permeability

is compromised, suggesting that extravasation is an active mechanism, and depends

on trypanosome interactions with endothelial surface adhesion molecules, such as E-

selectin, P-selectins, or ICAM2 [30]. Here, we showed that the absence of FLAM8 led

to a strong impairment in parasite extravasation. The fact that *FLAM8*-null

trypanosomes were not able to disseminate properly over the extravascular

compartment could somehow possibly imply defects in the way parasites sense their

microenvironment or interact with the host endothelial cells, resulting in an alteration

of their extravascular tropism.

The insect forms´ coordinated social motility *in vitro* is linked to cAMP signaling at the

flagellar tip [31, 32], i. e. where FLAM8 localizes [19]. The architecture of an adenylate

cyclase complex in the tip nanodomain was recently shown to be essential for social

motility and salivary gland colonization [21]. In this complex, CARP3 interacts with the

catalytic domain of adenylate cyclases and regulates abundance of multiple adenylate

cyclase isoforms. We recently demonstrated that the CARP3 tip localization depends

on the presence of FLAM8 acting as a scaffold protein [21]. Thus, trypanosome

migration and transmission in the tsetse vector specifically depend on adenylate

cyclase complex-mediated signaling in the tip nanodomain including FLAM8 [21].

Interestingly, we have recently shown that CARP3 and FLAM8 are both redistributed

along the entire length of the flagellum during their differentiation to the mammalian

stage, and that they further remain associated in flagellar complexes in mammalian

forms [21]. Here, this was confirmed by the significant decrease of the pool of CARP3

detected in the proximal flagellum region of *FLAM8*-deprived parasites. Altogether,

these data could reflect a possible specific function of some CARP3-containing

signaling complexes depending on FLAM8 for their sub-flagellar localization.

Environmental sensing and / or signaling, possibly through direct contact with host cell

receptors may play a role in extravasation. We hypothesize that the absence of FLAM8

would destabilize or delocalize these signaling complexes, impairing parasite sensing,

signaling and / or adhesion functions, hence preventing the parasite to efficiently cross

vascular endothelia.

To our knowledge, FLAM8 is the first flagellar component affecting parasite

extravasation and their subsequent dissemination in the extravascular host tissues *in*

vivo. Further investigations on the FLAM8 interactions with other possible partners in

the flagellum would help to unravel the roles of this fascinating and essential organelle,

especially regarding the modulation of trypanosome tropism, extravasation and

spreading in their mammalian hosts, and its implications in parasite virulence and

transmission.

Materials and Methods

Strains, culture and *in vitro* differentiation

The AnTat 1.1E Paris pleomorphic clone of *Trypanosoma brucei brucei* was derived from a strain originally isolated from a bushbuck in Uganda in 1966 [33]. The monomorphic *T. brucei* strain Lister 427 [34] was also used. All bloodstream forms (BSF) were cultivated in HMI-11 medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS) [35] at 37°C in 5% CO_2. For *in vitro* slender to stumpy BSF differentiation, we used 8-pCPT-2′-O-Me-5′-AMP, a nucleotide analog of 5′-AMP from BIOLOG Life Science Institute (Germany). Briefly, $2x10^6$ cultured pleomorphic AnTat 1.1E slender forms were incubated with 8-pCPT-2′-O-Me-5′-AMP (5 µM) for 48 h [36]. For specific experiments, *in vitro* differentiation of BSF into procyclic forms was performed by transferring freshly differentiated short stumpy forms into SDM-79 medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 6 mM cis-aconitate and 20 mM glycerol at 27°C [37].

Monomorphic BSF "Single Marker" (SM) trypanosomes are derivatives of the Lister 427 strain, antigenic type MITat 1.2, clone 221a [38], and express the T7 RNA polymerase and tetracycline repressor. *FLAM8^RNAi* cells express complementary single-stranded RNA corresponding to a fragment of the *FLAM8* gene from two tetracycline-inducible T7 promoters facing each other in the pZJM vector [39] integrated in the rDNA locus [40]. Addition of tetracycline (1 µg/mL) to the medium induces expression of sense and anti-sense RNA strands that can anneal to form double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) and trigger RNAi. For *in vivo* RNAi studies in mice, doxycycline hyclate (Sigma Aldrich) was added in sugared drinking water (0.2 g/L doxycycline hyclate combined with 50 g/L sucrose).

Generation of FLAM8 RNAi mutants

For the generation of the *FLAM8^RNAi* cell lines, a 380 bp (nucleotides 6665-7044) fragment of *FLAM8* (Tb927.2.5760), flanked by 5' HindIII and 3' XhoI restriction sites to facilitate subsequent cloning, was selected using the RNAit2 algorithm (https://dag.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/RNAit/) to ensure that the targeted sequence was distinct from any other genes to avoid any cross-RNAi effects [41]. This *FLAM8* DNA fragment was synthesized by GeneCust Europe (Dudelange, Luxembourg) and inserted into the HindIII-XhoI digested pZJM vector [39].

The pZJM-FLAM8 plasmid was linearized with NotI prior to transfection using nucleofector technology (Lonza, Italy) as described previously [42]. The cell line was further engineered for endogenous tagging of *FLAM8* with an mNeonGreen (mNG) at its C-terminal end by using the p3329 plasmid [43], carrying a *FLAM8* gene fragment corresponding to *FLAM8* ORF nucleotides 8892-9391. Prior to nucleofection, NruI linearization of p3329-FLAM8-mNG plasmid was performed.

For *in vivo* experiments in mice, *FLAM8^RNAi* parasites were finally modified by integrating a plasmid encoding for the chimeric triple reporter which combines the red-shifted firefly luciferase PpyREH9 and the tdTomato red fluorescent protein fused with a TY1 tag [20]. Transformants were selected with the appropriate antibiotic concentrations: phleomycin (1 µg/mL), blasticidin (5 µg/mL), G418 (2 µg/mL), and puromycin (0.1 µg/mL). Clonal populations were obtained by limiting dilution. Cell culture growth was monitored with an automatic Muse cell analyzer (Merck Millipore, Paris).

Generation of *FLAM8* KO mutants

For generating the *FLAM8* knockout and rescue cell lines, all insert templates were synthesized by GeneCust Europe (Dudelange, Luxembourg). For breaking the first

allele, the 300 first nucleotides of the *FLAM8* gene flanking sequences were added on

each side of a HYG resistance cassette (Fig. S2). For a complete disruption of the

FLAM8 locus, a second selectable marker (PAC) was flanked with the *FLAM8*-flanking

sequence at 5' and by 300 nucleotides of the *FLAM8* ORF (nucleotides 501-800) at 3'.

For generating an add-back rescue cell line, due to the large size of the *FLAM8* ORF

(9,228 nucleotides), the PAC selection marker was replaced by a BLE marker cassette

flanked by the 300 first nucleotides of the *FLAM8* 5' untranslated region (UTR) and by

the nucleotides 1 to 500 of the *FLAM8* ORF for reinsertion into the endogenous locus

of the knockout clone 1. PCR amplifications of the DNA fragments bearing the *FLAM8*

flanking sequences and the appropriate resistance markers were used for

nucleofection and generation of all cell lines. The primers used are listed below: 5'-

CATGACTTTACGTGTTTGGGCAC-3' (FW, located 82 bp upstream the flanking

5'UTR sequence); 5'-CTTGCTTGTTTCTGTTTCGCAAC-3' (RV, 130 bp downstream

the flanking 3'UTR sequence, used to replace one WT allele by HYG resistance

cassette); 5'- GCACACTAAAACTCATTGAAAGCC-3' (RV, 926 bp downstream the

ATG codon of *FLAM8*, used for second WT allele replacement by PAC cassette and

rescue line generation). All knockout and rescue cell lines were further transfected to

express the chimeric triple reporter protein PpyRE9H/TY1/tdTomato for multimodal *in*

vivo imaging approaches as described elsewhere [20]. Selection-marker recovery was

confirmed by screening individual clones in multi-well plates. Transformants were

selected with the appropriate antibiotic concentrations: phleomycin (1 µg/mL),

blasticidin (5 µg/mL), puromycin (0.1 µg/mL) and hygromycin (2.5 µg/mL). Clonal

populations were obtained by limiting dilution and cell culture growth was monitored

with an automatic Muse cell analyzer (Merck Millipore, Paris).

Knockout and rescue cell lines were validated by whole-genome sequencing (BGI,

Hong Kong). Briefly, genomic DNA from parental and mutant cell lines were sequenced

by the HiSeq4000 sequence system (Illumina), generating about 10 million 100-bp

reads and compared to that of the *T. brucei brucei* AnTat 1.1E Paris reference strain.

In addition, some validation of the construct integrations in mutants were performed by

PCR analysis according to standard protocols (Fig. S2 and Table 1).

Table 1. Oligonucleotides used for PCR validation of the Δ*FLAM8* knockout and rescue

cell lines.

Primer	Sequence	Target	
1	CATGACTTTACGTGTTTGGG CAC	*FLAM8* WT allele (82 nt upstream 5'UTR)	F
2	GCACACTAAAACTCATTGAA AGCC	*FLAM8* WT allele (926 nt downstream ATG)	R
3	CGTCCGAGGGCAAAGGAAT AG	Hygromycin cassette	R
4	GACCGCGCACCTGGTGCAT G	Puromycin cassette	R
5	GTGGCCGAGGAGCAGGACT GA	Phleomycin cassette	R

Orientation of primers: F, forward; R, reverse.

Motility analyses

In silico 2D tracking was performed as previously described [44]. For each BSF strain,

10 to 20 movies were recorded for 20 seconds (50 ms of exposure). Trypanosomes at

1×10^6 parasites/mL were maintained in matrix-dependent HMI-11 medium containing

0,5% or 1.1% methylcellulose at 37°C and were observed under the 10x objective of

an inverted DMI-4000B microscope (Leica) coupled to an ORCA-03G (Hamamatsu) or

a PRIME 95B (Photometrics) camera. Movies were converted with the MPEG

Streamclip V.1.9b3 software (Squared 5) and analyzed with the medeaLAB CASA

Tracking V.5.9 software (medea AV GmbH). Results were analyzed as mean ± SD of

three independent experiments.

***In vitro* bioluminescence quantification and analysis**

To perform the parasite density / bioluminescence intensity assay, BSF parasites were

counted, centrifuged, and resuspended in fresh HMI-11 medium. Then, 100 µL of this

suspension containing 10^6 parasites were transferred into black clear-bottom 96-well

plates and serial 2-fold dilutions were performed in triplicate adjusting the final volume

to 200 µL with 300 µg/mL of beetle luciferin (Promega, France). Luciferase activity was

quantified after 10 min of incubation with an IVIS Spectrum imager (PerkinElmer).

Imaging data analysis was performed with the Living Image 4.3.1 software

(PerkinElmer) by drawing regions of interest with constant size for well plate

quantification. Total photon flux was calculated after removal of intensity values from

WT parasites and / or parasite-free medium corresponding to the background noise.

Results were analyzed as mean ± SD of three independent experiments (Fig. S1 and

S3 A-B).

Mouse infection and ethical statements

Seven-week-old male BALB/c mice were purchased from Janvier Laboratory (sub-

strain BALB/cAnNRj) and used as models for experimental infection and monitoring of

the bioluminescence signal with the IVIS Spectrum imager (PerkinElmer). This study

was conducted in strict accordance with the recommendations from the Guide for the

Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the European Union (European Directive

2010/63/UE) and the French Government. The protocol was approved by the "Comité

d'éthique en expérimentation animale de l'Institut Pasteur" CETEA 89 (Permit number:

2012-0043 and 2016-0017) and undertaken in compliance with the Institut Pasteur

Biosafety Committee (protocol CHSCT 12.131). BR is authorized to perform

experiments on vertebrate animals (license #A-75-2035) and is responsible for all the

experiments conducted personally or under his supervision. For *in vivo* infections,

groups of four and three animals (*FLAM8* knockdown and knockout-infected mice,

respectively) were injected intraperitoneally (IP) with 10^5 slender BSF parasites,

washed in TDB (Trypanosome Dilution Buffer: 5 mM KCl, 80 mM NaCl, 1 mM

$MgSO_4*7H_2O$, 20 mM Na_2HPO_4, 2 mM NaH_2PO_4, 20 mM glucose) and resuspended

in 100 µl of PBS prior animal inoculation. To study the effects of the genotype factor

(*FLAM8* knockdown) on parasitemia and EV parasite densities (variables), the most

adapted statistical analysis was a multiple comparison of the means of 5 groups by

ANOVA, using two-sided tests on the 5 experimental groups. With 3 individuals per

group, mixed into 3 cages (5 individuals per cage) to limit any cage effect, the

experimental design allows us to obtain significative results for strong effects superior

to 1.13 with 0.05% confidence and a power fixed at 0.8. This experiment was

performed in two independent replicates.

***In vivo* bioluminescence imaging (BLI) analyses**

Infection with bioluminescent parasites was monitored daily by detecting the

bioluminescence signal in whole animals with the IVIS Spectrum imager (PerkinElmer).

The equipment consists of a cooled charge-coupled camera mounted on a light-tight

chamber with a nose cone delivery device to keep the mice anaesthetized during

image acquisition with 1.5-2% isoflurane. A heated stage is comprised within the IVIS

Spectrum imager to maintain optimum body temperature. D-luciferin potassium salt

(Promega) stock solution was prepared in sterile PBS at 33.33 mg/mL and stored in a

-20°C freezer. To produce bioluminescence, mice were inoculated by the intraperitoneal route (IP) with 150 μL of D-luciferin stock solution (250 mg/Kg body weight). After 10 minutes of incubation to allow substrate dissemination, all mice were anaesthetized in an oxygen-rich induction chamber with 1.5-2% isoflurane, and dorsal and ventral BLI images were acquired by using automatic exposure (0.5 seconds to 5 minutes) depending on signal intensity.

Images were analyzed with the Living Image software version 4.3.1 (PerkinElmer). Data were expressed in total photons/second (p/s) corresponding to the total flux of bioluminescent signal according to the selected area (ventral and dorsal regions of interest with constant size covering the total body of the mouse). The background noise was removed by subtracting the bioluminescent signal of the control mouse from the infected ones for each acquisition. For parasite dissemination analyses, a minimum value of photons/second (p/s) was set for all animals in every time point to quantify the exact dissemination area (in cm^2) over the whole animal body. Parasitemia was determined daily following tail bleeds and assayed by automated fluorescent cell counting with a Muse cytometer (Merck-Millipore, detection limit at 10^2 parasites/mL) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The quantification of the total intravascular parasite population was assessed by calculating the blood volume of all animals according to their body weight and referring to daily parasitemia.

To quantify the total number of parasites by BLI (intravascular plus extravascular trypanosomes), an *in vivo* standard curve was performed (Fig. S3 C-D). Since the bioluminescent emission of cultured parental, KO subclones and rescue parasites was not significantly different (Fig. S3 A-B), the *in vivo* standard curve was obtained by injecting IP increasing numbers (10^3, 10^4, 10^5, 10^6 and 10^7 parasites/animal) of parental trypanosomes only (Fig. S3 C-D). After 2.5h, animals received 150 μL of D-

luciferin stock solution IP (250 mg/kg body weight), 10 minutes prior image acquisition.

During this time, mice were anaesthetized with 1.5-2% isoflurane, and images were

acquired in the IVIS Spectrum imager by using automatic exposure settings. A region

of interest with a constant size was used to correlate the number of injected parasites

with the whole-body BLI signal. Non-infected controls were imaged and the total BLI

values used to subtract the background signal or noise. The signals in photons/second

were used to construct a standard curve to further interpolate the total number of

trypanosomes present in each animal during the entire experimental infection period

(Fig. S3 D). Subsequently, to obtain the number of extravascular parasites, the

calculated total number of parasites present in the vascular system was subtracted

from the total number of trypanosomes per animal body, resulting in estimating the

total parasite population colonizing the extravascular compartments at a given time

point.

Endothelial transmigration assay

Single donor cryopreserved Primary Human Umbilical Vein Endothelial Cells

(HUVECs) were obtained from Promocell and maintained as per the manufacturer's

instructions in 75 cm^2 flasks at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in endothelial cell growth medium

(Promocell) with 100 U/mL penicillin, and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Gibco). Cells were

passaged at 80-90% confluence by dissociation with 0.04% Trypsin-0.03% EDTA

(Promocell), split at 1:3-1:5 ratios, and maintained for up to six passages. Polyester

transwell inserts for 24 well plates with 3 µm pore size (Corning) were coated with 10

µg/mL bovine fibronectin (Promocell) for one hour, the excess removed, and 600 µL

pre-warmed endothelial cell growth medium added to the lower chamber (Fig 6A). The

upper chamber was seeded with 2x10^4 HUVECs per insert in a volume of 100 µL

endothelial cell growth medium. Media was exchanged in the upper and lower chamber

every two days until monolayer confluence reached (approximately 6 days). Confluence was confirmed by FITC-dextran permeability assay and crystal violet staining of a sacrificed transwell. Briefly, 1 mg/mL FITC-70kDa dextran (Sigma-Aldrich) in endothelial cell growth medium was added to the upper chamber, incubated for 20 minutes and leakage to the lower chamber measured on a Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Invitrogen). Leakage of <1% of the FITC-dextran was observed at confluence. Monolayer integrity was confirmed by brightfield imaging of a transwell insert stained with crystal violet as per the manufacturer's instructions (Millipore). To perform the trypanosome transmigration assays, the confluent transwells were exchanged into a new 24 well plate containing pre-warmed assay media (endothelial cell growth medium supplemented with 20% trypanosome growth media) for two hours prior to performing the assay. Cultured trypanosomes were collected by centrifugation at 900×g for 5 min and resuspended in assay media at $2x10^6$/mL. The media in the upper chamber was replaced with 100 µL of assay media containing $2x10^5$ trypanosomes and incubated overnight at 37°C, 5% CO_2. Each cell line was tested in triplicate transwells. Unbiased quantification of trypanosome transmigration was determined after 24 hours by collecting the media from the upper and lower chambers and transferring 100 µL to 96 well plates for automated counting using a Guava Easycyte HT system with a green laser and a custom counting protocol for tdTomato fluorescent trypanosomes. The cell counts per ml were used to calculate the number of trypanosomes in each compartment and proportion of transmigration into the lower chamber. Trypanosome transmigration was compared between the FLAM8 mutant cell lines and the parental reference cell line using the Generalised Linear Model function in R with a Gaussian family function and proportion transmigration as the dependant variable. A probability value of $p<0.05$ was considered significant.

Ex vivo RT-qPCR of mouse tissues

Biological samples. After four weeks of *in vivo* monitoring, parental-, KO- and rescue-infected mice were euthanized by an overdose of an anesthetic/analgesic mixture of ketamine and xylazine (100 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg, respectively). Terminal bleeding was then performed through the inferior *vena cava*, and the collected blood was directly transferred in 1 ml RNAlater (ThermoFisher Scientific), snap frozen in liquid nitrogen for long-term preservation. Next, perfusion was initiated by injecting 0.9% NaCl (pre-heated at 37°C), to completely remove the blood from the animal's body (both organs and vasculature), thus ensuring that subsequent analyses would only contain tissue-dwelling trypanosomes. Finally, spleen, lungs, kidney, gut, testis, liver and skin tissue samples were preserved in 1 ml RNAlater, snap frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen.

RNA isolation. Total RNA from samples was isolated using the QIAzol Reagent (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Frozen tissue samples were weighed and processed on ice to prevent thawing. Briefly, 30 mg of tissue were added to 700 µl of QIAzol lysis reagent, or 250 µl of blood in 550 µl of QIAzol lysis reagent, and samples were homogenized using the Precellys Evolution Homogenizer (Bertin, USA) with 2.8 mm stainless steel beads for 2 cycles of 1 min at 5000 rpm each, followed by 15 sec of resting between them. Homogenates were then incubated for 5 min at room temperature before the addition of 140 µl chloroform (0.2 volume of starting QIAzol lysis reagent), thoroughly mixed by vortexing for 15 seconds, incubated 5 min at room temperature and centrifuged at 12,000×g, 4°C, 15 min. The aqueous phase containing the RNA was subsequently mixed with 1.5 volumes of absolute ethanol and transferred into a RNeasy Mini spin column (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's recommendations. The concentration of each RNA sample was measured by spectrophotometric analysis in a NanoDrop 2000c (ThermoFisher

Scientific). Finally, RNA quality was determined by capillary electrophoresis in a 2100

Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Extracted RNA was stored at -80 °C prior to RT-qPCR analyses.

DNAse treatment and validation. Extracted RNA samples were subjected to a second

DNase treatment using Invitrogen's DNA-*free* kit (Life Technologies) according to

manufacturer's protocol. DNase treatment confirmation was performed by running a

qPCR targeting the *Tubulin* locus as housekeeping gene control. The primer pair used

is as follows: forward (FW), 5'-ACTGGGCAAAGGGCCACTAC-3'; reverse (RV), 5'-

CTCCTTGCAGCACACATCGA-3', with an amplicon size of 105 bp. Reactions were

done in a volume of 20 µl containing: 1 µl of RNA template (17 ng), 10 µl of 2X GoTaq

qPCR Master Mix Buffer, 2 µl of both FW and RV primers (at 10X) and 5 µl of Nuclease-

Free Water. Amplification was accomplished in a QuantStudio 3 thermal cycler

(Applied Biosystems) using the following program: 2 min at 95°C; 40 cycles at 94°C

15 sec; 55°C 1 min; and final 30 sec at 60°C. The absence of residual DNA in the

DNAse-treated RNA samples was thus confirmed when no amplification was

observed. RNA samples were further employed for gene expression quantification.

Primer design of target genes. For *FLAM8* amplification, primers were designed to

recognize the 324-bp region suppressed during *FLAM8* knockout generation: FW, 5'-

GCATCGTTCGTGAGGTTGGA-3'; RV, 5'-GTTCCTCTTCGTCATCTGGTTCA-3'. The

amplicon size was 88 bp. For Protein Associated to Differentiation 1 (PAD1)

quantification in infected samples, primer sequences were described elsewhere

(Saldivia et al. 2016) and are listed below: FW, 5'-

TCATGGTTTCGCCATTCTCGTAACC-3'; RV, 5'-

CTCAGCCACTTCTCTCCTACAACAC-3'. Amplicon size is 156 bp.

Real time RT-PCR assay. One step RT-PCR kit (Promega) was used. Reactions were

prepared in a volume of 20 µl, containing: 1 µl of RNA template (17 ng), 10 µl of 2X

GoTaq qPCR Master Mix Buffer, 0.4 µl of 50X GoScript RT Mix for 1-Step RT-qPCR, 2 µl of both FW and RV primers (10X), and 4,6 µl of Nuclease-Free Water. Reverse transcription and amplification were accomplished in one step in a QuantStudio 3 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems) using the following incubation program: 15 min at 42°C; 10 min at 95°C; 40 cycles of 95°C during 30 sec; 55°C for *Tubulin*, 58°C for *FLAM8* or 60°C for *PAD1* during 1 min; final 72°C during 30 sec. A melt curve program was included: 15 sec at 95°C; 55°C for *Tubulin*, 58°C for *FLAM8* or 60°C for *PAD1* during 1 min; 95°C for 10 sec. Amplicons were then analyzed by gel electrophoresis. Negative and positive controls consisted of RNA extracted from uninfected mice and cultured trypanosomes, respectively.

Table 2. Oligonucleotides used for *ex vivo* RT-qPCR of infected tissues.

Primer		Sequence	Purpose
Tubulin	F	ACTGGGCAAAGGGCCACTAC	Housekeeping control. Total trypanosome quantification (both SL and ST parasites) through standard curve generation.
	R	CTCCTTGCAGCACACATCGA	
FLAM8	F	GCATCGTTCGTGAGGTTGGA	Detection of parasites expressing *FLAM8*. The amplified sequence is absent in *FLAM8* KO mutants.
	R	GTTCCTCTTCGTCATCTGGTTCA	
PAD-1	F	TCATGGTTTCGCCATTCTCGTAACC	Quantification of transmissible ST parasites within *ex vivo* samples.
	R	CTCAGCCACTTCTCTCCTACAACAC	

Orientation of primers: F, forward; R, reverse.

RT-qPCR data analysis. All samples were amplified in triplicates and Cq mean values

were calculated. Considering that the same initial amounts of total mRNAs extracted

from each organ were used as RT-qPCR templates, the total number of parasites in

each sample was calculated for comparisons by using a *Tubulin* RT-qPCR standard

curve. Nine pools of cultured parasites (p) increasing by 10-folds from 10^1 to 10^8 were

extracted and tested in triplicates by *Tubulin* RT-qPCR to generate a standard curve.

The resulting standard curve's equation $Cq = -2,87 \times Log10(p) + 35,412$ allowed us to

calculate the total number of parasites per mg of sample according to the Cq values

obtained by *Tubulin* RT-qPCR on each sample. For normalization purposes to better

compare the variations of the parasite populations in each compartment between

strains, the difference between the number of parasites in each tissue sample of a

given mouse and the number of parasites in the blood sample from the same mouse

was calculated and plotted as Delta number of parasites. *Tubulin* expression (CqTub)

was also used to normalize the *PAD1* mRNA levels (CqPAD1): the difference between

the CqPAD1 and the CqTub values was calculated for each organ of each mouse and

plotted as the Delta CqPAD1-CqTub. It allowed us to compare the relative proportions

of parasites expressing *PAD1* mRNAs between organs and strains, a higher Delta

CqPAD1-CqTub correlating with a lower amount of *PAD1* transcripts in the organ.

Immunofluorescence analysis (IFA)

Cultured parasites were washed twice in TDB and spread directly onto poly-L-lysine

coated slides. For methanol fixation, slides were air-dried for 10 min, fixed in methanol

at -20°C for 30 seconds and rehydrated for 20 min in PBS. For immunodetection, slides

were incubated for 1 h at 37°C with the appropriate dilution of the first antibody in 0.1%

BSA in PBS. After 3 consecutive 5 min washes in PBS, species and subclass-specific

secondary antibodies coupled to the appropriate fluorochrome (Alexa 488, Cy3, Cy5

Jackson ImmunoResearch) were diluted 1/400 in PBS containing 0.1% BSA and were applied for 1 h at 37°C. After washing in PBS as indicated above, slides were finally stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 1 µg/mL) for visualization of kinetoplast and nuclear DNA content and mounted under cover slips with ProLong antifade reagent (Invitrogen), as previously described [8]. Slides were observed under an epifluorescence DMI4000 microscope (Leica) with a 100x objective (NA 1.4), an EL6000 (Leica) as light excitation source and controlled by the Micro-Manager V1.4.22 software (NIH), and images were acquired using an ORCA-03G (Hamamatsu) or a PRIME 95B (Photometrics) camera. Images were analyzed with ImageJ V1.8.0 (NIH). The monoclonal antibody mAb25 (anti-mouse IgG2a, 1:10) was used as a flagellum marker as it specifically recognizes the axoneme protein *Tb*SAXO1 [45]. FLAM8 was detected using: i) a specific rabbit serum (1:500) kindly provided by Paul McKean (University of Lancaster, UK), or ii) a monoclonal anti-mNeonGreen antibody (anti-mouse IgG2c, 1:100, ChromoTek). CARP3 was detected using a polyclonal CARP3 antiserum (1:150) [21]. Stumpy BSF were identified at the molecular level with a rabbit polyclonal anti-PAD1 antibody (kindly provided by Keith Matthews, University of Edinburgh; dilution 1:300) [46]. In the case of RNAi knockdown experiments, IFA signals were normalized using the signal obtained in non-induced controls as a reference.

Measurements, normalization, and statistical analyses

Standardization of fluorescent signals was carried out by parallel setting of raw integrated density signals in all the images to be compared in ImageJ V1.8.0 (NIH). For clarity purposes, the brightness and contrast of several pictures were adjusted after their analysis in accordance with editorial policies. Statistical analyses and plots were performed with XLSTAT 2019.2.01 (Addinsoft) in Excel 2016 (Microsoft) or Prism

725　V9.3.1 (GraphPad). Statistical analyses include: (1) linear regression for

726　bioluminescence / fluorescence intensity vs. parasite density and RT-qPCR standard

727　curve, (2) two-sided ANOVA tests with Tukey or Dunnett's ad-hoc post-tests for inter-

728　group comparisons for growth curves, IV / EV parasite populations and parasite

729　dissemination, and ΔCq comparisons of RT-qPCR data, all at 95% confidence.

Acknowledgements

We thank M. Bonhivers, D. Robinson, P. McKean, K. Matthews, and K. Gull for providing various plasmids and antibodies. We gratefully acknowledge the UTechS Photonic BioImaging (Imagopole), C2RT, Institut Pasteur, supported by the French National Research Agency (France BioImaging; ANR-10–INSB–04; Investments for the Future). We are grateful to P. Bastin for his strong scientific and human support. We warmly thank M. Boshart, P. Bastin, and S. Bonnefoy for their critical reading of the manuscript.

Funding

None of these funding sources has a direct scientific or editorial role in the present study. This work was supported by the Institut Pasteur. This work was supported by the French Government Investissement d'Avenir programme, Laboratoires d'Excellence ANR-10-LABX-62-IBEID and ANR-11-LABX-0024-ParaFrap, and the French National Agency for Scientific Research via the projects ANR-14-CE14-0019-01 EnTrypa, ANR-18-CE15-0012 TrypaDerm, and ANR-19-CE15-0004-02 AdipoTryp. EC, JMTN, CT and PS were/are funded on these ANR grants. BR and AIC are funded by the Institut Pasteur and AiC by the Institut Pasteur of Guinea. AML and AnC are funded by a Wellcome Senior Fellowship to AML (209511/Z/17/Z). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Author contributions

ECA and BR designed the study. ECA, JMTN, PS, CT, AnC and AIC performed the experiments. ECA, JMTN, AnC, AiC and BR analyzed the data. ECA and BR wrote the

manuscript. ECA, AnC, AMC and BR discussed the manuscript. BR acquired the

funding.   35

Competing interest

All authors declare no financial relationships with any organizations that might have an

interest in the submitted work in the previous three years, no other relationships or

activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work, and no other

relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

 Figure captions

Figure 1. Characterization of the *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^RNAi* strain *in vitro* and *in vivo* functional investigation in the mammalian host. A) Expression of *FLAM8* mRNA assessed by RT-PCR by the comparative $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method in control, non-induced and induced *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^RNAi* parasites (72 h). **B)** Immunofluorescence pictures of non-induced (upper panels) and induced (bottom panels) *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^RNAi* BSF during 72 h. Methanol-fixed trypanosomes were stained with an anti-mNG antibody (green) and DAPI for DNA content (blue). The scale bars represent 5 µm. **C)** Growth curves of control, non-induced and induced *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^RNAi* BSF parasites. All cell lines received 1 µg tetracycline for 6 days. Control parasites are Lister 427 "Single Marker" BSF parasites that do not bear the pZJM-FLAM8 plasmid for RNAi silencing. Results represent the mean (± standard deviation, SD) of three independent experiments. **D)** Groups of 4 BALB/c mice were injected IP with either control, non-induced or induced *FLAM8^RNAi* BSF trypanosomes. One PBS-injected BALB/c animal was used as negative control. Representative normalized *in vivo* images of the bioluminescence radiance signal (in photons / second / cm^2 / steradian) emitted from BALB/c mice infected with control, non-induced and induced *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^RNAi* parasites 4 days post-infection (non-infected technical control mice were negative for bioluminescence, not shown). RNAi silencing of *FLAM8* was maintained *in vivo* by the addition of doxycycline in sugared drinking water 48 h prior infection and until the end of the experiment. **E)** Number of parasites in the blood (intravascular, IV) of infected BALB/c mice during the course of the infection (5 days) counted from a tail bleed using a cytometer. **F)** Number of parasites in the extravascular compartment (extravascular, EV) of the same infected mice as in E). **G)**

Dissemination of control, non-induced and induced *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8^{RNAi}*

parasites, measured over the entire animal body (in cm^2) through the total

bioluminescent surface, during the entire infection course. Results represent means ±

standard deviation (SD).

Figure 2. Characterization of Δ*FLAM8* null mutants *in vitro*. A)

Immunofluorescence pictures of parental, Δ*FLAM8* knockout and rescue pleomorphic

BSF parasites labelled with the anti-FLAM8 (green) and mAb25 (axoneme in magenta)

antibodies, DAPI staining for DNA content (blue). Scale bars show 5 μm. **B)**

Quantification of the total fluorescence intensity of FLAM8 along the entire flagellum

length in methanol-fixed parental, Δ*FLAM8* knockout and rescue parasites. **C)** Growth

curve of one parental, three Δ*FLAM8* subclones and one rescue pleomorphic BSF

trypanosome cell lines over 6 consecutive days. **D)** Measurements of the flagellum

length based on the axonemal marker mAb25 profiles in parental, three Δ*FLAM8*

subclones and rescue parasites. No statistical differences were found. **E-H)** Motility

tracking analysis showing the average speeds (E and G) and linearity (F and H) of BSF

cell lines in matrix-dependent culture medium containing 0.5% (E-F) or 1.1% (G-H)

methylcellulose. No statistical differences were observed. The number of parasites

considered for quantifications (N) is indicated under and above graphs in (B) and (D-

H), respectively. Results represent the mean ± standard deviation (SD) of three

independent experiments. Statistical tests included one-way ANOVA and Tukey's ad-

hoc post-tests for multiple comparisons.

Figure 3. Functional investigations on the Δ*FLAM8* null mutants *in vivo* in the

mammalian host. Groups of 3 BALB/c mice were injected IP with either one parental,

three ΔF*LAM8* null subclones or one rescue strains. One PBS-injected BALB/c animal

was used as negative control. **A)** Normalized *in vivo* images of the bioluminescence

radiance intensity (in photons / second / cm^2 / steradian) emitted 8 days post-infection

in BALB/c mice infected with parental, three Δ*FLAM8* subclones or rescue parasites

(non-infected control mice C- were negative for bioluminescence). **B)** Total number of

parasites in the blood of infected mice (intravascular, IV) daily counted from tail bleeds

using a cytometer over 4 weeks. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.01$) are

indicated with one, two or three asterisks (*, **, ***) representing differences between

the parental strain and one, two or three Δ*FLAM8* subclones, respectively. **C)** Total

number of extravascular (EV) trypanosomes in the same mice. Statistically significant

differences between the parental strain and Δ*FLAM8* subclones are indicated as in B).

D-E) Variations of the total numbers of intravascular (IV as in B) and extravascular (EV

as in C) parasite populations in the same mice plotted as fold differences to values

obtained with mice infected with parental trypanosomes at the same time point. **F)**

Dissemination of the parental, three Δ*FLAM8* subclones and rescue parasite strains,

measured over the entire animal body (in cm^2) through the total surface of

bioluminescent signal, during the entire infection course. Statistically significant

differences between the parental strain and Δ*FLAM8* subclones are indicated as

described above. Results represent means ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical tests

included two-way ANOVA and Tukey's ad-hoc post-tests for multiple comparisons in

B-F. Detailed individual data are provided in Fig. S4.

Figure 4. The absence of *FLAM8* reduces extravascular trypanosome

dissemination. In a second experimental infection, groups of 3 BALB/c animals were

injected IP with either parental, three ΔF*LAM8* null subclones or rescue strains, while

one PBS-injected BALB/c animal was used as negative control. At day 24 post-infection, animals were euthanized, and the gut, kidney, liver, lung, skin, spleen and testes were collected to quantify the parasite proportion in each organ. **A)** Total number of intravascular parasites (IV) during the infection period. **B)** Total number of extravascular (EV) trypanosomes in the same mice. **C)** Dissemination of the parental, three $\Delta FLAM8$ subclones and rescue parasite strains, measured over the entire animal body (in cm^2) through the total surface of bioluminescent signal, during the entire infection course. Statistically significant differences (p<0.01) are indicated with one or three asterisks (*, ***) representing differences between the parental strain and one or three $\Delta FLAM8$ subclones, respectively. Detailed individual data are provided in Fig. S5. **D)** Delta number of parasites per dissected organs and strains. The total number of parasites in each sample was calculated per mg of tissues by using a *Tubulin* RT-qPCR standard curve. To better compare the variations of the parasite populations in each compartment between strains, the Delta number of parasites was calculated as the difference between the number of parasites in each tissue sample of a given mouse and the number of parasites in the blood sample from the same mouse. **E)** Delta number of parasites per strain calculated as the average of values for individual organs shown in D. Statistical differences (p<0.0001) according to one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's comparison tests. Detailed individual data are provided in Table S1 and Fig. S6.

Figure 5. Parasite differentiation is not impacted in *FLAM8*-depleted trypanosomes. A) Representative immunofluorescence pictures of stumpy parasites after *in vitro* differentiation from proliferative slenders of parental (left panel), three $\Delta FLAM8$ subclones (middle panels) and rescue (right panel) parasite strains upon *in*

vitro treatment with a nucleotide 5'-AMP analog. Methanol-fixed parasites were

labelled with the anti-PAD-1 antibody (red), and DAPI staining for DNA content (blue).

Scale bars show 5 µm. **B)** Quantification of the proportion of stumpy trypanosomes in

all pleomorphic cell lines after *in vitro* differentiation. The number of parasites

considered for quantification (n) is indicated above the graph. No significant differences

were found (one-way ANOVA and Tukey's comparisons test). Results represent the

mean ± standard deviation (SD) of three independent experiments. **C)** Selected

immunofluorescence images of freshly *in vitro* differentiated procyclic cells.

Trypanosomes were doubly labelled with anti-FLAM8 (green) and mAb25 (axoneme

in magenta), DAPI staining showing DNA content in blue. Scale bars show 5 µm. **D)**

Upon differentiation, procyclic forms (PCF) of parental, three Δ*FLAM8* subclones and

rescue parasite strains were equally diluted, and their *in vitro* growth assessed.

Statistical differences (p<0.01) were observed only when comparing parental and KO

2 PCF trypanosomes (one-way ANOVA and Tukey's comparison test). Results

represent the mean ± standard deviation (SD) of four independent experiments. **E)**

Average relative proportions of *PAD-1* expression levels quantified by RT-qPCR on

blood and dissected organs at day 24 of the second *in vivo* challenge. *Tubulin*

expression was used to normalize the *PAD-1* mRNA levels in all parental-, Δ*FLAM8*-

and rescue-infected mice samples. **F)** Representative immunofluorescence images of

naturally differentiated stumpy trypanosomes from parental, one selected Δ*FLAM8*

subclone and rescue strains isolated from mouse blood during the first peak of

parasitemia (first experimental *in vivo* infection). Parasites were labelled with anti-PAD-

1 antibody (red), and DAPI staining for DNA content (blue). Scale bars show 5 µm.

Figure 6. Parasites lacking *FLAM8* are impaired in transmigrating through

endothelial cells *in vitro*. A) Schematic representation of the trans-endothelial

migration assay, showing the transwell system (Boyden chamber) containing the upper

and the lower compartments, the monolayer of endothelial HUVEC cells and slender

trypanosomes seeded on the top of the chamber for 24 hours. **B)** After this period,

parasites within the upper and lower chambers were counted and values further used

to calculate the proportion of parental, three Δ*FLAM8* subclones and rescue parasites

that migrated through the endothelial monolayer into the lower compartment.

Trypanosome transmigration was compared between the FLAM8 mutant cell lines and

the parental reference line (100% of trans-endothelial migration) using the Generalised

Linear Model function in R with a Gaussian family function and proportion of

transmigration as the dependent variable. A probability value of $p < 0.001$ was

considered significant (*). Error bars show SD. **C)** Representative immunofluorescence

images of cultured slender trypanosomes from parental, Δ*FLAM8* subclone and rescue

strains. Methanol-fixed parasites were labelled with anti-CARP3 antibody (green

intensity normalized), and DAPI staining for DNA content (blue). Scale bars show 5

µm. **D)** Quantification of CARP3 fluorescence signal in normalized images from

methanol-fixed parental, Δ*FLAM8* subclones and rescue trypanosomes, expressed as

the ratio between the fluorescent CARP3 signal intensity along the entire flagellum

divided by the length of individual flagella. The number of parasites considered for

quantification (n) is indicated under the graph. Statistical differences ($p < 0.0001$)

according to one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's comparison test. Results represent the

mean ± standard deviation (SD) of two independent experiments.

    Supporting information captions

    Figure S1. Validation of the triple-reporter efficiency in monomorphic *FLAM8[RNAi]*

    parasite lines. Linear correlation between the number of parasites and the

    bioluminescence (in p/s) emitted by monomorphic 427 *FLAM8::mNG FLAM8[RNAi]* BSF

    overexpressing the triple reporter chimeric protein [20], acquired by the IVIS Spectrum

    imager. Parasites without the RNAi plasmid (control, C), non-treated with tetracycline

    (non-induced, NI) and treated with tetracycline (induced, I) are shown. Representative

    bioluminescent image of serial 1/2 dilutions performed in a 96-well plate (in photons /

    second / cm^2 / steradian). RNAi induction was triggered by the addition of 1 μg

    tetracycline and / or doxycycline for 72 h. Results represent the mean ± standard

    deviation (SD) of three independent experiments.

    Figure S2. Molecular validation of the ΔFLAM8 null mutant cell lines. A) Whole-

    genome sequencing results showing *FLAM8* wild-type allele (WT, upper panel), the

    partial loss of the 5' *FLAM8* ORF in Δ*FLAM8* knockout trypanosomes (middle panel;

    the black arrow is showing the absence of reads at the *FLAM8* 5' ORF in the knockout

    line); and the restoration of the full *FLAM8* gene in rescue parasites (bottom panel; the

    black arrow is showing the absence of reads within the *pac* cassette due to the

    insertion of the new construct bearing the *ble* resistance marker), relative to the

    number of reads per 100-nt read length. The presence of the correct antibiotic

    cassettes is shown for knockout and rescue parasites (right middle and bottom panels).

    Δ*FLAM8* knockout and rescue parasites also bear a construct for expression of a triple

    reporter (TR) as assessed by the detection of *bsd* reads. **B)** Schemes showing the

    structure of the *FLAM8* locus in wild-type parasites (upper scheme) and the integration

plan of the different cassettes for ΔFLAM8 knockout (middle panel, *HYG-* and *PAC-*

containing schemes) and Rescue parasites (lower panel *HYG-* and *BLE-*containing

schemes). **C)** PCR confirmation of the successful integrations of all reporter cassettes.

Primer pairs used for PCRs are indicated at the bottom of each line and correspond to

those drawn on the schemes in B), along with the expected band sizes of the

corresponding diagnostic PCR. BSD: blasticidin; HYG: hygromycin; PAC: puromycin;

BLE: phleomycin.

Figure S3. *In vitro* and *in vivo* validation of the triple-reporter efficiency in

pleomorphic Δ*FLAM8* mutant cell lines. A) Representative bioluminescent image

(in photons / second) of serial 1/2 dilutions performed in a 96-well plate of pleomorphic

parental, ΔFLAM8 knockout subclones and rescue parasites overexpressing the triple

reporter chimeric protein [20]. **B)** Linear correlation between the number of parasites

and the emitted bioluminescence (in photons / second) acquired by the IVIS Spectrum

imager. Results represent the mean ± standard deviation (SD) of three independent

experiments. **C)** Representative ventral view images of mice infected with increasing

amounts of parental trypanosomes (10^3, 10^4, 10^5, 10^6 and 10^7 parasites/animal)

acquired with the IVIS Spectrum imager 2.5 hours after IP injection. **D)** *In vivo* standard

curve showing the correlation between the number of injected parasites and the

bioluminescent signal (in photons/second, R^2 = 1). The standard curve was further

employed to calculate the total number of parasites present in infected animals through

whole-body BLI signal.

Figure S4: The absence of *FLAM8* reduces extravascular trypanosome

dissemination. Detailed individual data used in Fig. 3. Groups of BALB/c mice were

injected IP with either one parental, three ΔF*LAM8* null subclones or one rescue

strains. Total number of parasites in the blood of infected mice (intravascular, IV) daily

counted from tail bleeds using a cytometer over 4 weeks (left graphics). Total number

of extravascular trypanosomes quantified from bioluminescence images in the same

mice (middle graphs). Dissemination measured over the entire animal body (in cm^2)

through the total surface of bioluminescent signal (right graphs).

Figure S5. Functional investigations on the Δ*FLAM8* null mutants *in vivo* in the

mammalian host. Detailed individual data used in Fig. 4. Groups of BALB/c mice were

injected IP with either one parental, three ΔF*LAM8* null subclones or one rescue

strains. Total number of parasites in the blood of infected mice (intravascular, IV)

counted from tail bleeds using a cytometer over 3.5 weeks (left graphs). Total number

of extravascular trypanosomes quantified from bioluminescence images in the same

mice (middle graphs). Dissemination measured over the entire animal body (in cm^2)

through the total surface of bioluminescent signal (right graphics).

Figure S6. Detailed individual data used in Fig. 4D. Delta number of parasites per

dissected organs and strains in each individual mouse. The total number of parasites

in each sample was calculated per mg of tissues by using a *Tubulin* RT-qPCR standard

curve. **A)** For normalization purposes, the difference between the number of parasites

in each tissue sample of a given mouse and the number of parasites in the blood

sample from the same mouse was calculated and plotted as Delta number of parasites.

B) As an alternative normalization method, the ratio between the number of parasites

in each tissue sample of a given mouse and the number of parasites in the blood

sample from the same mouse was calculated and plotted as EV / IV parasites ratio.

Table S1 Detailed qPCR results from the second experimental infection used in Fig.

4D-E, Fig. 5E and Fig. S6.

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1172

A

FLAM8 mRNA (%)

B

Non induced

FLAM8
DAPI

Induced

24 h

48 h

72 h

C

No. parasites (10^6)

Control   Non induced   Induced

D

Control   Non induced   Induced

M1 M2 M3 M4

Radiance (p/sec/cm²/sr, 10^8)

N=4 mice/group

E

Control
Non induced
Induced

IV parasites

Time (dpi)

F

EV parasites

Time (dpi)

G

Parasite dissemination (cm²)

Control
Non induced
Induced

Time (dpi)