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Au revoir!

Abstract

Blastocystis, a unicellular parasite found in the human gastrointestinal tract, has been a topic of study due to its potential pathogenicity. This study identified potential virulence factors within *Blastocystis* subtypes ST7 and ST4 from the established virulence factors of *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica*, and *Cryptosporidium parvum*. Bioinformatics tools have been applied to analyze structural and characteristic differences. Certain motifs were found in *Blastocystis* which could impact its pathogenicity, as well as many conserved regions like in the known virulence factors. These include the motifs QxVxG, CxxC, RGD, ERFNIN, and GNFD, as well as a possible occluding loop. In terms of the active sites found, *Blastocystis* ST7 has all three active sites forming a catalytic dyad, while *Blastocystis* ST4 only had two active sites. This could indicate that *Blastocystis* ST7 has a higher enzymatic activity. The findings could have an impact on the regulation of the protease activity, modulating protein function, regulation of biological processes, and stability and folding of proteins.

The project also includes a molecular approach, where *Blastocystis* ST7 was meant to be cloned and determine the expression of genes 60SRPL32 and PC1A. Despite the challenges faced during the laboratory work of the project, not all experiments were completed.

Therefore, a methodology of how it can be performed is explained. By completing this research, it could lead us to an improved understanding of *Blastocystis* and its behavior. The findings suggest similarities in the mechanisms and functions of these virulence factors, indicating the potential pathogenic nature of *Blastocystis*.

This study contributes to the growing field of knowledge in parasitology by giving important insights into the complicated world of parasitic infections. As scientists continue to examine the complexities of *Blastocystis*, this study provides the framework for eventually improving global health outcomes in the challenge of parasitic illnesses.

Abbreviations

A	Adenine
Asn	Asparagine
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
BP	Base Pair
C	Cytosine
CatB	Cathepsin B
CP	Cysteine Protease
cPCR	colony Polymerase Chain Reaction
CXCL	C-X-C Motif Chemokine Ligand
Cys	Cysteine
Cystatin	Cysteine protease inhibitor
EhCP	<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> cysteine proteinase
FP	Forward Primer
G	Guanine
His	Histidine
IgA	Immunoglobulin A
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IL	Interleukin
LB	Lysogeny Broth
NF κ B	Nuclear factor kappa B
PC1A	Peptidase C1A
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
PLP	Papain-like Proteases
PMN	Polymorphonuclear neutrophils
R	Arginine
RP	Reverse Primer
ST4	Subtype 4
ST7	Subtype 7
T	Thymine
T _m	Melting temperature
TNF- α	Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha
60SRPL32	60S Ribosomal Protein L32

Table of Contents

Acknowledgment	3
Abstract	4
Abbreviations	5
1 Introduction	9
1.1 <i>Blastocystis</i> – a pathogen?	10
1.1.1 History of <i>Blastocystis</i> spp.....	10
1.1.2 Characteristics and classification	10
1.1.3 Transmission and pathogenesis.....	11
1.2 <i>Giardia intestinalis</i>	12
1.3 <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	13
1.4 <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i>.....	14
1.5 Protein structure.....	15
1.5.1 Domains	15
1.5.2 Motifs.....	15
1.5.3 Virulence factors.....	15
1.5.4 Proteases.....	16
1.5.5 Cysteine protease in <i>Blastocystis</i> spp.	17
1.5.6 Cysteine protease in <i>Giardia intestinalis</i>	17
1.5.7 Cysteine protease in <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	18
1.5.8 Cysteine protease in <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i>	19
1.6 Virulence factors.....	19
1.6.1 Cathepsin B in <i>Giardia intestinalis</i>	20
1.6.2 Cysteine proteinase 2 and 5 in <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	20
1.6.3 Cryptopain-1 in <i>Cryptosporidium</i>	21
1.7 Bioinformatics.....	22
1.7.1 NCBI.....	22
1.7.2 Databases.....	22
2 Methods	24
2.1 Bioinformatic part.....	24
2.1.1 Collecting relevant genes	24
2.1.2 Search for proteins in other organisms	24
2.1.3 Identification of domains and signal peptides.....	25
2.1.4 Identification of motifs and active sites	25
2.1.5 Sequence alignment and phylogenetic tree	25
2.1.6 Vector Construction	25

2.1.7 Sanger sequencing	27
2.2 Molecular part	28
2.2.1 Isolate promoters and terminators	28
2.2.2 Agarose gel electrophoresis	29
2.2.3 Cloning of genetic constructs.....	29
2.2.4 Plasmid purification miniprep	31
2.2.5 Nanodrop protocol.....	31
2.2.6 Plasmid purification maxiprep.....	32
2.2.7 Storage of samples	32
2.2.8 Cell strain and culture.....	32
2.2.9 Cell transfection.....	33
2.2.10 Nanoluc luciferase assay	34
2.2.11 Immunofluorescent microscopy	35
2.2.12 Permeabilization and Blocking	35
2.2.13 Antibody Staining.....	35
2.2.14 Microscopy and Imaging	35
3 Results and discussion.....	36
3.1 Signal peptide.....	39
3.2 Motifs and domains	42
3.3 Sequence alignment	43
3.3.1 Active sites.....	47
3.3.2 QxVxG motif.....	48
3.3.3 CxxC motif	48
3.3.4 Occluding loop	48
3.3.5 RGD motif	49
3.3.6 cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation site	50
3.3.7 Transmembrane domain.....	50
3.3.8 ERFNIN motif.....	50
3.3.9 GNDF motif.....	51
3.3.10 N-glycosylation sites	51
3.3.11 Amidation sites	52
3.4 3D structure	52
3.5 Phylogenetic tree.....	56
3.5.1 Cathepsin B.....	56
3.5.2 Cysteine proteinase 2.....	58
3.5.3 Cryptopain-1	60

3.5.4 Cysteine proteinase 5	61
4 Results laboratory work	63
4.1 Isolation and PCR of promoters and terminators	63
4.2 Colony PCR	64
5 Conclusion	66
References	68
Appendix 1	79
Cathepsin B	79
Cysteine proteinase 2	81
Cryptopain-1	82
Cysteine proteinase 5	83
Appendix 2 – Excel files	85
Cathepsin B	85
Cysteine proteinase 2	86
Cryptopain-1	87
Cysteine proteinase 5	88
Appendix 3 – List of primers and oligo bridges	89

1 Introduction

Parasitic infections remain a significant global health concern, affecting millions of individuals annually (Cummings & van Die, 2015). Among the diverse array of parasitic pathogens, *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica*, and *Cryptosporidium parvum* have gathered considerable attention due to their virulence factors and the associated diseases they cause (Argüello-García et al., 2023). Behind these considerably studied parasites lies *Blastocystis*, a protist that is not fully understood by researchers, in terms of genomic exploration and virulence factor characterization (Melo et al., 2021). *Blastocystis*, comprising multiple subtypes, presents a challenging yet intriguing area of research, with subtype 7 (ST7) and subtype 4 (ST4) emerging as subjects of particular interest in this project.

By comparing known virulence factors in other parasites to *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4, we can potentially gain insights into its interactions with the host, as well as its involvement in different biological functions and pathways.

This thesis aims to study genes of interest of *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4, comparing them with selected virulence factors of *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica*, and *Cryptosporidium parvum*. These organisms were chosen due to their similarities to *Blastocystis* like symptoms and environments. Although there are significant functional differences, studying these organisms can help improve our understanding and identification of potential drug targets. By focusing on the genomic complexities of *Blastocystis*, this study aims to contribute to the broader understanding of parasitic pathogenesis and insights into the less-explored aspects of parasitology.

1.1 *Blastocystis* – a pathogen?

Blastocystis is a microscopic parasite, strictly anaerobic, and can be found in the gastrointestinal tract of insects, birds, and mammals (Parija & Jeremiah, 2013). The parasite has been found in the stools of some individuals who experience symptoms like diarrhea, stomach pain, or other gastrointestinal issues, but researchers are unsure whether *Blastocystis* contributes to disease development at all (Andersen & Stensvold, 2016).

1.1.1 History of *Blastocystis* spp.

Due to not having enough documentation for studies of *Blastocystis* in the 1800s, the exact date of the initial discovery of the parasite is uncertain (Zierdt, 1991). It was initially discovered in diarrheal patients' feces by the Russian phycologist and protozoologist A. G. Alexeieff in 1911 (Alexeieff, 1911). He designated the organism as yeast and gave it the name *Blastocystis enterocola*. He presented an illustration of *Blastocystis* through its life cycle, shown in Figure 1, and it is the very first documentation of the parasite. A year later, Brumpt discovered it after looking at a human fecal sample and named the microbe *Blastocystis hominis* (Stenzel & Boreham, 1996). It was not considered a pathogenic until a study by Zierdt in the 1970s where the characterization of the organism at the microscopic level was described, providing valuable awareness of its morphology and cellular composition (Sienzel et al., 1991).

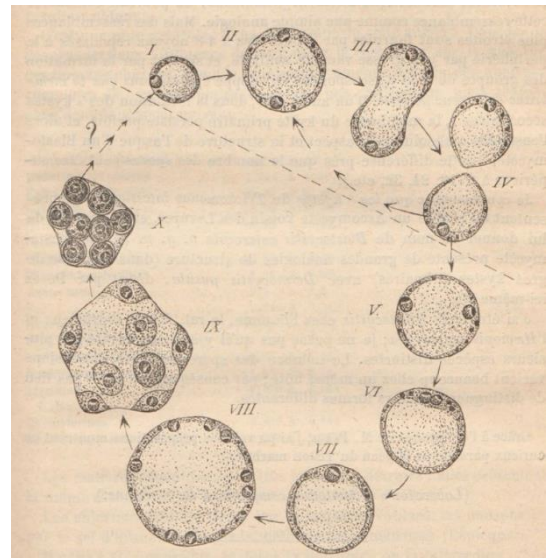


Figure 1 The first documented illustration of the life cycle of *Blastocystis* created by Alexeieff (Alexeieff, 1911).

1.1.2 Characteristics and classification

The different characteristic forms of *Blastocystis* are vacuolar, granular, ameboid, and its vegetative forms are avacuolar and multi-vacuolar forms (Parija & Jeremiah, 2013). These different forms are illustrated in Figure 2.

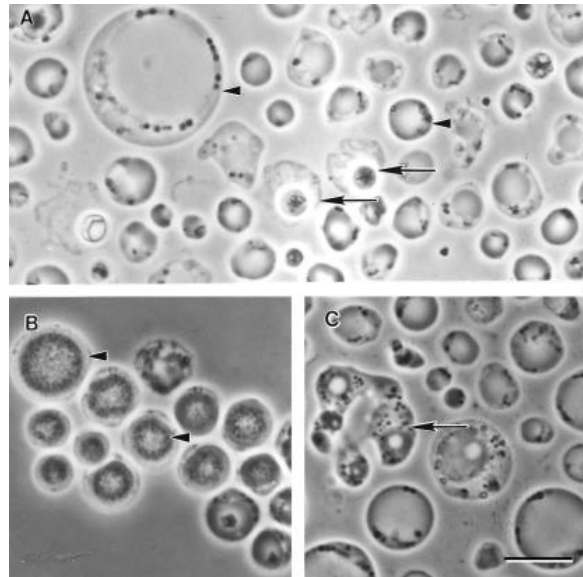


Figure 2 Photo illustrating forms of *Blastocystis* (Bar, 10 μ m) produced by Kevin S. W Tan. A) Vacuolar form. It shows a big, central vacuole with a wide range of size variations. B) Granular form. Within the central vacuole, the granular form has discrete granular inclusions. C) Ameboid form. This can occasionally be observed in culture, where the cytoplasmic extensions resemble pseudopods (Tan, 2008).

Researchers have discovered several variants of the parasite, including various strains or separate species. The classification and understanding of *Blastocystis* has undergone several revisions over the years (Noël et al., 2005; Parija & Jeremiah, 2013). The term "blastocystosis" refers to a *Blastocystis* infection, and the current scientific designation is *Blastocystis* spp., which stands for "many species" (Boorom et al., 2008). Recent research has led to a new classification system based on genetic analysis, which divides *Blastocystis* into distinct genetic clusters known as "ST" (subtype types) based on molecular analysis of the small subunit ribosomal RNA gene (SSU rRNA) (Ajjampur & Tan, 2016). Currently, 40 STs have been described, and at least 28 subtypes (STs, ST1-ST17, ST21, ST23–32) have been identified in humans, other mammals, and birds (Martín-Escolano et al., 2023; Stensvold et al., 2023). These STs show distinct geographical and host-specific distribution patterns and may have different clinical and pathological implications (Jiménez et al., 2022). However, the relationship between *Blastocystis* subtypes and pathogenicity is not yet fully understood and needs more research.

1.1.3 Transmission and pathogenesis

For many years, *Blastocystis* was considered a harmless commensal organism, meaning it simply coexisted with its host without causing significant harm (Lepczyńska et al., 2017). However, in the 1990s, studies began to suggest that *Blastocystis* might be involved in causing gastrointestinal symptoms in some individuals, particularly those with chronic diarrhea, abdominal pain, and other digestive issues. *Blastocystis* can spread by food, drink,

contact with human or animal waste, and other contaminated sources (Wawrzyniak et al., 2013). People who work with animals, live or travel in developing countries tend to be more susceptible to *Blastocystis* infection (Rajah Salim et al., 1999). Numerous animal species have the microbial parasite *Blastocystis* invade their large intestines, and mounting evidence connects *Blastocystis* infection to enteric illnesses, which can manifest as stomach pain, constipation, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, and flatulence (Yoshikawa et al., 2004). Additionally, ST7 is now known to play a significant role in the host's intestinal microbiota (Deng et al., 2022). Although significant progress in our understanding of *Blastocystis* cell biology and host-parasite interactions, a new tool for genetic alteration has been introduced in the past year (Li et al., 2019). Currently, *Blastocystis* is recognized as one of the most common parasites found in human stools worldwide, with a prevalence of up to 60% in developing countries (Soghra et al., 2022). Clinical manifestations linked to *Blastocystis* infection exhibit a broad spectrum, encompassing asymptomatic carriage, acute or chronic gastrointestinal symptoms like diarrhea, abdominal pain, bloating, and nausea, as well as extraintestinal effects such as urticaria, irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) and chronic fatigue syndrome (Tan et al., 2010). However, the pathogenic mechanisms underlying *Blastocystis*-associated diseases remain unclear (Beyhan et al., 2015). The diagnosis of *Blastocystis* infection relies on the detection of the parasite in fecal samples by microscopy or molecular methods, although the sensitivity and specificity of these tests vary widely. The treatment of *Blastocystis* infection is also debatable, as some studies suggest that the parasite may have intrinsic resistance to some antiparasitic drugs (Mirza et al., 2011).

1.2 *Giardia intestinalis*

Giardia intestinalis is a pathogenic protozoan, also known as *Giardia duodenalis* and *Giardia lamblia*. The parasite is characterized by unicellular flagella, illustrated in a 3D model in Figure 3. The disease caused by *G. intestinalis* often starts as an acute condition but can also develop into a chronic condition (Rumsey & Waseem, 2023). It is typically contracted through contact with polluted water and is transferred fecal-orally (Dixon, 2021). Although some infected people may not exhibit any symptoms, the most typical signs and symptoms include aqueous diarrhea, oily stools, nausea, abdominal

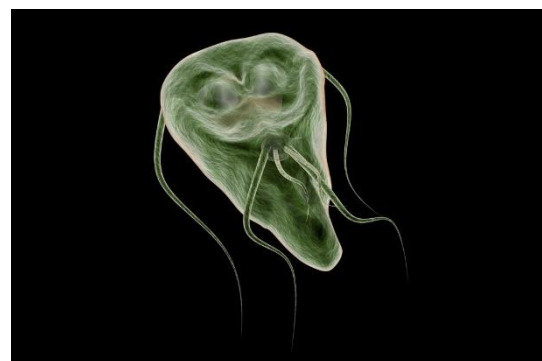


Figure 3 Illustration of *Giardia intestinalis* in a 3D version. Copyright: fotovapl / Shutterstock (Robertson, 2019)

pain, vomiting, and weight loss (Vivancos et al., 2018). Giardiasis is also linked to IBS (Løge, 2012). Metronidazole is the first-line treatment; however, there are other possibilities, and the disease is typically self-limiting (Petri, 2005; Rumsey & Waseem, 2023).

Different assemblages of *Giardia* are categorized as types A through H, with types A and B appearing in humans and animals and types C to H occurring only in animals (Zajaczkowski et al., 2021). It displayed proteolytic activity in *G. intestinalis*, where cysteine proteases (CPs) have an important role in the parasite's virulence (Liu, 2019). The breakdown of the intestinal epithelial junctional complex, intestinal epithelial cell death, and degradation of host immunological components like chemokines and immunoglobulins are all caused directly by *Giardia* CPs (Allain et al., 2019).

Virulence factors of *G. intestinalis* include energy metabolism enzymes, proteinases, high-cysteine membrane proteins (HCMPs), and variant surface proteins (VSPs) (Liu, 2019). In this study, the focus is mainly on cysteine proteinases that impact the interaction with *Giardia* on host cells. (Argüello-García & Ortega-Pierres, 2021; Peirasmaki et al., 2020)

1.3 *Entamoeba histolytica*

The protozoan *Entamoeba histolytica* causes intestinal amebiasis and is commonly found in countries with inadequate socioeconomic conditions and reduced public health (Chou & Austin, 2023). The parasite is a global health issue, and the transmission is usually through contaminated food or water sources, where the consumption of amebic cysts through fecal-oral contact (Kantor et al., 2018). *E. histolytica* can exist in two forms: the active and invasive trophozoite stage and the cyst form, which can live in the environment for a long time.

Trophozoites, which can invade and penetrate the intestinal mucosa and damage epithelial cells and inflammatory cells, may occur after the ingestion of the cyst form (Chou & Austin, 2023). This is illustrated in Figure 4.

Three main virulence factors, Gal/GalNAc lectin, amebapore, and proteases, are used by pathogenic amoebas to lyse,

phagocytose, kill, and destroy a range of cells and tissues in the host (Padilla-Vaca & Anaya-Velazquez, 2010).

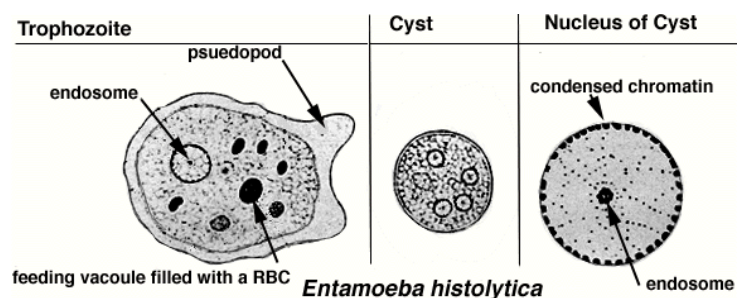


Figure 4 Illustration of the two forms of *E. histolytica*; trophozoite and cyst. Illustration by G. Karki (Karki, 2017).

1.4 *Cryptosporidium parvum*

Cryptosporidiosis is a global infection caused by *Cryptosporidium parvum*, a type of protozoan parasite that can infect various vertebrate species, including humans (Current & Garcia, 1991). This infection leads to symptoms such as acute gastroenteritis, abdominal pain, and diarrhea (Gerace et al., 2019). The primary mode of transmission for cryptosporidiosis is through the fecal-oral route, which means that it is mainly contracted by ingesting viable oocysts (infectious forms) from contaminated food or water of animal or human origin (Fayer et al., 2000). Whilst waterborne transmission of this pathogen is well-documented, the natural reservoir and the exact route of infection for *Cryptosporidium* are not yet fully understood (Khalil et al., 2018).

The life cycle of *C. parvum* begins with the ingestion of its hardy oocysts, illustrated in Figure 5. The oocysts release infective sporozoites that invade the host's small intestine cells (Smith et al., 2005). Within the cells, trophozoites multiply asexually, producing daughter cells called merozoites (Leitch & He, 2012). These merozoites cause damage as they invade new cells. Some merozoites differentiate into sexual forms, undergo fertilization, and form oocysts. The oocysts are excreted in feces and can contaminate water or food, transmitting the parasite to new hosts. The life cycle takes about 7-14 days (Lendner & Dauschies, 2014).

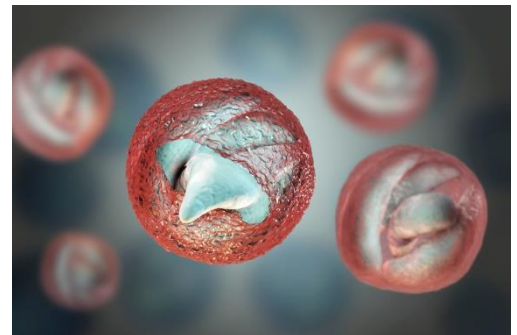


Figure 5 Illustration of *Cryptosporidium parvum* oocysts. Copyright © 2018 Kateryna Kon/Shutterstock

However, humans are only infected by a limited number of *Cryptosporidium* species, with *C. parvum* and *Cryptosporidium hominis* being the most found (Bouzig, 2014; Bouzig et al., 2013). These species are known for their remarkable resistance, primarily attributed to their environmentally durable oocysts, which can withstand most water disinfection procedures and endure in aquatic environments for several months (Adeyemo et al., 2019; Venczel et al., 1997). The oocysts possess a spherical shape with a diameter of 4 to 6 μm and exhibit a sturdy wall composition rich in complex polysaccharides (Jenkins et al., 2010; Rossle & Latif, 2013). Even a minimal ingestion of 30 *Cryptosporidium* oocysts can lead to the onset of profuse watery diarrhea, and the infection tends to be far more severe in individuals with compromised immune systems (Guerrant, 1997).

1.5 Protein structure

Proteins are complex molecules composed of amino acids that play important roles in cell structure, enzymatic reactions, transportation, immune defense, and numerous other biological processes (Sanvictores & Farci, 2023). By knowing the function of one protein in a specific organism, one can get an insight into possible similar functions of proteins in other organisms based on the identification of their consensus sequences and comparing their positions of motifs and domains (Schaeffer et al., 2016; Xiong, 2006).

1.5.1 Domains

A structural domain refers to a distinct component within a protein's overall structure, characterized by its stability and ability to fold independently from the rest of the protein chain (Wang et al., 2021). While many domains are not exclusive to the products of a single gene, they can be found in various proteins. Proteins that share multiple common domains are typically encoded by genes belonging to evolutionarily related families, known as gene families (Bergtrom, 2022).

The nomenclature of domains often derives from their significant biological functions within the proteins to which they belong. For example, a domain may be named after its prominent role, such as the cathepsin propeptide inhibitor domain (I29), or it may be named after its discoverer. Domains can include for example transmembrane domains and ligand-binding domains. The process of domain swapping is a natural genetic phenomenon that gives rise to the formation of gene families and superfamilies (Libretexts, 2021).

1.5.2 Motifs

Protein motifs are conserved regions within the three-dimensional structure or amino acid sequence of proteins that are shared among different proteins, but they are shorter than domains. They represent identifiable patterns within protein structures, which may or may not be determined by a distinctive chemical or biological function (Xiong, 2006). Examples of motifs are ERFNIN and GNDF which exhibit conservation within the cathepsin L sub-family of proteases belonging to the papain family. These motifs serve as crucial mediators of prodomain inhibitory activity (Pandey et al., 2009).

1.5.3 Virulence factors

The ability of an organism to infect the host and spread disease is described as virulence (Leitão, 2020). The chemicals known as virulence factors help the pathogen colonize the host at a cellular level (Brock et al., 2003). These microbial components can have a secretory, membrane-related, or cytosolic character (Sharma et al., 2017). Certain enzymes that are

considered virulence factors actively target and harm the host's components, leading to tissue damage and an environment contributing to microbial infections (Nash et al., 2015). Enzymes with virulence factors, such as proteases, neuraminidases, and phospholipases, cause cellular damage and break down substances into smaller components that microbes can use as nutrients (Zachary, 2017). Additionally, these enzymes modify the host's cellular receptors, disrupting the binding of their usual ligands like complement. This alteration affects microbial behavior, promoting invasiveness, serum resistance, and evasion of the host's immune system (Casadevall & Pirofski, 2009).

1.5.4 Proteases

Proteolytic enzymes, also known as proteases, play a vital role in degrading proteins and can be found in various organisms, including viruses, humans, animals, and plants (Razzaq et al., 2019). These enzymes have crucial functions in protein synthesis and turnover, allowing proteins to regulate biological processes (Mótyán et al., 2013). In the case of pathogens, proteases are essential for their biological processes and life cycles as they participate in the conversion of newly formed molecules into active forms and the inhibition of protein activity (Figaj et al., 2019). As a result, proteases hold significant relevance in the realm of medical and pharmacological research and development (Fairlie et al., 2000; Wlodawer, 2002). Similar types of proteases are used by infectious organisms like viruses, bacteria, and other parasites, and establish around 1% of their genomes. Once they are present in infected mammalian hosts, the proteases compete for host resources and work with cellular machinery to prolong infectivity (Tyndall et al., 2005). One strategy for battling infectious disease is to selectively suppress foreign proteases within host cells, which will slow the rate of reproduction of infectious organisms and help the body's immune system fight them off (Barrett, 2000). To avoid inhibiting highly similar host proteases necessary for normal host physiology, the goal of protease inhibitor design is to construct powerful inhibitors of the harming foreign or mammalian protease (Ranasinghe & McManus, 2017; Tyndall et al., 2005). This highlights their prevalence and importance in the context of infectious diseases. Furthermore, proteases find extensive use as enzymes in various fields of biotechnology and industry, and their function is required in numerous research applications. The versatility and widespread presence of proteases make them valuable tools for scientific investigations and practical applications alike (Mótyán et al., 2013). Proteases are categorized as exoproteases or endoproteases based on their cleavage location in proteins. Exoproteases, located at the N- and C-terminal ends, remove one amino acid at a time, stopping protein activity, while endoproteases cut internally near specific amino acids (van der Velden & Hulsmann, 1999).

Additionally, proteases help defensive mechanisms because they stimulate the immune system when they recognize peptide fragments of foreign proteins (López-Otín & Bond, 2008).

Cysteine proteases exhibit cytopathic effects on host cells and are regarded as virulence factors in various protozoan parasites (Yang et al., 2023). They play a significant role in differentiation, development, and pathogenicity (Puthia et al., 2005). Cysteine proteases are mostly found in the lysosomes and participate in phagocytosis, whose function is the removal and digesting of extracellular material in cells (Britannica, 2022). For the family C1 peptidases, the lysosomal system of eukaryotic cells and the digestive vacuoles of protozoa both benefit from proteolytic action (Rawlings, 2018).

1.5.5 Cysteine protease in *Blastocystis* spp.

Even though *Blastocystis* spp., was discovered a very long time ago and has been studied for many years, there is limited data on the pathogenic effects on the host cells. Several studies in the field of parasitology have given information on the signaling mechanisms triggered by cysteine proteases produced by *Blastocystis* (Ajjampur & Tan, 2016; Tan, 2008). The studies have explored the effect of cysteine proteases on mRNA expression of certain inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin (IL)-1 β and Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha (TNF- α), and their relationship with mitogen-activated protein kinases (Lim et al., 2014). Pathogenicity of different subtypes varies, and several studies have revealed that ST7 exhibits significantly higher cysteine protease activity when compared to ST4 (Mirza & Tan, 2009; Wu et al., 2014). Furthermore, another recent study investigated the molecular mechanisms by which *Blastocystis* activates IL-8 gene expression in human colonic epithelial cells. In the context of the mentioned study, cysteine proteases derived from a zoonotic isolate *Blastocystis ratti* WR1 (ST4) were shown to activate IL-8 gene expression where it was also identified the involvement of NF κ B activation in the production of IL-8 (Puthia et al., 2008). *Blastocystis* ST7 has also shown greater resistance to both anti-parasitic drugs and the host's innate immune response compared to ST4 (Mirza et al., 2011; Yason et al., 2016; Yason et al., 2018)

1.5.6 Cysteine protease in *Giardia intestinalis*

Studies conducted on *Giardia intestinalis* have revealed that cathepsins possess the ability to dampen a specific aspect of the proinflammatory response elicited by the host, which is initiated by an independent proinflammatory stimulus (Cotton et al., 2014). Cathepsin B (catB) belongs to the papain family of lysosomal cysteine proteases (Cavallo-Medved et al., 2011). Its role includes intracellular protein degradation. However, under specific

circumstances, it might participate in various physiological processes, including antigen processing in immune responses, hormone activation, and regulation of bone turnover (Mort & Buttle, 1997). Research has shown results that suggest initiating apoptosis, CPs in *G. intestinalis* also affect the permeability of the intestinal epithelial barrier of the host, leading to its harm (Cotton et al., 2014; Liu, 2019). Additionally, it was established that these modifications may be mediated by caspase-3 (A. C. Chin et al., 2002). Research has also indicated that CPs in *Giardia*, through rearranged junctional proteins and chemokine degradation, may disrupt intestinal epithelial barriers and modulate the immune response. (Liu, 2018). Cysteine proteases exhibit the presence of a catalytic dyad composed of active-site cysteine (Cys) and histidine (His) residues, but also as a catalytic triad including the active site of an asparagine (Asn) (Drag, 2013; Kermasha & Eskin, 2021). CatB proteases can also have an additional segment called the occluding loop, which consists of 20 amino acids and makes it unique compared to other cysteine cathepsins (Illy et al., 1997; Renko et al., 2010).

1.5.7 Cysteine protease in *Entamoeba histolytica*

Cysteine proteinases serve as an important component in the virulence of *E. histolytica* (referred to as EhCPs), contributing to several roles in infection and invasion (Betanzos et al., 2019). *E. histolytica*'s genome has 80 genes that code for proteases, including 50 CPs from the papain superfamily (He, 2010). Among these genes, research has observed that the main cysteine proteases in *E. histolytica*, EhCP1, EhCP2, EhCP5, and EhCP7 are strongly expressed in *E. histolytica* exhibit the highest level of up-regulation and play a critical role as virulence factors (Irmer et al., 2009). Through their capacity to break down extracellular matrix proteins as well as mucin 2, the main component of colon mucus, CPs have a direct role in tissue invasion (Que & Reed, 2000; Thibeaux et al., 2014). By weakening host antibodies and complement, they are crucial for immunological evasion (Faust & Guillen, 2012). The most likely candidate among the *E. histolytica* CPs implicated in the pathogenic process is EhCP5, given that it is specific to the parasite, localizes at the amoebic surface, and participates in human colon invasion (Ankri et al., 1999). The propeptide region of EhCP5 has an RGD integrin-binding motif (Arg-Gly-Asp), which has also been discovered in the proregion of cathepsin X from higher eukaryotes (Lechner et al., 2006). RGD motifs act as ligand recognition sites for cell surface receptors like the integrins in cell adhesion proteins like fibronectin (Marquay Markiewicz et al., 2011). EhCP2 is a membrane-associated cysteine protease and has the structure of cathepsin L (Que et al., 2002). Phagocytosis results in the passive release of EhCP1, EhCP2, and EhCP5. Given that the release of all these three

proteinases was increased when EhRab11B was overexpressed, this release is most likely a component of the recently identified EhRab11B-associated secretory pathway (Meléndez-López et al., 2007).

The various and important roles of cysteine proteases during infections include helping the attachment of the pathogen, degradation of the tissue structure, breaking down host proteins to evade the immune system, activating proteolytic processes in host cells, and assisting the spread of infection to produce new infection sites (Cuellar et al., 2017; He, 2010; Que & Reed, 2000). The cysteine proteases evade the host immune response by cleaving secretory immunoglobulin A (sIgA), and immunoglobulin G (IgG) , and activating complement mechanisms (Que & Reed, 2000).

1.5.8 Cysteine protease in *Cryptosporidium parvum*

There are about 20 genes that encode clan CA CPs (papain-like cysteine proteases) in *C. parvum* Iowa strain, where 3 of them are cathepsin L-like and 2 are cathepsin B-like members from the C1 family, collectively referred to as "Cryptopains" (Abrahamsen et al., 2004). The cysteine protease functions in *C. parvum* have been detected in various developmental phases, potentially playing a role in the parasite's excystation and invasion of host cells. Cryptopain-1 shares structural characteristics with enzymes from the papain family, specifically cathepsin L-like enzymes, and has been shown to have virulent functions (Na et al., 2009). This area of virulence factors in *C. parvum* has not received extensive research attention and requires further investigation to gain a deeper understanding.

1.6 Virulence factors

The genes studied in this project all fall under the category of papain-like proteases (PLP), displaying both structural and enzymatic similarities with papain. Papain-like proteases possess a shared catalytic dyad active site, characterized by a cysteine amino acid residue that functions as a nucleophile (Novinec & Lenarčič, 2013). The prodomain of eukaryotic cathepsins possesses the following two distinct and well-defined functions. Firstly, to preserve the enzyme in an inactive form (zymogen) until it reaches the appropriate site for protease activity, and secondly to serve as a structural template that ensures proper folding during translation (Coulombe et al., 1996).

1.6.1 Cathepsin B in *Giardia intestinalis*

Exposure of trophozoites to host-derived soluble factors (HSF) has been shown to up-regulate the expression of the cysteine protease like CatB (GL50803_16779) as studied as a virulence factor in this project (Argüello-García & Ortega-Pierres, 2021; Emery et al., 2016). Research has revealed that catB degrades the proinflammatory secretion of CXCL8 (C-X-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 8) from intestinal epithelial cells when exposed to proinflammatory stimuli derived from either the host or pathogens. Additionally, the degradation of CXCL8 leads to a reduction in CXCL8-induced chemotaxis of polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs) (Cotton et al., 2014).

The expression of catB, along with cystatin, an inhibitor of cathepsin proteases, is increased in the presence of released host factors (Emery et al., 2016). Cystatins have been observed to regulate the host immune response in parasitic nematodes, suggesting their potential involvement in controlling host defenses (Ochieng & Chaudhuri, 2010). Figure 6 shows the structure of a cystatin and the binding to a cysteine protease.

Furthermore, cystatins may also act as internal regulators of parasite cathepsins (Khatri et al., 2020). Remarkably, the *Giardia* cystatin exhibits a phylogenetically simple nature compared to eukaryotic cystatins and shows a closer resemblance to bacterial counterparts (Emery et al., 2016).

Cathepsin B has been identified as a virulence factor in *Blastocystis* ST7. Studies have demonstrated an improved paracellular permeability of intestinal Caco-2 cell monolayers in response to this discovery (Nourrisson et al., 2016). No research has been documented for CatB in *Blastocystis* ST4, making it interesting to compare it with Cathepsin B from *G. intestinalis* and *Blastocystis* ST7.

1.6.2 Cysteine proteinase 2 and 5 in *Entamoeba histolytica*

The virulence factors studied in this project from *Entamoeba histolytica* are EhCP2 and EhCP5. Both have been demonstrated through research to promote invasion and virulence, initiating a pro-inflammatory response in macrophages, breaking down tight junctions as well as degrading extracellular matrix components like fibronectin, collagen, and laminin (Espinosa-Cantellano & Martínez-Palomo, 2000; Siqueira-Neto et al., 2018). From a study of

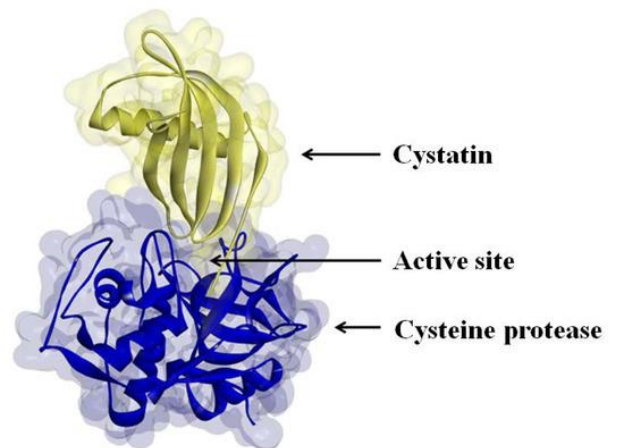


Figure 6 Structure of cysteine protease and its inhibitor cystatin binding to its active site (Vorster et al., 2013).

E. histolytica, researchers discovered that EhCP2 is expressed at high levels and is actively incorporated into phagocytic vesicles (Bruchhaus et al., 2003; Que et al., 2003).

EhCP2 has also been shown to be accountable for cleaving CXCL8 into a more potent isoform that intensifies PMN chemotaxis which can damage host tissues (Junger, 2008; Pertuz Belloso et al., 2004). However, the overexpression of EhCP2 led to a significant increase in the destruction of *in vitro* monolayers (Hellberg et al., 2001). These findings support the important role of these molecules in initiating cell damage caused by *E. histolytica*.

EhCP5 includes roles such as actively breaking down the colon's protective mucin barrier, facilitating tissue invasion through the degradation of extracellular matrix proteins, and serving as a pivotal player in immune evasion by breaking down host antibodies and complement factors (Hou et al., 2010). From a previous study on *E. histolytica* in mice, it was observed that EhCP5 has an impact on proinflammatory responses and the modification of tight junction permeability (Kissoon-Singh et al., 2013). They also found that the data further indicates that changes in intestinal permeability in the absence of direct contact are mediated primarily by the virulence factor EhCP5, which is secreted by live parasites.

Research done on a cysteine proteinase-deficient amoeba showed unsuccessful induction of intestinal epithelial cell production of the inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and IL-8 and also caused significantly less gut inflammation and damage to the intestinal permeability barrier (Zhang et al., 2000). These studies suggest that the acute host response and amebic invasion result from a complex interaction of parasite virulence factors and host defenses.

1.6.3 Cryptopain-1 in *Cryptosporidium*

From two studies (Na et al., 2009; Siqueira-Neto et al., 2018) cryptopain-1 was assumed to be a virulence factor with a suggested factor in host cell invasion and is used in this study to compare with *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4. In comparison to cathepsin L-like cysteine proteases, cryptopain-1 possesses distinctive structural and biochemical characteristics. Notably, it does not require a pro-domain for proper folding, setting it apart from related enzymes (Na et al., 2009). The selective breakdown of collagen and fibronectin suggests that cryptopain-1 likely has a biological function in facilitating the invasion and release of the parasite from host cells (Argüello-García et al., 2023).

Cryptopain-1 displays unique characteristics that distinguish it from typical papain-family enzymes. These include an extensive pro-domain, a transmembrane domain near the beginning of the protein, and unique insertions at the start of the mature domain sequence

(Argüello-García et al., 2023; Na et al., 2009). In contrast, conventional papain-family cysteine proteases share similar structural properties, consisting of a signal peptide, a pro-peptide, and a catalytic domain that represents an active form of the enzyme (Faheem et al., 2016). Figure 7 shows a model of the protein taken from the mentioned study by Argüello-García et al. (2023). Although the enzymes' pro-domain sequences have greater variability than the mature domain, specific regions within the pro-domain (ERFNIN and GNFD motifs) show relatively high conservation. These motifs play a significant role in these enzymes' processing and folding mechanisms (Na et al., 2009).

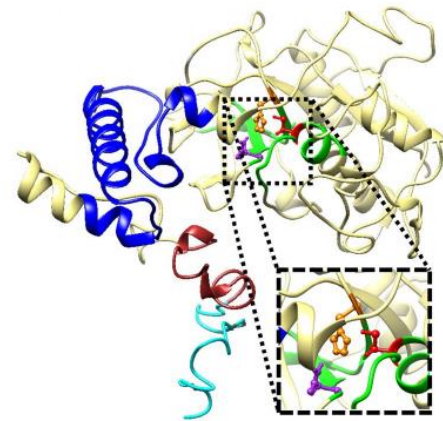


Figure 7 Protein model of Cryptopain-1. The catalytic triad Cys-His-Asn is displayed in ball-and-stick conformation and is magnified within dotted squares. From analyses, Cryptopain-1 are predicted to be membrane anchored (Argüello-García et al., 2023).

1.7 Bioinformatics

1.7.1 NCBI

The National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) is an integral component of the United States National Library of Medicine (NLM) and plays a pivotal role in the realm of molecular biology. As a significant resource for researchers and scientists, the NCBI offers an extensive collection of databases, tools, and resources that are indispensable for investigating, accessing, and analyzing biological information and are frequently used in this study.

1.7.2 Databases

The GenBank database, which acts as a huge compilation of publicly accessible DNA sequences collected from various organisms, is one of the NCBI's main services. This comprehensive collection enables researchers to study genetic information, trace evolutionary relationships, and gain insights into various biological processes. Additionally, the NCBI provides access to databases like PubMed, which contains a wealth of biomedical literature, and the Protein Database (PDB), which houses three-dimensional structures of proteins. The NCBI's suite of tools includes the widely used BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool, <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>), which enables researchers to perform sequence similarity searches, helping in the identification of genes, proteins, and other biological molecules (McGinnis & Madden, 2004).

The online database MEROPS (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/merops/index.shtml>) can be used to find information about proteases (Rawlings, 2018). SMART (Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool) is a database (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/>) used to identify and annotate genetic mobile protein domains and analyze protein domain architectures (Letunic I & Bork.). MEGA (Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis) is a software offering many tools, including sequence alignment and the ability to create phylogenetic trees (Tamura K, 2021).

2 Methods

2.1 Bioinformatic part

2.1.1 Collecting relevant genes

Virulence factors from specific organisms were found in research and articles from PMC (PubMed Central) and other online websites. NCBI is used to access information about genes and sequences. GenBank was used to identify both protein and genomic sequences of interest as well as to retrieve the sequences in a FASTA format (NCBI, n.d.). These sequences were chosen from *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica*, and *Cryptosporidium parvum* for additional examination and comparison with the organisms of interest; *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4.

2.1.2 Search for proteins in other organisms

The protein sequence of interest was put in a BLAST search (Altschul et al., 1990), to determine if present in the *Blastocystis* genome. To accomplish this, the "tblasn" tool, which performs a search by translating the protein sequence into nucleotides, was utilized. The search is specifically directed towards the organism *Blastocystis* (taxid: 12967) to exclusively identify proteins within that particular organism. Upon obtaining potential matches, the subsequent phase entails analyzing the results using the expected value (e-value), also referred to as the false-positive rate, as well as the query score. A lower e-value signifies a greater degree of similarity between the proteins. The threshold for the e-value is established at 10. The query cover measures the proportion of the query sequence that overlaps the reference sequence. For the initial triage, a high query cover value is between 70% and 80%. Should a match meet the specified requirements, the corresponding encoded gene in *Blastocystis* is confirmed as the sought-after protein by cross-referencing the protein code and excluding *Blastocystis* from the search. This confirmation process ensures the accuracy of the identified protein of interest. The graphic summary of the search outcomes organizes the aligned sequences into distinct color-coded segments based on their alignment scores. Each bar corresponds to a segment of another sequence that exhibits similarity to the query sequence. A red bar signifies the highest degree of similarity (≥ 200), followed by pink indicating moderately good matches (80-200), green for less impressive matches (50-80), blue for the lowest scores (40-50), and finally, a black bar for poor hits (< 40).

The proteins of interest from the specific organisms were searched for in the other organism's genome as well as *Blastocystis* for comparison.

2.1.3 Identification of domains and signal peptides

To find domains, the SMART database was used (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/>). The protein sequence was put in search and with PFAM domains setting.

The online database SignalP 5.0 was used to determine signal peptides within the protein sequences. These short sequences at the N-terminal of proteins carry information for protein secretion and protein target location (Owji et al., 2018).

2.1.4 Identification of motifs and active sites

MEME database (<https://meme-suite.org/meme/tools/meme>) with a motif width of 8 and 15 residues respectively, and a maximum number of 15 motifs, keeping the rest of the parameters at default. To determine active sites, present in the protein structure, the protein database ScanProsite was used (<https://prosite.expasy.org/>). The sequence of interest was put in the search and active sites as well as other motifs were found.

2.1.5 Sequence alignment and phylogenetic tree

All protein accession codes for each protein search were put together in MEGA to look for conserved regions and to perform sequence alignment with MUSCLE. Then, the program BioEdit (Hall, 1999) was used to edit the sequences.

To determine the evolutionary relationships within the proteins of interest, molecular sequences were analyzed using an online platform phylogeny.fr (Dereeper et al., 2008). Firstly, various organisms were selected from the outcomes of the BLAST searches conducted for each protein from *G. intestinalis*, *E. histolytica*, and *C. parvum*. Targeted searches were performed within specific kingdoms to discover their relationships, enabling a comparison of the organisms identified in specific and nonspecific hits. The chosen proteins were exported in FASTA formats, and a phylogenetic tree was constructed in phylogeny.fr with the mode “One click”. Furthermore, the trees were edited using the online tool iTOL (Letunic & Bork, 2021) and colors were modified in the program Adobe Acrobat.

2.1.6 Vector Construction

The vectors utilized in the molecular part of this study were built and optimized by PhD candidate Mitchellrey Toleco. Three vectors were constructed: pMRT ω , pMRT τ , and pMRT ϕ . The idea was to first clone each promoter into vector pMRT ω , and the terminator into vector pMRT τ . If both are successful, then the final cloning into pMRT ϕ with both

promoter and corresponding terminator.

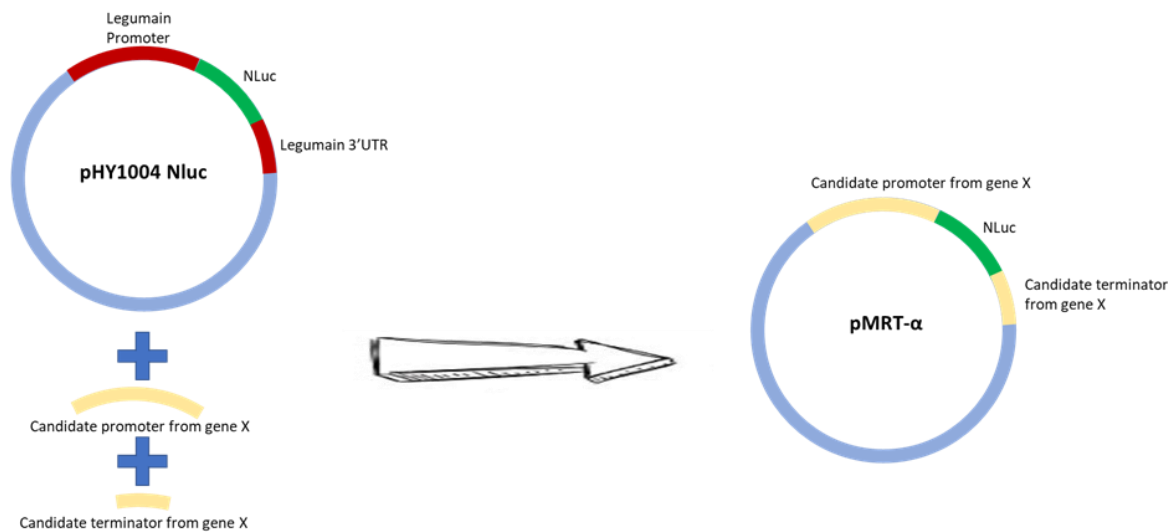


Figure 8 Illustration of the vector constructed for cloning of genes.

The software Benchling (<https://www.benchling.com/>) was used to create both promoters and terminators for the genes. For gene 60SRPL32, the promoters of the two fragments 1000 and 1295, and one terminator were made. For the PC1A gene, there were promoters consisting of three fragments: 643, 1263, and 2207, and terminator. Further primers and oligo bridges needed to build these vectors in the lab were also created in Benchling and ordered from Thermo Fischer.

When designing primers, it is important to follow some essential rules and guidelines focusing on considerations such as primer length, melting temperature, and specificity, amongst other important factors to succeed. The length of the primer should be around 18-24 nucleotides (Addgene, n.d.). Shorter primers could lack specificity, while longer primers may have reduced annealing efficiency (ThermoFisher, 2019). The melting temperature (T_m) is the temperature at which the DNA duplex formed by the primers and the target DNA separates, and should be 50-60 °C for each primer, and the coupled primers should have a range of ± 5 °C (Javed, 2022). The percentage of guanine (G) and cytosine (C) in primers is known as the GC content. Adenine (A) and thymine (T) form two hydrogen bonds, while GC base pairs form three hydrogen bonds when primers anneal to their target sequence. Since three hydrogen bonds are stronger than two, it takes more energy to separate G and C than A and C (Bera & Schaefer, 2005). The single DNA strands (ssDNA) will bind more firmly to the primer with a higher GC content, raising the T_m . Higher GC content can result in mismatches and the production of primer-dimers, which is the hybridization of two primers with each other, which could be problematic during PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) (Naz & Fatima,

2013). Therefore, aiming for a GC content of 40–60% to keep the stability and specificity (Kumar & Kaur, 2014). The start and the end of the primer should also contain 1-2 G/C pairs.

2.1.7 Sanger sequencing

The "chain termination method," often known as Sanger sequencing, is a widely used technique for determining the precise order of nucleotides (A, T, C, and G) in a DNA molecule (*Sanger Sequencing Steps and Method.*, n.d.). Sanger sequencing was used to confirm genomic sequences and is done automatically way by using a sequencing machine. All sequences in this study were sent to a company that performed this work for us. Each technique has three fundamental steps that are listed below in Figure 9.

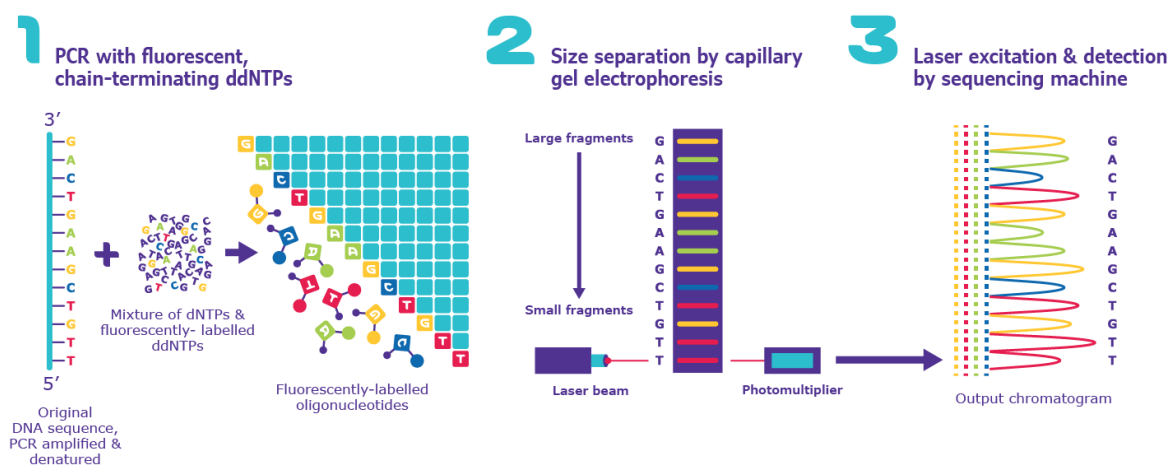


Figure 9 Method of Sanger sequencing in steps (*Sanger Sequencing Steps and Method.*, n.d.)

To check that the sequences being evaluated were correct, Benchling was used to align the sequences. Sequences could be worked on further if they had no or few mismatches.

2.2 Molecular part

2.2.1 Isolate promoters and terminators

Table 1 presents the genes used for the experimental part, the fragment version, forward primer (FP) and reverse primers (RP) employed, and the corresponding sizes for each fragment in the base pair.

Table 1 List of promoters and terminators for the genes PC1A and 60SRPL32. The primers used for each version are listed below with the forward primer (FP) and reverse primer (RP), and the size in base pair.

Gene	Version	FP	RP	Size, bp
PC1A	V643	134	130	643
PC1A	V1263	129	130	1263
PC1A	V2207	133	130	2207
PC1A	Terminator	135	136	500
60SRPL32	V1000	137	132	1000
60SRPL32	V1295	138	132	1295
60SRPL32	Terminator	139	131	500

Table 2 illustrates the PCR recipe, including all reagents utilized and their respective quantities in μl . The template that was used is genomic DNA from *Blastocystis* ST7.

Table 2 The PCR mix recipe uses Platinum buffer and polymerase. The total volume for each reaction is 50 μl .
*genomic DNA from *Blastocystis* ST7

Reagents	Amount (μl)
5x Platinum Buffer	10
10 μM FP	2.5
10 μM RP	2.5
10 μM dNTP's	1
Template*	1
DMSO	1.5
Platinum Polymerase	0.25
NFW	31.25
Total volume	50

The PCR program was set with the settings shown in Table 3. Each step has an optimized temperature and duration, where the steps of denaturation, annealing, and extension were repeated in 25-35 cycles. This depends on the length of the fragments.

Table 3 Program used for the PCR reaction with the temperature used for each step and the duration of each step. *Steps 2-4 were repeated 25-35 times depending on the length of the fragments.

PCR Program steps	Temperature (°C)	Time
Initial denaturation	98	10 sec
Denaturation*	98	10 sec
Annealing*	72	30 sec
Extension*	72	2 min
Final extension	60	10 min
Hold	12	∞

2.2.2 Agarose gel electrophoresis

Agarose gel was prepared with a ratio of 1 g agarose per 100 ml 1 x TAE buffer in reagent bottles. GelRed (10000X) was added for bands to visualize in the gel. In a 500 ml reagent bottle of agarose gel, 5 µl of GelRed was added. This was heated until the agarose was completely dissolved and poured into the cast until set. The gel ran for approximately 40 minutes at 110V (Volt) before confirming bands in UV light.

2.2.3 Cloning of genetic constructs

For assembly and transformation, NEBuilder HiFi Assembly was used. The calculation of the assembly mix is to first find the mass (ng) with a pmol of 0.05.

$$\text{moles of dsDNA} \times \left(\text{length (bp) of dsDNA} \times \frac{617.96 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}}{\text{bp}} \right) + 36.04 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}$$

Where 617.96 g/mol/bp is the average molecular weight of a base pair and 36.04 g/mol are the two -OH and two -H added back to the ends. These are both constant values.

Then the volume (µl) was determined from the DNA concentration (ng/µl) and mass (ng).

DNA concentration used is 30-50 ng.

$$\frac{\text{Mass (g)}}{[\text{DNA}] \left(\frac{\text{ng}}{\mu\text{l}} \right)}$$

This is calculated for the insert (promoter/terminator) and the backbone (Φ and τ). All the calculated volumes are summed together (DNA, backbone, and ssOB mix), and the total amount will be the same for the NEB buffer. When the assembly is performed for more than 4 fragments, the recommendations of 1-hour incubation, which was utilized.

For transformation, competent *E. coli* cells were used. Assembly product was mixed with the competent *E. coli* cells, chilled on ice before heat shocked at 42 °C and put on ice again. Then 150 μ l was spread and incubated on agar plates with ampicillin. The remaining product was spun down and spread on a separate plate to grow plates with both high and low concentrations. Plates were incubated overnight at 37 °C.

After overnight incubation, 20-30 colonies were picked on the agar plates, half from each transformation plate, for each construct assembly and screened by colony-PCR (cPCR) using DreamTaq Green Master mix (5X) and with the recipe and settings shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Colony PCR recipe with a total volume of 15 μ l. The colony is taken from an agar plate put in a PCR tube and resuspended with a pipette tip.

Reagents	Amount (μ l)
5x DreamTaq Buffer	1.5
10 μ M FP	0.2
10 μ M RP	0.2
10 μ M dNTP's	0.15
Colony	-
DreamTaq Polymerase	0.15
NFW	12.8
Total volume	15

The program used for colony PCR is slightly different from the PCR of the fragments. The parameters for each stage are shown in Table 5, along with the temperature and time.

Table 5 Overview of colony PCR program with temperature and duration of each step involved. *Steps 2-4 were repeated 28 times.

PCR Program steps	Temperature (°C)	Time
Initial denaturation	95	5 min
Denaturation*	95	30 sec
Annealing*	55	30 sec

Extension*	72	45 sec
Final extension	72	5 min
Hold	12	∞

To confirm the correct sizes of constructs and quality, gel electrophoresis was used on cPCR products. GelRed was mixed with 1% agarose gel and run at 100V for approximately 40 minutes. Generuler DNA Ladder Mix was used to verify the length of the bands.

2.2.4 Plasmid purification miniprep

To confirm the presence of the colony, gel electrophoresis was performed on the product obtained from the cPCR. Subsequently, purification of the colony was carried out before its verification using Sanger sequencing for a second confirmation. Purification was performed by using a kit from Qiagen (QIAGEN®, 2021). The initial step involved the preparation of cells by selecting a colony from an agar plate and transferring it to 5 ml of LB (Lysogeny Broth) containing the antibiotic ampicillin. The mixture was then subjected to overnight shaking at 300 rpm and maintained at a temperature of 37 °C. Following the overnight incubation, the cell culture was harvested by centrifugation at maximum speed (approximately 13 rpm) for 1 minute. The resulting pellet was subsequently dried on the laboratory bench and then resuspended in 300 µl of Buffer P1. Afterward, Buffer P2 was added by gently inverting the tube 4-6 times, and the mixture was allowed to incubate at room temperature for 5 minutes. Buffer P3 was added and mixed immediately by inverting and then incubated on ice for 5 min for a white fluffy consistency. Subsequently, the mixture was centrifuged at maximum speed for 10 minutes to obtain a clear supernatant. A column with a mixture was then put into the tube and 1000 µl QBT was added and flowed through by gravity. After that, the supernatant was added and entered through the column by gravity flow before washed with 2000 µl Buffer QC and repeating the washing. DNA was eluted with 800 µl Buffer QF.

2.2.5 Nanodrop protocol

To measure the concentration of the DNA samples, NanoDrop (NanoDrop One, Thermo Scientific) was used. To prepare the instrument, the cleaning of the pedestal was done thoroughly by applying UltraPure water and then gently wiping it off with filter paper (lint-free, VWR). Blank was set with the buffer used.

2.2.6 Plasmid purification maxiprep

The experimental protocol employed in this study follows the same principle as the mini prep, to obtain higher concentrations achieved by utilizing larger volumes in the maxiprep. The kit employed was Zymopure (ZymoResearch, 2022). To accommodate the increased volumes and enhance efficiency, a vacuum manifold was used.

The initial step involves preparing the cells through cell cultivation. A small culture of 5 ml LB mixed with ampicillin was prepared in test tubes. A clone was then selected from an agar plate using a pipette tip and transferred into the broth. Following an incubation period of 12-14 hours at 37 °C and 250 rpm, 200 µl of the small culture containing the grown bacteria was transferred to an Erlenmeyer flask containing prepared LB with ampicillin (100 ml). Subsequently, the large culture was incubated overnight in a shaker at 37 °C at 250 rpm. To harvest the cells, centrifugation was performed at 7000 rpm for 10 minutes.

2.2.7 Storage of samples

To ensure the prolonged preservation of bacterial cultures, glycerol stock was utilized as a secure storage method to sustain the viability and shelf life of bacterial cells. The inclusion of glycerol plays a crucial role in stabilizing the frozen bacteria and prevents the degradation of their cell membranes, thereby ensuring their long-term storage (Schaudien et al., 2007). Glycerol stocks can be safely maintained at -80 °C for numerous years. To prepare the glycerol stock, 50% sterile glycerol was used. Single colonies of confirmed clones were selected for each stock and incubated in 800 µl of LB overnight at 37 °C. The following day, the bacterial culture was mixed with 800 µl of glycerol, inverted 5-10 times to ensure thorough mixing, and subsequently stored at -80 °C. Ensuring the growth of the stock is crucial, and this can be achieved by transferring a sterile loopful of the stock onto an agar plate for incubation.

2.2.8 Cell strain and culture

Culturing cells of *Blastocystis* can be a challenging task due to the organism's anaerobic nature, and they can easily perish if their specific requirements are not met. However, a commonly followed procedure involves reducing the cells in Iscove's modified Dulbecco's medium (IMDM) with 10% horse serum at 37 °C under anaerobic conditions. Alternatively, calf serum can also be used as a supplement. To maintain the culture in an anaerobic environment, oxic jars equipped with sachets to generate anaerobic gas are employed. This creates an atmosphere with less than 1% oxygen and an appropriate level of carbon dioxide, which is ideal for the growth of anaerobic organisms (Ho et al., 1993; Zhang et al., 2012).

Once the *Blastocystis* cells have reached the log phase of growth, they are harvested through centrifugation at 1000 g for 10 minutes at room temperature. Before transfection, it is essential to wash the cells with a pre-reduced incomplete cytomix buffer and then resuspend them in a pre-reduced complete cytomix. To assess the electropore-forming rate, the cells are stained with 5 µg/ml of the cell-impermeable dye propidium iodide (PI). This staining method helps determine the efficiency of electroporation. By utilizing a cytomix buffer, chemically permeabilized cells can be effectively maintained with an ionic composition like that found in intracellular cells.

2.2.9 Cell transfection

Although not many *Blastocystis* transformations have been carried out, a successful method developed and made public by Kevin Tan (University of Singapore) is noteworthy (Li et al., 2019). The transfection was employed with *Blastocystis* isolate ST7. The method was not pursued in this study for unfortunate reasons, but a description serves to provide an understanding of its potential application and relevance.

Blastocystis cells mixed with 25 µg of plasmid DNA in a 0.4 cm transfection cuvette to introduce plasmid DNA into the *Blastocystis* cells, is a technique called electroporation can be employed using a Bio-Rad Gene Pulser system. Electroporation involves the application of an electric pulse to create temporary pores in the cell membrane, allowing the plasmid DNA to enter the *Blastocystis* cells. By subjecting the mixture to a single pulse of electricity, the plasmid DNA was delivered into the *Blastocystis* cells, facilitating genetic modification or analysis.

The optimal settings are determined from the article to be 370 V and 30 ms (time constant). With these settings, an electropore-forming rate of 94.3% and a survival rate of 9.4% was found. As *Blastocystis* cells are large, a recommendation of low voltage is more likely to be successful. The optimal number of cells used for each transfection is 2×10^7 , and if increased, there could be an increased probability of arcing. Using 10^8 cells, 370 V and 20 ms showed results with ideal transfection efficiency (Li et al., 2019). If there are more cells, the electroporation time should be decreased. The ideal transfection program for two different cell counts is shown in Table 6, from the study developed by Tan (2019).

Table 6 Program for an optimal cell transfection with 2×10^7 and 2×10^8 cells developed by Kevin Tan (Li et al., 2019).

Cells for transfection	Plasmid DNA	Voltage, V	The time constant, ms
2×10^7	25 μ g	370	30
10^8	100 μ g	370	20

After the transfection procedure, cells can be enumerated by using a hemocytometer under fluorescence microscopy.

The percentage of positive PI (propidium iodide) cells post-transfection needs to be calculated, and to determine the survival rate, similar batches of cells without PI staining are also subjected to electroporation and stained with PI after 12 hours' incubation to allow membrane sealing. The PI-negative cells are to be counted and the survival rates are to be calculated. The hypothesis is that cells survive electrotransfection more in a cytomix rather than in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), or culture medium as these media contain ions at concentrations that are harmful to the cells. Both transfection and cell survival showed a higher rate in cytomix (lowest in PBS) at 500 μ F efficiency from the successful transfection. After electroporation, cells need to be transferred to a fresh pre-reduced culture medium and kept at 37 °C anaerobically for 12-16 h.

2.2.10 Nanoluc luciferase assay

To conduct a Nanoluc luciferase assay, the first step involves preparing a cell lysate by collecting and processing the cells. The following method can be employed for this procedure. Initially, the cells need to be gathered and prepared for lysis. To accomplish this, 1 x Luciferase Cell Culture Lysis reagent can be utilized, consisting of 25 mM Trisphosphate (pH 7.8), 2 mM DTT, 2 mM 1,2-diaminocyclohexane-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid, 10% glycerol, and 1% Triton X-100. The cells go through lysis in this solution to release their contents.

After cell lysis, the resulting cell lysate is combined with an equal volume of Nano-Glo Luciferase Assay reagents. This mixture facilitated the detection and quantification of luciferase activity, a key component of the experiment. Subsequently, the relative luminescence units (RLU), indicative of luciferase activity, can be measured using the Hidex Sense multimode microplate reader (Hidex). This reader is employed for its ability to provide accurate and reliable readings.

By following these steps, one can collect the cells, lyse them, and measure the resulting luminescence, which enables the evaluation of the luciferase activity in the experiment.

2.2.11 Immunofluorescent microscopy

To experiment with immunofluorescent microscopy, *Blastocystis* cells can be subjected to the following procedure. Initially, the cells need to be washed and resuspended in PBS.

Subsequently, the cells can be fixed using a solution of 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS, at room temperature, for a time of 30 minutes. This fixation process is aimed at preserving the cellular structure and components.

2.2.12 Permeabilization and Blocking

Following the fixation, cells are permeabilized using 1% NP-40 to facilitate antibody penetration into the cells. To prevent non-specific binding, cells can then be blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin before antibody staining. This blocking step minimizes background signals and enhances the specificity of the subsequent antibody labeling.

2.2.13 Antibody Staining

The monoclonal anti-Ty55 antibody can be employed at a dilution of 1:100 to specifically label eGFP-Ty. Following primary antibody incubation, cells need to be subjected to staining with a secondary antibody, goat-anti-mouse IgG H&L, at a dilution of 1:2000. This secondary antibody can facilitate the detection and visualization of the primary antibody binding to the target of interest.

2.2.14 Microscopy and Imaging

Subsequently, the prepared cells can be placed onto slides and examined using an inverted microscope. The setup is important for precise observation and capturing of cellular images. Through the procedure, *Blastocystis* cells can be described to be appropriately prepared, fixed, stained with specific antibodies, and subsequently imaged under a microscope, enabling the visualization and analysis of the eGFP-Ty labeling in the cells.

3 Results and discussion

This section presents the results of the investigation into proven virulence factors within *G. intestinalis*, *E. histolytica*, and *C. parvum*, as well as a discussion of the findings. The results include the organisms mentioned as well as *Blastocystis* subtype 7 and subtype 4. Notably, the first protein presented (cathepsin B) will encompass the detail of the search outcomes, whereas the remaining protein's results are referred to in Appendix 1 and 2. Table 7 below presents an overview of the virulence factors examined in this study. Each factor is accompanied by a distinct label, the organism in which the virulence factor is identified, and the corresponding protein accession code found in NCBI.

Table 7 Overview of virulence factors originating from *G. intestinalis*, *E. histolytica*, and *C. parvum*, including details such as the specific virulence factor, corresponding protein accession code on NCBI, and associated label in this study.

Virulence factor	Organism	Protein accession	Label
cathepsin B	<i>Giardia intestinalis</i>	KAE8304515.1	GiP1
cysteine proteinase 2	<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	XP_650642.1	EhP2
cryptopain-1	<i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i>	ABA40395.1	CpP3
cysteine proteinase 5	<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	CAA62835.1	EhP4

The first protein, cathepsin B, the known virulence factor in *Giardia intestinalis* is searched for in the *Blastocystis* genome, and outcomes are shown in Figure 10 below.

Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	166	166	81%	1e-49	37.13%	978	XM_013044101.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	161	161	74%	1e-47	38.49%	970	XM_013044100.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis sp. ST4 peptidase C1A family protein mRNA	Blastocystis sp. subtype 4	156	156	74%	7e-46	38.31%	951	XM_014673561.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	144	144	80%	3e-41	33.21%	960	XM_013041339.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	123	221	86%	8e-32	31.06%	1694	XM_013040268.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Blastocystis sp. ST4 peptidase C1A family protein mRNA	Blastocystis sp. subtype 4	122	216	86%	2e-31	31.06%	1725	XM_014671296.1

Figure 10 Search results of cathepsin B from *G. intestinalis* in *Blastocystis* genome. Outcomes are found by using translated nucleotide BLAST search (tBLASTn) for both *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4. The query cover and e-value are both within the threshold.

Blastocystis ST7 had a query cover of 81% and an e-value of $1e^{-49}$, which aligns with the established threshold. *Blastocystis* ST4 had a query cover of 74%, which is still noted as a high score, and an e-value of $7e^{-46}$ which fills the requirements. A graphic summary of the

search outcomes from cathepsin B in *Blastocystis* (Figure 10) is shown in Figure 12 below. Pink bars denote solid matches with an alignment score between 80-200.

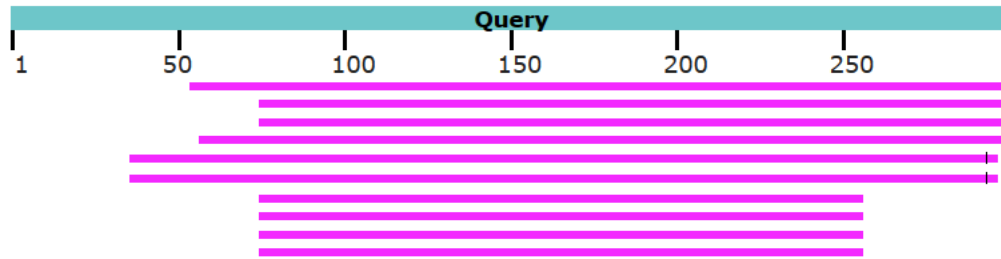


Figure 11 Graphic summary of results from tBLASTn search of cathepsin B from GiP1 in *Blastocystis* (Figure 10). Pink bars indicate solid matches.

Blastocystis ST7 displays a result linked to an uncharacterized protein. In the NCBI page from the search, the region of the uncharacterized protein is noted as “Cathepsin B group; composed of cathepsin B and similar proteins, including tubulointerstitial nephritis antigen (TIN-Ag)”. To ascertain the nature of *Blastocystis* ST7, its protein sequence also underwent investigation through reverse protein BLAST (BLASTp), with the exclusion of searches within the *Blastocystis* genome. The findings reveal a predominant presence of cathepsin B across various organisms. The resultant findings are illustrated in Figure 12.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B2 [Dermestes maculatus]	Dermestes maculatus	342	342	94%	7e-113	53.87%	381	UJP31642.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Parcxpwnx02 [Periplaneta americana]	Periplaneta americana	340	340	100%	1e-112	50.30%	343	AAW28820.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B-like [Parasteatoda tepidariorum]	Parasteatoda tepidariorum	335	335	100%	1e-110	47.60%	334	XP_042911940.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B [Astyanax mexicanus]	Astyanax mexicanus	334	334	93%	2e-110	53.95%	330	XP_007244714.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B [Argopecten irradians]	Argopecten irradians	333	333	100%	8e-110	47.79%	338	ANG56311.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> unnamed protein product [Adineta ricciae]	Adineta ricciae	333	333	98%	1e-109	50.31%	336	CAF1069301.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B-like [Gigantopelta aegis]	Gigantopelta aegis	332	332	99%	2e-109	47.79%	338	XP_041361383.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Cathepsin B [Araneus ventricosus]	Araneus ventricosus	333	333	94%	2e-109	50.49%	363	GBN46698.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> PREDICTED: cathepsin B-like [Paralichthys olivaceus]	Paralichthys olivaceus	332	332	96%	2e-109	50.31%	330	XP_019935873.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B-like [Melanotaenia boesemani]	Melanotaenia boesemani	331	331	98%	3e-109	50.00%	328	XP_041830948.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> cathepsin B precursor [Araneus ventricosus]	Araneus ventricosus	331	331	94%	4e-109	50.49%	334	AAP59456.1

Figure 12 The reverse BLASTp search results for the protein discovered in *Blastocystis* ST7 strongly indicate its identity as cathepsin B. A significant number of hits were found for the cathepsin B protein, enhancing the reliability of the discovery that the identified protein *Blastocystis* ST7 is indeed cathepsin B.

The graphic summary shown in Figure 13 presents the distribution of sequences from Figure 12, comparing the sequence of protein found in *Blastocystis* ST7 of known proteins in BLAST. The alignment scores of the sequences are denoted by red ($\text{red} \geq 200$), indicating a high degree of similarity.

Distribution of the top 100 Blast Hits on 100 subject sequences

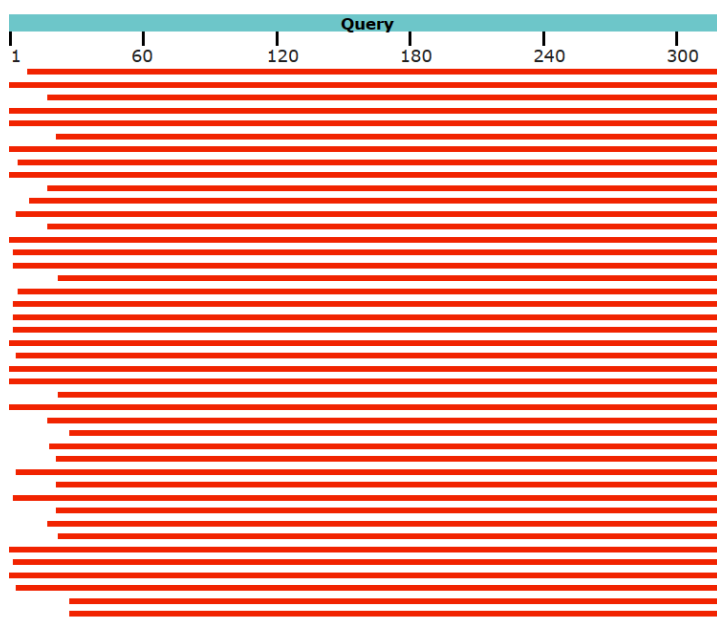


Figure 13 Illustration of the distribution resulting from the reverse BLASTp search for the protein identified in *Blastocystis* ST7 (excluding *Blastocystis* genome itself). This search mirrors the one conducted in Figure 12. The red color of the lines signifies strong alignment scores, indicative of favorable sequence matches.

Based on the results above, it is highly probable that the uncharacterized protein *Blastocystis* ST7 corresponds to the cathepsin B protein. In the case of *Blastocystis* ST4 results, the protein corresponds to the peptidase C1A family protein, and just like ST7, it is noted as Cathepsin B in NCBI. However, minor differences exist in the protein sequence.

The table below (Table 8) shows all outcomes from BLAST searches of the known virulence factors in *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 with the protein accession, the protein name in NCBI, and which virulence factor the protein found is retrieved using. As you can see, the virulence factors from EhP2 and CpP3 resulted in the finding of protein BsP2 ST7 and BsP2 ST4. Similarly, in EhP4, the protein BsP2 ST4 was identified in ST4.

Table 8 Summary of the identified outcomes regarding the known virulence factor cathepsin B (GiP1) from *G. intestinalis*, cysteine proteinase 2 (EhP2) and 5 (EhP4) from *E. histolytica*, and cryptopain-1 (CpP3) from *C. parvum*.

Label	Organism	Protein accession	NCBI protein	Retrieved using
BsP1 ST7	<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XP_012899555.1	uncharacterized protein	GiP1
BsP1 ST4	<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XP_014529047.1	peptidase C1A family protein	GiP1
BsP2 ST7	<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XP_012897923.1	uncharacterized protein	EhP2, CpP3
BsP2 ST4	<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	EhP2, CpP3, EhP4
BsP4 ST7	<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XP_012894811.1	uncharacterized protein	EhP4

All other search results from the other proteins can be found in Appendix 1. A detailed outcome of the BLAST analysis is accessible in Appendix 2, providing essential data such as e-values, query coverage, and protein lengths. The query coverage for most proteins exceeds 70%, except for a single instance of *Blastocystis* ST4 protein identified from EhP4, which exhibited a query coverage of 69%. This result falls just below the threshold. On the other hand, all protein results maintain e-values below the predetermined threshold.

3.1 Signal peptide

Signal peptides were found by using the online database SignalP 5.0 (Petersen et al., 2011). This is used to determine the presence of signal peptides and to find if the protein is likely to be targeted for secretion or membrane insertion, thereby providing crucial insights into its functional role within the cell (Owji et al., 2018). GiP1 was found to have a cleavage site located between positions 17 and 18 (ALT-VS) with a high likelihood of 0.9171. Meanwhile, BsP1 ST7 possesses a signal peptide with a cleavage site positioned between 15 and 16 (ALA-HP) and displays a probability of 0.9926. In the case of BsP1 ST4, it shares the same cleavage site position with a probability as high as 0.9942. Subsequently, these signal peptides were excised from the sequences to yield matured proteins. Results are shown in Figure 14.

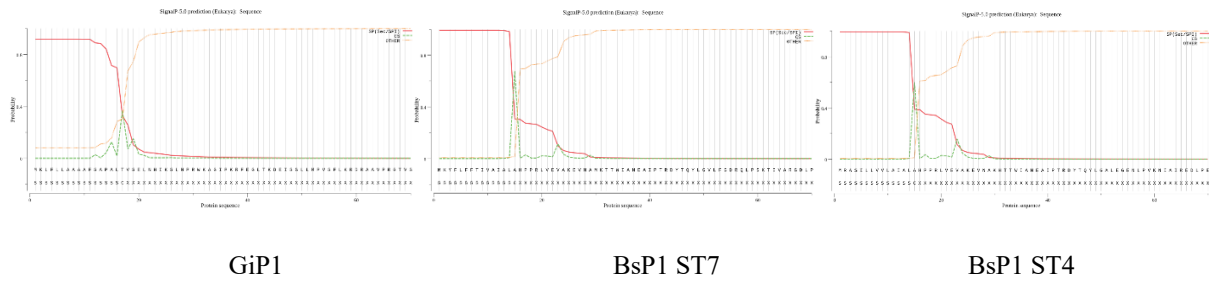


Figure 14 Figure of signal peptide analysis for protein Cathepsin B in *Giardia intestinalis*, *Blastocystis* ST7 and *Blastocystis* ST4. Results retrieved from the server of SignalP 5.0.

EhP2 has a signal peptide in between positions 13 and 14 (ASA-ID) with a likelihood of 0.9563, whereas CpP3 lacked any signal peptides. BsP2 ST7 has a likelihood of a signal peptide of 0.9946 with a cleavage site between positions 21 and 22 (SDA-YY). BsP2 ST4 has a signal peptide with a likelihood of 0.9681 with a cleavage site between positions 14 and 15 (ALS-VN). EhP4 exhibited a signal peptide likelihood of 0.7123, featuring a cleavage site between positions 13 and 14 (AYA-TN). In contrast, BsP4 ST7 displayed a signal peptide likelihood of 0.9691, with a cleavage site positioned between positions 16 and 17 (ATS-LR). Results from the signal peptide results are shown in Figure 15.

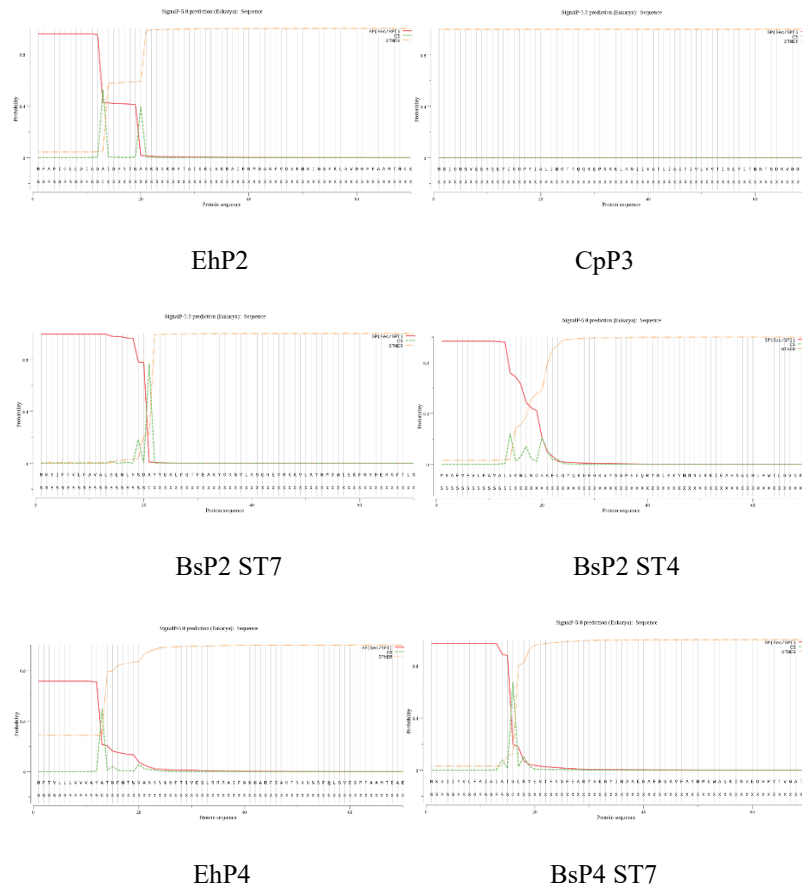


Figure 15 Figure of signal peptide analysis from virulence factors cysteine proteinase 2 (EhP2), cryptopain-1 (CpP3) and cysteine proteinase 5 (EhP4) and proteins of *Blastocystis* ST7 (BsP2 ST7 and BsP4 ST7) and *Blastocystis* ST4 (BsP2 ST4).

Apart from CpP3, all proteins contain signal peptides within their sequences. These peptides contain valuable information making them particularly significant for disease diagnosis and immunization research (Owji et al., 2018). Proteins lacking these signal peptides are usually enclosed in the cell's cytoplasm (Purves, 2003). In some cases, the signal peptide is cleaved off during translation or it is embedded into the endoplasmic reticulum membrane creating a transmembrane segment that anchors the protein to the membrane (Kapp et al., 2009).

3.2 Motifs and domains

The SMART database enables the identification of motifs and domains within a sequence of interest. The outcomes of the protein search for all virulence factors and protein results of *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4, in this database are described in Figure 16 below.

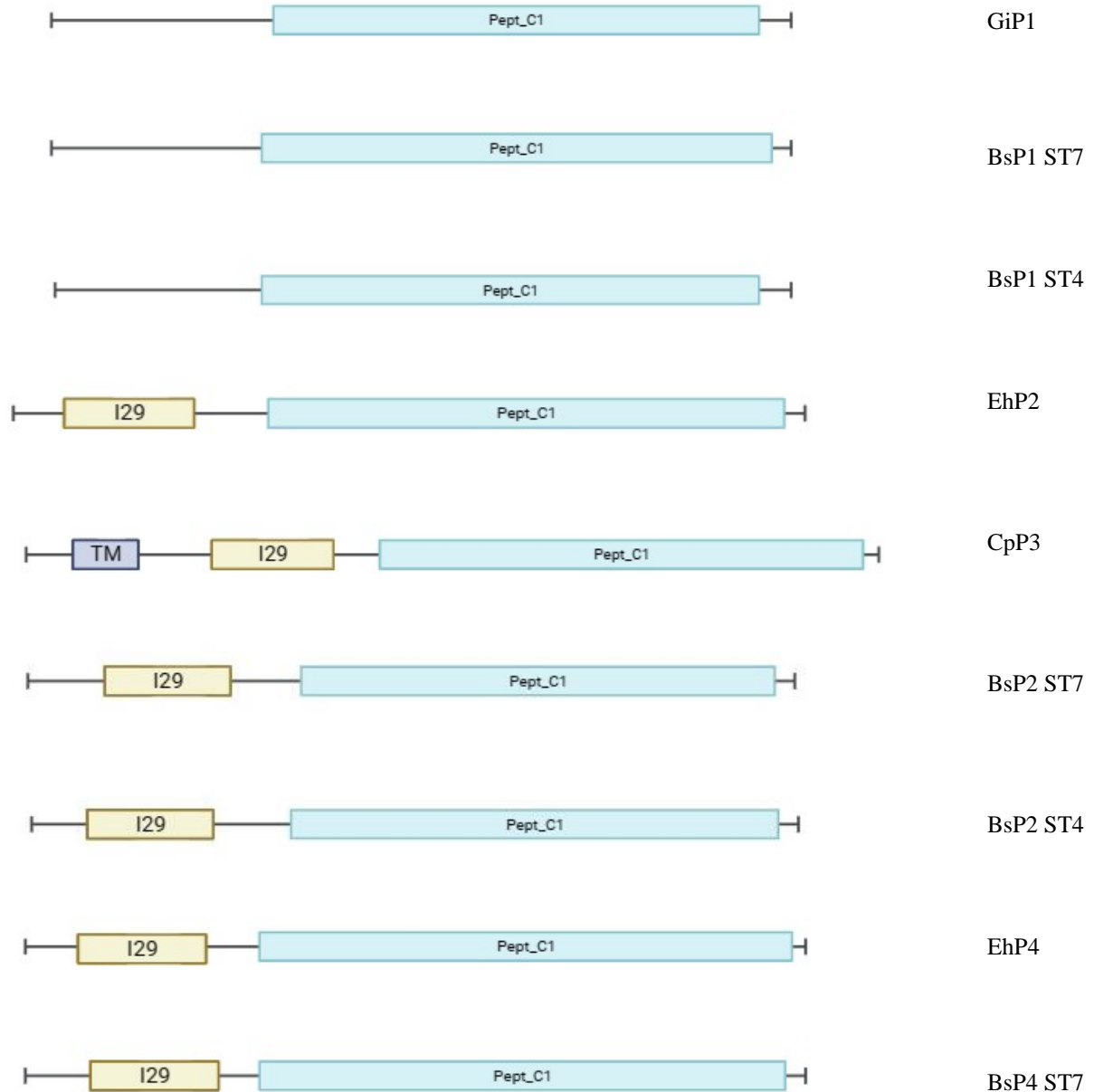


Figure 16 Illustration of SMART search of virulence factors from *G. intestinalis* (GiP1), *E. histolytica* (EhP2, EhP4), and *C. parvum* (CpP3). As well as proteins from *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4). All proteins identified encompass the peptidase C1 domain family (Pept_C1). Notably, *G. intestinalis* and its corresponding results for *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 proteins lack the inhibitor I29 region (indicated by the yellow box), a feature present in all other virulence factors and the *Blastocystis* proteins. Created with BioRender.com

The findings from the SMART analysis indicate that the cysteine peptidase family C1 domain is shared among all the organisms. All investigated proteins feature a region with a notation indicating possible catalytic inactivity in the SMART database. Although the known virulence factors are known to be causing virulence based on research, this might not necessarily apply to the proteins under analysis. The protein lengths remain consistent with a variation of ± 20 amino acids, with a few exceptions; *C. pavarum* was notably longer because it possesses a transmembrane region close to the amino terminus. If this transmembrane domain were cut, it would lead to greater similarity in the lengths of all sequences, as well as align the positions of the inhibitor I29 and Pept_C1 domains. EhP2 also had a longer sequence originally, a decision to shorten the protein sequence for the SMART search was made by cutting away the first part which consisted of low complexity regions and to make the Pept_C1 align with the other proteins compared.

3.3 Sequence alignment

A sequence alignment is conducted to compare the known virulence factors of *G. intestinalis*, *E. histolytica*, and *C. pavarum* with the proteins present in *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 (Figure 17). Active sites and motifs were found by a search in ScanProsite, detailed results of one search conducted in *Blastocystis* ST7 (BsP1 ST7) are shown in Appendix 1. Motifs that have a high probability of occurrence were applied in the scan, but just a selection of the outcomes are shown and discussed here. The figure displays color codes corresponding to the following sites: active sites (blue), QxVxG motif (green), CxxC motif (black), occluding loop (yellow line), RGD motif (orange box), cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation site (red), transmembrane domain (orange line), ERFNIN motif (grey), GNFD motif (pink), N-glycosylation site (brown) and amidation site (purple).

```

.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
          10          20          30          40          50
G1 P1 -----
BsP1 ST7 -----
BsP1 ST4 -----
Eh P2 -----
Cp P3 MDIGNNVEEH QEYISGPYIA LINGTQQRE PNKKLKNIIV ATLIAIFIVL
BsP2 ST7 -----
BsP2 ST4 -----
Eh P4 -----
BsP4 ST7 -----

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.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
          60          70          80          90         100
G1 P1 -----
BsP1 ST7 -----
BsP1 ST4 -----
Eh P2 -----
Cp P3 VVTISLYITN NTSDKVDDFS PGNSVDPTTK EYRKSFEFEK KKYHKIYASK
BsP2 ST7 -----
BsP2 ST4 -----
Eh P4 -----
BsP4 ST7 -----

```

```

.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
          110         120         130         140         150
G1 P1 -----
BsP1 ST7 -----
BsP1 ST4 -----
Eh P2 -----
Cp P3 EEEDRRFEIY KQNMNFIKIT NNQGFSYLLE MN-EFGDLSK EEFM-SRFT-
BsP2 ST7 -----
BsP2 ST4 -----
Eh P4 -----
BsP4 ST7 -----

```

```

.....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....|
          160          170          180          190          200
G1 P1      SFLKRDRRAAV PRGTVSATQA -----P DSFDFFREEYYP HC--IPEVVD
BsP1 ST7   GVLFGRDRLP  SKTIVARGDL -----P ESFDPVEKWP ECPSLKEIRD
BsP1 ST4   GALEGE-NLP  VKNIAIREDL -----P ESFDAAEQWP ECPSLKEIRD
Eh P2      ---KRTTEEN  GQVKYLNIAQA -----P ESVD----WR KEGKVTPIRD
Cp P3      GYRKDLDDNE  GRFKASRVSA IEFEEDEFAIP DSVN----WV EAGCVNPIRN
BsP2 ST7   GCMKKPLNHNK -QARVLNNMA -----V ESID----WR EKGAVTPVKN
BsP2 ST4   GCAKDPKSRA  GRVTPIYGDA -----P ERID----WR EKGAVTPVKD
Eh P4      KPFVIDKQHE  EIVYDSRGDV -----P ESVD----WR AKGKVPAIRD
BsP4 ST7   GCMLKPKMTK  P-ATPIMEPA -----A EAVD----WR EKGAVTPVKN

```

```

.....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....|
          210          220          230          240          250
G1 P1      QGGCGSCWAF  SSVASVGDRL CFAGLDKK-- -AVKYSPQYV VSC----DRG
BsP1 ST7   QSVCGSCWAF  GAAEAATDRL CIASKGKI-- -QDRLSEQDL LTCC---DSC
BsP1 ST4   QSVCGSCWAF  GAAEAATDRL CIASKGKV-- -QDRLSSEDL LTCC---DIC
Eh P2      QAQCGSCYTF  GSLAALEGRL LIEKGGDA-- NTLDLSEEHM VQCTR--DNG
Cp P3      QKNCGSCWAF  SAVAALEGAI CAQTNQGL-- --PSLSEQQL VDCSK--KNG
BsP2 ST7   QGSCGSCWAF  SATGALEGGN FVATGKLV-- ---SLSEQQL VDC----DTE
BsP2 ST4   QAACGSCWSF  STTGTVEGAY FIHSGKLV-- ---SLSEQQL VDCAREPKYQ
Eh P4      QASCGSCYSF  ASVAAIEGRL LVAGSKKFTV DDLDLSEQQL VDCSV--SVG
BsP4 ST7   QASCGSCWAF  SATGAMEGRN FVANGELI-- ---SLSEQQL VDC----DHQ

```

```

      .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....|
      260      270      280      290      300
G1 P1      D|MACDGGWLP SVWRF-LTKT GTTTDECVP- -----YQ-- -----
BsP1 ST7   GFGCDGGWLD MAWRW-FQST GVTGGEYGS KDWCNAYSFP KCEHHAEGKY
BsP1 ST4   GFGCQGGFPS SAWNW-FHTV GVTGGEYGS KDWCNAYAFA KCEHHSTGKY
Eh P2      NNGCNGGLGS NVYDY-IIIEH GVAKESDYP- -----YT-- -----
Cp P3      NFGCSGGTMG LAFQYAIKKN YLCTNDDYP- -----YY-- -----
BsP2 ST7   DAGCGGGFMD TAFEY-VMKK GLCTEEDYP- -----YH-- -----
BsP2 ST4   AEGCGGGWPW SVM DY-VSDH GLCTEEDYP- -----YH-- -----
Eh P4      NKGCNGGSL LSFY-VKLN GIMQEKDYP- -----YV-- -----
BsP4 ST7   SSGCGGGLMT YAFEY-AKKK GMCKEEDYP- -----YH-- -----

```

```

      .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....|
      310      320      330      340      350
G1 P1      --SGSTGARG TCPTKCADG- -----SDLPI YKATKAVDYG LDCDLIMKAL
BsP1 ST7   PPCGESQETP ECVKQCQEGY PVEYEKDKHF FGEAYYVQGG IDA--IKTEL
BsP1 ST4   PPCGETQDTP ECVTECQEGY PVS YENDKHF FEEGYSVRGI EA--IKTEL
Eh P2      -----GSDS TCKTNVK--- -----SFAKI TGYTKVPRNN EAE--LKAAL
Cp P3      -----AEE N|IC|RESLCENY -----VEVPV KAYRYVFP RN VNS--LKSAL
BsP2 ST7   -----AKDE DCKDDQCT-- -----SVISI TGYEDVPAND GVA--LKQAL
BsP2 ST4   -----AKDE DCKDDKCT-- -----VAVQS VGKVQLPQGD EES--LANAV
Eh P4      -----AAEE TCTYDKKK-- -----VAVKI TGQKLVPRGS EKA--LMRAA
BsP4 ST7   -----AVDE DCKDDKCT-- -----PVVFP KGYEEVPRFD GAA--LKQAV

```

```

      .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....| .....|.....|
      360      370      380      390      400
G1 P1      ATGGPLQTAF TVYS-DFMYE EGGVYQHTYG RVE---GGHA VEMVGYGTD-
BsP1 ST7   MTNGPLEVSF FVYE-DFLTY KSGIYQH VAG KYL---GGHA VKLVGWGVE-
BsP1 ST4   MTNGPMEVAF TVYE-DFMTY KSGIYQH V TG SRL---GGHA VKLVGWGVE-
Eh P2      SQ-GLVDVSI DASSAKFQLY KSGAYTDTKC KNNYFALNHE VCAVGYGVV-
Cp P3      ARYGPISVAI QADQTPFQFY KSGVFD-APC GTR---VNHG VVLVGYDIDE
BsP2 ST7   TK-APVSVAI QADSFVQMY TGGVLDSDMC GTS---LNHG VLAVGYAKE-
BsP2 ST4   AL-TPVSIVL DASA--MQLY KEGII--TKC SES---LNHG VLAVGYGVEE
Eh P4      AE-GPVAAAI DASGVKFLY KSGIYNSKEC SST--QLNHG VAVVGYGTQ-
BsP4 ST7   SQ-GPVSVAV EADSI VQMY TGGVIDSSAC GTS---LNHG VLAVGYGAD-

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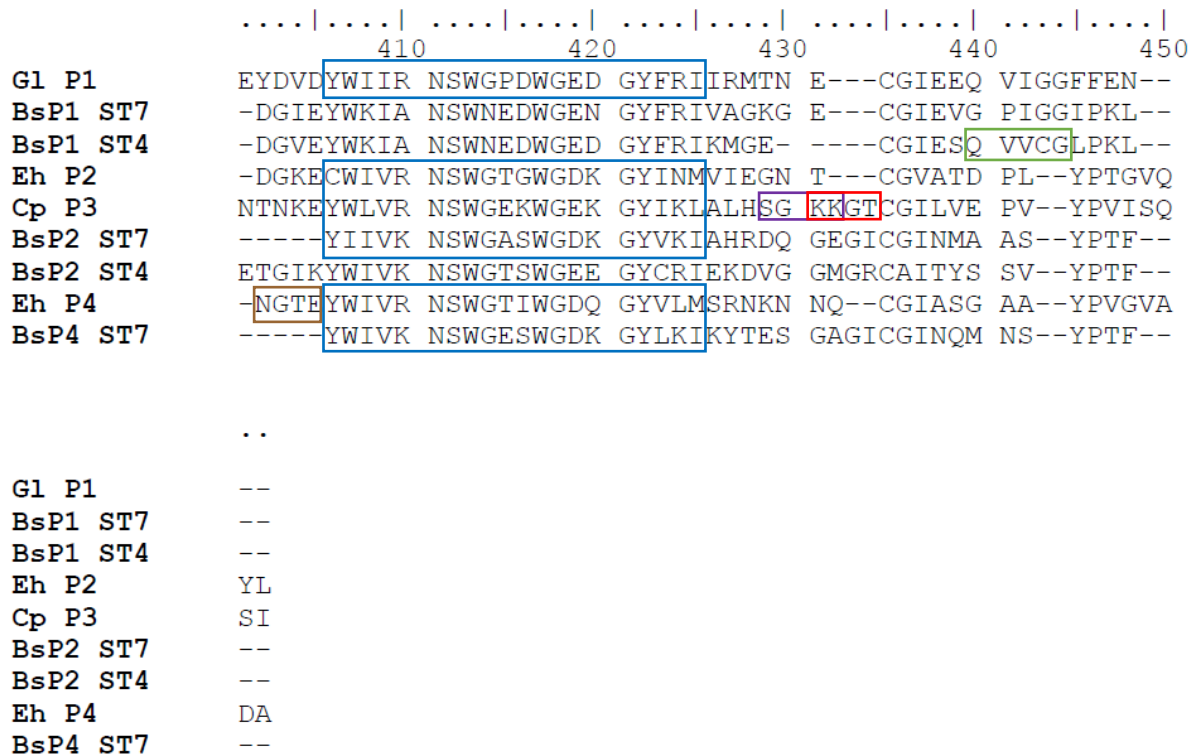


Figure 17 Sequence alignment for all virulence factors from *G. intestinalis*, *E. histolytica*, and *C. parvum* together with the protein outcomes of *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4. Active sites of cysteine, histidine, and asparagine are noted in blue. The length of active sites differs; the enclosed sequence is only approximate. The annotated boxes in the alignment are the RGD motif in red, QxVxG motif in green, CxxC motif in black, ERFNIN motif in grey, GNFD motif in pink, KRTT motif in red, N-glycosylation sites in brown and amidation site in purple. The yellow line presents a possible occluding loop (only in *Blastocystis*), and the orange line is a transmembrane region only found in CpP3. Created in BioEdit.

The sequence alignment of the proteins is robust and encompasses numerous conserved regions, indicating significant similarities among them and implying potential functional activity. However, distinct motifs and sites are also observed with further details provided in the following sections.

3.3.1 Active sites

Active sites vary in length for the proteins, but a blue box highlights the area of the approximate site as all are in the same positions. All proteins share active sites of Cys, His, and Asn forming a catalytic triad. However, this triad is absent in all proteins of *Blastocystis* ST4 and one *Blastocystis* ST7; BsP1 ST7. In these cases, they instead exhibit a catalytic dyad comprised of the active site residues Cys and His. Even though the proteins mentioned don't have the Asn site, the same area is conserved and shows a similar amino acid sequence compared to the other proteins.

Active sites play a crucial role in catalyzing biochemical reactions (Robinson, 2015). In this case of *Blastocystis*, it could be possible that *Blastocystis* ST7 displays a higher enzymatic activity compared to ST4 due to the presence of a complete catalytic triad. This suggests that

biological processes associated with these active sites might affect the organism's possibility of causing virulence. The presence of a catalytic dyad in ST4 implies a possibly different mechanism or it could have reduced efficiency in enzymatic reactions. This variation in active site configuration between different subtypes of *Blastocystis* might result in diverse metabolic capabilities, affecting their ability to interact with the host or possibly other microorganisms in the environment. Some studies have already found results supporting *Blastocystis* ST7 being related to pathogenicity, while ST4 is not (Deng et al., 2022; Deng & Tan, 2022).

3.3.2 QxVxG motif

The motif QxVxG is unique to BsP1 ST7 and ST4, with ST7 including this motif at two positions and ST4 at three positions. This is marked in green (Figure 17).

QxVxG motifs have been recognized as crucial elements for binding and inhibiting cysteine protease activity (Cuesta-Astroz et al., 2014). These motifs are directly involved in protein-protein interactions and are typically seen in cystatins (Dutt et al., 2010). Cystatins play a role in the regulation of protease activity and can have an important role in the parasite's survival within the host (Khatri et al., 2020). The discovery and its potential link with cystatins are noteworthy for further investigation in studying the pathogenicity of *Blastocystis*.

3.3.3 CxxC motif

The CxxC motif is important for specific protein functions and is enclosed by black boxes in the sequence alignment (Figure 17). The motif is characterized by two cysteines separated by two other residues, and from research known to be utilized by numerous redox proteins for disulfide bond formation, isomerization, reduction, and other redox functions (Fomenko & Gladyshev, 2003). This motif is present in all proteins in the active site of Cys with pattern CGSC. Researchers have systematically explored genetic sequences to identify patterns equivalent to the CxxC motif. They discovered that this motif plays an important role in modulating protein function. Altering this motif significantly impacts the protein's properties and interactions, acting as a molecular switch that influences their behavior in various biochemical processes (Quan et al., 2007).

3.3.4 Occluding loop

In both BsP1 ST7 and BsP1 ST4, a possible occluding loop was found. This data was found based on a comparison with the occluding loop found in human cathepsin B (Liu, 2019). The site is distinguished by the amino acid pattern HH and is not found in any of the other analyzed proteins.

CEHHVNGSRPPCTGEGDTPKC	human cathepsin B
CEHHAEGKYPPCGESQETPEC	BsP1 ST7
CEHHSTGKYPPCGETQDTPEC	BsP1 ST4

These sequence alignments of human cathepsin B compared with BsP1 ST7 and ST4 reveal similarities. In addition to an established role in exopeptidase activity, the occluding loop of cathepsin B serves to restrict access of macromolecules to the active site, effectively functioning as an exopeptidase. Although the residual endopeptidase activity is not strictly necessary intracellularly, it enables the enzyme to function extracellularly as an endopeptidase, which is poorly inhibited by cystatins (Illy et al., 1997). This may have pathological consequences for *Blastocystis* for degradation of its host tissues for survival and proliferation. The resistance of cathepsin B to inhibition by cystatins in the extracellular environment could enhance the virulence of these parasites, allowing them to evade host immune responses. Further research into the regulation of cathepsin B activity and its interactions with host factors is important for understanding the molecular basis of parasite pathogenicity and for developing targeted therapeutic approaches to fight parasitic infections.

3.3.5 RGD motif

The orange box signifies the presence of the RGD motif, which are proteins that contain the amino acids Arg-Gly-Asp (RGD). The motif is found at one position before the Cys active site in BsP1 ST7 and EhP4, while in GiP1 it is found further downstream of the Cys active site. This motif is not found in BsP1 ST4. The RGD serves as an attachment site for numerous adhesive extracellular matrix, blood, and cell surface proteins, along with integrins acting as their receptors, constituting a vital recognition system for cell adhesion (Yamada et al., 2023). This motif, crucial for integrin-mediated cell attachment, plays a significant role in regulating processes like cell migration, growth, differentiation, and apoptosis (Ruoslahti, 1996). RGD peptides and their mimics serve as valuable tools to explore integrin functions across diverse biological systems. The recognized RGD motif found in *Giardia* and *Blastocystis* ST7 could hold promise for pharmaceutical development. Employing strategies such as exploring the motif's structure could be a possible method in drug design. However, additional *in vitro* studies are essential to confirm these assumptions.

3.3.6 cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation site

Both virulence factors of *E. histolytica* as well as *C. parvum* are shown to be the only proteins containing this site that function as a target for cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation. The phosphorylation site is highlighted in red in Figure 17, located before the active site of Cys (KRtT) in EhP2, whereas in EhP4, it is positioned after the Cys active site (KKfT). In *C. parvum* CpP3, the phosphorylation site (KKgT) is found at the end of the sequence. Moreover, these sites regulate the rate of cAMP production and degradation, making them responsive to a wide range of extracellular and intracellular signals (Caretta & Mucignat-Caretta, 2011). The function of these phosphorylation sites is possible to affect the regulation of a variety of cell functions, from metabolism to ion channel activation, cell growth and differentiation, gene expression, and apoptosis (Asaoka, 2012; K. V. Chin et al., 2002). Protein Kinase A (PKA), a key player in cAMP signaling, regulates diverse cellular processes such as metabolism, cell growth, and gene expression. Its involvement in infection-related pathways underscores its significant impact on various pathological processes due to its influence on intracellular functions driven by cAMP regulation (Haidar et al., 2017). This could be relevant for further studies but was not found present in the proteins investigated in *Blastocystis* ST7 or ST4.

3.3.7 Transmembrane domain

The only instance of a transmembrane domain detected by the PRED-TM algorithm is in *C. parvum*, indicated by the orange line in the sequence alignment (Figure 17). See Appendix 1 for the results of the search. Integral membrane proteins typically feature a transmembrane region composed of hydrophobic α -helices clustered together (Wayne Albers, 2012). This specific arrangement may result from a folding mechanism where stable transmembrane helices align without undergoing topological changes (Popot, 1993). These regions can play various crucial roles, like catalyzing enzymes, facilitating membrane transport, acting as receptors for signaling molecules like hormones and growth factors, and participating in energy transfer for ATP synthesis (Ramasarma, 1996). It remains to be explored whether this region contributes to the enzyme's processing and localization within the parasite. This could be interesting to investigate other potential proteins in *Blastocystis* as it is not found in the proteins investigated in this study.

3.3.8 ERFNIN motif

The motif ERFNIN, represented in grey (Figure 17), serves as the pro-domain of cysteine cathepsins and features a highly preserved amino acid sequence represented by ERFNIN (Aich & Biswas, 2018). This motif was identified in CpP3, EhP4, and BsP4 ST7. This area

also appears to be conserved in all proteins except for the analysis of GiP1 with *Blastocystis* proteins. Although EhP2, BsP2 ST7, and BsP2 ST4 possess a comparable conserved region, they lack one or more amino acids necessary to fully establish the presence of this motif. Studies on the zymogen structure of cathepsin L and K unveiled that the arginine (R) residue within the ERFNIN motif acts as a central element in a salt-bridge and hydrogen-bond network, thereby stabilizing the scaffold of the pro-domain (Aich & Biswas, 2018). This is interesting for further investigation in *Blastocystis*, where it could have an impact on the activation and functioning of cysteine proteases. Exploring the presence of the ERFNIN motif in *Blastocystis* might bring notice to their enzymatic activities and regulatory mechanisms. Additionally, understanding the role of the conserved arginine (R) residue within the motif could provide valuable insights into the structural stability and functional importance.

3.3.9 GNDF motif

The GNFD motif, enclosed in pink in Figure 17, is found in virulence factor cryptopain-1 from *C. parvum* and BsP2 ST4. The region is conserved for both *E. histolytica* proteins (EhP2 and EhP4) as well as both *Blastocystis* ST7 proteins (BsP2 ST7 and BsP4 ST7). This motif has been proven to ensure proper folding and stability in numerous papain family proteases (Kumar et al., 2004). Understanding the role of this conserved motif in *Blastocystis* proteins may provide important awareness of their functional properties and potential implications in host-pathogen interactions. Investigative the impact of the GNFD motif on the folding and stability of *Blastocystis* proteins could unlock paths for studying their role in the pathogenicity mechanisms of this organism.

Both the motifs ERFNIN and GNFD, are found to be conserved in cathepsin L sub-family papain family proteases, as the mediator of prodomain inhibitory activity (Pandey et al., 2009). This implies that these factors might affect the enzymatic activity and virulence of a pathogen, and affect the functioning of a potential host negatively.

3.3.10 N-glycosylation sites

N-glycosylation sites are presented in brown in Figure 17, with the sites found at four locations for cryptopain-1 (CpP3) and at two locations for cysteine proteinase 5 (EhP4). There was none found in any of the *Blastocystis* proteins investigated. EhP4 contains an Asn-X-(Ser/Thr) recognition sequence within the prosequence, which may be posttranslationally modified by glycosylation (Jacobs et al., 1998). Concerning *E. histolytica* pathogenicity, EhP4 appears to be of special importance, since it is the only cysteine protease known so far that is present on the amoeba's surface (Jacobs et al., 1998). However, the mechanism of surface

association remains to be determined, since the molecule does not contain any known surface attachment part (Bruchhaus et al., 2003). Later research has revealed that N-glycosylation could affect cellular functions such as secretion, cytoskeleton organization, proliferation, and apoptosis (Kukuruzinska & Lennon, 1998). This could have been a relevant investigation into a potential treatment, but it was not found in the analyzed *Blastocystis* proteins.

3.3.11 Amidation sites

There is only one amidation site found in *C. pavrum* (sGKK) in Figure 17. The site is not found in any of the proteins in *Blastocystis*. Amidation has a big impact on how well peptides attach to their G-protein-coupled receptors (Kumar et al., 2014). It usually happens at the C-terminal, and the connection with the receptors makes the attachment stronger and improves how well they work together (Shahmiri & Mechler, 2020). Research done on a human parasite (*Schistosoma mansoni*) suggests this site is a target for new chemotherapeutics (Mair et al., 2004).

3.4 3D structure

The 3D models of all proteins are retrieved from AlphaFold and Phyre 2 in this study. Consequently, the proteins encompass their signal peptides at the N-terminus. Figure 18 shows the 3D models of results retrieved from cathepsin B (*Giardia*) in *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4.

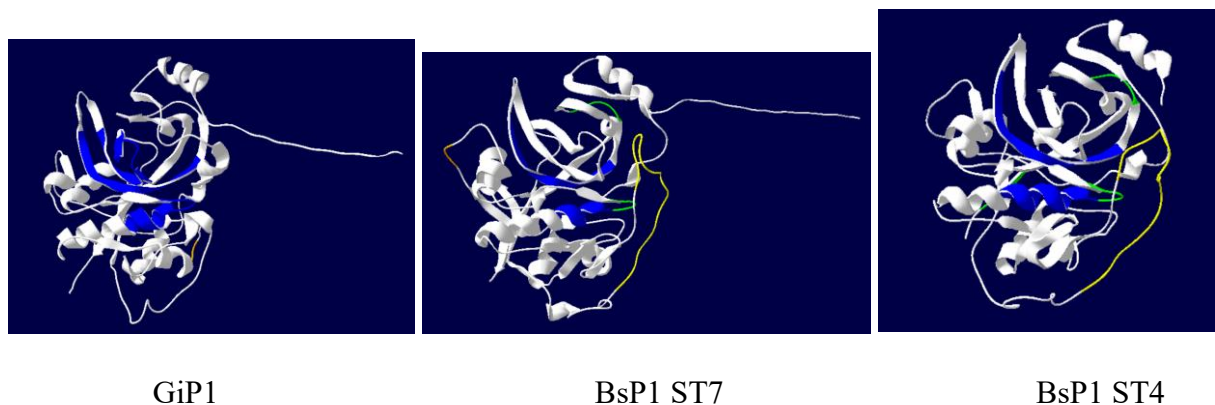


Figure 18 Illustration of GiP1, BsP1 ST7, and BsP1 ST4 in 3D view of the molecule. The molecule model is a prediction taken from AlphaFold and Phyre 2 and edited in Swiss-PDB viewer. Blue regions are active sites, green regions are QxVxG motifs, and the orange region presents an RGD motif. Both *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 include a possible occluding loop (yellow).

The 3D figures show structural similarities of virulence factor catB from *G. intestinalis* with both *Blastocystis* subtypes. The active sites of Cys and His are positioned alike, but both *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 only form a catalytic dyad of Cys and His, while GiP1 forms a triad with an additional Asn active site. The occluding loop (yellow) in both *Blastocystis* ST7 and

ST4 are similarly positioned. This loop could influence the binding of substrates at the active site and is very interesting for further investigation to find out if this could act as an inhibitor for *Blastocystis*. An occluding loop regulates the entry of substrates, facilitating the chemical reaction, and controlling the release of products in enzymes (Cavallo-Medved et al., 2011; Redzynia et al., 2008). This structural feature is vital for the proper functioning and regulation of various enzymatic processes in biological systems (Illy et al., 1997). This could lead to significant pathological effects.

Figure 19 presents models of cysteine proteinase 2 (A: EhP2) and cryptopain-1 (B: CpP3) in a 3D view with the results for *Blastocystis* ST7 (C: BsP2 ST7) and ST4 (D: BsP2 ST4), as well as cysteine proteinase 5 (E: EhP4) and the compared protein of *Blastocystis* ST7 (F: BsP4 ST7). These are all put together as some of the virulence factors had the same protein results in *Blastocystis*. The colors are coded similarly to the sequence alignment.

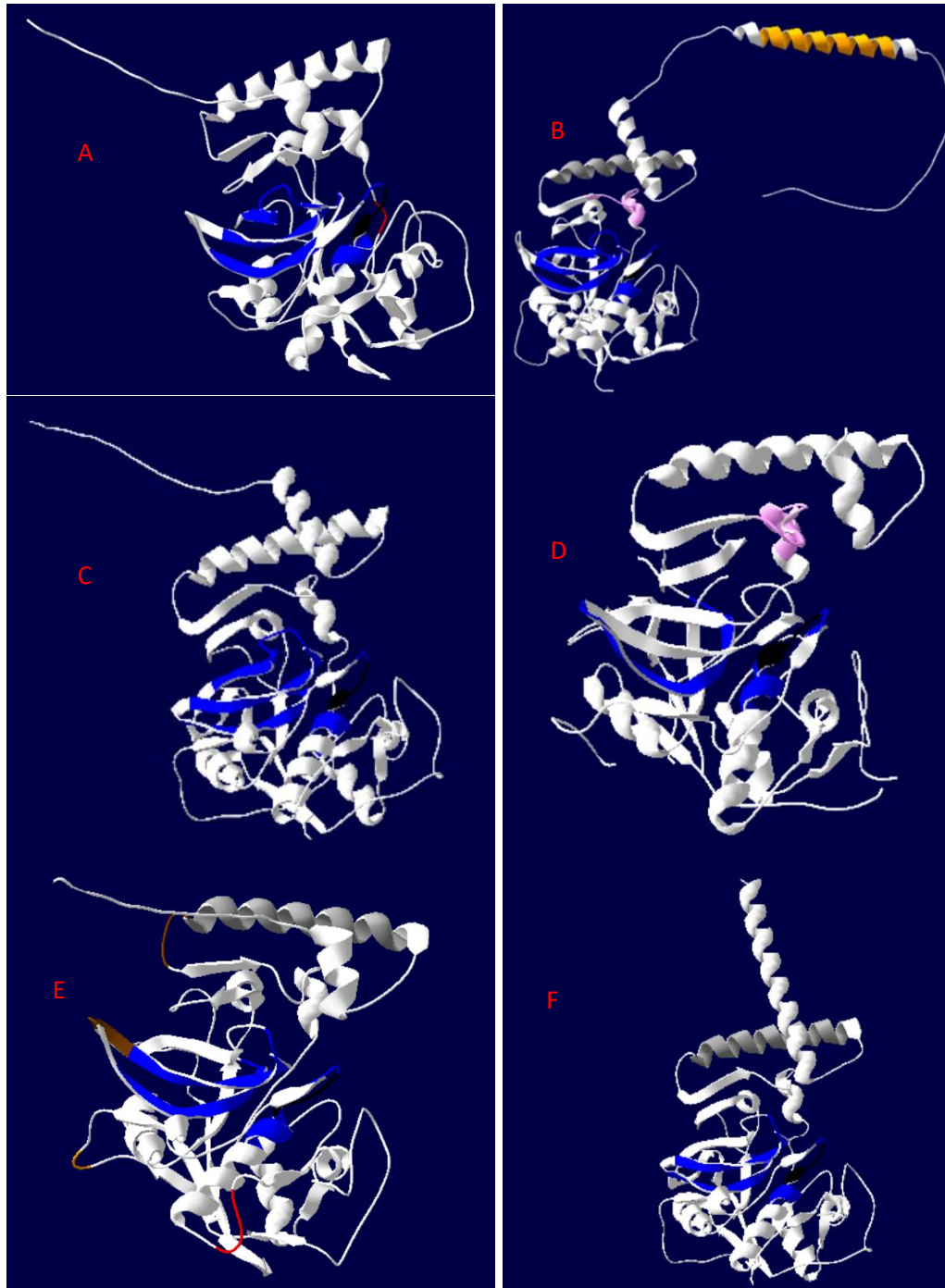


Figure 19 Illustration of 3D representation of (A) EhP2, (B) CpP3, (C) BsP2 ST7 and (D) BsP2 ST4, (E) EhP4, and (F) BsP4 ST7, as a prediction from AlphaFold and Phyre 2. Positions highlighted are the active sites (blue), CxxC motif (black), ERFNIN motif (grey), GNDF motif (pink), N-glycosylation site (brown), cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylation sites (red) and RGD motif (orange). CpP3 also has a possible transmembrane domain highlighted in orange at N-terminus and an amidation site shown in purple. Models are edited in Swiss-PDB viewer.

All proteins show structural similarities. Active sites are alike consisting of the catalytic triad, except for *Blastocystis* ST4 which includes a catalytic dyad (lacking Asn active site). The CxxC motif is represented in black and is similarly positioned. The proteins CpP3, EhP4, and BsP4 ST7 include a coiled ERFNIN motif on the outside of the molecule. The GNDF motif is positioned in a way that is like the structures of molecules CpP3 and BsP2 ST4. The

molecules lacking both ERFNIN and GNFD motifs share a similar structure even though the motifs are not present.

CpP3 has the exclusive domain of the transmembrane, as well as an amidation site shown as a purple string positioned behind the active site of CpP3. An integral part of a protein spans a biological membrane's phospholipid bilayer, like a cell's outer membrane. Amino acids in these sections interact with the membrane's fatty acyl groups, securing the protein in the membrane. The transmembrane region serves the essential function of anchoring a protein within a biological membrane, such as the cell's plasma membrane (Alberts B, 2002). This region spans the hydrophobic lipid bilayer, and its amino acids interact with the hydrophobic fatty acyl groups of the membrane's phospholipids, thereby firmly embedding the protein within the membrane structure. This anchoring is crucial for the protein to carry out its specific tasks, which might include transporting molecules, receiving signals, or facilitating various cellular processes that involve interactions between the cell's interior and exterior environments. The N-terminal for all proteins is somewhat structurally different, and this is also where the signal peptide is located, in the prepeptide.

3.5 Phylogenetic tree

To build the phylogenetic tree, organisms were identified using BLAST and subsequently assembled on phylogeny.fr. Detailed protein information corresponding to the phylogenetic trees can be found in Appendix 2.

3.5.1 Cathepsin B

The majority of the results of catB in *G. intestinalis* were marine organisms. *Giardia* is found in the habitat of fresh water, which makes it interesting to observe such a prevalence of marine organisms associated with catB in this context. A specific search for the protein in BLAST was also performed for fungi to determine its evolutionary distance. Organisms are organized into colors presenting which kingdom it belongs to: protists are purple, chromists are green, fungi are pink, animal is peach, and plant is yellow (Figure 20).

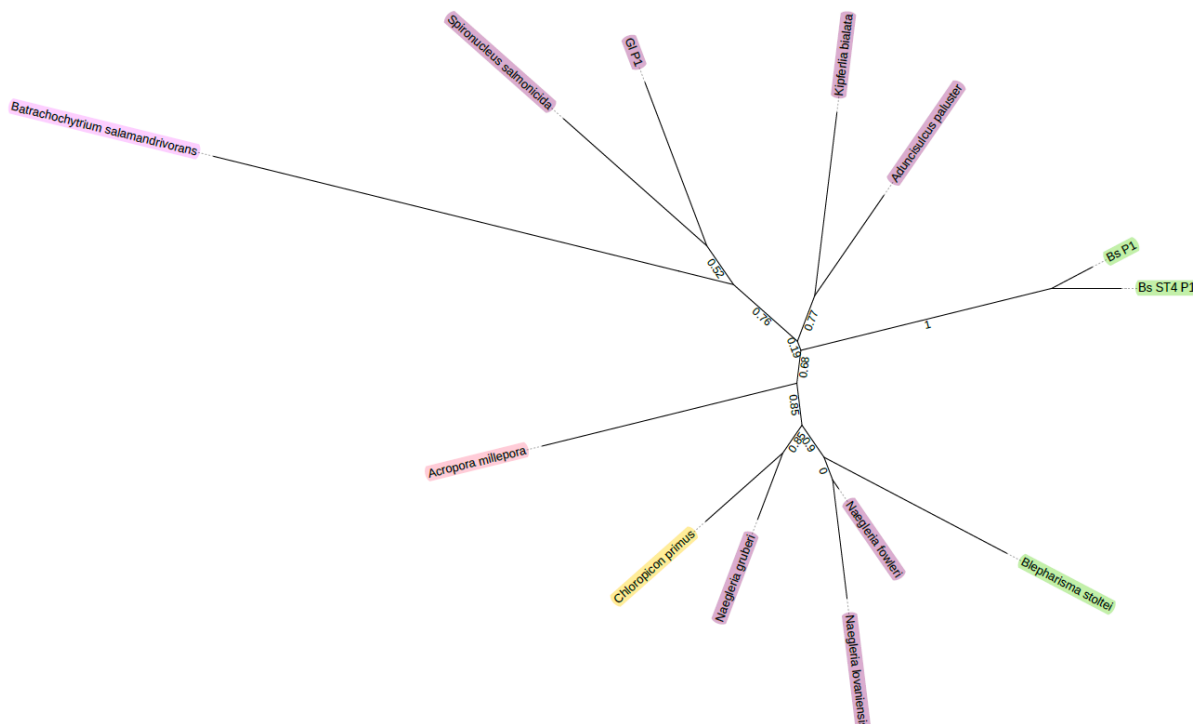


Figure 20 The phylogenetic tree displays the results obtained from the virulence factor cathepsin B in *G. intestinalis*. Organisms are categorized by color, with protists represented in purple, chromists in green, fungi in pink, animals in peach, and plants in yellow. Bootstrap values, denoting branch support, are indicated on the branches. The tree was constructed using phylogeny.fr and edited in iTOL and Adobe Acrobat.

The branch lengths and bootstrap values within the phylogenetic tree symbolize the inferred genetic distances or the level of support for each branching point within the tree. In this search, the branch connecting GiP1 and *Spiroplasma salmonicida* exhibits a support value of 0.52. On the other hand, its association with chromalveolates, such as *Blastocystis* ST7 and

ST4, is less distinct, as evidenced by a branch length of 0.19, indicating a relatively distant relationship. Upon closer examination of BsP1 ST7 and BsP1 ST4, their proximity is upheld by a strong support value at their shared node with a support value of 1. When analyzing all branches within the tree, it becomes apparent that yeast shares a common ancestral lineage with GiP1, but this relationship is notably distant, as indicated by the substantial branch length that separates them.

3.5.2 Cysteine proteinase 2

The phylogenetic tree constructed for cysteine proteinase 2 shown in Figure 21 illustrates a wide range of organisms from protists, animals, fungi, plants, chromists, and bacteria. A specific search was performed for fungi to get a better overview of where the protein is evolutionary from. The best hit was *Clostridia* bacterium. The colors present the kingdom they belong to; protists (purple), chromists (green), fungi (pink), animals (peach), bacteria (brown), and plants (yellow). The branch support values indicate the level of confidence in these relationships.

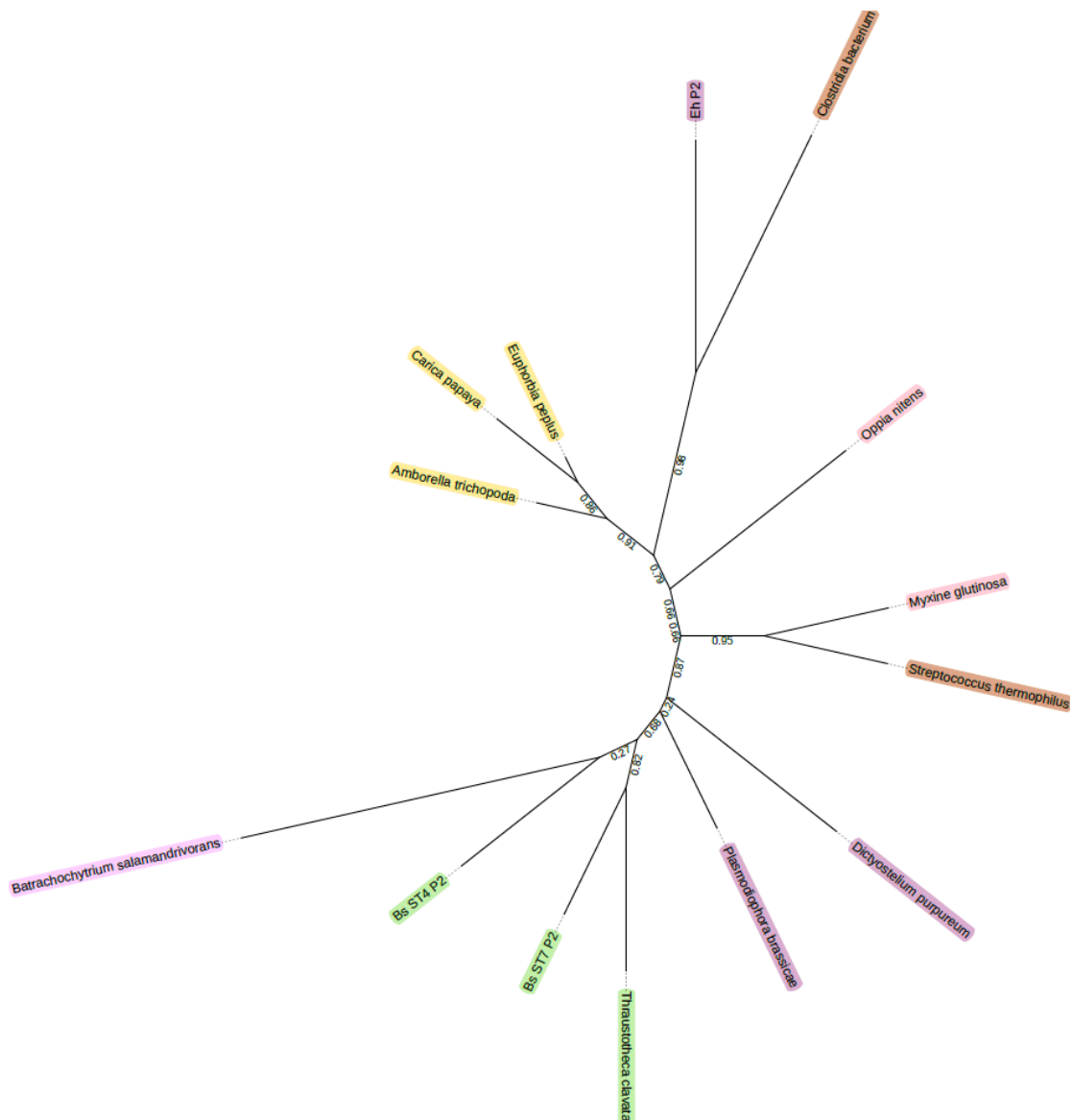


Figure 21 The phylogenetic tree of protein cysteine proteinase 2 from *E. histolytica* was constructed using phylogeny.fr and further edited in iTOL and Adobe Acrobat to assign specific colors to different groups. In this representation, yellow represents plant species, purple represents protists, green represents chromists, pink represents fungi, peach represents animals, and brown represents bacteria. The bootstrap values are indicated on the branches of the tree.

From the search of protein cysteine proteinase 2 in *E. histolytica*, the major result showed to be from plants. *Entamoeba* and plants are evolutionarily distant from each other, but they both belong to the domain of *Eukaryotes*, and cysteine proteinases are found in both plants and microorganisms (Kędzior et al., 2016). The evolutionary relationship of cysteine proteinases found in plants to those in other organisms is based on the shared ancestry of the genes that code for these enzymes. Genes encoding cysteine proteinases could have originated early in the evolution of life, and as organisms diverged and evolved, it is possible that these genes underwent various changes and adaptations to suit the specific functions and requirements of different species. If plants obtained cysteine proteinase genes from prokaryotes, it does not necessarily mean that all other lineages would retain these genes. Evolutionary pressures, genetic drift, and other factors can lead to the loss of genes in different lineages over millions of years, resulting in the diversity of gene presence and absence that we observe in the biological world today (Star & Spencer, 2013). Certain cysteine proteases from plants and animals are homologous to each other (Hughes, 1994).

EhP2 shares a common ancestor with the cluster of plants (*Euphorbia peplus*, *Carica papaya*, *Amborella trichopoda*), and *Clostridia* bacterium. These organisms are part of the same branch within the phylogenetic tree. The branch that includes EhP2 and the above-mentioned organisms is sister to the animal species (*Oppia nitens* and *Myxine glutinosa*) but is not as closely related. The branch lengths in the Newick format provide information about the genetic divergence or evolutionary distance between the organisms. In this context, EhP2 and *Clostridia* bacterium have a branch length of 0.98, indicating a certain level of genetic divergence from its closest relatives within the group. It is also distinct from *Oppia nitens*, and EhP2 has a certain level of genetic divergence from its closest relatives within this group. In contrast, *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4 exhibit a more distant relationship with EhCP2 from *E. histolytica*, along with yeast.

3.5.3 Cryptopain-1

From the search of cryptopain-1 in *C. pavrum*, the major hits were found to be in protists and some in plants. Specific searches in fungi and animals were done to see the evolutionary distances to these groups. The colors organize the kingdom they belong to; protists are purple, chromists are green, fungi are pink, the animal is peach, and the plant is yellow (Figure 22). The support values of the branches signify the degree of confidence in these relationships in bootstrap values.

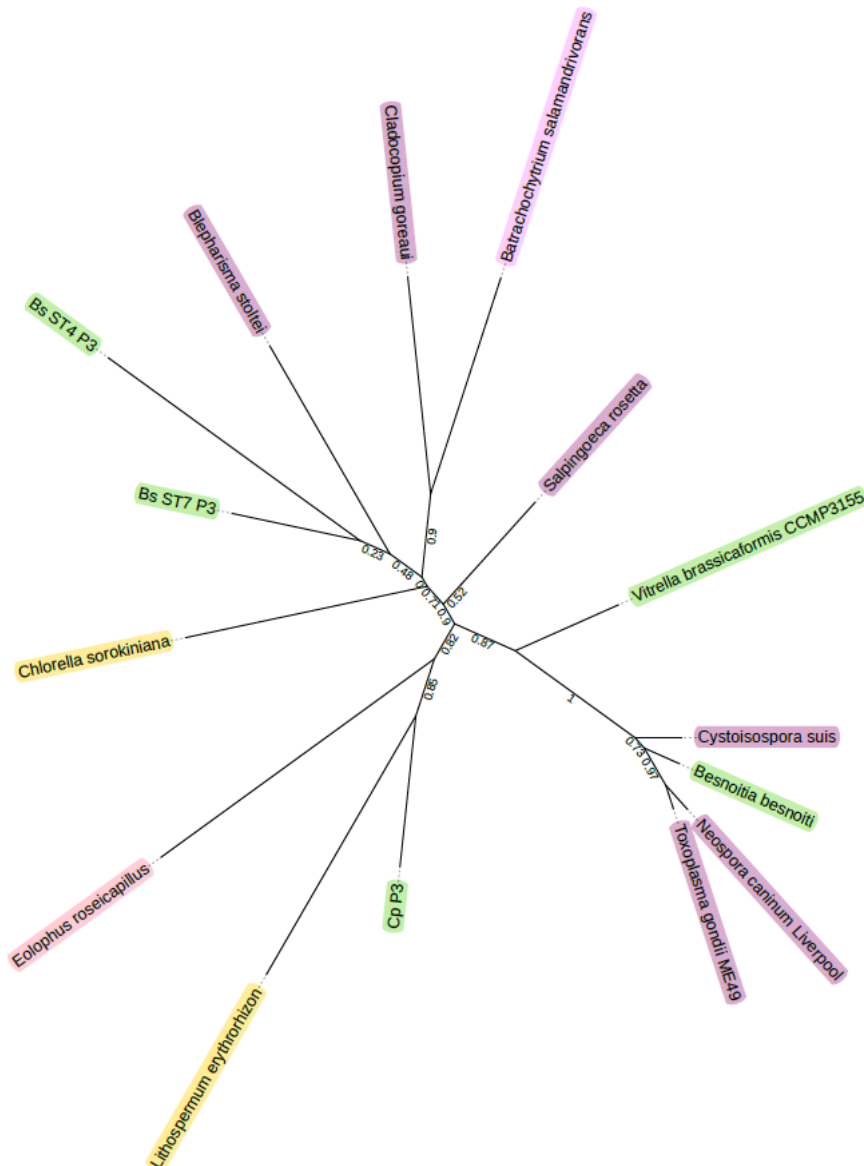


Figure 22 The phylogenetic tree of protein cryptopain-1 from *C. pavrum* was generated through a BLAST search encompassing protists (purple), chromists (green), plants (yellow), animals (peach), and fungi (pink). The tree was constructed using phylogeny.fr and subsequently edited using iTOL and Adobe Acrobat. Bootstrap values indicating branch support are displayed on the tree branches.

CpP3 appears to be more closely related to the plant (*Lithospermum erythrorhizon*) and the animal (*Eolophus roseicapillus*), than to the other organisms in the tree. BsP2 ST4 and BsP2

ST7 share a common ancestor with a branch length of 0.23. This common ancestor is further connected to the protist *Blepharisma stoltei* with a branch length of 0.48. The entire subtree, including BsP2 ST4, BsP2 ST7, and *Blepharisma stoltei*, is connected to the rest of the tree with a branch length of 0.06238. This indicates a distant relationship with cryptopain-1.

3.5.4 Cysteine proteinase 5

From the search for protein cysteine proteinase 5 in *E. histolytica*, many results from animals were found. A specific search in plants and fungi was performed to analyze the distance for different groups. The colors show which kingdom the organisms belong to where protists are purple, chromists are green, fungi are pink, the animal is peach, and the plant is yellow (Figure 23).

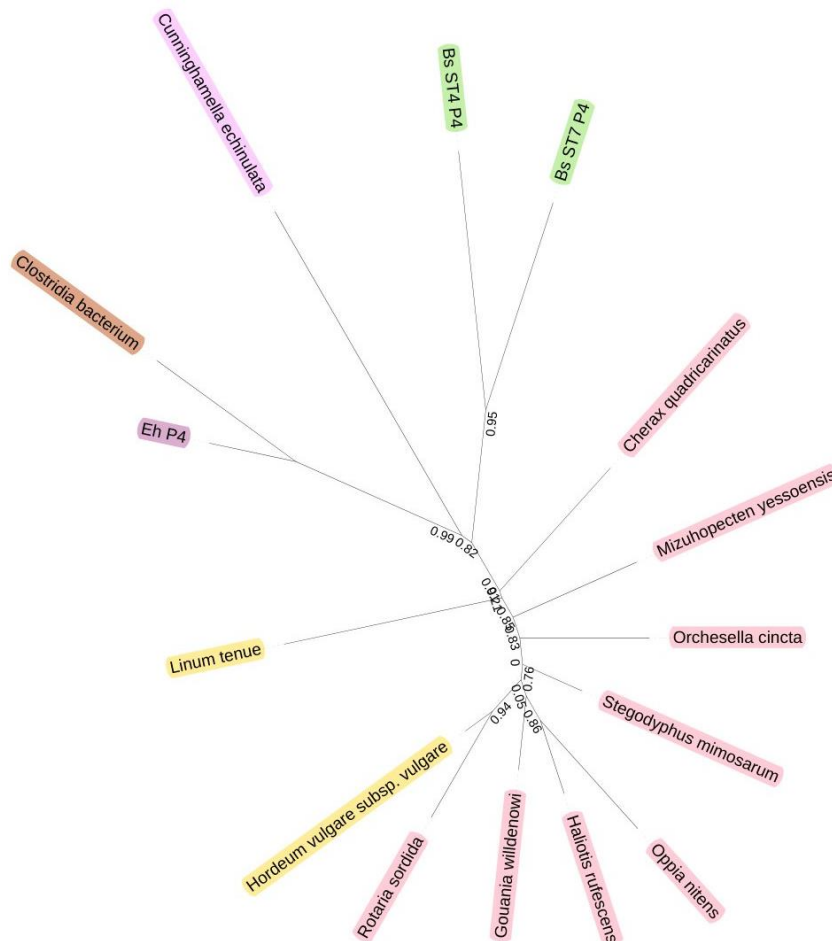


Figure 23 Phylogenetic tree of cysteine proteinase 5 retrieved from *Entamoeba histolytica*. Search results are organized in the following colors with organisms of protists in purple, chromists in green, animals in peach, plants in yellow, fungi in pink, and bacteria in brown. Bootstrap values are shown on the branches. Construction of the tree is done in phylogeny.fr and edited in iTOL and Adobe Acrobat.

The outcome of the phylogenetic tree shows that the *Clostridia* bacterium is closely related to EhP4 with a support value of 0.99. The fungi *Cunninghamella echinulata* shows a common

ancestor with EhP4 but is relatively distant as the branch is extensive. The tree also shows a closer relationship with *Blastocystis* spp. with a support value of 0.84.

The phylogenetic analysis revealed a distinct separation of most of the virulence factors from the other proteins, suggesting a significant evolutionary divergence. This separation likely stems from extensive adaptation to specific organisms over a considerable period, rendering these factors uniquely suited for inducing virulence in their respective hosts. The limited scope of our search, which excluded the host organisms themselves, may contribute to the observed distinctiveness of the results, reinforcing the idea that these virulence factors are highly organism-specific in their function and evolution.

4 Results laboratory work

4.1 Isolation and PCR of promoters and terminators

During the process of amplifying the specific promoters and terminators through PCR, gel electrophoresis was utilized to confirm the correct sizes of the fragments. Since each primer was designed and created for a specific fragment, it was necessary to verify its effectiveness with individual promoters and terminators before moving forward with the cloning process into the vector. As illustrated in Figure 24, it shows that PC1A did not yield the correct size of 2207 bp (well 3 and 4), whereas the 60SRPL32 promoters were successfully prepared with a correct size of 1295 bp (well 1) and 1000 bp (well 2). All primers used through the experiments can be found in Appendix 3.

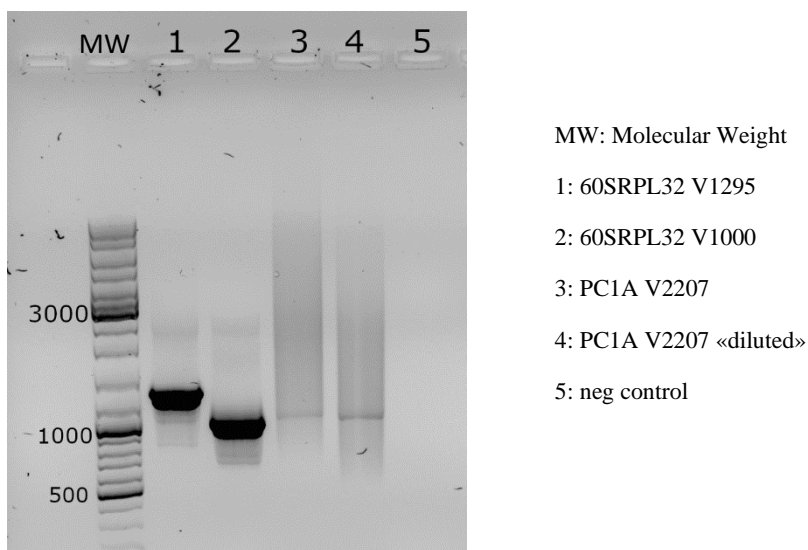
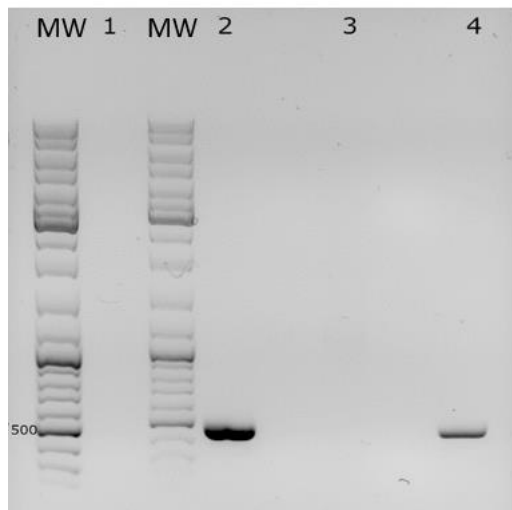


Figure 24 Gel electrophoresis of PCR. The gel is made of 1% agarose gel with GelRed staining. Lane with molecular weight (MW) shows the DNA ladder used and estimates the size of the samples. DNA ladder mix was used, and wells are numbered by gene and promoter (1-5). Numbers 1 and 2 show successful size, and the primers can therefore be used further. Number 3 and 4 is not successful size. Negative control shows no bands meaning no contamination. Each well was loaded with 5 μ l of sample and 3 μ l for the DNA ladder mix.

Results of gel electrophoresis of successful terminators of both genes PC1A and 60SRPL32 are shown in Figure 25 below. Neither of the promoters showed any visible band in this attempt.



- 1: 60S Ribosomal Protein L32 V1295
- 2: 60S Ribosomal Protein L32 Terminator
- 3: PC1A V2207
- 4: PC1A Terminator

Figure 25 Gel electrophoresis of PCR with promoters and terminators for both 60SRPL32 and PC1A. The terminators for both genes exhibited the expected size of 500 bp, indicating successful amplification. However, in lane 1 and 3, the promoters did not show any bands, suggesting potential issues during the experimental procedure. To assess the gel's integrity and size markers, a DNA ladder was loaded into two separate lanes for testing purposes. In each well, 5 μ l of the sample and 3 μ l of the DNA ladder mix were loaded.

This is only a summary of many attempts to isolate all promoters and terminators. Because of not enough genomic DNA, PC1A promoter V2207 was not successfully isolated. Except for that, all versions of promoters and terminators of both genes PC1A and 60SRPL32 were successfully isolated through PCR, gel wash, and purification.

4.2 Colony PCR

To verify the correct size of the insert within the vector, a colony PCR approach was employed. Bacterial colonies grown on agar plates were collected and mixed with the PCR mixture. The resulting PCR products were then subjected to gel electrophoresis to confirm their sizes. A total of 19 colonies were picked from both the high-concentration and low-concentration samples. Figure 26 shows the results of gel electrophoresis after colony PCR of genes PC1A and 60SRPL32. This is just a brief outline; all promoters and terminators were successfully inserted into the vector.

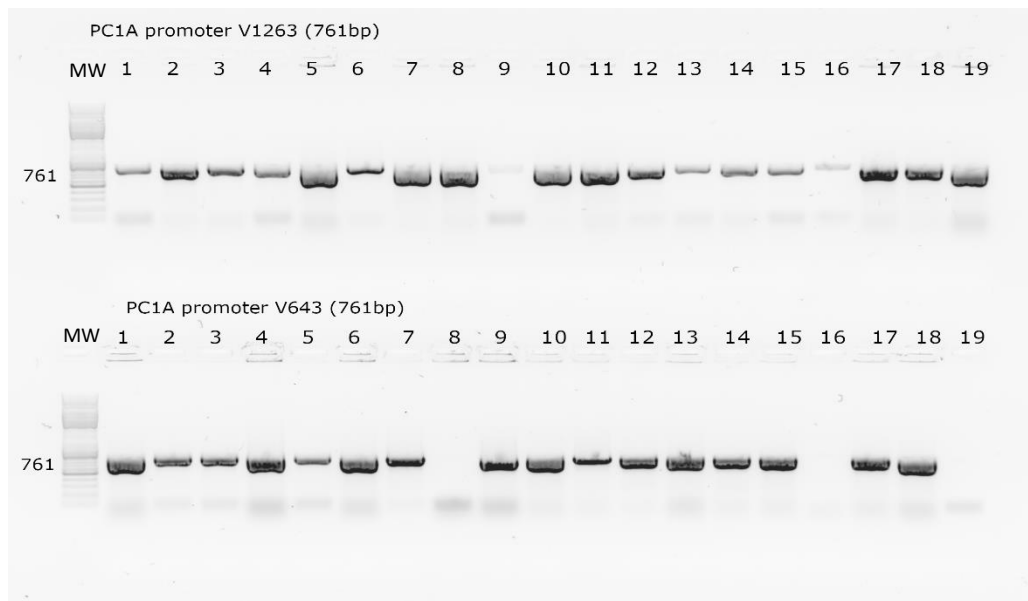


Figure 26 Gel electrophoresis of Peptidase C1A versions V1263 and V643. Samples from colonies grown on an agar plate and resuspended in PCR reaction mix. Both samples are expected to be 761bp. Molecular weight (MW) with DNA ladder estimating the size of the samples. In each well it was loaded 5 μ l of sample and 3 μ l for the DNA ladder mix.

Unfortunately, the completion of the lab work was hindered due to an unpredictable circumstance. This unexpected situation prevented the successful completion of the planned experiments and analysis. To complete the study, it is necessary to finalize the cloning process for all promoters and terminators related to genes PC1A and 60SRPL32 into the appropriate vectors. Subsequently, the transformation into *Blastocystis* cells must proceed, followed by the application of the Nanoluc luciferase assay and antibody staining methods outlined in the procedures section. Using microscopy, the expression levels of the genes of interest should be assessed, along with any potential impact on biological pathways.

5 Conclusion

The discovery of possible virulence factors inside *Blastocystis* has generated interesting challenges concerning the pathogenic potential of the organism. By comparing the previously identified virulence factors in the pathogens of interest; *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica*, and *Cryptosporidium parvum*, it appears that *Blastocystis* subtypes ST7 and ST4 may share similar mechanisms and functions, suggesting the possibility of pathogenicity. This study highlights the importance of researching *Blastocystis* and its many subtypes to solve the puzzles surrounding its pathogenic nature. In addition, this thesis provides material and data pointing out the need to resolve the fundamental question of whether *Blastocystis* causes pathogenicity in hosts.

Furthermore, the similarities revealed between *Blastocystis* and known virulence factors give a good platform for future research. As *Blastocystis* exhibits extensive subtype variation, some subtypes could cause illness while others do not (Wawrzyniak et al., 2012).

Consequently, individuals might undergo treatment for *Blastocystis* without any adverse effects, owing to this diversity among its subtypes (Scanlan et al., 2015). Determining whether *Blastocystis* plays a role in disease is not only important for identifying suitable treatments but also has the potential to enhance the economic aspects of the healthcare system. This uncertainty arises from its prevalence in both individuals without health issues and those experiencing intestinal symptoms, such as diarrhea and IBS (Scanlan et al., 2014). In the United States alone, IBS imposes a substantial economic burden on the healthcare system due to extensive resource usage, leading to direct medical expenses and indirect (workplace) of a total of \$30 billion annually (Leong et al., 2003). In Europe, IBS is identified as the main cause of hospitalizations and emergency room visits (Tack et al., 2019). As *Blastocystis* has been correlated with IBS symptoms, understanding the diversity of the *Blastocystis* subtypes and their relation to symptoms will help decrease these costs (Hulisz, 2004). This will also help to minimize the demand on the healthcare system, especially since the exact involvement of *Blastocystis* in digestive disorders in people is uncertain (Boorom et al., 2008). Furthermore, the research might pave the way for new treatment procedures and prevention methods.

Despite encountering challenges in the molecular part of this project, the completion of the planned experiments and analysis has the potential to reveal fundamental insights into *Blastocystis* and its genetic composition and cellular processes. Understanding its interactions with the host immune system and the mechanisms underlying its pathogenicity in various

subtypes is essential to improve our knowledge of the biology of the parasite, its function in health and illness, and potential new strategies for parasite management. Nonetheless, the reliability of our findings needs to be further strengthened through additional research *in vivo* research.

In summary, this study is an important step toward understanding the complexities of *Blastocystis* pathogenicity. The findings presented lay a framework for future research, providing a look into the complex world of parasitic illnesses. As scientists learn more about *Blastocystis* and its subtypes, we get closer to finding appropriate treatments that could improve global health outcomes and our capacity to tackle parasitic illnesses efficiently.

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Appendix 1

Cathepsin B

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B2 [Dermestes maculatus]	Dermestes maculatus	342	342	94%	7e-113	53.87%	381	UJP31642.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Parcxpwnx02 [Periplaneta americana]	Periplaneta americana	340	340	100%	1e-112	50.30%	343	AAW28820.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B-like [Parasteatoda tepidarium]	Parasteatoda tepidarium	335	335	100%	1e-110	47.60%	334	XP_042911940.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B [Astyanax mexicanus]	Astyanax mexicanus	334	334	93%	2e-110	53.95%	330	XP_007244714.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B [Argopecten irradians]	Argopecten irradians	333	333	100%	8e-110	47.79%	338	ANG56311.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	unnamed protein product [Adineta ricciae]	Adineta ricciae	333	333	98%	1e-109	50.31%	336	CAF1069301.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B-like [Gigantopelta aegis]	Gigantopelta aegis	332	332	99%	2e-109	47.79%	338	XP_041361383.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Cathepsin B [Araneus ventricosus]	Araneus ventricosus	333	333	94%	2e-109	50.49%	363	GBN46698.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	PREDICTED: cathepsin B-like [Paralichthys olivaceus]	Paralichthys olivaceus	332	332	96%	2e-109	50.31%	330	XP_019935873.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B-like [Melanotaenia boesemani]	Melanotaenia boesemani	331	331	98%	3e-109	50.00%	328	XP_041830948.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cathepsin B precursor [Araneus ventricosus]	Araneus ventricosus	331	331	94%	4e-109	50.49%	334	AAP59456.1

Figure 27 Search results of uncharacterized protein from *Blastocystis* ST7 in BLAST, by the exclusion of *Blastocystis* and *Giardia* genome. Results show a majority of cathepsin B.

Distribution of the top 100 Blast Hits on 100 subject sequences

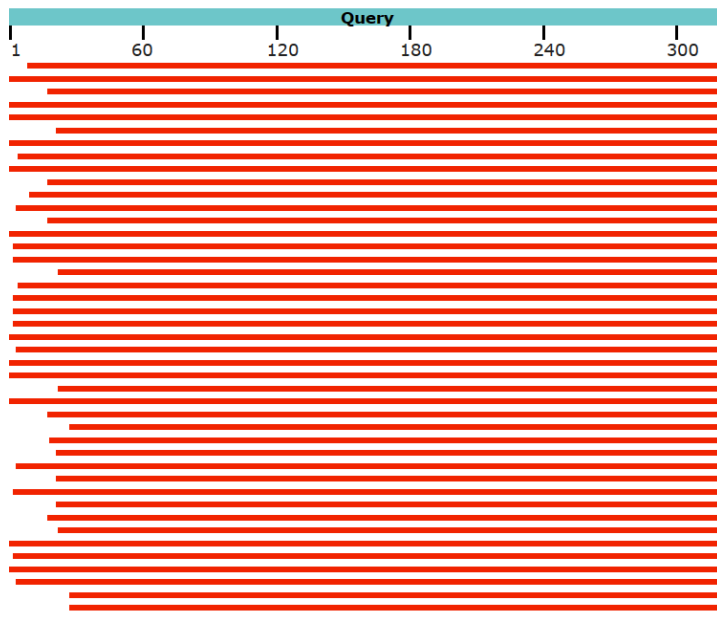


Figure 28 Distribution of search results from Figure 27 in a graphic summary. Red bars, denoting strong alignment scores, indicative of favorable sequence matches.

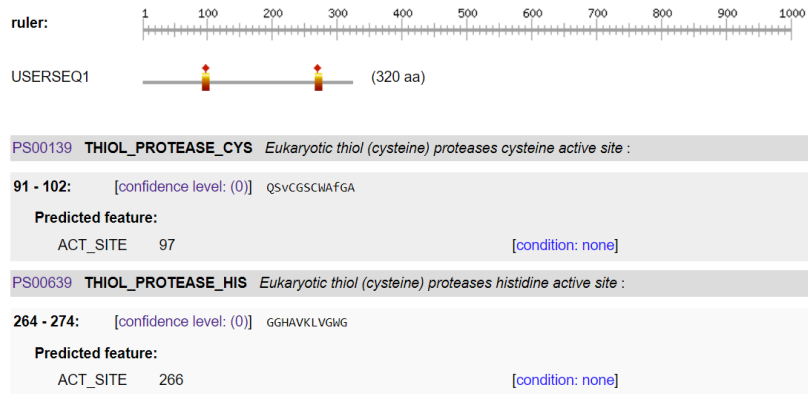


Figure 29 Results of active sites found in GiP1 (cathepsin B) in *Blastocystis* ST7 performed in ScanProsite. The confidence level of 0 is described as a reliable cut-off in the database. This was performed for all proteins to determine the active sites and their positions, only showing results from BsP1 ST7.

PS00008 MYRISTYL <i>N-myristoylation site :</i>
50 - 55: GVLFGD
95 - 100: GSCWAF
101 - 106: GAaeAA
137 - 142: GCdGW
154 - 159: GVttGG
158 - 163: GGeYGS
222 - 227: GGIdAI
274 - 279: GVedGI
PS00016 RGD <i>Cell attachment sequence :</i>
66 - 68: RGD
PS00005 PKC_PHOSPHO_SITE <i>Protein kinase C phosphorylation site :</i>
84 - 86: sLK
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 84 Phosphoserine [condition: S]
107 - 109: TdR
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 107 Phosphothreonine [condition: T]
249 - 251: TyK
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 249 Phosphothreonine [condition: T]
PS00006 CK2_PHOSPHO_SITE <i>Casein kinase II phosphorylation site :</i>
84 - 87: sLKE
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 84 Phosphoserine [condition: S]
123 - 126: SeqD
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 123 Phosphoserine [condition: S]
129 - 132: TccD
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 129 Phosphothreonine [condition: T]
157 - 160: TggE
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 157 Phosphothreonine [condition: T]
287 - 290: SwtE
Predicted feature:
MOD_RES 287 Phosphoserine [condition: S]

Figure 30 Results from ScanProsite of motifs found in GiP1 (cathepsin B) in *Blastocystis* ST7 including motifs that have a high probability of occurrence. Only some of the motifs are put into further analysis.

Cysteine proteinase 2

	Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	166	166	81%	1e-49	37.13%	978	XM_013044101.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	161	161	74%	1e-47	38.49%	970	XM_013044100.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis sp. ST4 peptidase C1A family protein mRNA	Blastocystis sp. subtype 4	156	156	74%	7e-46	38.31%	951	XM_014673561.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	144	144	80%	3e-41	33.21%	960	XM_013041339.1

Figure 31 Results from a search of cysteine proteinase 2 (*E. histolytica*) in *Blastocystis* genome performed in translated nucleotide BLAST search (tBLASTn). They all include a query cover over 70% and the e-value is within the threshold.

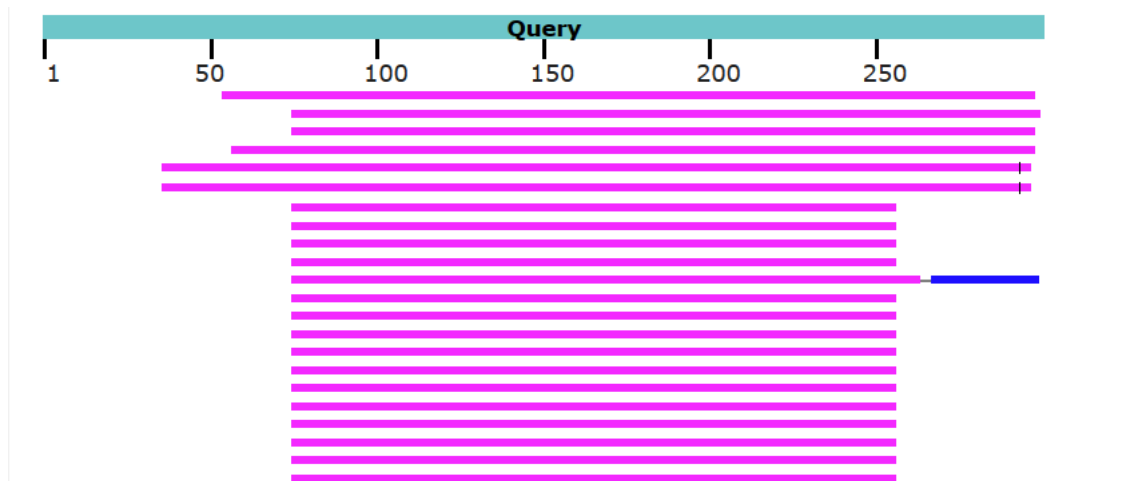


Figure 32 Graphic summary of results from Figure 31, of the search results of cysteine proteinase 2 from *E. histolytica* in *Blastocystis* genome in tBLASTn. Pink bars denoting solid matches.

	Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein FNF29_07225 [Cafeteria roenbergensis]	Cafeteria roenbergensis	289	289	98%	1e-92	47.38%	327	KAA0147671.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39 [Manihot esculenta]	Manihot esculenta	286	286	99%	2e-91	46.08%	339	XP_021611312.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein J5N97_008396 [Dioscorea zingiberensis]	Dioscorea zingiberensis	285	285	99%	9e-91	45.70%	341	KAJ0980141.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39-like [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	285	285	99%	1e-90	46.94%	351	XP_042434938.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein ZIOFF_064533 [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	281	281	99%	2e-89	47.23%	352	KAG6475315.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39-like [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	281	281	99%	2e-89	47.23%	351	XP_042434948.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C1 family peptidase [Flavobacteriaceae bacterium]	Flavobacteriaceae bacterium	280	280	98%	2e-89	46.63%	324	MDC1321248.1

Figure 33 Results of search in BLASTp of protein found in *Blastocystis* ST7, and excluding *E. histolytica* and *Blastocystis* from the search. Many results show cysteine protease.

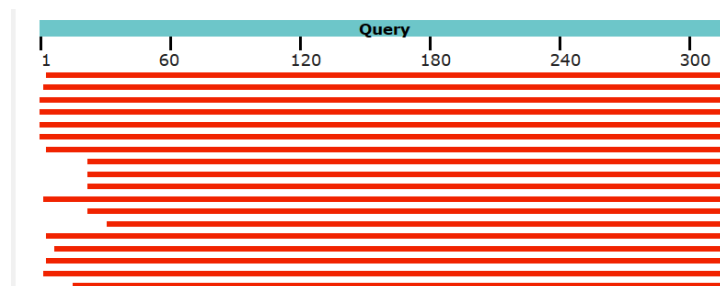


Figure 34 Graphical summary of reverse protein BLASTp results from Figure 33, of the search of cysteine proteinase 2 and excluding results from *E. histolytica* and *Blastocystis* spp.

Cryptopain-1

Sequences producing significant alignments									
Download ▼ Select columns ▼ Show 100 ▼ ?									
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> select all 55 sequences selected GenBank Graphics									
	Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	225	225	78%	5e-71	42.63%	972	XM_013042469.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	205	205	79%	3e-63	38.12%	965	XM_013039357.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	200	200	78%	4e-61	37.58%	1012	XM_013039150.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	198	198	77%	9e-61	36.05%	961	XM_013040302.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis sp. ST4 peptidase C1A domain-containing protein mRNA	Blastocystis sp. subty...	196	196	77%	1e-59	35.56%	957	XM_014674217.1

Figure 35 Results of the search for cryptopain-1 in *Blastocystis* genome performed in translated nucleotide BLAST search (tBLASTn). They all include a query cover over 70% and the e-value is within the threshold.

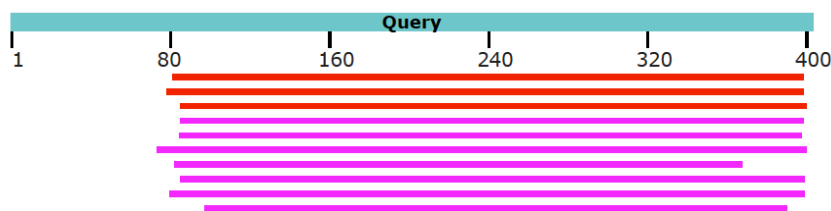


Figure 36 Graphic summary of results from Figure 35, of the search of cryptopain-1 from *C. pavrum* in genome *Blastocystis* in tBLASTn. Red and pink bars indicate some robust results and some solid matches.

Sequences producing significant alignments									
Download ▼ Select columns ▼ Show 100 ▼ ?									
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> select all 100 sequences selected GenPept Graphics Distance tree of results Multiple alignment MSA Viewer									
	Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein FNF29_07225 [Cafeteria roenbergensis]	Cafeteria roenbe...	289	289	98%	1e-92	47.38%	327	KAA0147671.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39 [Manihot esculenta]	Manihot esculenta	286	286	99%	3e-91	46.08%	339	XP_021611312.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein J5N97_008396 [Dioscorea zingiberensis]	Dioscorea zingib...	285	285	99%	9e-91	45.70%	341	KAJ0980141.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39-like [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	285	285	99%	1e-90	46.94%	351	XP_042434938.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein ZIOFF_064533 [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	281	281	99%	2e-89	47.23%	352	KAG6475315.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39-like [Zingiber officinale]	Zingiber officinale	281	281	99%	2e-89	47.23%	351	XP_042439481.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	C1 family peptidase [Flavobacteriaceae bacterium]	Flavobacteriace...	280	280	98%	2e-89	46.63%	324	MDC1321248.1

Figure 37 Results of protein search in reverse protein BLAST of *Blastocystis* ST7, excluding *Cryptosporidium* and *Blastocystis* from the search. Results show the protein to be cysteine protease.

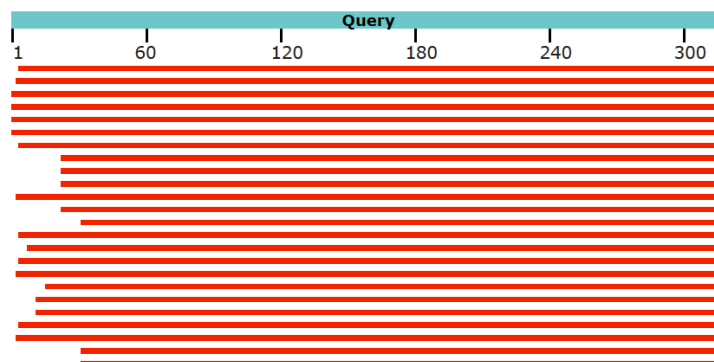


Figure 38 Graphic summary of results from Figure 37, of the reverse protein BLAST search of cryptopain-1. The search excludes results from *Cryptosporidium* and *Blastocystis* spp.

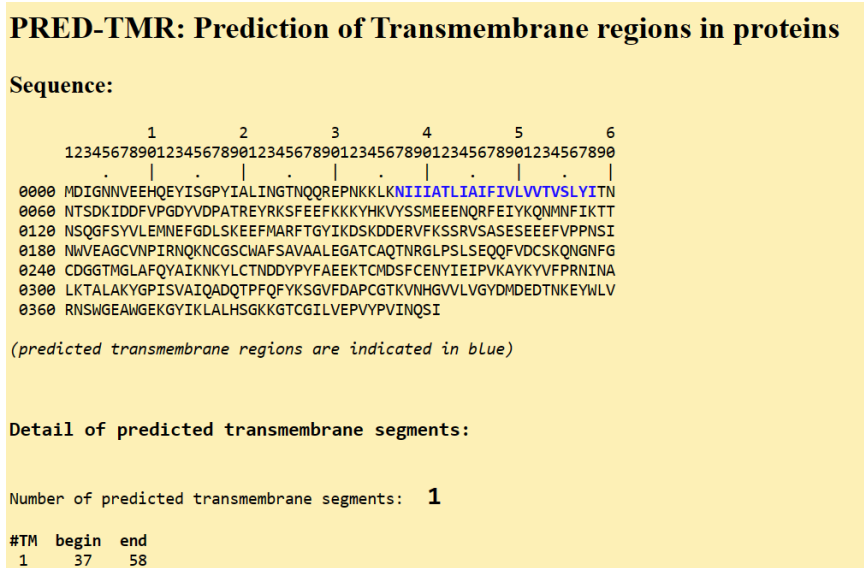


Figure 39 Results of search in PRED-TMR for cryptopain-1 of *C. parvum*. Results from *Blastocystis* are not included as there were no predictions in either ST7 or ST4.

Cysteine proteinase 5

	Description	Scientific Name	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Acc. Len	Accession
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	181	181	79%	5e-55	40.77%	965	XM_013039357.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	184	184	70%	3e-54	42.11%	1591	XM_013039626.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	176	176	81%	4e-53	39.55%	972	XM_013042469.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis hominis mRNA	Blastocystis hominis	173	173	68%	5e-52	43.64%	1012	XM_013039150.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Blastocystis sp. ST4 peptidase C1A domain-containing protein mRNA	Blastocystis sp. subtype 4	170	170	69%	6e-51	42.04%	957	XM_014674217.1

Figure 40 Results of translated nucleotide BLAST search (tBLASTn) of cysteine proteinase 5 from *E. histolytica* found in *Blastocystis* genome. *Blastocystis* ST7 has a query cover over 70%, while *Blastocystis* ST4 is under the threshold with 69% in query cover.

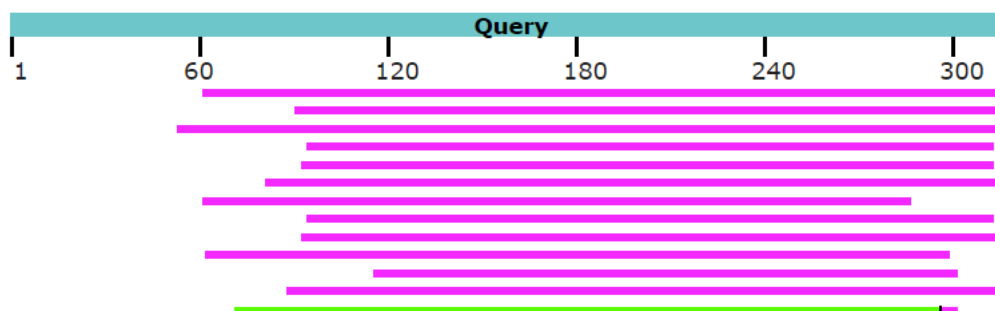


Figure 41 Graphic summary of results from Figure 40, of the tBLASTn search results of cysteine proteinase 5 in *Blastocystis* spp.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cysteine proteinase COT44-like [Juglans microcarpa x Juglans regia]	Juglans microcarpa x Juglans r...	261	261	92%	2e-81	47.57%	374	XP_041001509.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Peptidase C1A, papain C-terminal [Sesbania bispinosa]	Sesbania bispinosa	258	258	91%	3e-81	46.49%	299	KAJ1415786.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Cathepsin propeptide inhibitor domain (I29) [Arabidopsis suecica]	Arabidopsis suecica	263	263	97%	4e-81	44.61%	452	KAG7582542.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cysteine proteinase COT44-like [Juglans regia]	Juglans regia	261	261	92%	4e-81	47.25%	374	XP_018813719.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	cysteine proteinase COT44 isoform X1 [Quercus suber]	Quercus suber	261	261	92%	5e-81	47.08%	382	XP_023918494.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	putative cysteine protease [Sorogena stoianovitchae]	Sorogena stoianovitchae	258	258	91%	5e-81	49.48%	293	BAG12786.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	hypothetical protein C1H46_002195 [Malus baccata]	Malus baccata	260	260	99%	6e-81	43.88%	366	TQE12125.1

Figure 42 Results of search in reverse BLASTp of cysteine protease 5 found in *Blastocystis* ST7, excluding search in *Entamoeba* and *Blastocystis*. Some results show cysteine protease.

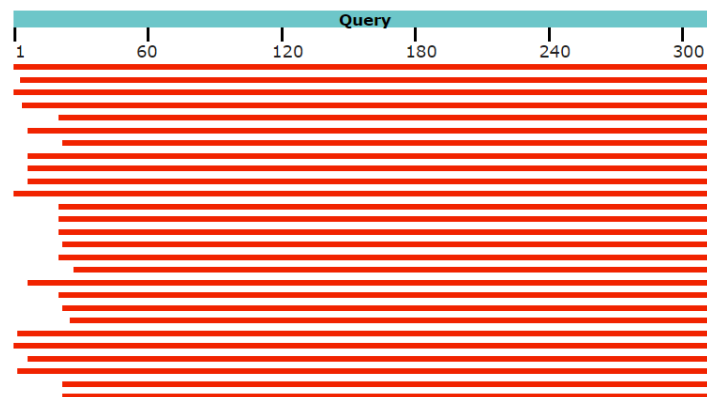


Figure 43 Graphic summary of results from Figure 42, of the reverse protein BLAST search of cysteine proteinase 5. The search excludes results from *Entamoeba* and *Blastocystis* spp.

Appendix 2 – Excel files

Cathepsin B

Table 9 Results of search performed in BLAST for cathepsin B in *Blastocystis* ST7 and ST4, as well as results of organisms used to construct a phylogenetic tree of the protein.

Organism	Gene ID	Protein ID	Protein	Length protein	Query cover	e-value
<i>G.intestinalis</i>	GL50803_16779	KAE8304515.1	Cathepsin B	298		
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XM_013044101.1	XP_012899555.1	uncharacterized protein	320	81 %	1e ⁻⁴⁹
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XM_014673561.1	XP_014529047.1	peptidase C1A family protein	316	74 %	7e ⁻⁴⁶

Phylogeny tree					
Organism	Kingdom	Domain	Protein ID	Protein	Length protein
<i>G.intestinalis</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	KAE8304515.1	Cathepsin B	298
<i>Spironucleus salmonicida</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	KAH0570486.1	Cathepsin B	286
<i>Kipferlia bialata</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	AHW50664.1	peptidase C1A, partial	334
<i>Aduncisulcus paluster</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	GKT34524.1	peptidase C1A, partial	438
<i>Naegleria fowleri</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	AHW50664.1	cathepsin B-like protein	313
<i>Naegleria lovaniensis</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	XP_044544572.1	uncharacterized protein C9374_010021	316
<i>Naegleria gruberi</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	EFC44879.1	Cathepsin B	321
<i>Acropora millepora</i>	Animal	Eukaryota	XP_029203614.2	cathepsin B-like CP3	325
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_012899555.1	uncharacterized protein	320
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_014529047.1	peptidase C1A family protein	316
<i>Blepharisma stoltei</i>	Chromista	Eukaryota	CAG9313979.1	unnamed protein product	299
<i>Chloropicon primus</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	QDZ22777.1	cathepsin B cysteine protease	319
<i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i>	Fungi	Eukaryota	KAH9256964.1	hypothetical protein BASA81_004785	482

Cysteine proteinase 2

Table 10 Results of search performed in BLAST for cysteine proteinase 2 in *Blastocystis* spp., as well as results of organisms used to construct a phylogenetic tree of the protein.

Organism	Gene ID	Protein ID	Protein	Length protein	Query cover	e-value
<i>E. histolytica</i>	EHI_033710	XP_650642.1	cysteine proteinase 2	315		
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XM_013042469.1	XP_012897923.1	uncharacterized protein	316	97 %	1e ⁻⁶⁰
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XM_014674217.1	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318	98 %	2e ⁻⁴⁸

Phylogeny tree						
Organism	Kingdom	Domain	Protein ID	Protein	Length	
<i>E. histolytica</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	XP_650642.1	cysteine proteinase 2	315	
<i>Dictyostelium purpureum</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	XP_003290609.1	hypothetical protein DICPUDRAFT_92519	333	
<i>Plasmodiophora brassicae</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	CEO98669.1	hypothetical protein PBRA_006783	336	
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_012897923.1	uncharacterized protein	316	
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318	
<i>Thraustotheca clavata</i>	Chromista	Eukaryota	AIG55389.1	secreted protein	520	
<i>Euphorbia peplus</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	WCJ32692.1	Cysteine proteinases superfamily protein	341	
<i>Carica papaya</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	XP_021887163.1	senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39-like	339	
<i>Amborella trichopoda</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	ERN19263.1	hypothetical protein AMTR_s00061p00215230	344	
<i>Clostridia</i> bacterium	Bacteria	Bacteria	MBO5344712.1	MAG: hypothetical protein J6A51_02335	317	
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i>	Bacteria	Bacteria	MCE2196779.1	hypothetical protein GQ599_09565	322	
<i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i>	Fungi	Eukaryota	KAH9261048.1	hypothetical protein BASA81_000752	369	
<i>Myxine glutinosa</i>	Animal	Eukaryota	AAF19631.1	cysteine proteinase precursor, partial	324	
<i>Oppia nitens</i>	Animal	Eukaryota	XP_054166525.1	procathepsin L-like	335	

Cryptopain-1

Table 11 Results of search performed in BLAST for cryptopain-1 in *Blastocystis* spp., as well as results of organisms used to construct phylogenetic tree of the protein.

Organism	Sequence ID	Protein ID	Protein	Length protein	Query cover	e-value
<i>Cryptosporidium parvum Iowa II</i>	XM_627814.1	XP_627814.1	cryptopain	401		
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XM_013042469.1	XP_012897923.1	uncharacterized	316	78 %	5e ⁻⁷¹
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XM_014674217.1	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318	77 %	1e ⁻⁵⁹
Phylogeny tree						
Organism	Kingdom	Domain	Protein ID	Protein	Length	
<i>C. parvum</i>	Chromista	Eukaryota	ABA40395.1	cryptopain-1	401	
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_012897923.1	uncharacterized	316	
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318	
<i>Besnoitia besnoiti</i>	Chromista	Eukaryota	XP_029215951.1	cathepsin CPL	430	
<i>Vitrella brassicaformis</i> CCMP3155	Chromista	Eukaryota	CEM03624.1	unnamed protein product	385	
<i>Cystoisospora suis</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	PHJ22756.1	cathepsin cpl	471	
<i>Blepharisma stoltei</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	CAG9326208.1	unnamed protein product	350	
<i>Cladocopium goreau</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	CAI3978150.1	unnamed protein product	462	
<i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> ME49	Protist	Eukaryota	XP_002371694.1	cathepsin CPL	422	
<i>Neospora caninum</i> Liverpool	Protist	Eukaryota	CEL64542.1	TPA: Cathepsin L, related	423	
<i>Salpingoeca rosetta</i>	Protist	Eukaryota	XP_004998235.1	cysteine proteinase	448	
<i>Batrachochytrium salamandrivorans</i>	Fungi	Eukaryota	KAH9256963.1	hypothetical protein BASA81_004784	484	
<i>Lithospermum erythrorhizon</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	KAG9153891.1	hypothetical protein Leryth_005995	359	
<i>Chlorella sorokiniana</i>	Plant	Eukaryota	PRW18306.1	cysteine ase RD21a-like	467	
<i>Eolophus roseicapillus</i>	Animal	Eukaryota	NXD73214.1	CATS protein, partial	330	

Cysteine proteinase 5

Table 12 Results of search performed in BLAST for cysteine proteinase 5 in *Blastocystis* spp., as well as results of organisms used to construct a phylogenetic tree of the protein.

Organism	Gene ID	Protein ID	Protein	Length protein	Query cover	e-value
<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>		CAA62835.1	cysteine proteinase	318		
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	XM_013039357.1	XP_012894811.1	uncharacterized protein	313	79 %	5e ⁻⁵⁵
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	XM_014674217.1	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318	69 %	6e ⁻⁵¹

Phylogeny tree					
Organism	Kingdom	Domain	Protein ID	Protein	Length
<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	Protist	Eukaryote	CAA62835.1	cysteine proteinase	318
<i>Oppia nitens</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	XP_054166525.1	procathepsin L-like	335
<i>Cherax quadricarinatus</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	XP_053637670.1	digestive cysteine proteinase 1-like	349
<i>Stegodyphus mimosarum</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	KFM79807.1	Cathepsin L, partial	384
<i>Orchesella cincta</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	ODN04735.1	Cathepsin L	330
<i>Gouania willdenowi</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	XP_028293264.1	cathepsin L1-like	328
<i>Mizuhopecten yessoensis</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	XP_021341415.1	cathepsin L1-like	346
<i>Haliotis rufescens</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	XP_046336476.2	procathepsin L-like	327
<i>Rotaria sordida</i>	Animal	Eukaryote	CAF3796554.1	unnamed protein product	336
<i>Cunninghamella echinulat</i>	Fungi	Eukaryote	KAI9303884.1	hypothetical protein BJ944DRAFT_241048	232
<i>Clostridia</i> bacterium	Bacteria	Bacteria	MBO5344712.1	MAG: hypothetical protein J6A51_02335	317
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST7	Chromista	Eukaryote	XP_012894811.1	uncharacterized protein	313
<i>Blastocystis</i> spp. ST4	Chromista	Eukaryote	XP_014529703.1	peptidase C1A domain-containing protein	318
<i>Linum tenue</i>	Plant	Eukaryote	CAI0384080.1	unnamed protein product	344
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> subsp. <i>vulgare</i>	Plant	Eukaryote	BAK02675.1	predicted protein	333

Appendix 3 – List of primers and oligo bridges

Table 13 Overview of the primers used for the promoters and terminators for the genes Peptidase C1A and 60S Ribosomal Protein L32. This was used for the experimental part of the project.

Primer nr.	Sequence 5'-3'	Description
MRT-129	GTAGGGCTCTGCTGCCCG	Forward primer for PC1A promoter V1263
MRT-130	CGCTCACAAGATTATTATGAATAGAAACGTTG	Reverse primer for PC1A promoters
MRT-131	CAGACACAGAAGCCGCCTCAG	Reverse primer for 60SRPL32 terminator
MRT-132	TTTATTGATCGGAGTGATTGACAATAAATCTGTAGAGA	Reverse primer for 60SRPL32 promoters
MRT-133	TTGCTGTAGCCGCGGATG	Forward primer for PC1A promoter V2207
MRT-134	GTAGCGATTGGGCGAAGGCT	Forward primer for PC1A promoter V643
MRT-135	ATAGAATCTCATGGCAAAGTATTATAATAAAGAAAAG	Forward primer for PC1A terminator
MRT-136	TAGAAAATCAGCCGTTCTATTTATATTATTCAC	Reverse primer for 60SRPL32 terminator
MRT-137	TTCTCTAACGCTTCTGCGTGTCTG	Forward primer for 60SRPL32 promoter V1000
MRT-138	CTGCGGTTGAGAATGACAAAAATAGAAAC	Forward primer for 60SRPL32 promoter V1295
MRT-139	TTTTGTTTGTGGAATCAAATTCGAACGCTC	Forward primer for 60SRPL32 terminator

Table 14 Overview of oligo bridges with a numbering system and sequence with direction 5'-3'.

Oligo nr.	Sequence 5'-3'
ssOB_70	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtccaCTGCGGTTGAGAATGACAAAAATAGAAACT
ssOB_71	GATTTATTGTCAATCACTCCGATCAATAAAATGGTCTTCACACTCGAAGATTTTCGTTGGG
ssOB_72	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtccaTTCTCTAACGCTTCTGCGTGTCTGTGTGT
ssOB_73	TGGCGGCTGTGCGAACGCATTCTGGCGTAATTTGTTTGTGGAATCAAATTCGAACGCT
ssOB_74	GGATGGAAGCTGAGGCGGCTTCTGTGTCTGaattcgtaatcatggtcatagctgttct
ssOB_75	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtccaGTAGCGATTGGGCGAAGGCTGAGATGTAGG
ssOB_76	ACGTTTCTATTCATAATAATCTTGTGAGCGATGGTCTTCACACTCGAAGATTTTCGTTGGG
ssOB_77	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtccaGTAGGGCTCTGCTGCCCGGATGAATCATGC
ssOB_78	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtccaTTGCTGTAGCCGCGGATGGGGACGAATCAG

Table 15 Scheme of oligo bridges used for the different vectors.

Plasmid name	Oligo bridge nr.
pMRT- ϕ _IH_60SRPL32_V1295	ssOB_70 ssOB_71
pMRT- ϕ _IH_60SRPL32_V1000	ssOB_71 ssOB_72
pMRT- τ _IH_60SRPL32	ssOB_73 ssOB_74
pMRT- ϕ _IH_PC1A_V643	ssOB_75 ssOB_76
pMRT- ϕ _IH_PC1A_V1263	ssOB_76 ssOB_77
pMRT- ϕ _IH_PC1A_V2207	ssOB_76 ssOB_78
pMRT- τ _IH_PC1A	ssOB_79 ssOB_80