DNA damage drives antigen diversification through mosaic Variant Surface Glycoprotein (VSG) formation in *Trypanosoma brucei*

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Summary

Antigenic variation, using large genomic repertoires of antigen-encoding genes, allows pathogens to evade host antibody. Many pathogens, including the African trypanosome *Trypanosoma brucei,* extend their antigenic repertoire through genomic diversification. While evidence suggests that *T. brucei* depends on the generation of new variant surface glycoprotein (VSG) genes to maintain a chronic infection, a lack of experimentally tractable tools for studying this process has obscured its underlying mechanisms. Here, we present a highly sensitive targeted sequencing approach for measuring VSG diversification. Using this method, we demonstrate that a Cas9-induced DNA double-strand break within the VSG coding sequence can induce VSG recombination with patterns identical to those observed during infection. These newly generated VSGs are antigenically distinct from parental clones and thus capable of facilitating immune evasion. Together, these results provide insight into the mechanisms of VSG diversification and an experimental framework for studying the evolution of antigen repertoires in pathogenic microbes.

Keywords:
Antigenic Variation, Variant Surface Glycoprotein, Trypanosoma brucei, Diversification, Immune evasion, DNA repair

Introduction

Pathogen survival in a host depends upon effective and continuous immune evasion. Several bacteria and eukaryotic pathogens have adopted the strategy of antigenic variation to evade host immunity, a process in which they continuously alter antigenic surface proteins to escape the host's adaptive immune response. The African trypanosome *Trypanosoma brucei*, a unicellular eukaryotic parasite and causative agent of human and animal African trypanosomiasis, uses an especially sophisticated system of antigenic variation. The parasite, which remains extracellular throughout infection and thus faces a perpetual onslaught of host antibody, periodically "switches" expression of a surface coat consisting of 10^7 copies of a single, immunogenic protein known as the Variant Surface Glycoprotein (VSG). This process allows parasites to escape host antibody and maintain a chronic infection.

Although the *T. brucei* VSG repertoire contains thousands of VSGs, this repertoire is probably too small to maintain a chronic infection through VSG switching alone. During an infection, each *T. brucei* parasite expresses a single VSG at a time from one of ~15 telomeric Bloodstream Expression Sites (the "active" BES)[1]. The remaining VSG-encoding genes are stored in other expression sites, subtelomeric arrays, and minichromosomes, all of which remain transcriptionally silenced[2]. The parasite switches its VSG either by transcriptional activation of a silent BES (*in situ* switching) or through a gene conversion event in which a new VSG is copied into the active expression site. While gene conversion-based switching allows for the activation of VSGs outside of a BES, analysis of the *T. brucei* genome has shown that only ~20% of the VSGs in the parasite genome are full-length genes encoding a functional VSG protein. The remaining ~80% of VSGs in the parasite genome consist of pseudogenes or gene fragments[2] and cannot immediately be used for immune evasion through *in situ* or gene conversion switching. Moreover, the number of VSGs expressed in a population of parasites at a single time during experimental infection sometimes exceeds the total number of intact VSGs in the parasite genome[3,4], further indicating that the repertoire of intact VSGs is insufficient to achieve the antigenic diversity required to maintain a chronic infection.

Evidence suggests that *T. brucei* deals with this shortage of antigens through diversification of the VSG repertoire. Many studies of experimental infections in mice have shown that novel VSGs, generated during infection, predominate at later stages of infection[3,5,6], while analysis of parasites from natural human infections revealed expressed VSGs that were nearly completely absent from the genomes of contemporary field isolates[7]. These observations suggest that the generation of new VSGs plays a critical role in sustaining *T. brucei* antigenic variation.

There are two mechanisms thought to be responsible for extending the VSG repertoire: mosaic formation and *de novo* point mutation. Mosaic VSGs form when two or more VSG genes combine through segmental gene conversion to form a novel VSG. This mechanism allows parasites to access pseudogenes and VSG fragments within the repertoire. While mosaic VSGs have been observed in the literature, they are often found under extreme experimental conditions[8–12] or late during infection[3,5,13,14] making it difficult

to discern how exactly they arose. VSGs also appear to occasionally acquire *de novo*
point mutations, though these can be difficult to distinguish from a small gene conversion
event using a similar donor VSG. The origins of these mutations also remain mysterious,
though newly acquired mutations seem rare[9,15–17]. Ultimately, *de novo* mutation of VSGs
would allow parasites to generate new VSG sequences regardless of the contents of their
repertoire, further amplifying diversity.
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Despite its clear importance, the mechanisms driving VSG diversification, whether
by mutation or recombination, remain poorly understood. It is plausible that DNA damage
and repair may play a role in either mechanism, as expressed VSG genes sit between
two highly repetitive and damage-prone stretches of DNA, the conserved 70bp repeat and
the telomere[2,18]. DNA breaks are frequently observed within the 70bp repeats at the active
expression site[19,20] and near telomeres within silent BESs[20]. Experimental evidence
implicates DNA damage in VSG switching more generally, as a DNA double-strand break
induced upstream of the VSG induces a switch[19,20], but it is unknown whether DNA
damage could also generate new VSGs.
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There is a dearth of experimental evidence for the mechanisms driving VSG
diversification because there has been no controlled and reproducible *in vitro* system for
studying the process. Instead, researchers have had to rely on observation alone,
characterizing the sequences of expressed VSGs that were isolated by chance. This
approach has been crucial for generating hypotheses but is insufficient for deciphering
the mechanisms driving the process. Here, we present a comprehensive toolkit for the
controlled and reproducible study of the diversification of individual VSGs. Using a highly
sensitive barcode-based targeted RNA-seq approach, we show that DNA double-strand
breaks can trigger the formation of mosaic VSGs that are identical to those observed *in*
vivo during infection. Homology appears to drive donor VSG selection, with
microhomology between the parent and donor VSG flanking the site of recombination in
almost every event. We demonstrate that homologous donor VSGs can be utilized as a
template for DNA repair regardless of their genomic location. Finally, we observe that
break-induced diversification is most efficient in the portion of the VSG gene encoding the
exposed top lobe of the VSG N-terminal domain, allowing very small changes in the VSG
protein to facilitate large changes in antibody binding. We suggest that this could
represent a potential hypervariable region within the VSG, facilitating diversification in the
region of the VSG protein where host antibody is most likely to bind.

Results

DNA double-strand breaks trigger the formation of mosaic VSGs

A number of studies have
suggested that VSG diversification
occurs, at least some of the time,
within the active expression site[3,16],
with the sequence of the actively
expressed VSG being altered
through recombination and/or
mutation. For this reason, we
focused our analyses on
diversification of the actively
expressed VSG. Because a double-
strand DNA break upstream of the
VSG within the active BES is known
to induce switching[19,20], we
hypothesized that a break within the
VSG coding sequence might result
in mosaic VSG formation. To
investigate this, we engineered
tetracycline-inducible Cas9
expressing EATRO1125 parasites,
which express the VSG AnTat1.1,
and induced breaks across the
AnTat1.1 coding sequence using a
set of guide RNAs.

To evaluate potential
recombination outcomes, we
developed VSG Anchored Multiplex
PCR Sequencing (VSG-AMP-seq),
a technique that overcomes
previous obstacles to studying VSG
diversification by providing both
high-throughput and highly accurate
sequences (1A). Our approach uses
long unique molecular indexes
(UMIs) to generate high-confidence
consensus sequences[21].
Consolidating reads into consensus

Figure 1. VSG-AMP-seq protocol
A) Schematic of the library prep for VSG-AMP-seq. Figure adapted from [65]. B) Locations of target specific primers for VSG AnTat1.1. SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

sequences allows errors like PCR chimeras, which occur during later cycles of PCR and
therefore represent a minority of sequences in a consensus group[22], to be eliminated
while true events are retained. Libraries are prepared by fragmenting VSG-specific cDNA.
Fragments are then end-repaired, A-tailed and ligated to universal adapters containing a

25bp UMI (1A). A VSG target of interest is selected, and a series of staggered primers
are designed to cover the length of the target VSG's coding sequence (1B). By pairing
target-specific primers with a universal reverse adapter primer, target VSG fragments are
amplified within a sample regardless of their identity. Mosaic reads are defined as those
for whom a portion of the read matches the target and the remainder matches another
VSG (the "donor VSG") within the VSG repertoire (VSGnome) of the strain being studied[2].
Due to its selective, target-specific amplification, this method can sensitively detect
thousands of rare diversification events, even from mixed samples where diversified
VSGs are a minority of the population. To validate this approach, we mixed together at a
known ratio two parasite clones expressing two distinct VSGs that shared sufficient
sequence similarity to make them prone to the generation of PCR chimeras. We then
performed VSG-AMP-seq on RNA extracted from this parasite mixture. This analysis
revealed very few erroneous recombination events, even without UMI consolidation,
demonstrating that VSG-AMP-seq is highly accurate and detects true mosaic
recombination events (Supplemental Figure 1).

To induce breaks across AnTat1.1, we induced Cas9 expression for 24 hours and
then transfected in DNA amplicons containing a T7 promoter and a guide RNA targeting
various regions throughout the AnTat1.1 coding sequence to induce breaks in the VSG.
Parasites were collected two days after transfection of the guide, and mosaic derivatives
of AnTat1.1 were analyzed by VSG-AMP-seq (2A; Supplementary Figures 2A, 2B & 3C).
We detected thousands of recombination events from two independently generated Cas9
clones (C1 = 5956, C2 = 4488).

Our analysis revealed diverse mosaic recombination events centered around each
break site. Such events were virtually absent from the negative (no guide) control,
suggesting this process does not occur at a high rate in the absence of a trigger or in the
presence of Cas9 alone. Notably, as the DNA breaks progressed further away from the
center of the AnTat1.1 coding sequence, the frequency of mosaic formation decreased
dramatically (2B). This did not appear to be related to the guide sequences (Supplemental
Figure 2C-G) or to guide cutting efficiency (Supplemental Figure 2H). To ensure that the
observed mosaic events represented mosaic VSGs that were truly expressed by the
parasite, and not technical artifacts or VSGs incapable of being stably expressed by *T.*
brucei, we also obtained individual clones of parasites expressing AnTat1.1-derived
mosaic VSGs. Using parasite lines that stably express a VSG-targeted guide RNA, we
induced Cas9 expression for 7 days (2C; Supplemental Figure 2A). We isolated 29
mosaic-expressing parasite clones, 4 from guide 243, 22 from guide 694, and 3 from
guide 1459, from a total of 5 parental cell lines. These parasites expressed VSGs
containing recombination events identical to those observed using VSG-AMP-seq. These
results suggest that DNA damage within the active VSG can trigger the formation of
mosaic VSGs, with recombination events centered around the site of DNA damage.

Homology drives mosaic VSG formation

Analysis of the mosaic recombination events detected by VSG-AMP-seq revealed
an important role for sequence homology in the formation of mosaic VSGs. Within the

isolated mosaic clones, we observed short insertions (< 200 bp, average = 49 bp, median
= 23 bp) predominating among the events (2D). Although read lengths limited our ability
to detect larger insertions with VSG-AMP-seq, approximately 55-60% of the mosaic
recombination reads detected by VSG-AMP-seq contained the same short insertions
(average C1 = 46 bp, average C2 = 45.8 bp) (Supplemental Figure 3C). Almost all (C1=
99.71%, C2 = 99.46%) of these recombination events occurred within a region of shared
sequence between AnTat1.1 and each donor VSG, with an average length of ~9 bps
(average C1 = 9.13 bp, average C2 = 9.44 bp, median = 6 bp) (2F; Supplemental Figure
1A). Notably, only a small number of donor VSGs were used for the majority of
recombination events. Upon closer inspection, these donors are members of a 6-VSG
family that contains AnTat1.1 and represent the only sequences within the EATRO1125
VSGnome with significant homology to this VSG (2E). N-terminal recombination events
appear restricted to just these family members (C1 = 100%, C2 = 99.87%). Together,
these results suggest that VSG sequence homology influences the outcome of VSG
recombination after a DNA break.
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Not all VSGs share sequence homology with other members of the VSG repertoire,
however. To determine the outcome following DNA damage of a VSG when there are no
homologous donors available, we used the same Cas9 system in the commonly used
Lister427 *T. brucei* line to cut the actively expressed VSG, VSG-2, which lacks
homologous family members. After inserting stably expressed guides targeting VSG-2
into the genome, we induced Cas9 expression for 7 days. Parasite clones isolated after
a break in VSG-2 no longer expressed VSG-2, and the VSGs expressed by these clones
showed no evidence of mosaic recombination (Supplemental Figure 3B; cut position 707,
n = 4; cut position 1082, n = 3). This further supports the hypothesis that sequence
homology between the parent and donor VSG is required for mosaic VSG formation.
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We sought to determine what proportion of the VSG repertoire contains VSGs that
are members of VSG families and thus capable of diversifying through break-induced
mosaic formation. We performed an all vs all BLAST to cluster VSGs based upon
sequence similarity within both the EATRO1125 and Lister427 parasite strains and found
that most (>75%) of the known VSG sequences are capable of diversifying through the
mechanisms described here (2G). We supplemented this analysis with an orthogonal
clustering method and estimated a similar proportion of diversifiable VSGs (Supplemental
Figure 3A).
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Figure 2. DNA double-strand breaks trigger mosaic VSG formation when homology is available
A) A histogram of unique recombination events identified along the AnTat1.1 transcript. The Cas9 DNA break site is indicated by a vertical line. Cut positions, relative to the 5' end of the VSG transcript are: 243, 369, 694, 894, 978, and 1459. Sections of the histogram are colored to indicate donor VSG identified. R indicates a guide that binds to the reverse strand. The midpoint of the perfect homology between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination site is plotted. If a mosaic sequence matched >1 potential donor VSG, the average recombination position was plotted. B) Quantification of mosaic recombination events induced by DNA breaks. The number of recombination events detected within 250bp up or downstream of the cut site was normalized to the number of total unanchored reads aligning within that region compared to the unanchored read count from the region with the smallest coverage to control for sequencing depth. (n=2, two independent clones) Statistical significance was determined with a one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD (** p <0.01) Mean ± s.d. C) Schematics of mosaic VSGs from parasite clones isolated after DNA breaks within AnTat1.1. Representative sequences shown. D) A histogram of donor VSG insertion lengths identified in all isolated mosaic-expressing clones. The insert length only includes newly inserted sequence and does not include recombination sites. E) A schematic of the AnTat1.1 family aligned to the AnTat1.1 transcript. Gray sequences are a perfect match to AnTat1.1. F) A histogram of the length of the shared identity between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at each recombination site. G) Quantification of types of VSGs within the VSGnomes from EATRO1125 and Lister427 parasites. The Lister427 VSGnome has 5 VSGs which are perfectly duplicated without any other family members. SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

Donor VSGs act as templates for break-induced VSG diversification

Although most AnTat1.1-derived mosaics were identical to the putative donor VSG, many of these insertions altered only a few bps in AnTat1.1. We thus reasoned that it was possible that these events were *de novo* mutations created during DNA repair that happened to match the putative genome-encoded donor VSG. To test this possibility, we took advantage of the unique VSG repertoires in the EATRO1125 and Lister427 parasite strains[2,23]. While AnTat1.1 is not endogenously present in Lister427 parasites, there are five VSGs nearly identical to the AnTat1.1 family member VSG-2986 (99.5%, 98%, 97.5%, 95.5%, and 92.2% nucleotide sequence identity) (3A, Supplemental Figure 4). These VSGs, if mosaic recombination were templated, could serve as donor VSGs for the formation of AnTat1.1-derived mosaic VSGs. We thus engineered dox-inducible Cas9-expressing Lister427 parasites and replaced VSG-2 with AnTat1.1 at the active expression site, BES1. We then induced breaks in AnTat1.1 as before and detected hundreds of recombination events in two independent clones (L1-A1 1 = 398, L1-A2 = 833; 3C). All mosaic recombination events detected utilized donor VSGs found exclusively in the Lister427 genome (3B), indicating that the repair events that generate mosaic VSGs require a template.

Figure 3. Nucleotide changes observed in mosaic VSGs arise from templated insertions

A) Schematics of the EATRO1125 AnTat1.1 VSG family and the VSGs similar to AnTat1.1 found within Lister427. Each is aligned to the AnTat1.1 transcript. For regions that are identical between two donor VSGs, regions are shown in the same color. B) A histogram of unique recombination events identified within AnTat1.1-expressing Lister427 parasites after a cut at position 694 along the AnTat1.1 transcript. The midpoint of the perfect homology between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination site is plotted. All AnTat1.1 family members except VSG-2986 were included as potential identifiable donor VSGs (all Lister427 VSGs + VSG-228, VSG-3110, VSG-7358, and VSG-4156). C) Quantification of mosaic recombination events induced by Cas9 at position 694. EATRO data is from 2A and 2B. The number of recombination events detected within 250bp up or downstream of the cut site was normalized to the number of total unanchored reads aligning within that region compared to the unanchored read count from the region with the smallest coverage from the EATRO cut sites to control for sequencing depth. Mean ± s.d. SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

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Donor VSGs can be utilized for mosaic recombination even within non-VSG loci

We wondered whether the location of a VSG within the genome could influence its utilization as a donor for mosaic recombination. To evaluate the role genomic context plays in the selection of donor VSGs, we again took advantage of the unique repertoires of the EATRO1125 and Lister427 strains[2], as well as the high quality, phased genome assembly of the Lister427 parasite strain[23]. Using the same AnTat1.1-expressing Lister427 Cas9 parasites, we inserted an EATRO1125 VSG, VSG-228, which is commonly used as a donor in AnTat1.1 mosaics and is absent from Lister427 parasites, into three genomic locations: the minichromosomes, where VSGs are typically found, and the rDNA spacer and the tubulin array, where VSGs are not typically stored (Supplemental Figure 4). We then induced breaks at position 694 in AnTat1.1 and analyzed donor selection by VSG-AMP-seq (Figure 4).

The endogenous Lister427 donors were selected at the same frequency in all samples, suggesting that the presence of an additional donor did not interrupt the formation of these mosaic VSGs. Surprisingly, the inserted donor, VSG-228, was utilized regardless of its location. Notably, only the coding sequence of VSG-228 was inserted into the Lister427 background. This indicates that neither the upstream 70-bp repeats typically found interspersed within the VSG archive[24–27] or the 5'- and 3'-UTRs of the VSG are required for locating donor templates. Taken together, these data suggest that parasites possess a sophisticated homology search mechanism that allows donor VSGs to be utilized regardless of genomic location.

Figure 4. Donor VSGs are accessible throughout the genome
A) A schematic of the generation of Lister427 parasites expressing AnTat1.1 and harboring a silent copy of VSG-228. Available donor VSGs for the actively expressed VSG in each cell line are depicted below the parasites. B) A histogram of unique recombination events after a cut at position 694 in AnTat1.1 in Lister427 parasites expressing AnTat1.1 with VSG-228 inserted into the genome. The midpoint of the perfect homology between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination site is plotted. EATRO1125 AnTat1.1 family members were tested as potential identifiable donor VSGs (VSG-2986, VSG-228, VSG-3110, VSG-7358, and VSG-4156). C) Quantification of mosaic recombination utilizing VSG-2986-like or VSG-228 as a donor sequence at position 694 following induction of Cas9. The number of recombination events detected within 250bp up or downstream of the cut site was normalized to the number of total unanchored reads aligning within that region compared to the unanchored read count from the region with the smallest coverage. Each parental clone was independently generated. Mean ± s.d. SL = 5′ splice leader, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts *T. brucei* cartoons created with Biorender.com

Mosaic VSGs generated *in vitro* are identical to a subset of mosaic VSGs formed *in vivo*

To investigate whether the mosaic VSGs we detected after break induction *in vitro* reflected the events that occur naturally *in vivo*, we performed VSG-AMP-seq on parasites isolated from wildtype mouse infections, on day 15 post-infection, when AnTat1.1 has been mostly eliminated from the blood (Supplemental Figure 5B & 5C). We observed a strong C-terminal bias to all recombination events (316 recombination events across 7 mice). Very few sequences aligned to AnTat1.1 within the N-terminus, suggesting that most of these mosaic VSGs were complete replacements of the VSG N-terminal domain (5A; Supplemental 5A). These donor VSGs shared significantly less homology with AnTat1.1 than the AnTat1.1 family members, usually only sharing spans of 100bps or less of imperfect homology within the C-terminal region of the VSGs. Nevertheless, there was still a short (average = 12 bp) span of perfect identity between AnTat1.1 and the donor at the recombination site (5E). Since VSGs expressed by parasites at the second peak of parasitemia are antigenically distinct from AnTat1.1, we reasoned these N-terminal replacement VSGs ensured complete immune evasion since only a small portion of AnTat1.1 was retained.

We wondered whether the restriction of events to the VSG C-terminus reflected a mechanistic bias towards recombination within the VSG C-terminal domain or the effect of host antibody selection, with only the most immune evasive recombination events surviving. To investigate these possibilities, we repeated the experiment in μMT mice[28], which do not have B-cells and therefore do not generate antibodies. We again analyzed day 15 post-infection, though AnTat1.1 is never cleared from these infections and parasitemia remains high throughout (Supplemental 5B & 5C). In μMT mice, mosaic recombination events span the full length of the VSG, and many are identical to mosaic VSGs observed *in vitro* (5A; Supplemental Figure 5A) (2144 recombination events across 7 mice). *In vivo,* we observe short insertions (average = 41 bp) using donors homologous to AnTat1.1 flanked by short (average = 13 bp, median = 9 bp) regions of perfect identity, matching the patterns we observed *in vitro* (5E & 5F). Interestingly, as in the wildtype infections, there are an additional subset of recombination events within the C-terminus which are largely absent *in vitro* and use a much more diverse set of donors (5B). These data demonstrate that our *in vitro* system recapitulates a subset of *in vivo* recombination events, but there may be other pathways facilitating recombination *in vivo* in addition to those that can be triggered by a single, blunt DNA double-strand break.

Mosaic VSGs form in extravascular spaces during infection

While AnTat1.1 is eliminated from the blood in wildtype mice, it persists within tissues until at least day 14[4]. Given that parasite clearance is delayed in extravascular spaces, we wondered if mosaic formation may occur more readily in this parasite niche. To investigate this, we analyzed all assembled VSGs from a previous study of extravascular parasite populations[4]. Again, we found AnTat1.1 mosaics present in tissues identical to those observed in both μMT mice and *in vitro* (5C & 5G). Moreover, we observe that mosaic derivates of AnTat1.1 increase over time within tissue spaces during

348 infection (5D). Together, these data suggest that mosaic VSGs form preferentially within
349 extravascular spaces, possibly due to the slower VSG-specific parasite clearance in these
350 spaces.

Figure 5. AnTat1.1 mosaic VSGs form *in vivo* and are most prevalent in extravascular spaces
A) A histogram of unique recombination events identified in all mice in wildtype or µMT mice from Day 15 post-infection. Recombination events found in multiple mice are represented once. (WT n=7; µMT n=7, from 3 independent experiments) The midpoint of the perfect homology between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination site is plotted. If a mosaic sequence matched >1 potential donor VSG, the average recombination position was plotted. B) Quantification of the number of donor VSGs utilized in mosaic recombination events within the N and C terminal domain of AnTat1.1 in wildtype and µMT mice from A). Statistical significance determined by a pairwise Wilcoxon test (*p<0.05) Mean ± s.d. C) A histogram of the mosaic recombination events identified from VSG ORFs assembled in Beaver et al.[4] All recombination events identified are shown at all time points sampled during infection: D6, D10, and D14. If a mosaic recombination event was identified in more than one tissue within the same mouse, it was counted once (n=12, 4 mice per tissue time point). D) Quantification of the mosaic recombination events detected within wildtype mouse blood or tissue. Statistical significance determined by pairwise Wilcoxon within each timepoint. (**p<0.01) Mean ± s.d. E) A histogram of the length of the shared identity between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination sites. F) A histogram of donor VSG insertion lengths identified within individual reads. The insert length only includes newly inserted sequence and does not include recombination sites. G) Representative schematics of mosaic VSGs from assembled ORFs in Beaver et al.[4] SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

Small changes in the VSG sequence provide substantial antibody evasion

Many AnTat1.1-derived mosaic VSGs differ from their original sequence by only a few amino acids. To determine how these changes impacted the antigenic character of the mosaic VSGs, we analyzed live parasites expressing AnTat1.1 mosaic derivatives by flow cytometry using a potent rabbit anti-AnTat1.1 polyclonal antibody raised against purified AnTat1.1 protein[29] (6A). Many of the mutations block about 50% of antibody binding. Interestingly, three VSG-2986 mosaic clones were isolated with increasing insertion length (6B). The smallest insertion (Mosaic 2: 18bps, resulting in 3 a.a. changes), appears to account for most of the antigenic change, with only small decreases in binding associated with each additional length of insertion. We modeled the structure of these mosaics using ColabFold[30] and their general structures matched AnTat1.1 (6C), except at the disordered top of the N-terminal lobe. A careful examination of the locations of the mutations on AnTat1.1 show that mutations from Mosaic 2 which have the largest effect on antibody binding are at the apex of the structure while other alterations can be found on the side of the monomer (6D). These results demonstrate that, although the insertions characteristic of mosaic recombination are quite short, even these small changes to the VSG can confer large consequences for host antibody binding depending on their position.

Figure 6. Mutations in sequences encoding the top of the VSG alter antibody binding
A) A histogram showing the binding of anti-AnTat1.1 antibody, as measured by anti-rabbit IgG Alexa Fluor 647 staining intensity, for parental controls (gray) and mosaic clones colored by donor VSG. (n= 4, from 3 independent parental lineages derived from 2 Cas9 clones) Schematics showing the mosaic VSGs are to the right. Donor VSG and amino acid substitutions are specified. B) Quantification of staining intensity changes for individual clones, based on median staining intensity. The median Alexa Fluor 647 intensities were normalized to the average of the parental clone. Statistical significance was determined based on a one-way ANOVA with a post-hoc Tukey HSD. (***$p<0.001$) Mean ± s.d. C) Overlapping ribbon structures of AnTat1.1 and Mosaic 1 in blue and AnTat1.1 and Mosaic 2, Mosaic 3, and Mosaic 4 in purple as predicted by ColabFold. D) A space filling model of AnTat1.1 highlighting the changed residues within the monomer. VSG-3110 in blue and VSG-2986 in purple.

Discussion

Chronic *T. brucei* infection relies on the generation of new VSGs, with novel VSGs dominating late stages of infection[3,5,6]. However, the new VSGs generated during infection are complex, possibly arising from several intermediate events, and selected within a host environment with immunity against numerous previously expressed VSGs. The inherent complexity of chronic infection thus obscures the underlying biological principles driving VSG diversification. Here, we demonstrate that VSG diversification can be induced *in vitro* using Cas9-mediated double-strand DNA breaks within the VSG coding sequence, reproducibly generating mosaic VSGs that faithfully recapitulate mosaics formed naturally *in vivo*. By selecting just one VSG and looking at thousands of recombination outcomes, we have defined patterns characteristic of mosaic recombination. Mosaic VSGs typically form through short, templated insertions, and homology drives this process, restricting donor VSGs within the N-terminus to those from a set of closely related family members. Finally, we demonstrate that mosaic VSGs provide substantial immune evasion, particularly when these changes occur at the top of the VSG N-terminus, which may reflect a hypervariable region within the VSG.

We have shown that DNA breaks, previously shown to drive VSG switching[19,20], can also result in VSG diversification through mosaic VSG formation. While the exact DNA repair mechanism that generates mosaics is unclear, the patterns we observe— short templated insertions that rely on short stretches of sequence homology—suggest this is not the canonical homologous recombination that mediates many VSG switch events. Homologous recombination relies on RAD51, an enzyme which binds free DNA ends at double strand breaks and stabilizes insertion into an intact DNA duplex, ultimately facilitating recombination. RAD51-dependent reactions in *T. brucei* require stretches of perfect homology of ~100 bp[31], and mismatches within the homology dramatically ablate recombination[31]. No recombination events detected here fit these restrictions; the maximum shared homology without a mismatch is 58 bp. In line with this, there is evidence for a RAD51-independent pathway capable of driving antigenic variation in *T. brucei*[32]. A set of *in vitro* studies in *T. brucei*[31,33] suggested that the RAD51-independent recombination mechanism utilizes shorter homology sequences[31,33] and more effectively tolerates mismatches between the target and donor sequences[31]. These patterns are more consistent with the recombination events we observe here, suggesting that mosaic formation may be driven by a RAD51-independent mechanism. While DNA repair utilizing short homology has been described in *T. brucei*[33–38], the molecular details of the mechanism remain unknown. It will be critical to follow up on this study, given the tools we have now developed, to determine the precise mechanisms driving mosaic formation.

One surprising aspect of mosaic formation is the remarkably sensitive homology search mechanism capable of locating just 1600 bp of donor VSG sequence from genomic locations where VSGs are not typically stored. This was particularly unexpected given the structured organization of the VSG repertoire, with silent VSG genes primarily restricted to the subtelomeres[24–27] and minichromosomes[39,40] among interspersed fragments of 70 bp repeats. These conserved repeats have been thought to be critical mediators of the majority of VSG switch events by acting as upstream homology to VSGs

within the silent subtelomeric and minichromosomal repertoires[41]. Ultimately, removing
70 bp repeat elements did not interrupt the homology search mechanism used for mosaic
formation, suggesting the repeats are not required to identify a mosaic VSG donor
template. This further reinforces our hypothesis that the repair mechanism driving mosaic
formation is distinct from that driving VSG switching. With a search mechanism so
sensitive, we suspect even small, extremely degenerate VSG fragments may be used by
the parasite for DNA repair, resurrecting ancient VSG sequences for use in novel antigen
formation.
426
While our data suggest most VSGs in the archive are capable of diversification
through the mechanism we have described, this is not the case for all VSGs. Indeed, we
find that mosaic recombination occurs only if a homologous donor VSG is available. Most
studies of antigenic variation in *T. brucei* have focused on VSG-2, a unique VSG that
does not readily diversify; this may explain, at least in part, why mosaic recombination
has been observed so rarely *in vitro* until now. The proportion of VSGs within families is
surprisingly high in both the EATRO1125 and Lister427 strains. Perhaps the VSG
repertoire has evolved to provide a balance between diversification events, which allow
significant expansion of the antigenic repertoire but may not always provide full immune
evasion, and switching, which is more likely to completely escape pre-existing immunity.
437
While the members of the AnTat1.1 VSG family provide numerous possibilities for
recombination and the generation of new VSGs, we found that the center portion of the
gene appears to be especially successful at generating recombinants. We considered
that this might be attributable to available donor sequences or guide efficiency, but there
was nothing apparently unique about this site compared to other break locations. Protein
modeling of AnTat1.1, however, revealed that this region encodes the top of the N-
terminal lobe of the VSG, a site directly exposed to host antibody. For AnTat1.1 and many
similar VSGs[2] (A2-type), this is an unstructured region[42], and indeed the apex of most
crystalized VSGs appears unstructured despite a surprising variety of underlying
structures[42]. We propose that this disordered region may have evolved to be more
tolerant to amino acid changes, allowing diversification within the part of the protein most
likely to facilitate immune evasion. While many recombination events may occur after a
DNA break, we hypothesize that only a few, particularly those within disordered regions,
maintain VSG structural integrity. Since expression of the VSG is essential for cell cycle
progression[43], it is possible that many newly formed mosaic VSGs lead to cell death for
the parasites, allowing only a subset of the recombination events to survive and resulting
in an apparent increase in recombination within the regions of the VSG where mutation
is most tolerated.
456
Indeed, even very small changes within the top of the VSG N-terminal lobe can
confer substantial immune evasion. Just three amino acid substitutions, from an 18 bp
templated replacement, block approximately 50% antibody binding from a potent
polyclonal antiserum. However, a 50% drop in binding may not be sufficient to fully evade
preexisting anti-VSG antibody. Perhaps as a result, mosaic VSGs derived from AnTat1.1
in WT blood appear to be mostly N-terminal replacements where the AnTat1.1 N-terminal
domain is completely replaced. A wider diversity of AnTat1.1-derived mosaics can be

observed within the tissues, however, where AnTat1.1-expressing parasites linger due to
differences in immune pressure[4]. In μMT mice, where AnTat1.1 expressing parasites can
linger indefinitely, this effect is further amplified. We thus hypothesize that generating new
VSGs is an iterative process, where a series of recombination events progressively shifts
the character of a VSG until an immunologically distinct variant is formed. The relatively
"protected" tissue spaces may serve as a site for this iterative process to occur. Another
intriguing possibility is that partial immune evasion is advantageous for the parasite: a
recent study suggested that exposure to sublethal antibody concentrations can trigger a
VSG switch in *T. brucei*[44]. Perhaps parasites expressing these partially evasive variants
are more prone to switching to a completely new VSG.

In addition to shedding light on the selective pressures imposed upon mosaic
variants, our mouse data also demonstrate that our *in vitro* model of antigenic
diversification recapitulates VSG diversification *in vivo*. The recombination events we
detect in μMT mice represent the full breadth of possible recombination events which
AnTat1.1 can form, and these are largely represented within our *in vitro* break-induced
mosaic VSG populations. We observe short insertions flanked by short regions of identity
in both contexts, but the dominance of the 694 break position we observe *in vitro* is not
reflected in our *in vivo* analysis. This could be for a variety of reasons, including non-
uniform break locations along the VSG *in vivo* or a variety of DNA break types driving a
different pattern of outcomes. Intriguingly, in the absence of an exogenous DNA break,
we do not observe any diversification *in vitro*, while diversification occurs continuously in
the μMT context. This suggests that some aspect of the host environment other than
antibody pressure induces diversification *in vivo.* It remains to be investigated whether an
in vivo cue for diversification exists.

The diversification mechanisms we have described, where homology templated
DNA repair drives antigen evolution, may also be at play in other gene families where
diversity is critical. Many pathogens rely on diverse antigen genes to escape the host
immune system, expressing one variable antigen from a silent repertoire stored within
subtelomeric regions of the genome, which are inherently susceptible to DNA damage.
Moreover, many eukaryotic pathogens that utilize antigenic variation (e.g. *Plasmodium*,
Giardia, and *Trypanosoma*) have lost canonical non-homologous end-joining DNA
repair[45], suggesting an important role for alternative RAD51-independent repair
mechanisms. Importantly, mosaic antigens have been observed in *Plasmodium*
falciparum var genes[46–49] and giardia variant-specific surface proteins (VSPs)[50,51], some
of which resemble the small insertion mosaics we have described here. Notably, the large
subtelomeric multigene family of PIR genes in plasmodium[52,53], which may drive antigenic
variation in both *Plasmodium vivax* malaria and rodent malarias, lacks the repeat
elements associated with most subtelomeric antigens[54], a feature that is not required for
this mechanism of DNA repair. Given these observations, we suspect the pathway
described here may contribute to the evolution of antigen repertoires in many diverse
organisms. Further, many alternative forms of DNA repair are also conserved in
mammals[55]; it is thus plausible that large gene families like olfactory receptors[56,57] and
protocadherins[56], which depend upon diversity and are known to swap sequences
through gene conversion events[58–61], may also be diversifying through similar

mechanisms. A rigorous targeted approach, like we have used here, may be required to
determine the role this mechanism plays in the diversification of other gene families.
512
Here we answer long-standing questions about how the *T. brucei* VSG repertoire
evolved to generate new antigens critical for maintaining a chronic infection. Our high-
throughput, sensitive technique has enabled the characterization of thousands of mosaic
diversification events, orders of magnitude more than was previously feasible. This
analysis revealed a pattern of short, homology-driven, and templated insertions around
DNA break sites that can shift the antigenic character of the VSG. More broadly, this study
provides an experimental framework for the hypothesis-driven exploration of antigen
diversification, not only in *T. brucei* but also in other pathogenic microbes.
521

Methods

Lead contact:

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Monica Mugnier (mmugnie1@jhu.edu).

Materials availability:

Plasmids associated with this study will be deposited to Addgene.

Data and code availability:

Raw sequencing reads from VSG-AMP-seq and VSG-seq was deposited to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under project: PRJNA1140873

FASTQ files from assembled VSGs expressed by isolated parasite clones can be found at github.com/mugnierlab/Smith2024

Original code associated with this study can be found at github.com/mugnierlab/Smith2024

Parasites:

Pleiomorphic EATRO1125 AnTat1.1 90-13 *T. brucei* parasites were maintained in HMI-9 media with 10% heat inactivated FBS and 10% Serum Plus. Parasites were passaged when they reached approximately $5*10^5$ cells/mL. Monomorphic Single Marker Lister427 VSG221 TetR T7RNAP bloodstream form (NR42011; LOT: 61775530)[62]. *T. brucei* were maintained in HMI-9 up to $1*10^6$ parasites/mL. VSG221 has since been renamed to VSG-2.

Plasmids:

Plasmids were synthesized with Gibson Assembly. Gibson Assembly master mix was custom made[63]. Whole plasmid sequencing was performed by Plasmidsaurus using Oxford Nanopore Technology and their custom analysis and annotation pipelines.

pLEW100v5-BSD-FLAG-La-Cas9 was synthesized from pLEW100v5-BSD and pRPaCas9[64]. A *T. brucei* codon optimized FLAG tag was added to the N-terminus of Cas9. pLEW100V5-BSD was a gift from George Cross (Addgene plasmid #27658; http://n2t.net/addgene:27658; RRID:Addgene_27658). pRPaCa9 was a gift from David Horn (Addgene plasmid #111819; http://n2t.net/addgene:111819; RRID:Addgene_111819).

pHH-HYG-AnTat1.1 and pHH-HYG-VSG-228 were synthesized from pHH-HYG-VSG-3-S317A.[65] This was a gift from Joey Verdi. AnTat1.1 sequence was obtained from AnTat1.1 specific cDNA from mouse infection D6 cloned into a pMiniT vector with the PCR Cloning Kit (NEB, E1202S). VSG-228 was partially amplified from VSG PCR (see below) derived from AnTat1.1 depleted D16 µMT parasites from blood. The partial fragment was amplified with an AnTat1.1 family specific forward primer (5' - ACTACACCCACAACAAGCTCTA-3') and a pan VSG reverse primer which binds to a conserved 14bp region of the 3' UTR (5'-GATTTAGGTGACACTATAGTGTTAAAATATATC-3') with AmpliTaq Gold (Applied

568 Biosystems, 4398881) (anneal & extension 60C 1m, 35 cycles).The resulting PCR was
569 cloned into the pMiniT backbone and the remainder of VSG-228 was *de novo* synthesized
570 with Gibson Assembly.
571
572   The pT7sgRNA plasmids were obtained according to Rico et al.[64] Briefly, sticky-
573 end annealed sgRNAs were ligated into a BbsI-HF (NEB, R0539S) digestion of
574 pT7sgRNA. Table 1 contains the sequences for the annealed guides. pT7sgRNA was a
575 gift from David Horn. (Addgene plasmid #111820; http://n2t.net/addgene:111820;
576 RRID:Addgene_111820)
577
pHD309-PUR-VSG-228 was synthesized from pHD309-HYG-PUR. To obtain a
plasmid for VSG-228 insertion, the sequence encoding the puromycin resistance gene
was replaced with VSG-228. To convert the plasmid from hygromycin resistance to
puromycin resistance, the sequence encoding the hygromycin resistance gene was
replaced by the puromycin resistance gene. pHD309-HYG-PUR was a gift from George
Cross. (Addgene plasmid #24014; http://n2t.net/addgene:24014; RRID:Addgene_24014)
584
585   pLEW100v5-PUR-VSG-228 was synthesized from pLEW100v5-BSD. The
586 sequence encoding the blasticidin resistance gene was replaced with puromycin
587 resistance. The sequence encoding the firefly luciferase was replaced with VSG-228. The
588 rRNA promoter and the Tet operator sequences upstream of VSG-228 were removed.
589
590   pLEW100v5-PURO-177-VSG-228 was synthesized from pLEW100v5-177-HYG.
591 The sequence encoding the hygromycin resistance gene was replaced with puromycin
592 resistance. The sequence encoding firefly luciferase was replaced with VSG-228. The
593 Tet operator sequences were removed. pLEW100v5-177-HYG was a gift from George
594 Cross. (Addgene plasmid # 24013; http://n2t.net/addgene24013; RRID:Addgene_24013)
595
pLEW100v5-PURO-T7-sgRNA was synthesized from pLEW100v5-PUR-VSG-228
and pT7sgRNA. 5' UTRs for Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate aldolase replaced the Actin 5'
UTR for puromycin expression. Actin and GPEET 5'UTRs were removed as they have
BbsI restriction sites within them. A T7 promoter was added to drive PURO expression.
The T7-sgRNA cassette from pT7sgRNA was inserted into the modified pLEW backbone.
Target specific constructs were obtained as above for pT7-sgRNA.
602
603 **Transgenic parasites:**
604   To obtain all transgenic parasites, 5 million parasites were electroporated with 5-
605 10ug of digested plasmid with an AMAXA Nucleofector II using X-001 in Human T-cell
606 Nucleofector Solution (Lonza VPA-1002).
607
608   For tetracycline-inducible Cas9 parasites, EATRO1125 or Lister427 parasites
609 were electroporated with pLEW100v5-BSD-FLAG-La-Cas9, digested with NotI-HF (NEB,
610 R3189S). Parasites were immediately selected in 5ug/mL blasticidin (Thermo Scientific,
611 R21001) and maintained in selection unless otherwise specified.
612
613   To obtain AnTat1.1 and VSG-228 expressing Lister427 parasites, Lister427

parasites were electroporated with pHH-HYG-VSG plasmids digested with BamHI-HF (NEB, R3136S). After 16-24 hours recovery, 25ug/mL of hygromycin (Fisher Scientific, J67371-XF) was added to the culture. After obtaining colonies 5-7 days later, selection was reduced to 5ug/mL and maintained unless otherwise specified.

Lister427 parasites with pLEW100v5-BSD-FLAG-La-Cas9 inserted were additionally electroporated with pHH-HYG-VSG plasmids expressing Antat1.1. Clones were obtained as above.

To obtain AnTat1.1 Lister427 parasites with silent VSG-228 donors inserted, these parasites were additionally electroporated with pHD309-PUR-VSG-228, pLEW100v5-PURO-VSG-228 or pLEW100v5-PURO-177-VSG-228 plasmids digested with NotI-HF. After 16-24 hours of recovery, 0.1ug/mL of puromycin (Millipore Sigma, P8833) was added to the culture. Parasites were maintained in puromycin, and 5ug/mL of blasticidin and hygromycin unless otherwise specified.

To obtain constitutive guide expressing parasite lines, inducible Cas9-expressing parasites (both Lister427 and EATRO1125 Cas9 strains) were electroporated with pT7sgRNA guide containing plasmids digested with NotI-HF[64]. After 16-24 hours recovery, single colonies of parasites were selected with 2ug/mL phleomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, SML3001). Parasites were maintained without phleomycin selection. These parasites were used to obtain parasite clones following DNA break induction.

To obtain constitutive guide expressing parasite lines with puromycin selection rather than phleomycin, EATRO1125 inducible Cas9-expressing parasites were electroporated with pLEW-T7-sgRNA digested with NotI-HF. After 16-24 hours of recovery single colonies were selected with 0.1ug/mL of puromycin. Cultures were maintained in 0.1ug/mL puromycin and 5ug/mL blasticidin unless otherwise specified. These parasites were used for western blot analysis and to obtain parasite clones following DNA break induction.

T7-Guide synthesis & purification:
DNA fragments containing a T7 promoter and guide RNA sequence were synthesized as described previously[66]. Briefly, T7-guide primers and a G00 primer were amplified with Phusion polymerase for 35 cycles (annealing temp 60C, extension 5s). PCR products from 12 identical PCRs were pooled and purified via ethanol precipitation.

Cas9 transient electroporations:
Approximately 24 hours prior to electroporation, parasites were seeded at a density of 83,000 parasites/ml and induced with 1ug/mL doxycycline (Millipore Sigma, D9891-1G). The total culture volume of was determined by the number of samples being electroporated; 12mLs were seeded per sample. Blasticidin selection (Cas9) and puromycin selection (silent VSG-228) were maintained, if applicable, and for Lister427 parasites expressing AnTat1.1, hygromycin (active VSG expression) was removed at this stage. Either 8mLs (Lister427) or 10mLs (EATRO1125) of the bulk parasite culture, approximately 5-10 million cells, were spun down for each sample. Media was then

removed, and parasites were resuspended in 100uL Human T-cell Nucleofector Solution.
Each sample was electroporated using the X-001 program on the AMAXA Nucleofector
II with approximately 1-1.5ug of purified T7-guide in a volume less than 10uL or a sample
without any DNA as a negative control. Parasites were moved into 5mLs HMI-9 in 6-well
plates to recover for 30 minutes then moved into 20mLs total in flasks to recover
overnight. About 24 hours after electroporation, parasites were counted and split. For
EATRO1125, 12 million cells (or all cells if there were fewer than 12million) were seeded
into 60mLs total with blasticidin. For Lister427, 2 million cells were seeded into 20mLs
total with blasticidin. At the 48 hour time point, parasites were counted, collected, and
stored in TRIzol (Invitrogen, 15596026) for subsequent RNA extraction.
670
Isolation of mosaic expressing parasites:
Multiple parasite clones expressing T7sgRNA with guides at cut sites 243 and 694
were derived from two distinct inducible Cas9-expressing parasite clones with constitutive
guide expression driven by pT7-sgRNA. Multiple dilutions of parasites were plated in 96-
well plates in 5ug/mL blasticidin and 1ug/mL doxycycline. Parasite clones were isolated
from plates containing fewer than 30 individual surviving parasite clones. Most plates
contained fewer than 10. Individual clones were visible after 7-14 days. Upon isolation of
a parasite clone, all drugs were removed. A subset of parasites were analyzed by flow
cytometry.
680
A single parasite clone expressing pLEW-T7-sgRNA with a guide at position 1459
was derived from an inducible Cas9-expressing parasite clone. Multiple dilutions of
parasites were plated in 96-well plates in 5ug/mL blasticidin, 0.1ug/mL puromycin, and
1ug/mL doxycycline. Parasites were isolated from plates containing fewer than 30
surviving parasite clones. Individual clones were visible after 7-14 days. Upon isolation of
a parasite clone, all drugs were removed.
687
VSG sequences for clones were determined from extracted RNA. cDNA was
synthesized using the Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, 18080051) and
a VSG-specific primer which binds to a conserved 14-bp sequence within the 3' UTR. (5'-
GTGTTAAAATATATC-3'). 2uL of RNase-treated cDNA was amplified for 35 cycles with
VSG specific primers: a spliced-leader (5'-ACAGTTTCTGTACTATATTG-3') and SP6-
VSG 14-mer (5'-GATTTAGGTGACACTATAGTGTTAAAATATATC-3') using Phusion
polymerase (Thermo Fisher, F530L) (annealing temp 55C, extension 45s). PCR products
were cleaned using the Monarch PCR & DNA cleanup kit (NEB, T1030L). VSG
sequences were determined by amplicon nanopore sequencing performed by
Plasmidsaurus using Oxford Nanopore Technology with their custom analysis and
annotation where fragmented VSG amplicons were sequenced and assembled into full
length sequences or targeted Sanger sequencing with the sequencing primer (5'-
AGAGAATACTAAGCTAGTTGGC-3') performed by Azenta Life Sciences.
701
Mouse infections:
All experiments involving mice were performed in accordance with the protocol
approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Johns Hopkins
University. 8-12 week old female C57BL/6 mice and μMT⁻ (B6.129S2-Ighm^tm1Cgn/J)[28] mice

(Jackson Labs) were infected with ~5 EATRO1125 parasites by intravenous injection in
the tail vein. These parasites express either AnTat1.1 or VSG-421. Starting at D4 post-
infection, parasitemia was monitored within mice every two days via tail bleed. Blood was
harvested at D6 post-infection through a submandibular bleed. An additional gel pack and
in-cage food pellets were provided to mice during recovery. At D15 post-infection, mice
blood was harvested by cardiac puncture. Blood was stored in TRIzol LS (Invitrogen,
10296028) for RNA extraction.

RNA preparation:
Parasites were stored in TRIzol prior to RNA extraction. Blood with parasites was
stored in TRIzol LS. RNA was extracted via phenol/chloroform extraction according to the
manufacturers protocol. Purified RNA was DNase treated with Turbo DNase (Thermo
Fisher, AM2239) and purified with 1.8X Mag-Bind TotalPure NGS Beads (Omega Bio-
tek, M1378-01). Verification of effective DNase treatment was performed via PCR of
hygromycin (EATRO1125 only) (Fwd: 5'-ACAGCGGTCATTGACTGGAG-3'; Rev: 5'-
ATTTGTGTACGCCCGACAGT-3', annealing temp 52C, extension 30s) or HSP70
(Lister427 & EATRO1125) (Fwd: 5'-AGAACACTATCAATGACCCCAAC-3'; Rev: 5'-
CCATGCCCTGGTACATCT-3', annealing temp 50C, extension 15s) genes for 30 cycles
using OneTaq DNA Polymerase (NEB, M0480L).

VSG-seq:
VSG-seq was performed as previously described[3,4]. Briefly, cDNA was
synthesized using the Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase and a VSG-specific primer
which binds to a conserved 14-bp sequence within the 3' UTR. (5'-GTGTTAAAATATATC-
3'). cDNA was treated with Rnase A (Qiagen, 19101) and RNase H (Invitrogen,
18080051) for 30 minutes then purified with 1.8X Mag-Bind Total NGS Beads (Omega
Bio-tek, M1378-01). Purified cDNA was amplified for 25 cycles with VSG specific primers:
a spliced-leader (5'-ACAGTTTCTGTACTATATTG-3') and SP6-VSG 14-mer (5'-
GATTTAGGTGACACTATAGTGTTAAAATATATC-3') using Phusion polymerase
(Thermo Scientific, F530L) (annealing temp 55C, extension 45s). This PCR product was
prepared for sequencing following a 0.6X bead clean up using the Nextera XT DNA
Sample Prep Kit (Illumina, FC-131-1096) according to the manufacturer's instructions.
Libraries were sequenced with 100 bp single-end reads on a NovaSeq6000. Analysis was
performed using the VSGSeqPipeline found at github.com/mugnierlab.

VSG-AMP-seq library preparation:
VSG-AMP-seq was based upon AMP-seq[67] and GUIDE-seq[68]. cDNA was
synthesized from DNA-free RNA using Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase and a VSG-
specific primer which binds to a conserved 14-bp sequence within the 3' UTR. (5'-
GTGTTAAAATATATC-3'). Second Strand synthesis was performed with NEBNext
mRNA Second Strand Synthesis Module (E6111L). The resulting double stranded cDNA
was purified with 1.8X Mag-Bind Total NGS Beads. cDNA was fragmented briefly with
NEBNext dsDNA Fragmentase (M0348L) for ten minutes at 37C to obtain fragments of
approximately 500bps. Fragments were purified with a double-sided Mag-bind bead
cleanup. First, fragments were incubated with 0.5X beads, DNA bound to the beads were
discarded and an equal volume of beads as before, then a 1X PEG concentration, was

added to the fragments and the cleanup proceeded as normal. Fragments were end-repaired with Enzymatics low concentration end repair mix (Y9140-LC-L) and A-tailed with Recombinant Taq (Life Technologies, 100021276). Y-Adapters were pre-annealed by incubating a MiSeq Common Adapter with Adapters (A01-A10) containing 25 bp Unique Molecular Indexes (UMIs) and a barcode at 10uM at 95C for 1 sec, 60C for 1s, and slowly cooled to 4C. Adapters were ligated to the A-tailed fragments with T4 DNA Ligase (Enzymatics L6030-LC-L). The resulting fragments were cleaned up with 0.8X Mag-Bind beads. Two target specific PCRs were performed on the fragments with pools of target specific primers, one in the forward and one in the reverse direction. All primers are listed in Table 1. Target primers have spacers of varying lengths to generate sequence diversity without the need for PhiX. Target specific primers are paired with P5_2 and a sample specific P primer (P701-P710) which contains a second barcode. Fragments are amplified with Platinum Taq (Life Technologies, 10966018) using the following program: 95C 5 mins, 35 cycles of 95C for 30s, 55C for 30s, and 72C for 30s, and 72 for 5 mins. The resulting products were cleaned up with 0.6X Mag-bind beads. Libraries were quantified using the Qubit dsDNA HS Kit (Life Technologies, Q32854) and run on a 1% agarose gel to determine average length. Libraries were sequenced on a MiSeq or for deep sequencing of μMT samples on a NovaSeq6000 with custom index1 and read2 primers using the following cycle conditions: "151|8|33|131" with the paired-end Nextera sequencing protocol.

VSG-AMP-seq analysis:

Index sequences were added to the names of sequencing reads. FASTQ files were demultiplexed by target specific primer using cutadapt v=3.5[1] searching for multiple target-specific primers at the 5' end of read2 in paired-end mode using flags --action=retain --overlap 10. Then, reads were quality trimmed with trim_galore v0.6.4_dev (github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) where adapter sequences, if present, were removed with flags --dont_gzip --paired --trim1. Spacers were removed from read1 if present using cutadapt by searching for the target-specific primer sequence at the 3' end of the read with flags --action=retain --overlap 10. Dual-indexed barcodes were used to demultiplex reads. A custom function in the pipeline (barcode_errors()) was used to the identify number of mismatches permitted so all barcodes present could be unambiguously identified.

To consolidate reads, UMIs were extracted from large FASTQ files, split into smaller files and grouped by 100% identity using cd-hit-est v4.8.1[70,71] with flags -c 1.0 -n 8 -M 16000 -d 0. UMIs were then grouped by 92% (no more than 2 mismatches per UMI) using flags -c 0.92 -n 8 -M 16000 -d 0. Reads were sorted into consensus groups based on UMIs and a consensus sequence was formed as the most popular base at each position of the read with a threshold quality score of at least 2. If there was a tie, an N was used. Clusters with fewer than 3 reads were removed. Consolidation was only used for samples isolated from mouse infections.

The full sequence of the AnTat1.1 transcript was determined by Plasmidsaurus using Oxford Nanopore Technology with their custom analysis and annotation. However, in our initial analyses of control samples, we determined that many reads slightly differed

near the splice leader, suggesting that transcripts might be alternatively spliced or
included extra sequence appended at some point during the library preparation process,
specifically adjacent to splice leader. We defined the AnTat1.1 reference as the full-length
variant determined by Plasmidsaurus sequencing, with the longest splice variant
observed in control samples (no guide, electroporated) appended to the 5'-end. When
reads did not align to this reference, they were then compared against the ten most
commonly observed AnTat1.1 isoforms to account for all possible variations in the
AnTat1.1 transcript. These sequences, including the full length AnTat1.1 reference, can
be found in global_target.py. The positions were 0 indexed. Read2, the anchored read,
was aligned to AnTat1.1. Read pairs were removed if: the first 4/10 bases after the primer
did not align to AnTat1.1, an alternative VSG which contained the primer sequence was
amplified, the wrong position of AnTat1.1 was amplified by the anchor, if the reads were
too short (<15 bps), contained too many Ns (>5), if there was an inversion event or a
duplication, or if the transcript was alternatively spliced. Read1, the unanchored read,
was also aligned to AnTat1.1 with a mismatch of up to 1bp. If no alignment could be
found, read1 was trimmed to remove AnTat1.1 like sequences from the 5' and 3' ends,
allowing up to 1 mismatch on each end to be removed, leaving a fragment which can be
used to search the VSGnome and identify potential donor VSGs. A consensus sequence
was generated from the reads, if they overlapped, using their alignment positions within
AnTa1.1. AnTat1.1, the consensus read, and putative donor VSG were aligned, and
recombination sites were identified. If no consensus could be generated from the two
reads, read1 was used. Ambiguous recombination sites where the mosaic portion of a
read matched more than one donor were represented by the average position of the
potential recombination sites and identified as ambiguous. Mosaic reads which did not
overlap to generate a consensus and did not contain an identifiable recombination site in
read1 were excluded from analysis.
824
Identification of mosaic VSG from ORFs in Beaver et al.[4]
ORFs from Beaver et al.[4] were tiled into 20 bp k-mers overlapping by 1bp each.
All tiles were aligned to AnTat1.1 using bowtie[72] with the following flags: -v 2. ORFs where
15 or more tiles successfully aligned to the AnTat1.1 sequence were identified as possible
mosaics (≥ 35 bp match, potentially discontinuous). AnTat1.1 sequence containing ORFs
were assessed for sequence matching common donor VSGs: VSG-228, VSG-2986,
VSG-3110, and VSG-7358. If a best match could not be determined or if recombination
did not occur with one of the typical donor VSGs, VSG sequences were analyzed by hand
to identify remaining mosaic recombination events.
834
VSG clustering and family identification:
VSGs were identified from annotated genes and pseudogenes from the TriTrypDB-
66 Lister427 2018 genome GFF[23]. Those identified with an attribute including "VSG" or
"variant" but not "invariant", "Invariant", "histone", "Histone", "RING", "ubiquitin",
"exclusion", "Exclusion", "nonvariant", or "Nonvariant". Many known VSGs were only
annotated as an unknown protein product. To identify additional VSG-encoding genes,
we isolated all unknown gene products with attributes including "hypothetical protein",
"pseudogene" or "unknown", but not including "VSG", "variant" or any of the additionally
excluded words above. VSGs were identified among these unknown genes via BLAST

against all known VSG-encoding sequences (Those from Cross et al.[2], the EATRO1125
VSGs with flanking sequences from George Cross, Beaver et al.[4], and TriTrypDB-66[73]
TRU927, Lister427, and EATRO1125 genomes.) Genes were considered a VSG if the
blast hit extended over 80% of the unknown gene and had a bitscore of 500 or greater.
We identified an additional 2545 VSGs.

All Lister427 identified VSGs from the Lister427 2018 genome and the FASTAS
from   Cross   et   al.[2]   (vsgs_tb427_all_atleast150aas_cds.txt,
vsgs_tb427_nodups_atleast250aas_cds.txt,
vsgs_tb427_nodups_atleast250aas_cdsplusflanks.txt) were combined and duplicate
VSGs were removed with cd-hit-est with the following flags: -c 1.0 -n 8 -M 16000 -d 0.
VSGs with identical sequences, but distinct positions within the 2018 genome were added
back for a total of 8564 VSGs. In the Lister427 2018 genome, we identified 5789 VSG-
encoding genes total and included 300bps flanking sequences up and downstream of the
coding sequence for further analysis. These are genes visualized in Supplemental Figure
4.

EATRO1125 VSGs were obtained from TrypsRU (George Cross) and included 200
bp flanking sequences. (vsgs_tb1125_all_atleast150aas_cdsplusflanks.txt) Duplicate
genes were removed with cd-hit-est with the following flags: -c 1.0 -n 8 -M 16000 -d 0.

To define VSG families, network analysis was performed using the curated VSG
reference FASTA files described above. Each genomic repertoire was subjected to an
all-versus-all BLASTn run under the default parameters to generate pairwise tables which
contained the query-subject pair, query sequence length, alignment length, E-value and
percent identity. Networks were generated with the igraph R package[74,75] using
undirected and unweighted clustering of nodes after applying link cutoffs based on E-
value < 1e-20 and alignment coverage of the query sequence > 80%. The leading
eigenvector clustering method (function: cluster_leading_eigen()) was used to detect
communities and assign nodes based on their connectivity.

To supplement the BLAST network graph approach, the greedy clustering
UCLUST algorithm[76] was used to assess clusters of VSGs. VSGs were clustered using
usearch with the following flags: -id .75 -strand both -sizeout -sort length -maxhits 2. For
each genome, identified VSGs were sorted by sequence length then clustered at a global
identity threshold of 75%

Western blotting:
EATRO1125 parasites with pLEW-FLAG-La-Cas9 and pLEW-T7sgRNA were
grown for 24 hours in the presence of doxycycline or DMSO vehicle control. Post
induction, 5 million parasites were harvested and washed with 25C PBS. Then, pelleted
parasites were resuspended in 50uL RIPA buffer (50mM Tris, 150mM NaCl, 1% NP-40,
0.5% Sodium Deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, pH = 7.4) + 2X Laemmli buffer. Lysed parasites
were boiled at 95C for 5 minutes. 5uL of lysates were separated on a Tris-glycine
polyacrylamide gel at 110V for 100 minutes in Tris/glycine running buffer (25mM Tris,
192mM glycine, 0.1% SDS, pH = 8.3). Proteins were then transferred onto a nitrocellulose

membrane using transfer buffer (25mM Tris, 192mM glycine, 20% methanol) overnight at
a 60mAmps per transfer box at 25C. For Cas9 (1:1000) and EF1α (1:1000), lysates were
separated on 10% polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto 0.45µm membranes. For γ-
H2A (1:200), lysates were separated on a 15% polyacrylamide gel and transferred onto
a 0.2µm membrane. After transfer, blots were blocked with 0.5% BSA in TBS with 0.05%
Triton X-100 (TBST, 20mM Tris, 150mM NaCl, pH = 7.6) for an hour at RT under constant
agitation. Blots were incubated with primary antibody (see above dilutions) for 2 hours at
25C. After 5 TBST washes, blots were stained for 1 hour with goat anti mouse (1:5000,
Cell Signaling, 7076S) or goat anti rabbit-HRP-conjugated secondary (1:5000, Cell
Signaling, 7074S). After another 5 washes, blots were incubated with ECL (Cytiva,
RPN2109) and film was exposed to blots in a dark room. Developed film was scanned
and images were processed with FIJI[77]. Primary antibodies used were mouse anti FLAG
(M2 clone) (Millipore Sigma, F3165-1MG), mouse anti EF1α (CBP-KK1 clone) (Millipore
Sigma, 05-235), and rabbit anti γ-H2A was a kind gift from Galadriel Hovel-Miner based
upon Glover and Horn[78].

Flow cytometry:
In 96 well plates, 200,000 parasites were stained with 1:20,000 rabbit anti
AnTat1.1 primary antibody[29] (Jay Bangs) for ten minutes at 4C while shaking in PBS +
10mg/mL glucose. Parasites were washed once with 100uL PBS + glucose. Then,
parasites were stained with Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated goat anti rabbit IgG (H+L),
F(ab')2 Fragment (Cell Signaling, 4414S) at 1:1000 at 4C while shaking in PBS + glucose.
After washing again with 100uL PBS + glucose, parasites were resuspended in PBS +
glucose + 1:20 Propidium Iodide (BD Biosciences, 556463) and analyzed on a Attune Nxt
flow cytometer (Invitrogen). Data analysis was performed using FlowJo v10.

Analysis and modeling of VSG N-terminal domains:
Full length protein coding sequences from AnTat1.1 and its isolated mosaics were
used for structural modeling. Only N-terminal domain sequences were used for protein
structural prediction since this region of the VSG is the most well-defined experimentally.
Signal peptides are cleaved from the mature VSG during processing, so we used SignalP
6.0[79] to predict and remove the Sec/SPI sequence (--organism eukarya, --mode fast)
resulting in a FASTA file of mature proteins. To determine the coordinate of the N-terminal
domain,   we   used   a   python   analysis   pipeline   available   at
(https://github.com/mugnierlab/find_VSG_Ndomains).   The   script   identifies   the
boundaries of the VSG N-terminal domain using the HMMscan function under HMMer
version 3.1b2[80]. Query sequences are searched against an HMM profile containing 735
known N-terminal domain sequences from Cross et al.[2] and N-terminal domains defined
by the largest envelope domain coordinate that meets E value threshold (1×10^{-5}, -domE
0.00001). The processed FASTA file containing only mature VSG N-terminal domain
sequences was used as input for structural prediction of monomers using
LocalColabFold[30] function colabfold_batch run using the following arguments: --amber, -
-templates, --num_recycle 3. The best ranked output model with the highest average
predicted local distance test score (pLDDT), that is the highest confidence model, was
used for downstream analyses. Model visualization and alignment were performed using
with UCSF ChimeraX version 1.7.1[81], developed by the Resource for Biocomputing,

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization, J.E.S. and M.R.M.; Methodology, J.E.S., J.M.C.H., A.K.B., A.M., S.D.G., B.Z., and E.H.A.; Software, J.E.S., A.M., J.S., and L.M.; Validation, J.E.S. and K.J.W.; Formal Analysis, J.E.S.; Investigation, J.E.S., K.J.W., E.M.K., J.S., A.K.B., A.M., J.Z., and D.N.M.; Resources, M.R.M.; Data Curation, J.E.S., A.M., and J.S.; Writing – Original Draft, J.E.S. and M.R.M.; Writing – Reviewing & Editing, J.E.S., A.K.B., and M.R.M.; Visualization, J.E.S. and J.S.; Supervision, J.E.S. and M.R.M.; Project Administration, J.E.S.; Funding Acquisition, J.E.S. and M.R.M.

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Supplemental Information
Document S1. Figures S1-S5
Table1.

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1193 **Supplemental figures**

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Supplemental Figure 1. Mosaic Recombination Site & VSG-AMP-seq Validation
A) A schematic of a recombination site. The region in yellow is the putative recombination site, shared by all 3 sequences. B) A stacked bar graph quantifying the mix of Lister427 parasites engineered to express either AnTat1.1 or VSG-228 as determined by VSG-seq. These VSGs are naturally absent from Lister427 parasites and therefore chimeric reads containing sequence from both VSGs must have arisen from error. C) A histogram showing the midpoint of chimeric recombination events misidentified as a mosaic VSGs by VSG-AMP-seq from the mixed parasite sample in Supplemental Figure 1B.

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Supplemental Figure 2. Cas9 system and sgRNA design and analysis
A) A schematic of the Cas9 induction experiment. Transient electroporation shown on the left while constitutive guide expression to isolate mosaic clones shown at right. B) An immunoblot showing FLAG-tagged Cas9 induction 24 hours following doxycycline treatment (DOX). DMSO was used as a vehicle control. EF1α was used as a loading control. C) A histogram showing the midpoint of all possible recombination sites 5bps or longer between AnTat1.1 and its family members. D) Quantification of the number of recombination sites within 250bps up or downstream of the cut site for each donor VSG. Mean ± s.d. E) Quantification of the Levenshtein distance between AnTat1.1 and family members. This includes mismatches, insertions and deletions. Mean ± s.d. F) Quantification of the number of mismatches at the guide binding site between AnTat1.1 and family members. Mean ± s.d. G) Histogram of which donor VSGs can disrupt the PAM when used to repair AnTat1.1. H) Quantification of the induction of DNA damage following guide induction as measured by a proxy of DNA damage, γ-H2A phosphorylation, following 24 hours of induction. γ-H2A induction was normalized to EF1α loading and fold change of staining intensity was determined between doxycycline-induced and uninduced samples. DMSO was used as a vehicle control. Mean ± s.d. Below, a representative immunoblot of FLAG, EF1α, and γ-H2A from doxycycline induced clones and uninduced controls is shown. Multiple independently-generated clones were induced. SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

Supplemental Figure 3. DNA breaks result in switchers if a homologous donor is not present
A) Quantification of the types of VSGs within the VSGnomes from EATRO1125 and Lister427 Parasites using the UCLUST greedy clustering algorithm. The Lister427 VSGnome has 4 VSGs which are perfectly duplicated without other family members. B) A schematic showing identified switchers following a Cas9-induced double strand break within VSG-2 at locations 707 and 1082. C) Histograms of donor VSG insertion lengths identified in all mosaic VSG reads from Figure 2A). The insert length only includes newly inserted sequence and does not include recombination sites. Clone C1 and C2 sequenced via VSG-AMP-seq are shown separately. The limit of detection for an insertion is approximately 200 bp. D) A histogram with a summary of the unique recombination sites found within guide-induced break for each clone. Cut sites are indicated above the histograms as gaps within the black line. The midpoint of the perfect homology between AnTat1.1 and the donor VSG at the recombination site is plotted. If a mosaic sequence matched >1 potential donor VSG, the average recombination position was plotted. The legend for the donor VSG colors is to the right. SL = 5′ splice leader sequence, 14-mer = 3′ sequence conserved in all VSG transcripts

Supplemental Figure 4. The Lister427 VSG annotated genome
The megabase chromosomes from Müller et al.[23] VSGs annotated in the genome are plotted in gray. Unknown genes identified as VSGs via BLAST are plotted in yellow. Details of how these VSGs were identified are detailed in Methods. AnTat1.1 homologous family members are colored purple and marked with an asterisk. Insertion sites for the VSG-228 are denoted by arrows at the insertion location. Inset are the unitigs which are unscaffolded and harbor a copy of the AnTat1.1 family member or a potential insertion site. Bloodstream Expression Site 1 (BES1) is on the 5' end of chromosome 6 and is marked by an arrow.

Supplemental Figure 5. Mouse infection extended data
A) Quantification of the number of recombination events detected per mouse. Each mouse was normalized to the number of total consolidated, aligned, and unanchored reads compared to the consolidated, aligned, unanchored read count for one mouse to control for sequencing depth. This was performed separately for each genotype. Mean ± s.d. B) A time course of the parasitemia for the mouse infections. Blood was harvested every two days. C) Quantification of the percent of parasites expressing the starting VSG at D6 and D15 post-infection as quantified by VSG-seq.

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1202   Table 1 Guide and VSG-AMP-seq primers

Guide Primers	
Primer Name	Sequence
AnTat1.1_243	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGATTCAAAAACGGCCAAAC GCCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
AnTat1.1_369R	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGCGTAAATTAACAGTGT CGGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
AnTat1.1_694	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGAGTACAGACCCAGAAGCC AGGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
AnTat1.1_894	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGACGCCGGTGTCGCAGCT AAACGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
AnTat1.1_978R	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGTCGTTGGCTGCTTGGAG TTGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
AnTat1.1_1459	GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGACCAATCCAGAAAAGTGC AAGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC
G00	AAAAGCACCGACTCGGTGCCACTTTTTCAAGTTGATAACGGA CTAGCCTTATTTTAACTTGCTATTTCTAGCTCTAAAAC

Annealed Guides for T7-sgRNA insertion		
Fragment Name	FWD	REV
AnTat1.1_243	AGGGATTCAAAAACGGCCAA ACGCC	AAACGGCGTTTGGCCGTTTT TGAAT
AnTat1.1_369R	AGGGGGCGTAAATTAACAGT GTCG	AAACCGACACTGTTAATTTA CGCC
AnTat1.1_694	AGGGAGTACAGACCCAGAA GCCAG	AAACCTGGCTTCTGGGTCTG TACT
AnTat1.1_894	AGGGACGCCGGTGTCGCAG CTAAAC	AAACGTTTAGCTGCGACACC GGCGT
AnTat1.1_978R	AGGGGTCGTTGGCTGCTTG GAGTT	AAACAACTCCAAGCAGCCAA CGAC
AnTat1.1_1459	AGGGACCAATCCAGAAAAGT GCAA	AAACTTGCACTTTTCTGGATT GGT
VSG-2_707	AGGGACCAACGGCCTCGGC AAAAG	AAACCTTTTGCCGAGGCCGT TGGT
VSG-2_1082	AGGGCCAGTGGCGCAAAAC CTGGT	AAACACCAGGTTTTGCGCCA CTGG

DNase Verification Primers		
Primer Name	FWD	REV
HSP-70 (Tb927.11.11330)	AGAACACTATCAATGACCCC AAC	CCATGCCCTGGTACATCT
Hyg	ACAGCGGTCATTGACTGGA G	ATTTGTGTACGCCCGACAGT

VSG-AMP-seq Primers	
Primer Name	Sequence
All-VSG-3'UTR	GTGTTAAAATATATC

Y-adapter%	[Phos]GATCGGAAGAGC*C*A
A01^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTAGATCGC(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A03^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTATCCTCT(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A04^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACAGAGTAGA(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A05^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACGTAAGGAG(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A06^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACACTGCATA(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A07^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACAAGGAGTA(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A08^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACCTAAGCCT(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A09^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACGACATTGT(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
A10^	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACACTGATGG(N:252 52525)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)(N)ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T
P5_2	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC
P701	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTCGCCTTAGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P703	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTTCTGCCTGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P704	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGCTCAGGAGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P705	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATAGGAGTCCGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA

P706	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCATGCCTAGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P707	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGTAGAGAGGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P708	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCCTCTCTGGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P709	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATATCACGGTGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
P710	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCGATGTGCGTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGA
AnTat1.1_1F[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$CGCAAACACTACAACGAGCC
AnTat1.1_2F[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$CAGAATGCGACACGGAAAGC
AnTat1.1_3F[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$ACGCAGGCGGCTTCAAAACA
AnTat1.1_4F[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$AACAGCCGCAGCAACCAAAC
AnTat1.1_0R[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$GGCCACAAATGCGGCAGAAAC
AnTat1.1_1R[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$GCCATAAGCTGCGGTTTCGT
AnTat1.1_2R[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$GTTGTGTATGGTTAGCAGGC
AnTat1.1_3R[&]	CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT$(N)_{0-7}$CTTGTATTTTGTGCGTGGCG
Index1[%]	ATCACCGACTGCCCATAGAGAGGACTCCAGTCAC
Read2[%]	GTGACTGGAGTCCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT
Miscellaneous Additional Primers	
Name	Sequence
SL-FWD	ACAGTTTCTGTACTATATTG
SP6-14mer-REV	GATTTAGGTGACACTATAGTGTTAAAATATATC
AnTat1.1 Sanger Sequencing Primer	AGAGAATACTAAGCTAGTTGGC
Pan AnTat1.1family FWD	ACTACACCCACAACAAGCTCTA

1203 [a] * = indicates a phosphorothioate bond modification
1204 [b] [Phos] = 5' phosphorylation
1205 [c] ^ = hand mixing
1206 [d] & = machine mixing
1207 [e] % = HPLC purification