Comprehensive genomic analysis of *Trypanosoma rangeli* reveals key insights into the biology and evolution of this non-virulent American mammalian trypanosome

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ABSTRACT

Background: *Trypanosoma rangeli* is a non-virulent hemoflagellate protozoan parasite

that infects mammals, including humans, in Central and South America. It is primarily

transmitted through the bites of triatomine bugs and shares an overlapping geographical

distribution with *T. cruzi*, as well as triatomine vectors and mammalian hosts, and various

shared surface antigens. The life cycle of *T. rangeli* differs from those of other human-

infecting trypanosomes, such as *T. cruzi* and *T. brucei*, and the molecular mechanisms

underlying host-parasite and host-vector interactions are not well understood, demanding

improved molecular and genomic resources.

Results: The use of a hybrid approach to sequence and assemble the *T. rangeli* genome,

complemented by transcriptomics and proteomics for functional gene annotation, led to

the generation of the near-complete genome sequence of the parasite. Detailed intra-

and inter-specific comparative genomics allowed analysis of polymorphisms, genome

structure and improved resolution of genes coding for important surface molecules such

as Mucins, TASV and GP63.

Conclusions: The improved *T. rangeli* genome assembly, combined with comparative

genomics has yielded novel biological insights. These included the first description of a

metalloprotease activity, attributed to specific GP63 genes that are absent in *Leishmania*

species. In addition, a TASV gene family that is absent in *T. cruzi* was identified, which

indicates a possible role in the *T. rangeli* infection process.

Keywords: Trypanosomiasis, Avirulent trypanosome, Comparative genomics, Surface

molecules.

1. BACKGROUND

Trypanosomatids are a group of single-celled, mono-flagellated organisms belonging to the class Kinetoplastea. This group includes etiological agents of neglected tropical diseases of humans such as *Trypanosoma cruzi* (Chagas disease or American trypanosomiasis), *Trypanosoma brucei* (African sleeping sickness), and *Leishmania* spp. (Leishmaniasis) [1]. Collectively, these neglected and socially determined tropical diseases collectively affect more than 18 million people worldwide, mostly in the developing countries [2,3].

Trypanosoma rangeli [4], is a mammalian parasite species found in Central and South America, primarily transmitted via bite of triatomine vectors. Unlike *T. brucei* and *T. cruzi*, *T. rangeli* is considered non-virulent to mammalian hosts, despite the genetic and antigenic similarity with *T. cruzi* and its inoculative mode of transmission [5,6]. On the other hand, *T. rangeli* is harmful to insect vectors, particularly within the genus *Rhodnius* [7–9].

Reports of natural mixed infections by *T. rangeli* and *T. cruzi* have been documented in a variety of mammalian hosts and triatomine vectors species throughout Central and South America [4,7,10–12]. However, the prevalence of human infection by *T. rangeli* remains unclear. The sympatric occurrence, along with shared hosts, vectors and several antigens, leads to the possibility of a strong serological cross-reactivity [13–15].

T. rangeli infection biology is understudied. Previously, comparative analyses of isolated genes coding for surface antigens or related to cell infection or evasion of the immune system, partial genomic [5,16], transcriptomic [17], and proteomic datasets [18] have been produced.

Comparative biological and molecular studies have revealed the presence of trans-sialidase, one of the most important and well-studied virulence factors of *T. cruzi*, and the surface glycoprotein 63 (GP63) metalloprotease (also known as Leishmaniolysin), this major surface protease of *Leishmania* spp. plays a crucial role in cell infection and intracellular survival of both *Leishmania* [19], and *T. cruzi* [20].

The *T. rangeli* genome has been estimated to be around 21-24 million base pairs (Mbp) [5,16] in size, sharing over 90% of the core genome with the pathogenic

trypanosomatids. However, these estimates are based on fragmented assemblies
containing 3,436 (AM80) and 9,066 (SC58) scaffolds, respectively. While incomplete,
these studies revealed that the *T. rangeli* genome is smaller, less repetitive and with
shorter telomeric and sub-telomeric regions compared to the *T. cruzi* genome [21–23].
Additionally, it was proposed that the number of *T. rangeli* genes coding for virulence
factors or proteins associated with pathogenesis varies between strains from different
lineages and differs from those of *T. cruzi* [24,25]. For instance, compared to *T. cruzi*, *T.*
rangeli has a similar number of genes coding for GP63, reduced numbers of genes coding
for sialidases/trans-sialidases and Mucin-Associated Surface Proteins (MASP), and,
interestingly, an increased number of genes coding for Kinetoplastid Membrane Protein
11 (KMP-11) [5,16].

Trypanosomatid genomes contain syntenic regions where genes are organized in
directional transcription clusters, separated by strand-switch regions [5,25–28]. Gene
families encoding surface proteins are mostly contained within repetitive regions
[24,26,29,30]. Recent proposals suggested that regions of the *T. cruzi* genome that are
rich in surface protein-coding genes are involved in generating antigenic diversity through
gene recombination and conversion events due to the micro-homology of their flanking
regions [23]. Additionally, it has been suggested that DNA replication origins in the *T.*
cruzi genome are unevenly dispersed across the genome, as indicated by the enrichment
of Orc1Cdc6, a component of the pre-replication complex [31].

Among several aspects of trypanosomatid biology and parasitism that remain to
be fully understood, the survival and reproduction of *T. rangeli* within mammalian hosts
are of particular interest [32]. For this purpose, the understanding of the complete
structure and plasticity of the genome is essential for facilitating comparative genomics
of virulent and non-virulent trypanosomatids of mammals. We here describe a far more
accurate, near-complete genome sequence *of T. rangeli*, as well as a comparative study
of other *T. rangeli* strains. Our findings reveal remarkable biological differences between
virulent and non-virulent trypanosomatids, pointing out the *T. rangeli* genome structure,
intraspecific variability and the repertoire of surface proteins, providing insights into the
parasite biology and life cycle.

2. RESULTS

2.1 T. rangeli genome sequencing and assembly

Illumina sequencing of the *T. rangeli* SC58 strain provided 9,264,332 filtered reads (~4.8Gb) and PacBio sequencing provided 361,938 filtered reads (~6.9Gb), respectively, corresponding to approximately 20x and 192x coverage. The resulting assembly is here referred to as version 2 of the *T. rangeli* SC58 genome ("*T. rangeli* SC58 V.2"), and the fragmented assembly previously published by Stoco et al. (2014) as the "SC58 reference genome". A comparison of general assembly metrics for the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome and the reference genome assembly is shown in Table 1. The *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome is available in Genbank (Bioproject PRJNA1380247).

Table 1. Comparison of general assembly metrics of the *Trypanosoma rangeli* SC58 reference and V.2 genomes and *T. cruzi* (CL Brener Esmeraldo-like and Sylvio X10/1 strains) genomes.

Footnote: * = Data retrieved from the TriTrypDB v.65. Mbp = Million base pairs. Kbp = Thousand base pairs. aa = amino acids. Scaffold N50 indicates the scaffold length where 50% of the entire assembly is contained in contigs equal to or larger than this value. Scaffold L50 is defined as the count of the smallest number of contigs whose length sum makes up half of the genome size. "Number of hypothetical CDS" represents CDS automatically annotated as "Hypothetical protein". "ND"= Not determined.

Cross-mapping analysis using the MUMmer4 software indicated that 99.52% of the nuclear genomic content previously described in the SC58 reference genome [5] is included in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. Also, 97.71%, 97.25% and 97.52% of the reads from the PIT10, Choachí and R1625 *T. rangeli* strains, respectively, were mapped to the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. Unique copies of all 130 universal single-copy orthologs of the phylum Euglenozoa were identified, distributed across 43 different scaffolds of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome.

A high level of synteny was observed among the *T. rangeli* genomes, with few structural variants. However, when comparing the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome assembly to the assemblies of the *T. cruzi* CL Brener Esmeraldo-like and Sylvio X10/1 strains, significant structural diversity was found (Additional file 1: Supplementary Figure S1).

The V.2 genome contained tRNA genes for all 20 amino acids and the canonical

5.8S, 18S and 28S rRNA genes (Table 1). The V.2 genome contains fewer tRNA genes

than the previous reference genome [5], having a significantly higher number of rRNA

genes compared to other trypanosomatid genomes (Table 1). Also, a total of 62 Spliced

Leader (SL) RNA genes (Mini-Exon) exhibiting a high level of conservancy were identified

(Additional file 2: Supplementary Figure S2A) in five distinct scaffolds, ranging from 9 to

16 copies/scaffold (Additional file 2: Supplementary Figure S2B).

The search for chromosome-specific probe sequences of *T. cruzi* within the

scaffolds of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome revealed unique mapping for nine out of 11

T. cruzi probes (Additional file 3: Supplementary Table S1). When comparing the

TcCLB.510129.20 chromosomal probe, derived from a 1.38 Kb-long surface membrane

protein identified as a single-copy gene in the *T. cruzi* genome, positive BLAST results

were obtained with sequences annotated as "surface membrane proteins" on scaffolds 5

and 14 of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. These two scaffolds are of 0.73 and 0.45 Mbp,

respectively, and exhibited 85.38% similarity to each other. Fourteen segments of the *T.*

cruzi TcCLB.510129.20 sequence matched these scaffolds, displaying similarities

ranging from 78.36 to 93.51% with 100% coverage. However, the regions located

upstream and downstream of these matches were distinct, indicating that this gene is

present in multiple copies within the *T. rangeli* genome.

Probe TcCLB.511041.40 targeting a gene coding for a 1.63 Kb-long hexose

transporter gene in *T. cruzi* and showed sequence similarity with several transporter

genes distributed in 10 scaffolds in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. This finding supports

the observations from Cabrine-Santos et al. (2009) regarding the presence of duplicated

genes encoding hexose transporters on different *T. rangeli* chromosomes. These

chromosomes range in size from approximately 500 to 650 Kb, indicating the presence

of paralogous genes that are specifically unique to *T. rangeli*.

Ten out of the 81 scaffolds of *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome contain canonical

telomeric repeats close to their extremities, possibly corresponding to chromosomal ends

(Additional file 4: Supplementary Table S2). In accordance with the genome topology

proposed by Stoco et al. (2014), subtelomeric regions adjacent to the telomeric repeats

were found to contain genes from multicopy families such as (Trans-)Sialidase and GP63
(Fig. 2).

From the 9,454 CDSs identified in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, approximately
32.93% encode for hypothetical proteins. This proportion is comparable to that of *T.*
brucei TREU927 (34.37%), but notably lower than for *T. cruzi*, for example, the
Esmeraldo-like haplotype (47.13%) and the Sylvio X10/1 strain (73.81%). The use of a
hybrid assembly and meticulous annotation allowed a reduction of hypothetical proteins
compared to previous *T. rangeli* datasets, such as AM80 (56.72%) and the SC58
reference genome (67.89%). The annotation of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome was
supported by transcriptomic [17] and proteomic [18] data generated by our group,
demonstrating evidence of transcription and expression for 96 (1.02%) of the hypothetical
CDSs. The distribution of all predicted and annotated CDSs in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2
genome, including notable multigenic families and the 110 potential pseudogenes, is
illustrated in Fig. 1. Further analysis of genes associated with the RNA interference
machinery (RNAi) on the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome confirmed the non-functionality of
this pathway, as described previously [5].

Figure 1: Distribution of multicopy gene families in the scaffolds of the *Trypanosoma*
rangeli SC58 V.2 genome. Scaffolds were drawn in proportion to their size, indicated in
million base pairs (Mbp). Core genes are represented by black boxes, and the
hypothetical and multicopy gene families are represented by colored boxes as indicated.
The position of the genes above or below the line corresponds to the direction of
transcription, and scaffolds containing canonical telomeric repetitions are shown in detail
within the black square. The highlighted region represents an enlarged view (0.05 Mb
window) of the telomeric regions of scaffolds 22, 29, and 32.

2.2 Repetitive genome content

Excepting telomeric repeats, 11.60% of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome consists
of repetitive sequences, corresponding to approximately 2.8 Mbp, of which 9.22% (~2.2
Mbp) comprises structural repetitive elements, while roughly ~2.38% (565,000 bp)
includes members of multicopy gene families. Compared to the TriTryp genomes (*T.*

brucei, *T. cruzi* and *L. major*), *T. rangeli* has the least repetitive genome when compared
to *T. cruzi* CL Brener (37.03%) and Sylvio X10/1 (44.86%) and to *T. brucei* TREU927
strain (24.73%). This difference is primarily attributed to a lower number of genes from
multicopy gene families, fewer structural repetitive elements and shorter telomeric
sequences (Fig. 2a).

Figure 2. Comparison of repetitive genomic content in studied trypanosomatid species,
discerning structural repetitions from multicopy gene families.

Footnote: bp = base pairs. (A) Representation of repetitive genomic content in studied trypanosomatid
species, in total number of base pairs. (B) Detailed composition of multicopy gene families in the genome
of studied trypanosomatid species, relative to the respective genome size of the species. (C) Detailed
composition of structural repetitive elements in the genome of studied trypanosomatid species, relative to
the respective genome size of the species. "Ref." points to the reference genome of *T. rangeli* (SC58 strain),
obtained from TriTrypDB v65. "V.2" indicates the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome.

Comparative analysis of the diversity of multicopy gene families in trypanosomatid
genomes showed that the *T. brucei* VSG family is the largest, comprising over 65% of the
total number of nucleotides among studied multicopy genes, followed by the RHS family
that is also present in *T. cruzi* (Fig. 2b). VSG genes have previously been described in
the *T. rangeli* AM80 genome, but these genes were not found in the *T. rangeli* SC58
reference genome or in the V.2 genome (Fig. 2b).

Among these gene families, the (Trans-)Sialidases are highly represented across
the studied genomes, varying from 29.37% and 36.66% of repeated genes in the *T. cruzi*
CL Brener and Sylvio X10/1 strains, to 41.96% and 42.74% in the *T. rangeli* AM80 and
SC58 V.2 genomes, respectively (Fig. 2b). While *T. cruzi* can transfer sialic acid from the
host cell to its cellular membrane through a sialyltransferase (trans-sialidase) activity, *T.*
rangeli sialidases differ regarding the hydrolytic substrates [33] and lacks the transferase
activity [34,35]. We therefore referred to *T. rangeli* sialidases as "(Trans-)Sialidase".

GP63 is the second largest multicopy gene family in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2
genome (35.47%) (Fig. 2b). Uniquely for the American trypanosomatids, *T. cruzi* and *T.*

rangeli, the DGF-1 multicopy gene family constitutes a considerable percentage of the
total repetitive content (Fig. 2b).

Interspersed repeats substantially contributed to the repetitive content in the *T.*
rangeli SC58 V.2 genome (65.10%). In total, this is lower than in *T. cruzi* Sylvio X10/1
(81.83%), but considerably higher when compared to simple repeats in the SC58 V.2
genome (21.42%) (Fig. 2c). These interspersed repeats are composed of sequences that
have been found to be present in all trypanosomatid genomes included in this study.
Among these sequences, retroelements constitute 15.89% in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2
genome, which can be compared to 44.39% in the *T. brucei* TREU927 genome (Fig. 2c).
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2.3 Analysis of orthology

Orthology analysis using 42,969 CDS from *L. amazonensis*, *L. infantum*, *T. brucei*,
T. cruzi, and the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 and reference genomes resulted in 9,111 CDS
clusters and demonstrated that 96.56% of all CDSs from these species are orthologous.
The orthologous core for these species constituted 4,501 clusters and the distribution of
these clusters between species, as well as the species-specific genes (single-CDS
clusters), is shown in Fig. 3.

Figure 3. Distribution of clusters formed among the CDS of *Leishmania amazonensis*, *L.*
infantum, *Trypanosoma brucei*, *T. cruzi*, the reference and the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2
genomes, as well as their respective singletons.

Footnote: The result of the orthology analysis among the CDS of five species of trypanosomatids is
represented: *L. amazonensis* in blue, *L. infantum* in red, *T. brucei* in green, *T. cruzi* in yellow, and *T. rangeli*
in brown. The numbers within the Venn diagram represent orthologous and paralogous clusters, which
contain the analysed CDS. The singletons are represented as circles outside the Venn diagram.

Out of the 298 singletons identified in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, 166
(55.70%) were annotated as hypothetical proteins. From this subset, only six had a
functional annotation through the assignment of GO terms, and one had experimental
evidence of expression [18]. *In silico* characterization of this gene indicates that it encodes
a protein of approximately 34.76 kDa that is addressed to the cell membrane of the

parasite. This protein was predicted to have a transferase activity (GO:0016740),
specifically hexapeptidase transferase (IPR:1837) due to the presence of a conserved
amino acid site.

2.4 Chromosome copy number variation and somy estimation of T. rangeli strains

Whole genome ploidy was estimated by the determination of the proportion of
alleles in heterozygous SNP positions in all scaffolds (Fig. 4a). In all four *T. rangeli* strains,
a peak at 50% was observed, which is expected for diploid genomes, suggesting mostly
disomic strains [29,36].

Chromosome Copy Number Variation (CCNV) in each strain was investigated by
combining Read Depth Coverage (RDC) and Allele Balance (AB) analyses [29,36]. Here,
the RDC analysis was based on the ratio between the mean coverage of each scaffold
and the mean coverage of all scaffolds combined (Fig. 4b). Due to the repetitive content
of smaller scaffolds and how repetitive regions lead to erroneous somy estimates [36],
CCNV estimation was restricted to longer scaffolds (0.15 Mb) (i.e. scaffolds 1 to 49).
Despite applying the size cutoff, some scaffolds still contained too few SNPs for reliable
AB estimation (Additional file 5: Supplementary Figure S3). Therefore, aneuploidies were
only considered in scaffolds where both RDC and AB results were concordant, providing
a two-step confirmation. Aneuploidies, in all cases, chromosome numbers >2, were
observed in all strains. Our CCNV analysis combining RDC and AB estimations indicated
aneuploidies in scaffolds 7, 11, 12, 24, 29, 30, and 47 in the reference assembly *T. rangeli*
SC58 V.2 (Fig. 4b, Additional file 5: Supplementary Figure S3). Similarly, aneuploidies
were identified in scaffolds 7, 16, 20, 24, 29, 30, 32, 38, 39, 42 and 47 for strain Choachí,
in scaffolds 7, 26, 29, 30 and 47 for strain PIT10, and in scaffolds 24, 29, 30, 39, and 47
for strain R1625 (Fig. 4b, Additional file 5: Supplementary Figure S3). Interestingly,
scaffolds 29, 30, and 47 were shown to have additional copies in all strains (Fig. 4c).
Notably, these scaffolds are enriched with genes involved in immune evasion and
parasite survival, including sialidases, GPI-anchored surface protein biosynthesis, cAMP
signaling, RNA processing, and lipid metabolism (Fig. 4d, Additional file 5: Supplementary
Figure S3).

Figure 4: *Trypanosoma rangeli* strains are essentially diploid, with aneuploidies in scaffolds enriched in immune evasion genes.

Footnote: (A) Ploidy estimation based on the proportion of alleles at heterozygous SNP positions across each scaffold. (B) Aneuploidy analysis using relative depth of coverage (RDC) across the 50 longest scaffolds. Dark blue indicates scaffolds where the ratio of median scaffold coverage to median genome-wide coverage exceeds 1.5. (C) Allelic proportions at heterozygous SNP positions for scaffolds 29, 31, and 47, supporting some estimations. Blue points represent allele proportions along each scaffold; black lines indicate median values within sliding windows. (D) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of scaffolds exhibiting shared aneuploidy across all strains.

2.5 T. rangeli GP63 family

A total of 76 complete GP63 gene sequences and 40 pseudogenes were identified in *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2, with 26 of the pseudogenes containing an internal stop codon and 14 exhibiting truncations. The complete *Tr*GP63 sequences include the full-length peptidase M8 domain (NCBI CDD code: cl19482) as detailed in Additional file 6 (Supplementary Table S3). Most of these sequences resemble the canonical metzincin class zinc proteases motif 'HEXXHXXGX(~60)H', which features a conserved methionine at the base of the active site, referred to as the Met-turn. This motif was first described for GP63 in *Leishmania* spp. Furthermore, the sequences contain 19 cysteine residues distributed throughout [37] (Additional file 7: Supplementary Figure S4).

*Tr*GP63 gene sequences were classified based on a phylogenetic analysis that included sequences from different kinetoplastids (Fig. 5), along with two sequences from each of the 11 GP63 groups of *T. cruzi* formerly described [20]. This analysis led to the classification of at least 13 distinct GP63 groups in kinetoplastids, and *T. rangeli* GP63 sequences were included in 11 of these groups. Interestingly, group 12 was found to be exclusive to this species. *Tr*GP63 sequences do not cluster with the G0 and G1, which include sequences found in most kinetoplastids, where G0 mainly includes *Leishmania* spp. sequences and monoxenous invertebrate pathogens such as *Crithidia fasciculata* and *Leptomonas pyrrhocoris,* and G1 contains some functional *Leishmania* spp. sequences (represented by LmjF-10-0460) [38,39], sequences from *Bodo saltans*, *Angomonas deanei* and sequences from other *Trypanosoma* species. Thus, *Tr*GP63 did

not group with *T. cruzi* GP63-G1, which intriguingly lacks the Met-turn, and this may

reduce its activity. Synteny analysis with the corresponding genomic regions of *T. cruzi*

DM28c confirmed the absence of these genes in *T. rangeli*, as the eight upstream and

downstream genes are conserved. Except for GP63 group 2, members of all other groups

were identified in *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 as well as in the other three *T. rangeli* strains

analysed (Additional file 6: Supplementary Table S3).

Inter-group *Tr*GP63 amino acid sequence identities are approximately 35%,

whereas intra-group identities exceed 58%, with G11 being the most variable (Additional

file 8: Supplementary Table S4). Four groups have a single representative gene in *T.*

rangeli (Groups 3, 5, 7, and 8), while G4 is the largest, with 26 genes. Although *Tr*GP63

grouped with most of the *T. cruzi* groups [20], we did not identify active site residue

conservation, except in G6, indicating that groups are formed by general sequence

similarity. The classification correlated with the genomic distribution of *Tr*GP63, including

the same classification of genes in tandem. All *Tr*GP63 in scaffold 3 belong to group G12,

while the 13 *Tr*GP63 in tandem in scaffold 13 were from G4. One GP63 gene from G5,

outside the tandem locus, was also identified in this scaffold.

Despite exhibiting a variable presence of both signal peptide and a GPI-anchor

signature, most *Tr*GP63 were predicted to be N-glycosylated with an average of 0.62%

(± 0.42) residues in the mature protein. The majority of *Tr*GP63 groups were found to be

addressed to the parasite cell surface, except members of Groups 2, 6, and 8 that

consistently lack a predicted GPI anchor, indicating that these may act extracellularly as

free proteins. Some members of groups 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, and 12 showed experimental

evidence of protein expression on the parasite surface of epimastigotes and/or

trypomastigotes [18], whereas members from groups 4, 9, 10, 11, and 12 were potentially

secreted, while members of Groups 2, 6, and 7 were exclusively found in the *T. rangeli*

secretome (Additional file 6: Supplementary Table S3), corroborating the hypothesis that

these groups have a role as secreted glycoproteins. Interestingly, proteomic evidence of

expression from some pseudogenes remains to be addressed.

Figure 5. *Trypanosoma rangeli* displays functional secreted and surface-attached GP63

repertoire and species-specific groups from other Kinetoplastids.

Metalloprotease activity was experimentally detected in both epimastigote and trypomastigote forms of *T. rangeli*, with higher activity observed at pH 5.5. The activity was considerably lower in *T. rangeli* epimastigotes compared to *T. cruzi* epimastigotes and *L. braziliensis* promastigotes (Additional file 9: Supplementary Figure S5). To assess the metalloprotease functionality in each *Tr*GP63 group, 15 sequences were chosen to generate three-dimensional models based on the available crystal structure of GP63 (leishmanolysin) of *L. major* (LmjF-10-0460/PDB: 1LML) [37]. Additionally, the *Tc*GP63-G1 (C4B63_30g122) was modelled for comparative purposes, since it was missing in *T. rangeli*. The models showed pTM scores ranging from 0.57 to 0.90, indicating a high predictive quality (Additional file 10: Supplementary Table S5). The *Tr*GP63 metalloproteases showed a molecular organization similar to the control structure, shown by global RMSD values between 9.11 and 24.79 Å, with lower variation observed when

considering only helix B, located at the catalytic site of the metalloprotease. Overall, most

of the *Tr*GP63 sequences displayed a conserved active/Zinc-binding site motif. Certain

genes showed punctual substitutions or several alterations in the key residues as

identified in, for example, TrSC58v2_9356 and TrSC58v2_560. Among the 15 modelled

structures, only TrSC58v2_9135 (G4) and TrSC58v2_1328 (G12) exhibited the large

active-site cleft (S1' pocket) in the surface analysis (Additional file 11: Supplementary

Figure S6). Between antiparallel β-sheets in the N-terminal domain, as part of the active

site, we identified a loop region with 'GXXAWA' Motif (Additional file 5: Supplementary

Figure S3), that is mimetic of the S-loop, a well-characterized conformation in vertebrate

metalloproteases [40,41].

Considering that the motif conservation and S1' pocket are important for activity

inference, and that other parameters may also be important, the interaction potential of

the active sites with ligands was assessed using P2Rank [42], which indicated that seven

*Tr*GP63 had a ligand cavity probability above 50%, with TrSC58v2_4795 (G4) and

TrSC58v2_2748 (G6) showing values close to the control structure (71%, 74%, and 76%,

respectively). These also match the experimentally validated GP63 *T. cruzi* sequences

(AY266316, AY266317, AY266318) [43]. These genes were classified as a highly

promising group (green structures in Fig. 5b, Additional file 12: Supplementary Figure

S6). Further six metalloproteases, including the *Tc*GP63-G1, displayed intermediary

values and were classified as a moderately promising group (yellow structures). Finally,

three metalloproteases showed values below 40% and were classified as a less

promising group (red structures). Molecular docking of the Zinc-binding site region with

the inhibitor 1,10-phenanthroline [44] was used to infer the metalloprotease activity. In the

L. major structure used as control, the selected complex displayed the inhibitor oriented

toward the Zn^{2+} ion with a probability of 34% and an affinity of -5.54 kcal/mol. The

sequences classified as highly promising showed even higher probability of the inhibitor

being faced to the cofactor (67 to 44 %) and low RMSD variations relative to the ligand

position in the control structure. *Tc*GP63-G1 presented a behavior similar to that of the

highly promising *Tr*GP63, regarding ligand orientation towards Zn^{2+} ion (probability: 56%

Docking Affinity: -6.03 kcal/mol), while the structures classified as moderately and less

promising did not. Fig. 5b, shows the parameters for the *L. major* structure (control),

*Tc*GP63-G1, TrSC58v2_4795 (G4), a highly probable protease that was experimentally

identified by two different techniques, and represents the biggest *TrGP63* group, and

TrSC58v2_560 (G11) which is unlikely to be an active metalloprotease, despite the high

level of expression shown by proteomic analysis in both epimastigotes and

trypomastigotes (Fig. 5).

2.6 T. rangeli surface Mucins/TASV

A comparative analysis between the previous reference genome sequence and

the SC58 V.2 genome revealed an increased number of genes belonging to the mucin-

like family in the improved genome sequence, where 15 gene copies were found [5,17].

A detailed search for known signatures of mucin-like genes, such as the signal peptide,

GPI-anchor signal, abundance of serine and threonine residues that are likely *O*-

glycosylated, as well as orthology with members of the *T. cruzi* mucin-like gene family

(*Tc*MUC) on the SC58 V.2 genome, resulted in the identification of seven genes (*Tr*MUC1

- *Tr*MUC7) that are dispersed in three scaffolds of the SC58 V.2 genome (Additional file

12: Supplementary Table S6). *Tr*MUC is slightly more similar to *Tc*MUC type I, sharing

an identity of 56.88% ± 22.87, when compared to *Tc*MUC type II (44.34% ± 23.46).

Interestingly, a conserved C-terminal region of 22 amino acids is present in members of

the *Tr*MUC family, but not in mucins from any other kinetoplastid species present in the

TriTryp database (Fig. 6a).

A gene that encodes a 33 kDa surface protein was described in the *T. rangeli*

proteome as a putative mucin-like [18], here we identified it as actually belonging to the

T. cruzi Trypomastigote, Alanine, Serine and Valine rich protein glycoprotein family

(*Tc*TASV), previously only found in *T. cruzi* [45].

Based on TASV canonical features that include post-translational modifications

(PTM) such as *N*-glycosylation, phosphorylation, and abundance of other amino acids

less common in mucin-like proteins, for instance, aromatic residues (phenylalanine,

histidine, tryptophan, tyrosine) and cysteine, the SC58 V.2 genome contains 14 TASV-

coding genes, and three TASV pseudogenes, dispersed in six scaffolds. Both

glycoprotein families are also present in the Choachí and R1625 strains, while *Tr*MUC

was not found in PIT10 assembly (Additional file 12: Supplementary Table S6).

A phylogenetic analysis using well described protein sequences of mucin-like

families (*Tc*MUC type I and type II), *T. cruzi* small mucin-like family (*Tc*SMUG) [46,47],

and *Tc*TASV, where certain members were previously annotated as *Tc*MUC [48] is shown

in Fig. 6a.

Figure 6. Overexpression of *Trypanosoma rangeli* glycoproteins homologous to

Trypanosoma cruzi mucin-like and TASV impaired mammalian infection.

Footnote: (**A**) Phylogenetic analysis of amino acid sequences of *Tr*MUC, *Tr*TASV-like in comparison to

*Tc*MUC I, *Tc*MUC II, *Tc*SMUG and *Tc*TASV. β-tubulin sequences of *Trypanosoma* spp. were used as an

outgroup. Bold branches indicate glycoproteins more expressed in *T. cruzi* mammalian forms

(trypomastigote or amastigote), and dashed branches show *T. cruzi* replicative forms (epimastigote or

amastigote). Bootstrap of 1000 replicates. PTM Percentage is shown internally in the bars considering

mature protein size (excluding N- and C- terminal cleavaged sequences). NA stands for 'Non-Applicable'

due to a lack of signal peptide. Logo of exclusive *Tr*MUC motif and representation of two hypervariable

regions of *Tr*TASV showing conserved aromatic residues. Logo Y-axis: observed information content (in

bits), top: residues alignment position; bottom: occupancy values as gap penalty show in blue. Full

description of all sequences and analysis is available in Additional file 12: Supplementary Table S6. (**B**)

Molecular mass analysis of homologous and heterologous tagged-fused glycoproteins expressed by the *T.*

rangeli Choachí strain. Western blot assay of 50 μg of total protein extract of epimastigotes. Parasites

lineages: Wild-type = non-transfected Choachí strain; *Tc*MUCI = tagged-fused 'clone B4-5'; *Tc*MUCII =

tagged-fused 'clone B2-10'; *Tr*MUC3 = tagged-fused *Tr*MUC3; *Tr*TASV-like1 = tagged-fused *Tr*TASV-like1;

FlagGPI = synthetic gene not fused to glycoprotein. Top: glycoproteins recognized by anti-FlagTag

monoclonal antibody (mAb). Bottom: Loading control recognized by anti-β-tubulin mAb. Molecular weight

marker: Bio-Rad Dual Xtra. (**C**) Infection kinetics assessed by bloodstream parasite load in BALB/c mice

(n= 5 animals/group). Intraperitoneal infection of 1×10^7 *in vitro* trypomastigotes. Data are expressed as

means (lines) and standard error of mean (shaded regions). Statistical analysis: two-way ANOVA and Post

Hoc Bonferroni´s multiple comparisons test (*$p \leq 0.05$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$). Main biological differences

are shown in the graph, and full statistical differences are available in Additional file 13: Supplementary

Figure S7.

An assessment of the biological function of *Tr*MUC and *Tr*TASV-like genes was

performed by overexpressing selected homologous genes and by expressing *T. cruzi*

type I and II mucins (*Tc*MUC I and *Tc*MUC II) in *T. rangeli,* adopting a similar strategy to

that proposed by Cánepa et al. (2012). The expression analysis of *Tr*MUC, *Tr*TASV-like,

*Tc*MUC I and *Tc*MUC II by transfected *T. rangeli* trypomastigotes and epimastigotes

(Choachí strain) demonstrated an expression of hyperglycosylated molecules as

indicated by a comparison of their molecular weight to native proteins (Fig. 6b). Variable

glycosylation was observed, ranging from a 5X increment in *Tc*MUC I to 2.5x increment

for *Tc*MUC II-expressing parasites (Additional file 12: Supplementary Table S6).

Interestingly, overexpression of homologous *Tr*MUC and *Tr*TASV-like resulted in

less glycosylated proteins (1.6x and 1.3x, respectively) (Fig. 6b). In addition,

overexpression of *Tr*MUC3 by Choachí strain was impaired as indicated by a very faint

band around 45 kDa in a Western Blot analysis (Figure 6B), despite all sequences being

integrated in the same genome locus under the control of the tubulin promoter and being

attached to the parasite surface using the same GPI-anchor sequence.

Expression of these glycoproteins by *T. rangeli* altered the parasitemia profile in

the mammalian host, as shown in comparative infection assays in BALB/c mice with wild-

type and transfected trypomastigotes (Fig. 6c, Additional file 13: Supplementary Figure

S7).

In contrast with *Tc*MUC I-expressing parasites that showed no difference in

parasitemia from wild-type and Flag-GPI expressing parasites used as controls ($p > 0.05$),

T. rangeli expressing *Tc*MUC II were found earlier and in higher in number in the

bloodstream of the experimentally infected mice from the first ($p \leq 0.05$) to the 7th day post-

infection (d.p.i.) ($p < 0.001$) in comparison to controls (Fig. 6c). Overexpression of *Tr*MUC

and *Tr*TASV-like1 genes in *T. rangeli*, resulted in a moderate decrease in the parasitemia

of *Tr*TASV-like1 transfected parasites in mice between 2 ($p < 0.01$) and 4 d.p.i. ($p \leq 0.05$)

when compared to the controls. In contrast, overexpression of *Tr*MUC3 by *T. rangeli* was

unsuccessful, as shown in Fig. 6b. Mice infected with *Tr*MUC3-transfected parasites

showed variable parasitemia between infected animals, and a significantly reduced

parasitemia between the 2nd and 4th d.p.i. ($p < 0.0001$), to the 8th d.p.i. ($p < 0.01$) (Fig. 6c,

Additional file 13: Supplementary Figure S7). The overall parasitemia in mice observed

between *T. rangeli* strains from distinct genetic lineages (10-12 days) was not altered by

the expression of any of the studied glycoproteins.

3. DISCUSSION

The use of a hybrid deep-sequencing approach (PacBio and Illumina) for a *de novo*
assembly of the *T. rangeli* genome resulted in a more contiguous and improved resolved
genome sequence, especially for repetitive and complex regions containing multicopy
gene families and telomeric sequences. Although a large proportion of the gene content
was identified in the previous reference genome [5], a reduction of over 90% of the
number of scaffolds was achieved. The use of PacBio long reads has improved the
contiguity of some of the complex *T. cruzi* strain genomes by resolving repetitive regions
[49]. Among these, strains as Bug2148 [50]; Dm28c and TCC [26]; Brazil and Y [51], and
Sylvio X10/1 [23] have achieved a near-complete chromosomal resolution. The additional
use of Illumina reads in the present study have further increased the contiguity and the
quality of the resulting genome assembly, as well as allowing intraspecific comparative
analysis.

The identification of 10 possible telomeric regions represents a significant
improvement compared to the three telomeric regions previously described in the *T.*
rangeli SC58 reference genome, since sub-telomeric regions are key sites for the
expression of multicopy genes in trypanosomatids. Telomeric regions were not identified
at both ends of any of the scaffolds in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. In *T. brucei*, the
sub-telomeric region is responsible for the expression of VSG [52,53]. In *T. cruzi*, the
regions adjacent to the telomeres contain (Trans-)Sialidases genes, mostly type II (GP82,
GP90, GP85, TSA-1, SA85, and ASP-2) [54], DGF-1, and RHS [52]. In *T. rangeli*, we
have previously shown that the sub-telomeric region is shorter than that of *T. cruzi*, due
to the absence of multicopy genes from the (Trans-)Sialidases, DGF-1, and other gene
families [5].

Polycistronic transcription of trypanosomatids via RNA polymerase II leads to a
pre-mRNA that requires maturation by addition of a 39bp-long spliced leader (SL)
sequence at their 5' ends, providing the SL RNA splice donor site and essential motifs for
RNA stability and splicing recognition [55,56]. Despite such relevance, the genomic
organization and the sequence of SL genes in trypanosomatids vary between species.
The sequences of SL genes in *T. cruzi* are conserved but these genes differ widely in
copy number and chromosomal location between strains, often appearing on multiple
chromosomes [20,22,23]. In *T. brucei*, SL genes are also conserved, but far less

dispersed across the genome [57]. Although having a similar structure formed by an exon
and an intron of specific lengths as described for *T. cruzi* and *T. brucei*, the *T. rangeli* SL
genes are distinctively interspersed with the 5S rRNA genes, a feature conserved among
strains of distinct origins [6]. A total of 62 SL gene copies were found across five distinct
scaffolds on the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, all of them exhibiting the exon/intron
structure and being interspersed with the 5S rRNA genes as formerly described.

The improved resolution of this *T. rangeli* genome sequence has revealed
additional repetitive genomic content, but the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome still contains
a lower number of genes from multicopy gene families and fewer repetitive genomic
elements compared to *T. cruzi* and *T. brucei* overall.

In all studied *T. rangeli* strains, the Sialidase and GP63 families have the highest
numbers of genes [5,16]. The large amount of genes coding for sialidases in the *T. rangeli*
genome might be related to the involvement of this molecule during cell adhesion and
invasion processes as described to other trypanosomatids. Thus, it was initially
hypothesized that these enzymes would only be in their active states in epimastigote
forms in the vector insect [58]. However, it has been shown through experiments using
liquid chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry that sialidases are the most
abundant proteins identified in both the epimastigote and trypomastigote forms of *T.*
rangeli [18]

The description of VSG-coding genes in the *T. rangeli* AM80 genome by Bradwell
et al. (2018) was unexpected, since these surface glycoproteins have only been
exclusively described in African trypanosomes, such as *T. brucei*, *T. congolense* and *T.*
vivax, but not in *T. cruzi* or *T. rangeli* [5,22,59]. No VSG-related genes were found in the
assemblies or reads from all sequenced strains in this study (SC58, Choachí, PIT10 and
R1625), nor on previous genomic, transcriptomic or proteomic studies of *T. rangeli*
strains.

The results also show that DGF-1 is present in multiple copies in the genome of
all studied species of American trypanosomatids. There is experimental evidence that *T.*
cruzi trypomastigotes express DGF-1 proteins on the cell surface [60], as computational
predictions suggesting an integrin-like activity [60,61]. It has been suggested that DGF-1

may play a role in the contaminative transmission of *T. cruzi* and other American
trypanosomatids [61].

All analysed species contain a significant portion of interspersed repeats and a
smaller portion of simple repeats. The number of interspersed repeats identified here may
be inflated due to the number of unclassified repeats present in the database used [62].
The reliably classified interspersed repeats in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome are mostly
Long Terminal Repeats (LTR) and Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements (LINEs). The
large number of unclassified sequences shows the need for further investigation of the
repetitive sequences in trypanosomatids to address their possible biological functions.

Simple repeats were previously presumed to be "junk DNA", but it is now known
that these repetitive elements may function as facilitators of evolution, by providing gene-
associated sites of genetic variation with minimal genetic load [63]. Indeed, in the latest
version of the genome of the Sylvio X10/1 strain of *T. cruzi*, it was shown that simple
repeat regions often flank multicopy genes that encode surface proteins [23]. This
configuration could allow micro-homology processes to facilitate recombination between
repetitive and similar sequences, resulting in new variants of surface molecules, as
described in other parasites [23,64,65]. Thus, the resolution and identification of these
regions in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome allows recombination sites containing
virulence factors to be studied in a non-pathogenic trypanosomatid model.

The orthology analysis showed a shared core genome in all studied
trypanosomatids, which is represented by a cluster of 4,501 orthologous CDS groups.
This result is consistent with previous studies indicating that trypanosomatid organisms
share a significant portion of their genetic content [29,66]. In comparison, 403 orthologous
clusters were exclusively shared between *T. cruzi* and *T. rangeli* in the previous genome
study of the SC58 strain, whereas this study identified 453 such orthologous groups. This
is not surprising, given the close phylogenetic relationship between these parasites [67].
Of the set of 298 unique genes identified in the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, 166
(55.70%) are annotated as hypothetical proteins. From this subset of, only one has a
functional annotation by assignment of GO terms, and experimental evidence of
expression from MS/MS data. The *in silico* characterization of this gene indicates that the
corresponding protein is located in the plasma membrane of the parasite, with a

conserved site with hexapeptide transferase activity and a unique associated peptide.
The identification of this CDS is important for studies of genetic markers with
biotechnological applications, especially for the differential diagnosis of Chagas disease.

It is noteworthy to mention that sequences revealing relevant but partial similarities
were annotated as pseudogenes on *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome. These may represent
remnants of formerly functional genes that underwent pseudogenization via a number of
biological mechanisms, as proposed for *L. major*, *T. brucei*, and *T. cruzi* [20,68].

While aneuploidies have been widely reported in trypanosomatids, including *T.*
cruzi [36,69,70] and *Leishmania* spp. [71–73], their occurrence in *T. rangeli* remains
underexplored. Previous studies using pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE)
documented chromosomal size polymorphisms across *T. rangeli* strains [5,74,75], but
ploidy and CCNV analyses were not performed. By using our new reference assembly,
with improved resolution of repetitive and complex regions, we estimated the somy of *T.*
rangeli SC58 and three additional strains (Choachí, PIT10, and R1625). The CCNV
analyses indicated that these genomes are mostly diploid, with aneuploidies that are
shared among all strains and ones that are unique to individual strains.

Since some trypanosomatids lack a functional RNA interference pathway [76] and
rely on polycistronic transcription, which limits promoter-driven regulation of individual
genes, chromosomal duplications can directly influence gene expression by providing
additional transcriptional templates [77]. The aneuploidies shared among *T. rangeli*
strains in this study were associated with scaffolds enriched with genes involved in
immune evasion and parasite survival, including sialidases, GPI-anchored surface protein
biosynthesis, cAMP signaling, RNA processing, and lipid metabolism. These functions
are likely essential mechanisms to evade both host and vector immune responses. At the
same time, the presence of aneuploidies restricted to specific chromosomes in individual
strains may reflect selective pressures linked to their geographic distribution and the
distinct host- or vector-related environments.

The GP63 gene copy number varies greatly among kinetoplastids. *L. major* carries
in total six GP63 genes, four of them arranged in tandem (Chr. 10) [78], while *L.*
braziliensis has 39 copies [79]. *T. brucei* contains about 12 genes of the orthologous
Major Surface Protease (MSP) divided into three families (seven MSP-A genes, four

MSP-B in tandem, and a single MSP-C gene) [80,81]. In contrast, *T. cruzi* (DM28c strain)

has 96 genes and 282 pseudogenes belonging to 11 groups [20]. We found that *T. rangeli*

possesses an intermediary number of 76 genes and 40 pseudogenes, in 12 groups, in

which G12 is a species-specific group, including four groups that are likely to be

catalytically active and experimentally found to be secreted and/or attached to the

parasite surface. The G2 genes were not identified in previous studies. Neither the

phylogenetic nor the synteny analysis in SC58.V2 support the presence of G1 in *T.*

rangeli. Additionally, no *T. rangeli* sequence was identified as belonging to G0, the group

that includes the majority of *Leishmania* spp. GP63 genes, suggesting a divergence in

function and activity.

The structural and functional computational analysis of *Tr*GP63 is consistent with

the metalloprotease enzyme class, particularly when compared with leishmanolysin and

*Tc*GP63-G1. We verified the ability of these proteins to coordinate a Zn^{2+} ion, an essential

requirement for catalytic activity [41]. The presence of the S1' pocket was only identified

in a few *Tr*GP63 sequences. This pocket is located near the active site and has been

extensively studied for its ability to accommodate inhibitory molecules and is also

essential for the recognition of hydrophobic amino acids present in oligopeptides [40,82].

However, the absence of the active-site cleft cannot be interpreted as evidence of

inactivity, as its formation may depend on dynamic structural rearrangements not

explored in this study. Moreover, the absence of the S1' pocket may indicate that these

metalloproteases interact with distinct sets of ligands that do not rely on this region for

recognition or binding. We identified several *Tr*GP63 structures with high functional

potential to act as metalloproteases. This included structures with elevated ligand cavity

probability values as predicted by P2Rank. Additionally, the set of structures classified as

highly promising showed interaction modes with the inhibitor oriented toward the zinc ion,

which is the expected interaction pattern for this inhibitor with metalloproteases [44].

These findings indicate that the active sites of *Tr*GP63 display a biochemical environment

comparable to *L. major,* suggesting enzymatic functionality. Notably, the *T. rangeli*

metalloproteases in the highly promising group exhibited stronger functional indicators

than those observed for the *Tc*GP63-G4 and G6, which have already been characterized

as functionally active. Therefore, *Tr*GP63 may perform equivalent functions and represent

suitable candidates for functional substitution to verify them *in vitro* using the *T. cruzi* CL

Brener strain [43].

The metalloprotease activity of GP63 plays various roles across kinetoplastids,

including supporting parasite survival and adaptation to different hosts [43], as well as

contributing to basic parasite biology, such as lifecycle progression in *T. brucei* through

VSG release along with GPI-specific phospholipase C (GPI-PLC) [81]. In *Leishmania*

spp.*,* GP63 is known to act in adhesion, invasion, and immune evasion by interacting with

host receptors, modulating complement, degrading signaling pathways to impair immune

signaling and vesicular trafficking (phagolysosome biogenesis) and protecting the

parasite against oxidative stress [83], via lipid raft–mediated entry, collectively enabling

parasite survival inside macrophages [84]. Recently, this has been more clearly defined

by identifying the host-target substrates for GP63 [38]. There is a possibility of a non-

catalytic role of GP63, including the expression of inactive proteins as adhesins that

adhere to the fibronectin-receptor [85]. In addition, GP63 proteins are also expressed by

species that do not infect mammals such as *Phytomonas* spp., or even in monoxenic

species that develop exclusively in insects such as *Leptomonas* spp., *Herpetomonas*

spp., *Angomonas* spp., and *Crithidia* spp. [86]. This suggests a role of GP63 in the

defense against the immune system of the invertebrate host, since this metalloprotease

is also capable of hydrolyzing antimicrobial peptides produced by insects [86]. Thus,

GP63 performs several different roles, which may explain the occurrence of different

groups within the same species. The functions of *T. rangeli* GP63 are still largely

unknown. A comparative view could suggest a role in macrophage survival since it is

known that amastigote-like forms remain viable after internalization by promonocytes [87].

It is known that *T. rangeli* encodes sialidases with hydrolytic activity but lacks

enzymes with sialic acid transglycosylase activity [88]. Thus, the finding of a GPI-

anchored, mucin-like protein of 33 kDa expressed by *T. rangeli* trypomastigotes [18] led

us to investigate the biological function of *T. rangeli* mucins as receptors of sialic acid

transferred from the host cell glycoconjugates to the *T. cruzi* surface [89].

In the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, it has been possible to determine that this

protein belongs to a previously undetected glycoprotein family in *T. rangeli*: *Tr*TASV-like,

consisting of 13 complete genes and three pseudogenes. TASV has previously only been

described in *T. cruzi* [48,90]. The *Tc*TASV family is conserved among *T. cruzi* strains

with around 40 genes in three subgroups (A, B, and C) [45,48,91]. *Tc*TASV-C is the most

studied subgroup of this family due to immunoreactivity in natural and experimental

infections [45,91,92]. The proteins are mainly shed through extracellular vesicles by

bloodstream trypomastigotes, but also attached to the parasite cell [45,93].

Trypomastigotes express *Tc*TASV-C as 60 kDa glycoproteins and, to a lesser degree, as

45 kDa proteins by amastigotes and epimastigotes, while the theoretical molecular mass

corresponds to ~36 kDa. Phosphorylation and glycosylation of *Tc*TASV-C has been

experimentally confirmed [91]. The difference in molecular mass in *T. cruzi*

trypomastigotes similar to that exhibited by the Choachí strain overexpressing *Tr*TASV-

like1, which strongly indicates that *Tr*TASV-like has the same PTMs as *Tc*TASV.

It was possible to show that the overexpression of *Tr*TASV-like1 during *T. rangeli*

infection in mice causes a slight decrease in parasitemia at the beginning of the infection.

In *T. cruz*i, even more virulent strains exhibit high levels of *Tc*TASV. *Tc*TASV-C delays

and decreases parasitemia peaks in the acute mice model [45]. Therefore, new data

obtained in *T. rangeli* indicate a possible mechanism of control of parasite number in the

bloodstream, possibly through stimulus of phagocytosis and subsequent antigen

presentation, which does not necessarily lead to parasite elimination but to intracellular

survival instead of exposure in the bloodstream.

In the present genome assembly, a more accurate estimation on the copy number

variation of multicopy genes was achieved. We showed that *T. rangeli* has only seven

genes that encode mucin-like glycoproteins (*Tr*MUC), which is very different from the high

copy number in *T. cruzi* (e.g., 700 in the Brazil A4 strain and 797 in Y strain) [51]. A very

tight expression control of the *Tr*MUC3 gene product was also observed, even under the

control of a vector that enforces their expression (pROCK plasmid). Despite the low

expression level, the infection was impacted by the overexpression of *Tr*MUC3 in

trypomastigotes, decreasing the parasitemia in BALB/c mice. The expression of *Tr*MUC

thus causes the opposite effect compared to *Tc*MUC II in *T. rangeli*, apparently

decreasing the presence of parasites in the bloodstream, while TcMUC II causes an

increase. While the expression of *Tc*MUC I by the Choachí strain does not affect the

number of parasites in the blood, it is not possible to conclude that there is no influence

on the parasite load since this glycoprotein is preferentially expressed in *T. cruzi*
amastigotes [94,95], a parasite form that is still unexplored in *T. rangeli* during mammalian
infection [87], along with the incomplete understanding of the tissue tropism of this
avirulent trypanosomatid in mice models [32,96]. Moreover, *T. cruzi* amastigotes do not
express *Tc*TS group I (with trans-sialidase activity) [54,97], alike is well-known for *T.*
rangeli [98,99]. Therefore, the best conditions to express *Tr*MUC might be found during
an alleged amastigote phase, playing a role with sialidases in an uncharted way, even in
the *T. cruzi,* where these enzymes/substrates are abundant. Further studies, mainly
focused on characterizing the *T. rangeli* glycoproteins, are needed to comprehend which
glycoproteins and how this parasite can acquire sialic acid from the media. Taking
together the low copy number, the tight expression control, and the absence of detection
of any peak in the proteome studies so far, we also hypothesize that *Tr*MUC is a gene
family in the suppression process, possibly a trace of the evolutionary speciation event.
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4. CONCLUSIONS
The complexity of the trypanosomatid genomes correlates with their intricate
biology, presenting intra and interspecific variability mostly due to regions of highly
repetitive content such as sub-telomeric sequences. The combination of PacBio and
Illumina reads allowed for an improved version of the *T. rangeli* genome, and was also
useful for resolving complex and repetitive regions in the genome of the parasite, which
is the smallest and least repetitive among the mammalian infective trypanosomatids.
Among these repetitive regions, the results presented here demonstrate that the portion
of structural repetitive elements is large compared to the quantity of multicopy genes,
which is different from other trypanosomatid genomes studied. We highlight the
complexity of the *T. rangeli* multigene families of mucins-TASV and GP63 and their
involvement in the biology of the parasite.
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5. METHODS
5.1 Parasite culture, DNA extraction and sequencing
Epimastigotes of *T. rangeli* strains Choachí, PIT10, R1625, and SC58 [100]
(Additional file 14: Supplementary Table S7) were cultured at 27ºC in liver infusion

tryptose (LIT) medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS), as described

previously [5]. Total DNA was extracted from exponential growth phase epimastigotes

using the ReliaPrep™ gDNA Tissue Miniprep System Kit (Promega). Library generation

and sequencing were performed at the National Genomics Infrastructure (NGI) hosted by

the Science for Life Laboratory, Stockholm (Sweden). *T. rangeli* DNA from all strains was

used to prepare paired-end libraries for Illumina (MiSeq or HiSeq 2500) sequencing.

Additionally, a SMRT library for PacBio (RSII) sequencing was prepared only for the SC58

strain. Library preparation and DNA sequencing were carried out according to the

respective manufacturer's protocol.

T. rangeli Illumina reads with Q-score mean quality <30 were removed from the

analysis, following removal of the adapters from the high-quality reads using the

Trimmomatic v.0.39 software [101]. PacBio reads were trimmed based on sequence

length (>1Kb) using the FiltLong v.0.2.1 software (https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong).

5.2 Hybrid assembling of T. rangeli SC58 strain genome

Hybrid assembly of the SC58 strain genome was performed *de novo* using high

quality PacBio reads by the software CANU v.2.2 [102], following incorporation of Illumina

reads into the assembly during the scaffolding and gap-filling steps, using the SSPACE

Standard v.3.0 [103] and GapFiller v.1-10 software [104], respectively. Both steps were

run through multiple iterations to compensate for base calling errors of PacBio reads.

Polishing of the assembled genome was performed using Illumina reads with Q-score

mean quality >34 using the Pilon v.1.23 software [105]. Finally, automated allelic content

reassignment was performed by the Purge Haplotigs software v.1.1.2 [106].

General assembly metrics of *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 were evaluated using the QUAST

v.5.0.2 software [107] and mapping with the SC58 reference genome was performed

using the "dnadiff" algorithm of the MUMmer4 v.1.4 software [108].

The sequences corresponding to *T. rangeli* kDNA maxicircles and minicircles were

removed prior assembling using the BLASTn and BLASTx algorithms from the BLAST+

software v.2.9.0 [109], against a database of kDNA sequences from *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*,

and *T. rangeli*.

Further validation of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome assembly was conducted by
mapping 130 universal single-copy orthologs of the Euglenozoa phylum using BUSCO
v.5.5.0 software [110], along with *in silico* mapping of *T. cruzi* probe sequences specific
to chromosomes 4, 37 and 39 [111] onto the SC58 V.2 genome assembly (Additional file
3: Supplementary Table S1). For this later, a high-stringency (E-value >1e-10, coverage
>60%, identity >60%) similarity analysis of the *T. cruzi* probes against the *T. rangeli* SC58
V.2 genome scaffolds were carried out using the BLASTn and tBLASTx algorithms.
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5.3 Structural and functional annotation of the T. rangeli SC58 V.2 genome
CDS prediction and automatic annotation were performed using the
AnnotaPipeline v1.0 software [112], using default parameters for similarity analysis (E-
value cutoff = 1e-5) and peptide identification (Q-value cut-off = 0.05). Gene prediction
was performed using AUGUSTUS v.3.3.3 [113] and an in-house training set composed
of *T. rangeli* SC58 expressed sequence tags (EST) [17] and deduced amino acid
sequences from the reference genome [5]. Automated annotation of CDS was based on
sequence similarity analysis using the BLASTp algorithm, matching with the protein
sequence dataset from the Swiss-Prot v.2022 [114] and TriTrypDB v.65 [115] databases.
CDS showing no similarity were automatically annotated as hypothetical. Search for
protein domains and families was performed using InterProScan v.5.61-93.0 [116]
allowing assignment of Gene Ontology (GO) classification based on the identified protein
domains. Transcriptomic [17] and proteomic [18] datasets generated from epimastigotes
and trypomastigotes forms of *T. rangeli* were used to assess evidence of gene
transcription by Kallisto v.0.48.0 [117], and evidence of expression by Comet v.2021.01
[118] and Percolator v.3.05.0 [119]. A profile for each protein composing the final set of
predicted and annotated CDS was generated using FastProtein v.1.0 [120]. Furthermore,
CDS separated by less than 100 base pairs, along with adjacent ones sharing similar
annotations from the previous analysis, were manually reviewed to assess the potential
presence of pseudogenes.
Prediction of ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and transfer RNA (tRNA) was based on
sequence similarity (Identity >90%) with the Rfam database v.14.2 [121] using the

software Infernal v.1.1.2 [122] and validated based on coverage and identity via BLASTn
using the RNAcentral database v.20 [123].

Analysis of structural repetitive elements was performed using the software
RepeatMasker v.4.1.5 [124], disregarding insertions of bacterial origin and using a custom
library containing sequences specific to trypanosomatids retrieved from msRepDB [62].

The presence of telomeric regions on the extremities (~10Kbp) of each scaffold of
the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome was assessed by search of the canonical telomeric
repeat of eukaryotes (TTAGGG)n [1,52], using the Seqtk v.1.4
(https://github.com/lh3/seqtk) and the Tidk v.0.2.31 software [125].

5.4 Multicopy gene families

Comparative analysis of multicopy gene families (amastins, DGF-1, GP63, KMP-
11, mucins, MASP, RHS, sialidase/trans-sialidases, tuzins, and Variant Surface
Glycoproteins - VSG) was carried out between the *T. rangeli* (SC58 V.2, SC58 reference
genome, AM80), *T. cruzi* (CL Brener Esmeraldo-like and Sylvio X10/1), and *T. brucei*
(TREU927) genome.

Initially, a search for keywords across CDS annotations of each species genome
was performed using the software SeqKit v2.5.1 [126] using the following definitions as
queries: *amastin*, *dgf*, *dispersed, dispersed gene family*, *gp63*, *leishmanolysin*, *kmp*,
kinetoplastid, *kinetoplastid membrane protein*, *masp*, *mucin-associated*, *mucin-
associated surface protein*, *muc*, *mucin*, *rhs*, *retrotransposon*, *retrotransposon hot spot*,
sialidase, *vsg*, *surface glycoprotein*, *variant surface glycoprotein*, and *tuzin*. Related
terms, such as "MASP" and "Mucin-Associated Surface Proteins", for example, were
considered as belonging to the same multicopy gene family to avoid redundancy. The
annotation of each CDS was manually curated to remove false positives and to assign
correct description of their products. In this sense, all genes whose automatic annotation
were "trans-sialidase" or "leishmaniolysin" were corrected to "sialidase", since *T. rangeli*
lacks trans-sialidase activity [34], and to "GP63", since members of this multicopy gene
family differs from *Leishmania* species, respectively.

Furthermore, a similarity analysis was then carried out between the predicted CDS
of each multicopy gene family and the corresponding transcript data of trypanosomatid

species on TriTrypDB. This step was performed by the BLASTx algorithm of the software

BLAST+ v.2.14.1 [109], considering an E-value cutoff of 1e-5. Results from this analysis

were only considered if the corresponding match presented a coverage of over 30%, at

least 50% identity and 50% positivity. Hence, redundancy was removed once more, to

ensure no sequence duplicates between the dataset obtained from the similarity analysis

and the recovered annotated CDS. Finally, the total number of nucleotides for each

multicopy gene family was obtained using the "stats" algorithm of the software SeqKit.

5.4.1 T. rangeli GP63

Sequences identified by BLAST as GP63 underwent further examination using the

NCBI's Conserved Domain Database (CDD v3.21). Sequences shorter than 200 amino

acids and classified as "incomplete", "frameshift" or "interrupted Peptidase M8

Superfamily (cl19482)" were considered pseudogenes. Fragmented CDS with CDD e-

value > 1×10^{-32} for the Peptidase M8 Superfamily were artificially combined with upstream

or downstream coding sequences that contain complementary domains in the most

repetitive nucleotides at the break points, primarily occurring in glycine or proline

residues. The identification of the zinc-binding and active site was accomplished by

recognizing the "ZnMc astacin-like" domain (cd04280) and conducting a manual search

using Jalview version 2.11.4.1 [127]. The characterization of the signal peptide,

glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchoring, and N-glycosylation was performed through

the use of SignalP v.6.0 [128], DeepTMHMM v.1.0 [129], NetGPI v.1.1 [130], NetN-Glyc

v.1.0 predictors, respectively.

Analysis of orthology of GP63 genes among trypanosomatids used a dataset of

156 sequences from *T. cruzi* strains Dm28c (21) [20] and CL Brener (5) [43] , *L. infantum*

JPCM5 strain (7), *L. major* Friedlin strain (6) [38,131,132], *T. brucei* TREU927 strain (17)

[78]. In addition, sequences from *Angomonas deanei* strain Carvalho ATCC PRA-265 (5),

Leptomonas pyrrhocoris strain H10 (5), *Crithidia fasciculata* - strain Cf-Cl (5), and the

free-living kinetoplastid *Bodo saltans* strain Lake Konstanz (8) were obtained by BLASTp

search in TriTrypDB using the *L. infantum* GP63 entries (LinJ.10.0500 and LinJ.10.0520)

as query [78,79]. Phylogenetic analysis was carried out using the workflow provided by

NGPhylogeny.fr [133] with default parameters of each included tool. Data was then

integrated using the Interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) v.7.2 online tool [134]. Identity matrix

analysis was performed using Clustal Omega (EMBL-EBI Job Dispatcher [135]) and SIAS

tool (http://imed.med.ucm.es/Tools/sias.html). Active site motif was describe using

ScanProsite tool [136].

Metalloprotease activity assays were carried out using a total of 1×10^8 parasites,

which included *Leishmania braziliensis* (MHOM/BR/75/M2904 strain promastigotes), *T.*

cruzi (Y strain epimastigotes), and *T. rangeli* (Choachí strain epimastigotes and

trypomastigotes). The parasites were lysed in a buffer containing 1% Triton X-100 and 10

mM Tris-HCl at pH 6.8. SDS-PAGE gels were prepared with 0.2% gelatin, and the

samples were neither heated nor reduced prior to analysis. Following electrophoresis, the

gels were washed twice with a 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.5) that contained 2.5%

Triton X-100. Subsequently, the gels were incubated for 48 hours at 37 °C in a buffer

consisting of 0.1M sodium acetate and 1mM DTT at pH 5.5. In some cases, 10mM 1,10-

phenanthroline (Sigma-Aldrich) was included in the incubation. Finally, the gels were

stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250. To evaluate the impact of pH, additional

experiments were conducted by incubating the gels at 37°C for 48 hours in reaction

buffers with varying pH values: 3.5, 5.5, 7.0, and 9.0.

Building on the proteomic evidence of GP63 expression in *T. rangeli* [18], we

conducted further analyses of the raw MS/MS data from the surface-enriched protein

fraction (SEP) of *T. rangeli* SC58 strain for detailed identification of GP63 expression.

This analysis employed MSFragger [137] and, also incorporated unpublished, in-house

generated secretome datasets from *T. rangeli*.

The final dataset comprises all 11 GP63 sequences, supplemented with

contaminant proteins from cRAP (https://thegp_m.org/crap/index.html), including porcine

trypsin, *Saccharomyces* spp. alcohol dehydrogenase, and human keratin. Decoy

database searches were performed automatically. MSFragger parameters specified

tryptic peptides allowing one missed cleavage, carbamidomethylation of cysteine,

methionine oxidation as a variable modification, and precursor and fragment tolerances

of 10 and 5 p.p.m., respectively. Protein identification and scoring were conducted using

the ProteinProphet algorithm within Philosopher [138]. Only proteins supported by at least

two unique peptides, a false discovery rate (FDR) below 0.1%, and peptide/protein

probabilities exceeding 95% and 99%, respectively, were considered as valid.

5.4.2 Structural and functional analysis of T. rangeli metalloproteases

To investigate the presence of metalloprotease activity in *T. rangeli*, we conducted

in silico structural and functional analyses of these proteins. Initially, we generated 3D

models of *T. rangeli* metalloproteases using AlphaFold 3 [139]. For comparative

purposes, we also obtained the model of the group 1 metalloprotease from *T. cruzi*

(TriTrypDB: C4B63_30g122). All models were generated using the default parameters of

AlphaFold 3, as outlined in its user guide. Quality assessment of the model was carried

out using the confidence scores provided by the program, including pLDDT (per-residue

confidence) and pTM (predicted template modelling). Specifically, pTM values above 0.5

were considered indicative of adequate modelling, while values above 0.8 reflected high

predictive quality [139]. All generated models were visualized, analysed, and figures were

created using PyMOL v.2.5.0 (https://www.pymol.org/).

For the structural and functional analyses of metalloproteases, leishmanolysin - a

metalloprotease from *L. major* (PDB: 1LML) - was utilized as the control structure [37].

The structural analysis focused on the identification of the active site or zinc-binding motif

(HEXXHXXG[~60]H) located in helix B, which is a conserved characteristic of

metalloproteases, was evaluated [41,44]. Surface representations of the models were

created to identify the S1' pocket, a common feature of these proteins extensively studied

for its importance in interactions with various inhibitors [140]. The loop region preceding

helix B, located between antiparallel β-sheets in the N-terminal domain, was examined

due to its presence in the active site of the metalloproteases. Furthermore, we assessed

the structural similarities between the metalloprotease models of *T. rangeli*, *T. cruzi* and

the control *L. major* models through structural alignments. This process was followed by

RMSD (Root Mean Square Deviation) calculations for both the overall protein and for

helix B specifically, considering only the alpha carbons in each case.

To evaluate the interaction potential of the modeled metalloprotease active sites

with ligands, the proteins were submitted to the P2Rank web server [42]. P2Rank is a

machine-learning tool that identifies potential binding sites by analysing surface features,

shape, and electrostatic potential. The server provides a ranked list of potential binding
sites, derived from the P2Rank score and the ligand cavity probability. The
metalloprotease models were categorized into three groups based on the ligand cavity
probability value: (i) highly promising, when probability is ≥ 50%; (ii) moderately
promising, when it falls between < 50% and ≥ 40%; and (iii) less promising, when it is <
40%.

The metalloprotease models underwent molecular docking with 1,10-
phenanthroline, an established inhibitor of metalloproteinases [38,44]. This compound
typically interacts with the active site of these enzymes, specifically targeting the Zn^{2+} ion,
which serves as an indicator of a catalytic environment comparable to that of
metalloproteinases. Docking simulations were carried out using AutoDock Vina [141]. An
optimized grid box was strategically positioned over the active site to generate nine poses
for each protein, while all other parameters adhered to the program's default settings.
Initially, the control structure was docked with 1,10-phenanthroline, and the pose with the
lowest affinity value and the most favourable orientation toward the Zn^{2+} ion was selected
as the reference model. Subsequently, docking was conducted with the metalloproteases
from *T. rangeli* and *T. cruzi*, focusing on poses that displayed the highest similarity to the
control complex. To accomplish this, the proteins were aligned, and the RMSD between
the ligands was calculated, with the pose showing the lowest RMSD chosen for further
analysis.

5.4.3 T. rangeli mucin-like glycoproteins

Identification of *T. rangeli* mucin-like glycoproteins was carried out by BLASTn
using the first 93 nt of *T. rangeli* mucin-likes TRSC58_06796 (TriTrypDB) and KC544919
(GenBank) genes described in the reference genome [5] and proteome [18], respectively.
Also, the presence of N- and C-terminal domains of *T. cruzi* mucin-like genes signatures
[142,143] was assessed. Hits that did not match to a CDS automatically annotated were
evaluated by analysis ORFs obtained from 3 Kbp flanking regions of identified hits using
the GetORF tool (https://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/getorf), considering the
following parameters: 150 nt minimum length; and only Met as start codon. Only
sequences encoding for valid signal peptides according to SignalP v.6.0 predictor [128]

or DeepTMHMM v.1.0 [129] were considered as putative *T. rangeli* mucins (*Tr*MUC). The

presence of GPI-anchor, *N*- and *O*-glycosylation sites, in addition to phosphorylation

(ATM, CKI, CKII, CaM-II, DNAPK, EGFR, GSK3, INSR, PKA, PKB, PKC, PKG, RSK,

SRC, cdc2, cdk5, and p38MAPK) recognition sites was evaluated using NetGPI v.1.1

[130], NetN-Glyc v.1.0, NetO-glyc v.4.0 [144], and NetPhos v.3.1 [145] servers,

respectively. Prediction of amino acid abundance and molecular weight was performed

by Pepstats tool available at EMBL-EBI Job Dispatcher [135]. The conservative regions

were evaluated by Gblocks [146] applying Clustal Omega [147] alignments as inputs, as

well as to obtain logos representations through the Skylign tool [148], and overall similarity

analysis performed by SIAS tool. Phylogenetic analysis based on maximum-likelihood

tree inferred amino acid sequences identified from the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome, as

well as members of the *T. cruzi* mucin-like (MUC) and Trypomastigote Alanine-Serine-

Valine (TASV) glycoprotein families retrieved from TryTripDB and Genbank databases

was conducted as described for GP63 analysis.

5.4.4 Biological assessment of T. rangeli mucins and TASV

We designed a synthetic gene (purchased from Biomatik) hereby called 'FlagGPI'

encoding a 3xFlagTag® (Sigma-Aldrich) sequence, followed by the mNeonGreen

fluorescent protein gene [149], and a *T. rangeli* GPI-anchor sequence (KC544919-

GenBank) under control of *T. cruzi* gp82 3' untranslated region (UTR). The GFP gene

present in the integrative plasmid pROCK-Neo [150] was replaced by the FlagGPI gene

through *Xba*I and *Xho*I restriction enzyme cleavage, generating the FlagGPI-pROCK

vector.

The *T. rangeli* (Choachí strain) genes MUCg3 and TASV-like1, and the *T. cruzi* (Y

strain) genes MUC I (clone B4-5), and MUC II (clone B2-10), were PCR amplified from

genomic DNA. The amplicons, that excluded the GPI-anchor addition sequence, were gel

purified using the QIAquick Purification kit (Qiagen), cloned in pGEM T-Easy vectors

(Promega), sequenced (ABI3500 - Applied Biosystems), and subcloned in the FlagGPI-

pROCK vector, resulting in tagged-fused constructs. A complete list of primers and

restriction enzymes is provided in Additional file 15: Supplementary Table S8.

Epimastigotes of *T. rangeli* (Choachí strain) were transfected with 10 µg of *Not*I-
linearized FlagGPI-pROCK vector containing the distinct tagged-fused constructs or with
the FlagGPI synthetic gene, using the Nucleofactor® II (Lonza) U-33 program. The
transfected parasites were cultivated in LIT+NNN and selection was performed by
increasing concentrations of geneticin (G418) up to 500 µg/mL. Plasmid integration into
the parasite β-tubulin locus was confirmed by PCR using a set of primers designed to
anneal exclusively in the genomic β-tubulin region upstream of the homologous
recombination site and the HX1 5' UTR present particularly in FlagGPI-pROCK vector
(Additional file 15: Supplementary Table S8). Once the integration into the parasite
genome was confirmed, parasites were cultivated in the absence of selective drugs.

To assess the expression of the FlagGPI-fused glycoproteins, total protein extracts
of *T. rangeli* epimastigotes and trypomastigotes from each transfected lineage and wild-
type parasites were obtained by lysis in proper buffer (50 mM NaCl, 200 mM Tris-HCl pH
8.0, 1% (v/v) Triton X-100), supplemented with a protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-
Aldrich). A total of 50 µg of each extract were resolved in 12% SDS-Page gels and then
wet-transferred to Hybond® PVDF membranes (Amersham). Membranes were incubated
with primary antibodies (mouse anti-FlagTag M2 or rabbit anti-β-tubulin), then with HRP
anti-IgG conjugates (anti-mouse or anti-rabbit) (Sigma-Aldrich). The expression analysis
was periodically assessed.

Comparative *in vivo* assessment of the infectivity of all transfected lineages was
performed using 6 weeks old female BALB/c mice, maintained in ventilated cages under
a 12-hour light/dark cycle and having water and food *ad libitum*. A total 1×10^7 *in vitro*
differentiated *T. rangeli* trypomastigotes were injected by intraperitoneal (i.p.) route and
parasitemia was assessed daily by the Pizzi-Brener method from 6h post-infection [151].
In vivo experiments were approved by the UFSC Animal Ethics Committee (Protocol
9923170516). Graph and statistical analysis were performed using GraphPad Prism
v.8.4.0 software. The expression of *T. rangeli* mucins and TASV was also evaluated by
search on *T. rangeli* MS/MS proteomic data as performed for GP63 (Item 2.4.1.).

1036

5.5 Analysis of orthologous groups

Orthology analysis was performed with OrthoFinder v.2.3.11 [152] using the

predicted proteins from *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome and proteins from *T. brucei*

(TREU927 strain), *T. cruzi* (CL Brener Esmeraldo-like and Sylvio X10/1 strains), *T. rangeli*

(SC58 reference strain), *Leishmania amazonensis* (MHOM/BR/71973/M2269 strain) and

Leishmania infantum (JPCM5 strain), obtained from TriTrypDB version 65 [115], and also

T. rangeli (AM80 strain) retrieved from GenBank (Access code: GCF_003719475.1).

1044

5.6 Comparative intra-specific genomics of T. rangeli strains

Illumina paired-end libraries of distinct *T. rangeli* strains (SC58, Choachí, PIT10,

and R1625) were quality-filtered using Trimmomatic v0.40 [101] and the filtered reads

were mapped against the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome using the Burrows-Wheeler

Aligner v. 0.7.17 [153].

For SNP calling, the mapping files were sorted with Samtools v.1.17 [154], PCR-

duplicates were marked with Picard v.2.27.5 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/), and

SNPs were identified using the Genome Analysis Toolkit v.3.8

(https://gatk.broadinstitute.org/hc/en-us) using the "HaplotypeCaller" algorithm with a

minimum quality value of 30 and a minimum depth of coverage of 10. A strict mapping

quality filter was applied to remove the influence of low mapping quality in repeated

regions and any SNP with mapping quality <50 was removed using BCFtools v.1.9 [154].

CCNV and ploidy estimation were performed using a combination of RDC and AB

methods as previously described [36]. Briefly, the estimation of CCNV was based on the

ratio between the mean coverage in each *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 scaffold and the mean

coverage of all scaffolds in the assembly. If the ratio between the median chromosome

coverage and the median genome coverage was approximately one, the chromosome

had the same copy as the genome overall, while fluctuations in this ratio (<0.75 or >1.25)

were considered as putative aneuploidies. Heterozygous SNPs with a mapping quality

higher than 50 were selected for AB analyses to confirm aneuploidies and to estimate

chromosome somy and whole genome ploidy. Whole genome ploidy was estimated by

analysing the proportion of the alleles in heterozygous SNP positions of all scaffolds. To

confirm the RDC somy estimations, the proportion of each allele with heterozygous SNPs

per chromosome position was plotted for the 82 scaffolds. All RDC and AB graphs were

generated in R with ggplot2 (available at https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org), pheatmap

(available at https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pheatmap), and vcfR [155] packages.

Gene Ontology Enrichment analyses in CCNV regions were performed using TriTryp

tools (https://tritrypdb.org/tritrypdb/app/) based on orthologs with the *T. cruzi* reference

CL Brener Esmeraldo-like.

1074

1075 **ADDITIONAL FILES**

1076 **Additional file 1: Supplementary Figure S1**. Comparative alignment of the assemblies

1077 of *Trypanosoma rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome with other *T. rangeli* and *T. cruzi* genomes.

1078

1079 Footnote: Dot-plot representation of the alignment of the *T. rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome assembly with the

1080 reference genome (A), *T. rangeli* Choachí (B), PIT10 strain (C) and R1625 (D) strains genomes, *T. cruzi*

1081 CL Brener Esmeraldo-like (E), and Sylvio X10/1 strains genomes using comparative dot-plots generated

1082 by D-Genies (Cabanettes et al., 2018).

1083

1084 **Additional file 2: Supplementary Figure S2.** *Trypanosoma rangeli* five loci of the

1085 Spliced Leader RNA genes interspersed with 5S RNA genes.

1086

1087 Footnote: (**A**) Alignment of 62 *T. rangeli* Spliced-Leader (SL) RNA genes highlight the exon region (light

1088 green), intron (light red), and splicing site at position 39. (**B**) Five loci show SL genes interspersed with 5S

1089 RNA genes, varying from 9 to 16 SL gene copies.

1090

1091 **Additional file 3: Supplementary Table S1**. Mapping of *Trypanosoma cruzi* (CL Brener

1092 strain) chromosome-specific probes onto the *Trypanosoma rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome.

1093

1094 Footnote: *Access codes of *T. cruzi* genes in the TriTrypDB v.65 database. **Genomic location and "P" and

1095 "S" haplotypes of *T. cruzi* CL Brener genome (Weatherly; Boehlke; Tarleton, 2009).

1096

1097 **Additional file 4: Supplementary Table S2**. Telomeric regions identified in the

1098 *Trypanosoma rangeli* SC58 V.2 genome scaffolds.

1099

1100 Footnote: bp = base pairs.

1101

1102 **Additional file 5: Supplementary Figure S3 -** Allelic proportions at heterozygous SNP

1103 positions for the 81 scaffolds of each *Trypanosoma rangeli* strain (SC58, Choachí, PIT10,

1104 R1625). Blue points represent allele proportions along each scaffold; black lines indicate

1105 median values within sliding windows.

1106

1107 **Additional file 6: Supplementary Table S3**. Summary of GP63 genes of *T. rangeli* and

1108 other Kinetoplastids species are presented in the phylogenetic analysis.

1109

1110 Footnote: 'GPI-Anchored' in red= sequence forecasted as GPI-anchored, however biologically not possible

1111 if signal peptide prediction is correct. 'BNP' = biologically not possible; SP = Signal Peptide; GLOB =

1112 globular; TM = transmembrane, ----- = presence of gap in active site region; XXxxX = Non-conserved amino

1113 acids in zinc-binding site/active site (other than HExxH). NE: Non-evaluated. Peptidase_M8 Superfamily

1114 (NCBI CDD code: cl19482).

1115

1116 **Additional file 7: Supplementary Figure S4.** *Trypanosoma rangeli* Surface

1117 Glycoprotein 63 (GP63) presents the main classical leishmanolysin motifs.

1118

1119 Footnote: Logo representation of residue conservation as weighted counts of Zinc-binding site. Logo Y-axis

1120 = observed information content (in bits), top = residues position in the alignment; bottom = occupancy

1121 values.

1122

1123 **Additional file 8: Supplementary Table S4**. Amino Acid Percent Identity Matrix of

1124 *Tr*GP63 complete genes.

1125

1126 Footnote: Colors highlight the *Tr*GP63 groups categorization as shown in the header of the matrix.

1127

1128 **Additional file 9: Supplementary Figure S5.** *Trypanosoma rangeli* exhibits

1129 metalloprotease activity, and it is biochemically inhibited by chelating agents.

1130

Footnote: (**A**) Total protein extracts from epimastigotes (E) and culture-derived trypomastigotes (T) of *T.*

rangeli (10^8 cells) were analysed by SDS-PAGE (10%) using a 0.2% gelatin-containing gel, without heating

or reducing the samples before electrophoresis. Gels were incubated at 37 °C for 48 h in reaction buffer,

without (-) or with (+) specific inhibitor 1,10-phenanthroline. Proteolytic activity is visualized as clear bands

against the Coomassie brilliant blue-stained gelatin background. (**B**) Total protein extracts from axenic

forms of *T. rangeli* Choachí strain (Tr), *T. cruzi* Y strain (Tc), and promastigotes of *L. braziliensis*

MHOM/BR/75/M2904 strain (10^8 cells) were analysed in gels incubated with reaction buffers at different pH

conditions.

1139

1140 **Additional file 10: Supplementary Table S5**. Values from the structural and *in silico*

1141 functional analyses of *Trypanosoma rangeli* GP63 metalloproteases.

1142

1143 Footnote: Metalloprotease from *L. major* (PDB: 1LML) was used as a control, and a single-sequence from

1144 *T. cruzi* group 1 (TriTrypDB:C4B63_30g122) was included for comparative analysis. Colors indicate

1145 metalloprotease inferred activity based on ligand cavity scores: Green for highly promising (≥ 0.5), yellow

1146 for moderately promising (<0.5 to ≥ 0.4), and red for moderately promising (<0.4). pTM = predicted template

1147 modelling. RMSD = root mean square deviation.

1148

1149 **Additional file 11: Supplementary Figure S6.** Structure of *Trypanosoma rangeli* GP63

1150 metalloproteases from distinct groups.

1151

Footnote: (**A**) Structural and *in silico* functional analysis of *T. rangeli* GP63 classified as a highly promising

group regarding inferred activity. (**B**) *Tr*GP63 is classified as a moderately promising group. (**C**) *Tr*GP63

was predicted as a less promising group. 3D Model: Three-dimensional models demonstrating the region

corresponding to the active/Zinc-binding site (Highlighted by a box), where structural and functional

analyses were performed. Zinc-binding site: Visualization of the conserved amino acid residues are shown

in stick representation. Molecular surface: representation of the proteins indicating the presence or absence

of the S1' pocket representing the position which interacts with inhibitors. Presence of S1' pocket is

indicated by a green arrow, and absence by a red arrow. P2Rank analysis: Ligand-cavity prediction shown

by colours demonstrates different predicted cavity positions. Predicted binding cavity probability is shown

in the boxes. Molecular docking analysis: Complexes of metalloproteases with the inhibitor 1,10-

phenanthroline. The cyan ligand represents the highest-affinity conformation obtained for the control

structure, while the white ligands correspond to molecular docking results for the other GP63. Blue indicates

nitrogen in both representations. The boxes present the RMSD values (Å) and ΔG (kcal/mol) of the

complexes resulting from molecular docking.

1166

1167 **Additional file 12: Supplementary Table S6**. Description of *Tr*MUC and *Tr*TASV genes

1168 and predicted glycoprotein characteristics.

1169

1170 Footnote: Yellow background= *T. rangeli* glycoproteins selected for biological characterization. "MW"=
1171 Molecular Weight marker, "WB"= Western Blot. *excluded mature FlagGPI construct 30.39 kDa. #GPI-
1172 anchor cleavage did not occur in the synthetic gene due to a lack of signal peptide. Aromatic residues (Phe,
1173 His, Trp, Tyr). NP = Non-provided by DeepTMHMM Signal peptide predictor.

1174

1175 **Additional file 13: Supplementary Figure S7:** Comparative parasitemia between wild-
1176 type *Trypanosoma rangeli* and transfectants expressing T*r*MUC, *Tr*TASV-like1, or
1177 *Tc*MUC genes.

1178

Footnote: Graphs expressed as means and standard error of mean by lines and shaded regions,
respectively. Statistical analysis: Normal distribution of data evaluated by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
(α=0.05), followed by two-way ANOVA and Post Hoc Bonferroni´s multiple comparisons test. Differences
between groups per time point are shown in the graphs. Unique statistical symbols demonstrate the same
statistical difference in all time points between 1 to 10 d.p.i. (ns $p>0.05$; *$p≤0.05$; **$p≤0.01$;*** $p≤0.001$; ****

$p≤0.0001$). The overall evaluation between the transfected parasite lineages, regardless of time point, is
provided in the detailed table.

1186

1187 **Additional file 14: Supplementary Table S7**. *Trypanosoma rangeli* strains used in this
1188 study, showing their original hosts and geographical origins, as well as their distinct
1189 genetic classifications based on kDNA and ribosomal markers.

1190

1191 Footnote: *kDNA-based classification as proposed by Vallejo et al. (2002). **Ribosomal markers-based (SSU and
1192 ITS) classification as proposed by Maia da Silva et al. (2004). ND= Not determined.

1193

1194 **Additional file 15: Supplementary Table S8:** Primers used in PCR amplification and
1195 cloning of *Trypanosoma rangeli* and *Trypanosoma cruzi* mucins into the FlagGPI-pROCK
1196 vector and on assessment of genomic integration.

1197

1198 Footnote: 'F' and 'R' stand for Forward and Reverse primers, respectively. Restriction sites are highlighted in
1199 bold/italics at the 5'-end of each primer sequence. *= Amplification product generated with primer HX1 R for integration
1200 evaluation by PCR.

1201

ABBREVIATIONS

AB: Allele Balance; Bp: Base pairs; CCNV: Chromosome Copy Number Variation; CDS: Coding sequence; DGF-1: Disperse Gene Family 1; GO: Gene Onthology; GP: Glycoprotein; GPI: Glycosylphosphatidylinositol; Kb: Kilobases; Kbp: Thousand base pairs; kcal/mol: Kilocalories per mole; kDa: Kilodaltons; KMP: Kinetoplastid Membrane Protein; mAb: Monoclonal antibody; MASP: Mucin-Associated Surface Proteins; Mb: Megabase; Mbp: Million base-pairs; pTM: Predicted template modelling; RDC: Read Depth Coverage; RHS: Retrotransposon Hot Spot; RMSD: Root Mean Square Deviation; RNAi: RNA interference machinery; SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism; TASV: Trypomastigote, Alanine, Serine and Valine rich protein glycoprotein family; VSG: Variable Surface Glycoprotein.

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AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS

GAM, GMM and ACS: Equally contributed to Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Validation, Visualization and Writing – original draft.

CAP, CLMP, DDL, RAC, RSM and TKSP: Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology and Validation. ASR: Formal analysis and Investigation.

TCB and GRM: Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Validation and Writing – original draft.

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BA and ECG: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation and Writing – original draft.

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AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND MATERIALS

Data generated during the current study is available in the GenBank database (Bioproject PRJNA1380247). Further datasets or subsets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding authors on reasonable request. DNA transfer from UFSC to KI was carried out exclusively for sequencing purposes and was registered in the Brazilian National System for the Management of Genetic Heritage and Associated Traditional Knowledge (SISGEN A206000).

ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Not applicable.

CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION

Not applicable.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests. The funders had no role in the study design, data analysis, or the decision to publish.

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Metrics	T. rangeli		T. cruzi	
	SC58 V.2	SC58 Reference*	CL Brener Esmeraldo-like*	Sylvio X10/1*
Genome size (Mbp)	23.68	14.02	32.53	41.38
Number of scaffolds	81	7,433	41	47
G+C content (%)	53.30	53.26	50.38	51.57
Scaffolds > 50 Kbp	67	0	41	47
Longest scaffold (Mbp)	1.37	0.25	2.37	3.12
Scaffold N50	558,628	2,203	870,934	1,006,492
Scaffold L50	14	2,096	12	14
N bases / 100 Kbp	0	21.31	20,604.70	3,242.42
Number of rRNA	58	16	9	ND
Number of tRNA	73	120	55	65
Total number of CDS	9,203	7,475	9,039	18,643
Number of hypothetical CDS	3,067	5,075	4,260	13,760
Mean CDS size (aa)	505	460	493	178
CDS < 100 aa	299	410	207	5,573