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Whole genome sequencing and comparative genomics in lactic acid bacteria

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ABSTRACT

In the present thesis, the genomes of different microbial species, belonging to the lactic acid bacteria and including *Lactobacillus crispatus*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Enterococcus faecalis*, were obtained and analyzed using comparative genomics tools. In the first part of the thesis was described the genome of the probiotic *L. crispatus* strain M247, which contains a novel integrative and mobilizable element named Tn7088. Tn7088 carries a biosynthetic gene cluster coding for a class I bacteriocin which is homologous to the listeriolysin S gene cluster of *Listeria monocytogenes* and may confer selective advantages towards related bacterial species. Chromosomal rearrangements mediated by insertion sequences and involving two regions of 69.9-kb and 15.4-kb, were detected in the M247 strain. A *L. crispatus* M247 laboratory strain carried in our laboratory strain collection since 1990 and named M247_Siena, showed an unusual duplication of the 69.9-kb DNA region resulting in the generation of two long inverted repeats (LIRs) and the deletion of the 15.4-kb region. Analysis of ultra-long DNA Nanopore reads showed that the presence of LIRs in strain M247_Siena increased the intrinsic genome instability of strain M247. In the second part, a collection of 41 *E. faecalis* strains isolated from genital tract samples of infertile couples, was subjected to antimicrobial susceptibility testing and whole genome sequencing. Multi locus sequence typing and antimicrobial susceptibility testing results suggested clonality of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates resistant to high-level aminoglycosides. Analysis of the genomic location of aminoglycoside modifying enzyme (AME) genes led to the identification of a family of novel composite transposons, whose reference element was denominated Tn7086. Tn7086 and Tn7086-like elements in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* shared the following traits: i) are flanked by two direct repeats of the IS1216E element, ii) employ the same chromosomal *panE* gene integration site, iii) excise from the bacterial chromosome leaving an IS1216E copy in the chromosome and form circular intermediates in which the ends are joined by the other IS1216E copy. Finally, the whole genome sequences of the *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 and of *S. pneumoniae* laboratory strains Rx1 and R36A, were obtained and analyzed.

CHAPTER 1. General introduction

1. Lactic acid bacteria

The first pure culture of a lactic acid bacterium was isolated in 1873 by Joseph Lister and designated as *Bacterium lactis* (now *Lactococcus lactis*) for its capacity of causing the lactic acid fermentation of milk (Santer, 2010). The metabolic-based term “lactic acid bacteria” (LAB) is now used to define a phylogenetically heterogeneous group of microorganisms which are Gram-positive, usually catalase negative, microaerophilic, acid-tolerant, non-sporulating rods and cocci and characterized by their ability to produce lactic acid as main-end product of their metabolism (Hayek & Ibrahim, 2013; Quinto et al., 2014). LAB have coevolved with plants, invertebrates and vertebrates, establishing mutualism, symbiosis, commensalism, or even parasitism-like behavior with their host and consequentially, are associated with niches of dairy (fermented), meat, and vegetable origin, with the gastrointestinal and urogenital tracts of humans and animals, with soil and water (George et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2014). Lactic acid bacteria can be differentiated upon various criteria as morphology, growth temperature and ability to ferment glucose. Based on their fermentation features LAB are categorized into i) homofermentative LAB which mainly produce lactic acid from sugars and ii) heterofermentative LAB producing as lactic acid side products acetic acid or alcohol and carbon dioxide (Carr et al., 2002). Phylogenetically the LAB group consists of two major branches namely the *Clostridium* branch and the actinomycetes branch, identified essentially by 16S rDNA sequencing (Woese, 1998). The *Clostridium* branch includes LAB of the Firmicutes phylum with genera as *Enterococcus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Lactococcus*, *Leuconostoc*, *Pediococcus*, *Streptococcus* and *Weissella*, which all belong to the order *Lactobacillales* and are low-GC content (31-49%) organisms; whereas the actinomycetes branch contains the *Bifidobacterium* genus of the Actinobacteria phylum, which have a high-GC content (58-61%) (H. Zhang & Cai, 2014). Due to their versatile metabolism and properties, strains of Lactic acid bacteria are used as starter cultures in the dairy industry, as probiotics in dietary supplements and

as bioconversion agents in the production of interesting compounds (i.e., nutraceuticals) (Ruiz-Rodríguez et al., 2016).

1.1. The genus *Lactobacillus*

Historically the genus *Lactobacillus* constituted the largest and most diverse group among LAB, including more than 250 species, extremely diverse at phenotypic, ecological and genotypic level. Recent work, based on whole genome sequence analysis led to a reclassification into 25 genera including the emended genus *Lactobacillus* which includes host-adapted organisms that have been referred to as the *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* group, the genus *Paralactobacillus* and 23 novel genera for which other names have been proposed (Zheng et al., 2020). *Lactobacillus* species are Gram-positive, homofermentative, thermophilic, non-spore forming rods, which adapted to their vertebrate host, except for the *Lactobacillus melliventris* clade that is adapted to social bees (Martinson et al., 2011). Lactobacilli are normal inhabitants of the oral cavity, the gastrointestinal tract and the urogenital tract (Ahrné et al., 1998; Hillier et al., 1993). *Lactobacillus* spp. has been identified as the most abundant genus throughout the female reproductive system of healthy women and alterations in their quantity and quality have been associated with different gynecological disorders (Kyono et al., 2018; Moreno et al., 2016; Ravel et al., 2011; S. B. Smith & Ravel, 2017). Indeed, *Lactobacillus* spp. contribute to the maintenance of vaginal homeostasis by different direct and indirect anti-pathogenic mechanisms such as i) induction of an acid pH associated to lactic acid production, ii) hydrogen peroxide production, iii) formation of microcolonies that create a physical barrier against pathogen colonization and iv) induction of immune response against pathogen (Aldunate et al., 2015; Tachedjian et al., 2018; Tyssen et al., 2018). Furthermore, strains of genus *Lactobacillus* are able to produce bacteriocins, which are ribosomally synthesized peptides exerting antimicrobial activity toward strains of species related to the producing species (Collins et al., 2017; Zacharof & Lovitt, 2012). In the gastrointestinal tract (GIT) of humans and animals, *Lactobacillus* spp. are found in variable amounts according to the animal species, the age of the host or the location within the gut. However, with the advent of

new techniques of identification including Next Generation Sequencing (NGS), it has been estimated that autochthonous lactobacilli of GIT constitute only the 0.01 - 0.6% of human adult fecal microbiota (Heeney et al., 2018; Lebeer et al., 2008).

1.1.1. *Lactobacillus crispatus*

Lactobacillus crispatus was first isolated in 1953 at the Institut of Pasteur by Brygoo and Aladame (Brygoo & Aladame, 1953). Initially considered a new species of the genus *Eubacterium*, *L. crispatus* was later identified as *Lactobacillus* and considered a synonymous with “*L. acidophilus* group A2” (CATO et al., 1983). Recently, Zheng and colleagues (Zheng et al., 2020) reclassified the genus *Lactobacillus* into 25 genera; however, the nomenclature of *L. crispatus* remained unchanged. *L. crispatus* is the most frequently isolated species among the vaginal lactobacilli of the human microbiota of healthy women (Raven et al., 2011). The presence of *L. crispatus* in the vaginal microbiota is associated with reduced risk of preterm delivery, viral sexually transmitted infections, and bacterial vaginosis (Petrova et al., 2015). Furthermore, *L. crispatus* is one of the few *Lactobacillus* species isolated from human gut (El Aila et al., 2009) and it is associated to animal health, particularly to poultry (chicken and turkey) gut health (Dec et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2013). Despite the growing interest in *L. crispatus* strains suitable to be used as probiotic for both women and poultry, only limited information has been elucidated on the genetic bases conferring a pivotal role to *L. crispatus* in the human vaginal and poultry gut niche. To date (December 12, 2021) GenBank hosts 169 deposited genomes of *L. crispatus*, of these only 14 are complete, while 155 are draft genomes assembled either in scaffolds or in contigs (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/browse/#!/prokaryotes/1815/>). The median total length of the *L. crispatus* complete genome is 2.371 Megabases (Mbs), encoding for 2,223 genes, with an average GC content of 37 %. *L. crispatus* genome is bigger than the genome of other well-known vaginal *Lactobacillus* species such as *L. gasseri* (2.046 Mbs), *L. jensenii* (1.640 Mbs) and *L. iners* (1.404 Mbs). This size difference is consistent with the *L. crispatus* genome coding for several protein families that are involved in organismal interaction such as resistance to phage infections,

bacteriocin-type sequences, toxin-antitoxin systems and for a high number of proteins related to mobile genetic elements such as transposases (Mendes-Soares et al., 2014). Comparative genomic analysis of *L. crispatus* genomes were performed to analyze the genetic diversity and the population structure of this species (Abdelmaksoud et al., 2016; Ojala et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2020; van der Veer et al., 2019). A first study based on 10 genome sequences estimated the size of the core genome to level at about 1,116 genes (Ojala et al., 2014), while a more recent work on a larger dataset (105 genomes) estimated that the core genome of *L. crispatus* consists of 465 genes. Phylogenetical analysis indicates a clear separation of *L. crispatus* strains regarding their isolation source (human or poultry) and also that human gut and vaginal isolates cluster separately. Compared to *L. crispatus* gut isolates, strains from vaginal environment present CRISPR loci with a reduced number of spacers (mainly of Type-II-A CRISPR system) (Pan et al., 2020) and this probably reflects the higher prevalence of phages in the gut environment (Stern et al., 2012). In addition, gut isolates tend to display a complete exopolysaccharide (EPS) biosynthesis gene cluster constituted by 16 genes (priming glycosyltransferase (*p-gtf*), glycosyltransferases, flippase, tyrosine kinase (*epsC-D*) tyrosine phosphatase, capsular polysaccharide gene (*cpsA*), rhamnose and membrane transporters, among others), whereas vaginal isolates tend to display a variable *eps* cluster which is very often truncated or incomplete (Ojala et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2020). Comparison of the genetic content of *L. crispatus* isolates from healthy lactobacilli-dominated vaginal microbiomes (LVM) with isolates from dysbiotic vaginal microbiomes (DVM), showed similar content of lactic acid production genes and phages, with similar phage-induced lysis rate, however LVM isolates were more likely to carry glycosyltransferase genes and DVM isolates genes for cellobiose transport (Abdelmaksoud et al., 2016; van der Veer et al., 2019).

1.2. The genus *Streptococcus*

Streptococci were first observed in 1874 by Billroth (Jones, 1978) and are characterized by ovoid or spherical, Gram-positive cells arranged in pairs or in chains which can be long up to 50 cells. These cocci are facultatively anaerobic, non-sporing, catalase-negative, homofermentative, and

have complex nutritional requirements. Streptococci are normal inhabitants of the mucosal surfaces of humans and other mammals, with some species found also on the skin and others that may be isolated from milk and dairy products (Wood & Holzapfel, 1995). Streptococci are the dominant species in the oral cavity and upper respiratory tract (Abranches et al., 2018). Based on hemolysis pattern and carbohydrate “group” antigens (Lancefield groups), Streptococci were initially differentiated in two groups namely the “pyogenic” and the “viridans” (Sherman JM., 1937). More recently, based on phylogenetic analysis streptococci were separated into 8 distinct “species groups”, namely “mitis”, “sanguinis”, “anginosus”, “salivarius”, “downei”, “mutans”, “pyogenic”, and “bovis” which comprise most of the described species in the genus (Richards et al., 2014). The genus *Streptococcus* represents one of the most invasive group of bacteria which includes typical human pathogenic species such as *S. pyogenes*, *S. agalactiae*, *S. pneumoniae* and many other species capable of acting as opportunistic pathogens under appropriate circumstances (Krzyściak et al., 2013).

1.2.1. *Streptococcus pneumoniae*

S. pneumoniae (the “pneumococcus”) is one of the most important human pathogens, causing invasive infections such as meningitis, sepsis, pneumonia, and mild mucosal infections as acute otitis media, sinusitis and conjunctivitis. At the same time pneumococcus is also a common inhabitant of the human nasopharynx, where it can stay as a commensal without causing disease. The transmission, colonization and invasion of *S. pneumoniae* depend on its ability to evade or take advantage of the host inflammatory and immune responses (Weiser et al., 2018). The primary virulence factor of *S. pneumoniae* is an extracellular polysaccharidic capsule which surrounds the bacterium conferring protection from mucus-mediated clearance, environmental stresses and phagocytosis (García et al., 1997; Nelson et al., 2007). A total of 100 different pneumococcal capsular serotypes have been identified to date (Ganaie et al., 2020), based on the biochemical composition and antigenic properties (Paton & Trappetti, 2019). The genetic locus encoding the genes for the synthesis of the capsular polysaccharide is located to the same position on the

chromosome between *dexB* and *aliA* genes in all serotypes except type 37 (Llull et al., 1999), it is variable in length (approximately 10–30 kb) and has an essentially conserved block-wise arrangement (Paton & Trappetti, 2019). Other *S. pneumoniae* virulence factors include surface proteins and enzymes, such as the choline-binding proteins (PspA, PspC and LytA), and the toxin pneumolysin (Berry & Paton, 2000; Brown et al., 2015; Kaetzel, 2001; Tomasz et al., 1970; Tu et al., 1999). To date (December 12, 2021) GenBank hosts 8,973 deposited genomes of *S. pneumoniae*, of these 90 are complete, while 8,883 are draft genomes assembled either in scaffolds or in contigs (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/browse#!/prokaryotes/176/>). The median total length of the *E. faecalis* genome is 2.085 Mbs, encoding for 1,951 genes, with an average GC content of 39.6 %. One of the keys of the success of pneumococcus as a pathogen is its genome plasticity. Indeed, *S. pneumoniae* is naturally transformable and therefore, readily able to internalize and integrate heterologous DNA into its genome through the competence system (Straume et al., 2015), resulting in rapid variations such as serotype changes (Coffey et al., 1998). Furthermore, *S. pneumoniae* genome is also shaped by the presence of mobile genetic elements such as integrative and conjugative elements responsible for pneumococcal genome evolution and more particularly for virulence and drug resistance acquisition (Croucher et al., 2009, 2011). All pneumococcal plasmids are cryptic as they do not code for genes conferring observable phenotypes. Most of the pneumococcal plasmids isolated over years are nearly identical to pDP1, which was the first plasmid of *S. pneumoniae* to be isolated in 1979 in strain D39 and its derivatives (M. D. Smith & Guild, 1979), with the exception of pSpnP1 (Romero et al., 2007).

1.3. The genus *Enterococcus*

Enterococci were first described in 1899 by Thiercelin (Thiercelin & Jouhaud, 1899), but were phylogenetically grouped within the genus *Streptococcus* (Sherman JM., 1937) and classified as a new genus only in 1984 upon DNA hybridization analysis and 16S rRNA sequencing (Schleifer & Kilpper-Bälz, 1984). Species within the genus *Enterococcus* have ovoid, Gram-positive cells occurring singly, in pairs or in short chains in which cells are elongated in the direction of the

chain. Enterococci are present in the intestinal tracts of humans and animals and in the environments these organisms inhabit (Klein, 2003; Murray, 1990). Enterococci are the predominant Gram-positive cocci found within the gastrointestinal tract and in humans can be isolated at concentrations of 10^5 to 10^7 CFU/gram feces (Jett et al., 1994). Despite being auxotrophic for many amino acids, vitamins and micronutrients (Niven & Sherman, 1944), enterococci present a strong survival ability resulting from their tolerance to UV irradiation (Maraccini et al., 2012), salt concentration, starvation (Hartke et al., 1998) and predation by bacteriophages (Duerkop et al., 2016; Purnell et al., 2011). Enterococci are also able to replicate in the environment, possibly as the results of collaboration within polymicrobial consortium (Byappanahalli et al., 2012; Desmarais et al., 2002; Yamahara et al., 2009). Horizontal gene transfer in enterococci is favored by the fact that they exist in complex microbial ecosystem, in intimate contact with large diversity of potential sources of genetic material; furthermore, due to their high level of intrinsic antibiotic resistance, enterococci occur in environment substantially enriched for antibiotic-resistance elements (Van Tyne & Gilmore, 2014). The ability of enterococci to acquire mobile genetic elements, conveying antimicrobial resistance and virulence traits among both Gram-positive and -negative species, has contributed to their emergence as leading hospital pathogens (Palmer et al., 2010; Pöntinen et al., 2021).

1.3.1. *Enterococcus faecalis*

Enterococcus faecalis is one of the most abundant enterococci in human feces and the species responsible for the majority of enterococcal infections in humans, including urinary tract infections (UTIs), sepsis, endocarditis, peritonitis, abdominal/pelvic and soft tissue infection (Agudelo Higuera & Huycke, 2014; Lebreton et al., 2014). The most frequent clinical manifestation is UTI, of which *E. faecalis* is the second most common agent worldwide after *Escherichia coli* (Flores-Mireles et al., 2015). *E. faecalis* is also the leading pathogen among Gram-positive bacteria of catheter-associated UTIs (CAUTIs) in healthcare settings (Peng et al., 2018). Ascending UTIs and intra-abdominal infections can lead to bacteremia and endocarditis. Both *Enterococcus faecium*

and *E. faecalis* have a remarkable tropism for the endocardium and/or the heart valves, but *E. faecalis* alone accounts for about 90% of enterococcal endocarditis cases, especially in risk groups (Fernández-Hidalgo et al., 2020). To date (December 12, 2021) GenBank hosts 2,076 deposited genomes of *E. faecalis*, of these 79 are complete, while 1997 are draft genomes assembled either in scaffolds or in contigs (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/browse#!/prokaryotes/808/>). The median total length of the *E. faecalis* genome is 2.973 Mbs, encoding for 2,753 genes, with an average GC content of 37.4 %. Compared to commensal representatives, hospital-adapted *E. faecalis* strains generally contain a larger mobilome which accounts for over a quarter of the genome as observed in the vancomycin resistant *E. faecalis* strain V583 (Bourgonne et al., 2008; Hegstad et al., 2010; Weaver, 2019). Indeed, hospital-adapted, multidrug-resistant lineages of *E. faecalis* include strains of multiple-locus sequence type clonal clusters CC2, CC9, CC28, and CC40 (McBride et al., 2007; Ruiz-Garbajosa et al., 2006) in which a variety of auxiliary traits such as antibiotic resistance genes (Lebreton et al., 2013; McBride et al., 2007), Enterococcal surface protein (Esp)-containing pathogenicity island (Leavis et al., 2004; Tendolkar et al., 2004) and more complex integral cell wall carbohydrate operons (Palmer et al., 2012; Solheim et al., 2011), have converged on mobile genetic elements. Recently, a comparative genomic study involving 2027 *E. faecalis* genomes from isolates spanning a wide range of isolation years and sources, indicated that apparent adaptation to the hospital-associated niche is actually likely to be due to selection for survival in a broader set of niches, consistent with *E. faecalis* having a generalist nature (Pöntinen et al., 2021). Vectors of horizontal transmission of most of the antibiotic resistance genes in *E. faecalis* are pheromone-responsive plasmids such as pCF10 (Dunny, 2007) and pAD1 (Clewell, 2007). Conjugation of these plasmids is induced by pheromones chromosomally encoded within genes for lipoprotein signal peptides and secreted by potential recipient cells (Palmer et al., 2010). Pheromone-responsive plasmids provide also accessory genes encoding bacteriocin, cytolysin production and ultraviolet resistance and probably evolved to shuttle niche specialization traits allowing *E. faecalis* as a species to readily adapt to a particular host (Palmer et al., 2010). However,

the majority of the mobilome in enterococci is represented by transposable elements distributed on both chromosomes and plasmids (Lam et al., 2012; Paulsen et al., 2003; Qin et al., 2012) and including (i) composite transposon (class I transposons), (ii) Tn3/21 family transposons (class II transposons) and (iii) integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs) comprehensive of the classical conjugative transposons (Werner et al., 2013). Composite transposons are flanked by copies of insertion sequences of the same family that act together to move the DNA between them, while Tn3/21 family transposons are bounded by short inverted repeats and contain both genes needed for transposon movement and the accessory genes (Harmer et al., 2020). ICEs are conjugative and self-transmissible elements capable of excise from and integrate into the host chromosomes and like conjugative plasmids contribute to the antibiotic resistance genes diffusion among *Enterococcus spp.* ICEs members of the Tn916/Tn1545 family, all related to Tn916 originally discovered in *E. faecalis* (Franke & Clewell, 1981), are broad host range ICEs responsible for a large proportion of the antibiotic resistance observed in *E. faecalis*, but also in other bacterial genera such as *Staphylococcus* and *Streptococcus* (Hegstad et al., 2010; Roberts & Mullany, 2011).

2. Bacterial genomics and whole genome sequencing

Bacterial genomics involves the study and comparison of whole bacterial genomes using nucleic acid sequencing technologies and computational analysis tools (Casjens, 1998). Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) represents a “top-down” approach to associate genotype with phenotype and holds the potential to enable rapid bacterial profiling and pathogen identification, leading further details about the molecular basis of virulence and antibiotic-resistance acquisition and allowing population studies via comparative analysis. Comparison of whole genomes allows the identification of large genomic variations, including insertions, deletions, inversions, translocations and duplications, which can all contribute to the unique genotypic composition of each isolate. Such structural variations can be identified through both sequence assembly and read mapping. Indeed, disproportionate read coverage of reads mapping to a reference genome can be

used to detect deletions (manifested as an absence of reads mapping to that region of the genome) and duplications of the genome (manifested as a doubling of reads mapping to that region of the genome) (Bryant et al., 2012). Bacterial genome sizes can differ over a greater than tenfold range, ranging from 580 kbp for *Mycoplasma genitalium* (Fraser et al., 1995) up to 9,140 kbp for *Myxococcus xanthus* (Goldman et al., 2006) with specialist bacteria having smaller genomes compared to bacteria that are metabolic generalists and/or undergo some form of development such as sporulation, mycelium formation. Genome assembly reconstructs a genome from many shorter reads (Miller et al., 2010; Nagarajan & Pop, 2013; Pop, 2009). The advent of novel sequencing technologies has enabled more rapid, cost-effective and precise microbial sequencing. However, the assembly of complete bacterial genomes remains a challenging process with DNA sequence repeats representing the primary obstacle (Koren & Phillippy, 2015). DNA repeats in prokaryotes are causes and consequences of genome plasticity which may origin through intrachromosomal recombination or horizontal transfer and in turn lead to genetic material amplifications, deletions, and rearrangement via recombination processes (Treangen et al., 2009). Bacterial genomes have been classified based on their repeats content in i) class I genomes having few repeats other than the rDNA operon (7-8kb), ii) class II containing in addition many mid-scale repeats such as insertion sequences, with rDNA operon still being the longest, iii) class III containing repeats significantly larger than the rDNA operon (Koren et al., 2013). Among bacteria harboring a class III genomes it is estimated that a small percentage (~3%) contains long near identical repeats above 30 kb to over 100 kb in length, although this fraction could be under-represented *per se* among completely sequenced genomes (Schmid et al., 2018).

2.1. Nanopore sequencing technology

In 2014 the Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) company (United Kingdom) released the Nanopore sequencing technology which directly targets single DNA molecules and is currently the only sequencing technology based on DNA translocation through biological nanopores. The core of the technology is constituted by nanoscale protein pores or “nanopores” embedded in an

electrical resistant polymer membrane where an ionic current flows. During sequencing, single strand DNA translocation through the pores induces voltage shifts in the ionic current that are characteristic of each DNA sequence occupying the pore (“squiggles”) and are then computationally interpreted as k-mers of 3-6 nucleotides in length (Jain et al., 2016). Nanopore sequencing technology presents a series of advantages: i) long sequencing reads up to hundreds kbp, with theoretically no-instrument imposed size limitation (Jain et al., 2016), ii) real time data analysis coupled with no fixed run time up to max 72 h, with the possibility of interrupting the sequencing when a certain datum has been seen a certain number of times at a specified confidence level (“read until”), so that in this way the experiment is defined by the user and not by the machine (Loose et al., 2016), iii) reduced costs compared to other sequencing technologies (Q.-F. Zhang et al., 2020), iv) portability and readiness of use with different types of devices and DNA library preparation protocols suitable for different situations and conditions, also for use in non-laboratory settings (Castro-Wallace et al., 2017; Goordial et al., 2017; Pomerantz et al., 2018). Despite the numerous advantages of Nanopore sequencing technology, raw Nanopore reads are still characterized by a relatively high-error rate. Systematic random errors account for 5% up to 15% of the total sequenced bases and consist in insertions/deletions (InDels) of bases at the level of DNA homopolymer tracts or in a minority of cases in nucleotide substitution, due to variations in the DNA translocation speed and to chemical modifications that alter the electric signal, respectively (De Maio et al., 2019). Nanopore sequencing errors are associated to changes in the protein annotation, due to the introduction of premature stop codon or frameshift error in the DNA sequence resulting in incorrect shorter or longer predicted coding sequences. The low Nanopore accuracy may be resolved using either non-hybrid methods or hybrid approaches. Non-hybrid methods include bioinformatic tools that perform self-correction with long reads alone, using the overlap information to generate a consensus sequence and consequently requiring that a sufficient genome coverage has been generated during sequencing (Loman et al., 2015). Hybrid approaches involve bioinformatic tools that implies short high accuracy reads (e.g. Illumina reads) for single

base pair correction and long Nanopore reads just for the resolution of genomic architecture (De Maio et al., 2019). Hybrid methods aided by short accurate reads achieve better correction quality, especially when handling low coverage-depth long reads compared to non-hybrid methods and therefore, are currently the preferred approach for accurate genome assembly (De Maio et al., 2019; Madoui et al., 2015; Ruan et al., 2020). Due to its characteristics, Nanopore sequencing technology has been used in microbiology for the *de novo* genome assembly of complete bacterial genomes (Karlsson et al., 2015; Laver et al., 2015), for rapid and accurate pathogen identification (Bialasiewicz et al., 2019; Charalampous et al., 2018; Cusco et al., 2018; Sanderson et al., 2018) and for antimicrobial resistance pathogens profiling (Bainomugisa et al., 2018; Lemon et al., 2017; Pitt et al., 2020; Schmidt et al., 2017; Tamma et al., 2019). Long Nanopore reads have been proven to be particularly useful for *de novo* genome assembly because hold the potential to uniquely span repeated regions of a bacterial genome by anchoring both extremities of each repeat to the flanking sequences (Koren et al., 2013; Loman et al., 2015).

2.2. Genome annotation and comparison tools

Genome annotation consists of a i) gene finding process aimed to predict the section of the genome that contain genes and a ii) function assignment step seeking to predict the function of the coded proteins by sequence similarity across various sequence databases. Bioinformatic annotation pipelines include local annotation pipelines which can be downloaded and run on local computers, such as Prokka (Seemann, 2014) and web based platforms which require users to upload their unannotated genomes to a given server, such as RAST (Overbeek et al., 2014), IMG (Markowitz et al., 2012) and NCBI (Tatusova et al., 2016). A set of annotated genomes allows gene clustering into ortholog families, followed by analysis of the presence/absence of each family in the given genomes. The term core genome refers to the set of distinct families observed in all genomes, the term variable or accessory genome to gene families not included in the core genome, whereas the term pan genome refers to the totality of gene families observed in the genomes being compared (Tettelin et al., 2005; Vernikos et al., 2015). Biologically the core genome identifies the gene

families that can be found in the members of a group, whereas the variable genome represents gene families of subgroups which can potentially be associated to different phenotypic traits. Pan genome can be open if the addition of new genomes increases the pan genome size, or closed if after a certain number of genomes, the addition of a new one will not increase the size of its pan genome. Pan genome analysis programs are Get_Homologues (Contreras-Moreira & Vinuesa, 2013) , which uses 3rd party programs for computing orthologous group and Roary (Page et al., 2015), which instead does not depend on 3rd party. Whole genome alignment can't be obtained with any sequence alignment algorithm due to the length of genomes. Pairwise genome alignment programs rely on a seed-and-extend method which first find short alignments and then connect those close enough such as the MUMmer program (Kurtz et al., 2004) and YOC program (Uricaru et al., 2015). Variation of the seed-and-extend method are also used by program for multiple genome alignment such as MAUVE (Darling et al., 2004). Genome alignment is useful to evaluate the synteny, which is the conservation of the genes order that may suggest functional evolutionary constraints. However, despite all the technological advancements the main obstacle to genome comparison analysis remains the presence of deposited prokaryotic genomes in the form of draft genomes which may contain incorrectly assembled contigs.

3. Aim of the thesis

The aim of this thesis was to study strains of three bacterial species part of the group of lactic acid bacteria by means of whole genome sequencing and comparative genomic analysis. In particular, the thesis focused on *L. crispatus* probiotic strain M247 and type strain ATCC 33820, *S. pneumoniae* laboratory strains Rx1 and R36A, and *E. faecalis* clinical isolates retrieved from infertile couples. To obtain a complete genome for each strain analyzed, sequencing approach was based on Nanopore sequencing technology, accompanied by Illumina sequencing for better sequence quality. *L. crispatus* probiotic strain M247 genome was investigated using bioinformatic tools, complemented with PCR analysis (Chapters 2 and 3). A collection of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* clinical isolates was characterized by using antimicrobial susceptibility testing, whole genome sequencing and multilocus sequence typing to investigate the presence and features of antimicrobial resistance determinants (Chapters 4 and 5). Finally, the genome sequences of *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 and *S. pneumoniae* strains Rx1 and R36A were obtained and analyzed (Chapters 6 and 7).

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CHAPTER 2

The mobilome of probiotic *Lactobacillus crispatus* M247 includes Tn7088 a novel transposon carrying a biosynthetic gene cluster for a class I bacteriocin

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1. ABSTRACT

Background: The probiotic *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain M247 is known to exhibit beneficial effects on intestinal inflammatory disorders, strong aggregation phenotype and adherence to intestinal mucus as well as counteracting effects on vaginal dysbiosis and on papilloma virus infections. In this study, the *L. crispatus* M247 complete genome sequence was obtained and analyzed, resulting in the identification and characterization of a novel mobile genetic element carrying a biosynthetic gene cluster for a class I bacteriocin.

Methods: The complete genome sequence of *L. crispatus* M247 was obtained combining Nanopore and Illumina sequencing technologies. M247 genomic features and its mobilome were evaluated with bioinformatic tools. The DNA sequence of a novel mobile genetic element was analyzed. PCR mapping was performed to evaluate the excision mechanism, and quantitative PCR was used to quantify the number of circular intermediates and reconstituted chromosomal integration sites.

Results: The M247 genome consists of a 2.33 Mb circular chromosome, with 2,305 open reading frames (ORFs) and a GC content of 37.04%. The M247 mobilome accounts for 13.6% of the whole genome, including a 42.6-kb long prophage, a 14.1-kb long novel integrative and mobilizable element named Tn7088, and various insertion sequences (ISs). Tn7088 integrates at a 79-bp long *attB* site on the M247 chromosome containing the last 12 nucleotides at the 3' end of a threonine tRNA encoding gene, and upon integration is flanked by *attL* and *attR*. It was shown that Tn7088 it is able to excise from the M247 chromosome, with consequent reconstitution of the integration site *attB* identical to *attR*, and to form circular intermediates where the left and right ends are joined by *attTn* identical to *attL*. *attL-attTn* contain 12 nucleotide changes and 11 nucleotides insertion compared to *attR-attB*. Tn7088 contains 18 ORFs, of which 15 ORFs code for hypothetical proteins with a homology-based predicted functions including i) genes coding for proteins involved in the integration/excision, ii) genes coding for proteins contributing to the putative horizontal transfer of the element and iii) a gene cluster homologous to the listeriolysin S

locus of *Listeria monocytogenes*, coding for a class I bacteriocin and enzymes involved in its production. The *attB* site of Tn7088 was found also in other *Lactobacillus* species sharing a core sequence of 12 nucleotides. Tn7088-like elements were found integrated in 7 out of 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes, with certain variabilities within the bacteriocin gene cluster.

Conclusion: Our work reports the characterization of the novel mobile genetic element Tn7088, identified in the genome of the probiotic *L. crispatus* strain M247, which integrates at an *attB* site present in the chromosomes of *L. crispatus* strains and other *Lactobacillus* species. Tn7088 contains a class I bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster homologous of the listeriolysin S gene cluster of *Listeria monocytogenes* suggesting that this element may contribute to the niche-adaptive traits and to the probiotic potential of its host bacterial strain.

2. INTRODUCTION

Lactobacillus crispatus is the most frequently isolated species among the vaginal lactobacilli of the human microbiota of healthy women and it is also one of the commensal bacteria of the human gastrointestinal tract (Petrova et al., 2015; Walter, 2008). *L. crispatus* genomic content varies and correlates with the isolation source. Differences among strains involve mainly CRISPR-cas systems, metabolism genes, exopolysaccharides (EPS)-production and prophages (Ojala et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2020). Fundamental differences in the genetic content can translate to a better performance of specific strains in a particular ecological niche, increasing survival, colonization and functionalities. The production of antimicrobial compounds and EPS are *L. crispatus* traits of interest in the design and formulation of probiotics for host and body site-specific applications (Donnarumma et al., 2014; Nardini et al., 2016). Among antimicrobial compounds, bacteriocins represent a large family of ribosomally produced peptide antibiotics that increase the fitness of individual bacterial strains in competition with other microorganisms or with host defense mechanisms, playing an important role in shaping the microbiome (Heilbronner et al., 2021). Bacteriocins may represent alternatives to antibiotics due to i) their potency both in vitro and in vivo paired with low toxicity, ii) the specific spectrum of activity, iii) the possibility to be bioengineered and to be produced *in situ* by probiotics (Cotter et al., 2013). Based on the occurrence of post-translational modification, bacteriocins are distinguished in class II (peptides which remain unaltered after synthesis) or class I (peptide which are modified by enzymatic tailoring). M247 strain is a *L. crispatus* newborn fecal sample isolate (Cesena et al., 2001) largely studied for its probiotic potential. It was demonstrated that strain M247 exhibits beneficial effects on intestinal inflammatory disorders (Castagliuolo et al., 2005; Voltan et al., 2007, 2008), shows strong aggregation phenotype and adherence to intestinal mucus (Cesena et al., 2001; Hynönen & Palva, 2013; Kirjavainen et al., 1998; Marcotte et al., 2004; Siciliano et al., 2008), helps counteracting vaginal dysbiosis (Pierro et al., 2018) and also seems to contribute to papilloma virus clearance (Pierro et al., 2021). In this work, we report the complete genome sequence of the

L. crispatus strain M247 and we characterize the novel transposon Tn7088, containing a biosynthetic gene cluster for a class I bacteriocin, which may confer niche adaptive advantages to its bacterial host.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Bacterial strains and growth conditions

L. crispatus strain M247 isolated from feces of human newborns (Cesena et al., 2001) was used in this study. The *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 (Teodori et al., 2021) purchased from the American Type Culture Collection was also used as reference. Frozen starter cultures were grown in DeMan-Rogosa-Sharpe medium (MRS) broth (Oxoid LTD, Basingstoke, Hampshire, England) in anaerobic condition at 37°C.

3.2. DNA purification and quantification

Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000 x *g* for 30 minutes at 4°C) in exponential phase growth (OD₅₉₀=1.9). *Lactobacillus* cells pellet was dry vortex-mixed for 2-3 min and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C in Protoplasting Buffer (20% Raffinose, 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 5 mM EDTA) containing 4 mg/ml lysozyme. Protoplasts were centrifuged (5,000 x *g* for 5 minutes), resuspended in 15 ml of deionized H₂O with 100 µg/ml proteinase K (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C to obtain osmotic lysis, adding 0.5% SDS after 15 minutes. Then, 0.55 M NaCl was added and the mixture was incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature. High-molecular-weight DNA was purified three times with 1 volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1 [v:v]), precipitated in 0.6 volumes of ice-cold isopropanol, and spooled on a glass rod. DNA was resuspended in 10-fold diluted saline-sodium citrate (SSC) 1x buffer, then adjusted to 1x SSC and maintained at 4°C. The DNA solution was homogenized using a rotator mixer. DNA was quantified with Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, United States) by using the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and results were confirmed by spectrophotometer measurement (Implen, Munich, Germany).

DNA integrity and size were assayed by horizontal gel electrophoresis using 0.6% Seakem LE (Lonza, Rockland, ME USA) agarose in 0.5X Tris Borate EDTA running buffer.

3.3. Illumina Whole Genome Sequencing

Illumina sequencing was performed at MicrobesNG (University of Birmingham, United Kingdom) using Nextera library preparation kit (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) followed by sequencing on a NovaSeq 6000 device (Illumina Inc.) (2x250 bp paired-end sequencing). Illumina reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (De Coster et al., 2018). Illumina reads properties and accession numbers were reported in Supplementary Table S1.

3.4. Nanopore Whole Genome Sequencing

Sequencing reactions were carried out in 1.5 ml LoBind tubes (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany) using wide bore (\varnothing 1.2 mm) tips for DNA manipulation in order to reduce physical shearing. DNA size selection of the genomic DNA was obtained with 0.5 volume of AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Milano, Italy) according to manufacturer's instructions. 2 μ g of size-selected DNA were employed for library construction by using the SQK-LSK 108 kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, United Kingdom). Pooling of multiple samples was obtained with the Nanopore "Native Barcoding Expansion 1-12 kit" (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Library preparation was obtained following the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications: (i) incubation on rotator mix for 15 min; (ii) the Library Loading Beads (LLB) were not added. Finally, 1 μ g of DNA library was loaded onto a R9.4 flow cell (FLO- MIN106) (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). A 21-h sequencing run was performed on a GridION device (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Real time base calling was performed with Guppy v3.2.6 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies), filtering out reads with a quality cut off $>Q7$. Base called reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (De Coster et al., 2018). Nanopore reads properties and accession numbers are reported in Supplementary Table S1.

3.5. Genome assembly and annotation

The overall M247 Nanopore reads were filtered to obtain a 95x coverage taking 2.3Mbp as genome size estimate by using Filtlong0.2.0 software (<https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong>) with parameter `--target_bases` and assembled using Flye v2.7.1 (Kolmogorov et al., 2019). The resulting circular contig was polished with Medaka v0.7.1 software (<https://github.com/Nanoporetech/medaka>) using the overall Nanopore reads, followed by two polishing rounds with the Pilon v1.22 tool (Walker et al., 2014) using the Illumina reads. Assembly completeness was assessed with the Bandage v.0.8.1 tool (Wick et al., 2015), whereas assembly quality was evaluated with both Ideel (<https://github.com/mw55309/ideel>) and CheckM v1.1.3 tools (Parks et al., 2015). Bwa v0.7.17 (Li, 2013) and minimap2 v2.13 (Li, 2018) programs were used to align the Illumina reads and the Nanopore reads to the assembled genome, respectively. Reads genome mapping was visualized with the Tablet tool v1.17.08.17 (Milne et al., 2013) and used to further verify the assembled structure. M247 genome was automatically annotated with the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) v5.1 (Tatusova et al., 2016). Default parameters were used for all software unless otherwise specified.

3.6. Genome Analysis

The presence of bacterial integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs) and integrative and mobilizable elements (IMEs) in the M247 genome was investigated with ICEberg 2.0 (M. Liu et al., 2019), while insertion sequences (ISs) were detected with ISSaga (Varani et al., 2011). Integrated prophages were investigated using PHASTER (Arndt et al., 2016) and analyzed with Virfam (Lopes et al., 2014). The presence of Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPRs) was evaluated with CRISPRCasFinder (Couvin et al., 2018). Bacteriocins were tested using the *in silico* prediction tool Bagel4 (van Heel et al., 2018). Those bacteriocin predicted were further visualized with Artemis visualization tool and tested against the Bactibase bacteriocin database (Hammami et al., 2007). Antibiotic resistance genes (ARG) analysis was performed using RGI (v3.2.1) (Jia et al., 2017) with parameter `“-loose_criteria=no”`. Genomic

sequence analysis was performed using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) and Artemis/ACT v17.0.1 (Carver et al., 2008).

3.7. DNA sequence analysis

Manual gene annotation of each open reading frame (ORF) was carried out by BLAST homology searching of the databases available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?PAGE=Proteins>). Protein domains were identified using the protein family database Pfam (<https://pfam.xfam.org>). Transposon name was assigned by the Tn Registry website curators (<https://transposon.lstmed.ac.uk/tn-registry>).

3.8. Nucleotide sequence accession numbers

The complete genome sequence of *L. crispatus* M247 is available under GenBank accession no. CP088015, whereas Nanopore and Illumina sequencing reads are available under Sequence Read Archive (SRA) accession no. SRR17479173 and SRR17479172, respectively.

3.9. PCR

PCR and direct PCR sequencing were carried out following an already described protocol (Iannelli et al., 1998; Santoro et al., 2010) Convergent primers designed on the chromosomal regions flanking the integration site were used to investigate the excision of each putative mobile genetic element from the chromosome, whereas divergent primers designed on the ends of each element served to evaluate its ability to form circular intermediate (CI). Oligonucleotide primers are listed in Table 1.

3.10. Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Real-time PCR experiments were carried out with the KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR kit Master Mix Universal (2X) (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) on a LightCycler 1.5 apparatus (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany). Real-time PCR mixture contained, in a final volume of 20 μ l, 1 \times KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR reaction mix, 5 pmol of each primer and 2 μ l (20 ng) of bacterial gDNA as starting template. Thermal profile was an initial 3 min denaturation step at 95°C followed by 40 cycles of repeated denaturation (0 s at 95°C), annealing (20 s at 62°C), and

polymerization (30 s at 72°C). The temperature transition rate was 20°C/s in the denaturation and annealing step and 5°C/s in the polymerization step. A standard curve for the *gyrB* gene of *L. crispatus* M247 was built plotting the threshold cycle against the number of chromosome copies using serial dilutions of chromosomal DNA with known concentration. This external standard curve was used to quantify in each sample the number of (i) chromosome copies, (ii) CIs, and (iii) reconstituted site of integration. Phage CIs and relative reconstituted integration sites were quantified with the primer pairs IF1513/IF1514 and IF1511/IF1512, respectively (Table 1). Transposon CIs were quantified using the primer pair IF1487/IF1488, whereas quantification of the relative reconstituted integration sites was obtained with the primer pairs IF1349/IF1350 and IF1349/IF1444 for strains M247 and ATCC 33820, respectively (Table 1). Melting curve analysis was performed to differentiate the amplified products from primer dimers. Electrophoresis gel run was performed to further verified the amplification products.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. The M247 genome

The complete genome sequence of *L. crispatus* M247 was obtained combining Illumina and Nanopore sequencing technologies. Sequence analysis showed that the M247 genome is organized in one circular chromosome of 2,336,126 base pairs (bp) in length, with an average GC content of 37.04%. A schematic representation of the chromosome containing the main sequence characteristics is reported in Figure 1. The putative origin of replication corresponds to the base pair 1 of the chromosome. The genome contains 2,305 open reading frames which are distributed unequally between sense (1,140 ORFs) and antisense (1,165 ORFs) strands with a high percentage (75.84%) of ORFs predicted to be transcribed in the same direction as DNA replication. An annotation with prediction of a biological function was possible for 2,123 CDSs of which 248 CDSs code for hypothetical proteins, while 102 are pseudo genes (48 frameshifted, 28 incompletes, 11 with an internal stop, 15 with multiple problems). 12 ribosomal RNA (rRNA)

genes are grouped in 3 rRNA operons, 28 out of 65 tRNA genes are not adjacent to rRNA operons, 3 structural RNAs are also present: (i) tRNA-like/mRNA-like RNA (Felden et al., 1996), (ii) signal recognition particle RNA (Lutcke, 1995) and (iii) ribonuclease P RNA (Pace & Brown, 1995). M247 genome contains three CRISPRs loci; one locus, containing 6 direct repeats (DRs) of 36 bp and 5 spacers, is associated to a type II-A CRISPR-associated (Cas) system displaying genes encoding Cas9, Cas1, Cas2 and Csn2 proteins (Makarova et al., 2011). Type II-A CRISPR have been previously described as uniquely present in *L. crispatus* human vaginal isolates with the exception of the chicken isolate C25 (Ojala et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2020). The other two loci contain 5 DRs of 23 bp with 4 spacers and 2 DRs of 25 bp, respectively, without *cas* genes. *In silico* analysis of the M247 genome sequence indicated that it contains one copy of the *apf* gene as previously described (Marcotte et al., 2004), spanning nucleotides (nt) 1,837,167 to 1,837,838 and one S-layer locus (AY941197) which spans nt 197,947 to 209,532, and includes the paralogous genes *slpA* and *slpB/csbA* (501/557 nt identity) arranged in opposite direction and located 4,624-bp apart, but no *slpC* (Fagan & Fairweather, 2014; Sun et al., 2013).

4.2. The Mobilome of M247

Bioinformatic analysis of M247 genome showed the presence of: i) a prophage, ii) a novel putative IME, that here we denominated Tn7088 and iii) various ISs. Altogether, these mobile genetic elements account for 13.6% of the whole M247 genome (318,133 out of 2,336,126 bp).

4.2.1. The prophage

The prophage is 42,649-bp in length with an overall GC content (35.2%) lower than the average of the whole genome (37.04%). The element spans nt 1,001,016 to 1,043,664 and integrates at a 139-bp target site (*attB*) including 97 bp at the 5' end of the peptide-methionine (S)-S-oxide reductase encoding gene *msrA* (NCBI locus tag LQF73_05270). Upon integration into the M247 chromosome, the prophage is flanked by *attL* and *attR*. Using divergent PCR primers directed to the ends of the prophage we showed that the element is able to excise from the bacterial chromosome producing a circular form where the left and right ends are joined by a 138-bp

sequence (*attP*) identical to *attL*. Furthermore, the reconstitution of the prophage 139-bp insertion site *attB* identical to *attR*, was demonstrated by using convergent PCR primers directed to the chromosomal flanking regions. *attL-attP* contain 15 nucleotide changes and 1 nucleotide deletion compared to *attR-attB*. In the M247 strain, circular intermediates of the phage were present at a concentration of $3.40 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 5.26 \times 10^{-6})$ copies per chromosome, whereas reconstituted *attB* sites were at $2.52 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 1.83 \times 10^{-7})$ copies per chromosome (Table 2). BLAST homology search identified the prophage as homologous of the phage DNA sequence named Isolate ct06w1 (GenBank accession no. BK036340) of the *Siphoviridae* family, obtained by sequencing of a human posterior fornix sample isolate during a metagenomic study of the human virome (Tisza & Buck, 2021). Manual homology-based annotation with functional prediction of the hypothetical gene product was possible for 33 out of 57 prophage ORFs, including genes coding for phage structural proteins, the terminase, the portal protein, a Clp protease, the integrase and the lytic cycle related proteins (Table 3). Compared to the deposited phage DNA sequence (BK036340), the prophage of M247 contains two additional ISs of family IS256 corresponding to *orf31* and *orf51*, of which the latter disrupts a tail protein encoding gene which is split in *orf50* and *orf52*. Genomic sequence analysis revealed the presence of the prophage in 4 out of the 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes available in NCBI sequences database (accessed in December 2021), namely strains Lc1226, PRL2021, Lc1700 and CO3MRSI1. The prophage DNA sequence was not found in any other deposited sequence, thus suggesting the specificity of the phage host-interaction and identifying the *L. crispatus* as the host bacterial species of this phage.

4.2.2. The integrative and mobilizable element Tn7088

The 14,184-bp long IME, namely Tn7088, spans nucleotides 21,914 to 36,097 and has a GC content of 30.96%. PCR analysis showed that the element excises from chromosome and produces a circular form where the left and right ends are joined by *attTn* restoring the *attB* insertion site. *attTn* is 90-bp long and is identical to *attL* while *attB* is 79-bp long and is identical to *attR*. *attL-attTn* contain 12 nucleotide changes and 11 nucleotides insertion compared to *attR-attB*. *attR-attB*

contain the last 12 nucleotides at the 3' end of a threonine tRNA encoding gene (LQF73_00105), which are part of a 15-bp direct repeat included in the *att* sites (Supplementary Figure S1). To obtain a quantitative estimate of Tn7088 excision from the *L. crispatus* chromosome, real-time PCR was used to quantify concentration of circular forms and reconstituted *attB* sites in extracted and purified gDNA. In the M247 strain, circular forms of Tn7088 were present at a concentration of 3.92×10^{-5} ($\pm 2.17 \times 10^{-7}$) copies per chromosome, whereas reconstituted *attB* sites were at 1.03×10^{-4} ($\pm 3.27 \times 10^{-5}$) copies per chromosome. These values were comparable to those obtained in the *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 (Table 4).

4.2.3. Insertions sequences

The M247 genome contains 226 ISs from 15 known families, distributed as follows: IS256 (83 copies), IS982 (24 copies), IS3 sub-group IS150 (24 copies), IS110 (21 copies), IS30 (21 copies), IS4 sub-group ISPepr1 (12 copies), ISLre2 (11 copies), IS4 subgroup IS4 (10 copies), IS66 (8 copies), IS200/IS605 sub-group IS1341 (3 copies), IS1182 (3 copies), ISNCY (2 copies), IS200/IS605 (2), ISL3 (2 copies) (Table 5). The transposase gene in 26 out of 226 ISs contains insertions or deletions producing frameshift.

4.3. The bacteriocin-encoding biosynthetic gene cluster of Tn7088

Nucleotide sequence analysis of Tn7088 DNA sequence indicate that it contains 18 ORFs (Figure 2) of which *orfs*3, 15 start with the GTG codon. *orfs*2 to 9, *orfs*10 to 15 and *orfs*16 to 17 are organized as operons each with a non-canonical promoter upstream and a rho-independent terminator downstream. Manual homology-based with functional prediction of the hypothetical gene product was possible for 15 out of 18 Tn7088 predicted ORFs, whereas 3 ORFs encoded hypothetical proteins that showed no homology to other characterized sequences (Table 6). Predicted gene products were blasted against public protein databases and the Pfam protein family database, taking into account significant homologies with functionally characterized proteins or good matches with Pfam domains. *orf*15 and *orf*18 are ISs elements, of which the first integrated into the 5' end of *orf*14 resulting in a loss of part of the DNA sequence (truncated *orf*14). Tn7088

showed a typical IME modular organization (Bellanger et al., 2014) with a integration/excision module (*orfs7, 8*), a mobilization module (*orfs3, 4, 5*) and an adaptation module (*orf9* to 17). *orf8* codes for a site-specific integrase belonging to the family of tyrosine recombinases as found in most of IME described (Guédon et al., 2017). *orf7* contains a helix-turn-helix domain for DNA binding, thus can be speculated that codes for a recombination directionality factor, also known as excisionase, that generally helps to reverse the direction of the recombination toward the excision as described in most of IMEs encoding tyrosine integrases (Guédon et al., 2017). *orfs3, 4* and *5* code for FtsK homologous proteins and a relaxase, respectively, which all take part to the protein-protein complex required for the hypothetical horizontal transfer of the element (Shoemaker et al., 2000). Tn7088 contains a biosynthetic gene cluster (*orf9* to 14 and *orfs16, 17*) for a class I bacteriocin belonging to the family of the thiazole/oxazole-modified microcin (TOMM) (Heilbronner et al., 2021). Biosynthetic gene cluster for the synthesis of thiazole and oxazole heterocycles on ribosomally produced peptide are conserved and widely distributed among prokaryotes, being found in both Gram-negative and -positive bacteria as well as in distantly related prokaryotes as cyanobacteria and archaea (S. W. Lee et al., 2008). The TOMM biosynthetic gene cluster of Tn7088 contains 8 genes which are all homologous of genes contained in the previously described listeriolysin S (*lls*) locus of *Listeria monocytogenes* (Cotter et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2020) (Table 3). *orf9* is homologous to the *llsA* gene and codes for the structural 44-aa length pro-bacteriocin peptide containing a 13-aa long C/S/T sequence which likely act as the target site for post-translational modifications (McAuliffe et al., 2001). *orfs10, 11* are homologous to *llsGH* encoding ATP-binding cassette transporter that could potentially export the modified bacteriocin, whereas *orf12* is homologous to *llsX* of unknown function which is specific of genus *Listeria* (Cotter et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2020). *orfs13, 14, 16* are homologous to *llsBYD*, encoding enzymes (dehydrogenase and cyclodehydratase) involved in post-translational modifications of the *orf9*-encoded peptide (Melby et al., 2014). *orf17* is homologous to *llsP*, whose product is a metalloprotease putatively responsible for bacteriocin leader region cleavage. Recently, it has been

demonstrated that listeriolysin S doesn't contribute to *L. monocytogenes* tissue injury and virulence in inner host organs, but it is an SLS-like virulence factor targeting exclusively prokaryotic cells thus suggesting a role in the modulation of the host microbiota (Quereda et al., 2016, 2017). A similar function may therefore be hypothesized also for the bacteriocin encoded by Tn7088 of *L. crispatus* M247.

4.4. Genomic sequence analysis of the Tn7088

The NCBI database of 26,353 complete microbial genomes (accessed in December 2021) was interrogated by using as a query the 79-bp *attB*. Homology search identified the Tn7088 *attB* site in other 23 *Lactobacillus* strains (Figure 3). Sequence homology analysis identified eleven allelic variants of *attB*. The most represented *attB* allelic variant, namely *attB*1, found in 12 (52%) *L. crispatus* genomes, is identical to the *attB* of M247. The other variants were found also in different *Lactobacillus* species other than *crispatus*, namely *amycoliticus*, *kefiranofaciens*, *helveticus*, *amylovorus*, *kullabergensis* (Figure 3). Interestingly, in the genome of the *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820, the *attB* site was 12 nucleotides in length. These 12 nucleotides, namely the last nucleotides at the 3' of the threonine tRNA encoding gene are conserved among the allelic variants of *attB* and can be considered the core of the integration site. In seven *L. crispatus* genomes, namely strains Lc116, Lc1700, Lc1226, 2029, PMC209, CO3MRSI1, ATCC 33820, of which the latter carrying the *attB* variant 11, Tn7088-like elements were integrated into the bacterial chromosome. DNA sequence comparison of Tn7088 with six of those Tn7088-like elements indicate that length ranges from 11,757-bp for strain 2029 up to 16,080-bp for strain Lc1700. The 6,026-bp DNA sequence spanning *orf*1 to *orf*9 of Tn7088 is conserved among the Tn7088-like elements, whereas the remaining DNA sequence containing the bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster (*orfs* 10 to 18) is subject to insertions and deletions. Indeed, ISs (mainly IS1201 and ISLhe5) are found integrated in the bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster of Tn7088 and Tn7088-like elements and cause disruption of different *orfs* in different strains, except for the Tn7088-like

element of strain 2029 which harbors an undisrupted biosynthetic gene cluster devoid of additional inserted genetic material (Figure 4).

5. CONCLUSIONS

In the present study we reported the complete genome of the *L. crispatus* probiotic strain M247 and we characterized a novel transposon named Tn7088. We found that Tn7088 i) has the structure of an integrative and mobilizable element and integrates at a 79-bp *attB* site involving the last 12 nt at the 3' end of a threonine tRNA encoding gene, ii) excises from the M247 and ATCC chromosomes producing circular intermediate and reconstitution of the *attB* site, at similar frequencies, iii) contains a bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster homologous of the listeriolysin S gene cluster of *L. monocytogenes* and iv) is present in the complete genomes of other seven *L. crispatus* strains showing variability within the biosynthetic gene cluster consisting of insertion and deletions caused by integration of ISs elements. Tn7088 is the first example of an integrative and mobilizable element in *L. crispatus* containing a bacteriocin-encoding biosynthetic gene cluster, which may contribute to the niche-adaptive traits and to the probiotic potential of its host bacterial strain.

TABLES

Table 1. Oligonucleotide primers.

Name	Sequence (5' to 3')	GenBank ID: nucleotides
IF1191	TTTAGGATAAGTCCTGGTCAA	CP088015: 1551029 – 1551050
IF1192	ATGTAAGAAGCTGCCTTAGAT	CP088015: 1561768 – 1561748
IF1193	TAGTTCAAGCAGAGCACCAA	CP088015: 1571687 – 1571710
IF1194	CTTGTCTGTAAAATACGATCA	CP088015: 1571687 – 1571710
IF1349	CGGGTAAGACAACGAAGAGT	CP088015: 1526733 – 1526752
IF1350	TCCAACGCCTGTAAATCACTA	CP088015: 1562987 – 1562969
IF1444	GCAAATTACTGTTACGAGTCTT	CP072197: 1560295 – 1560315
IF1487	TGTGCCACACGGTTTCTAGA	CP088015: 1553452 – 1553431
IF1488	TTTATAGTACCTTTGCCACACAA	CP088015: 1528105 – 1528084
IF1511	GAAATAAAATGGGATACATCAGGT	CP088015: 1000943 – 1000966
IF1512	CCACCAGTATAACCAGAACTA	CP088015: 1043722 – 1043701
IF1513	CCGTAAGGAGGAGATGCTAA	CP088015: 1001184 – 1001165
IF1514	CGCTCTAGGGGTAAACTCTA	CP088015: 1043408 – 1043428

Table 2. Real-time PCR quantification of the M247 phage circular forms and reconstituted *attB* integration site^a.

Strain	Circular Forms	Reconstituted <i>attB</i> site
M247	$3.40 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 5.26 \times 10^{-6})$	$2.52 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 1.83 \times 10^{-7})$

^a Concentration was expressed as copies per chromosome.

Table 3. Annotated ORFs of the prophage of *L. crispatus* M247.

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			Pfam domain [E value] ^c
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf1</i> (36)	Peptide-methionine sulfoxide reductase MsrA, truncated (Wizemann et al., 1996)	WP_005726248.1 <i>L. crispatus</i> [8e-14]	32/32 (100%)	32/32 (100%)	
<i>orf2</i> (407)	DNA integrase (Kwon et al., 1997)	DAW29718.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	407/407 (100%)	407/407 (100%)	Phage_integrase (180-373) [1.8e-25] Phage_int_SAM_5 (32-164) [1.8e-05]
<i>orf3</i> (334)	Abortive infection protein (Garvey et al., 1995)	DAW29696.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	334/334 (100%)	334/334 (100%)	Abi_2 (31-239) [1.5e-36]
<i>orf6</i> (126)	Winged helix-like DNA-binding domain superfamily YjcQ (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	DAW29760.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w</i> [2e-96]	125/126 (99%)	126/126 (100%)	
<i>orf7</i> (208)	Repressor protein CI (Paetzel et al., 1998)	DAW29717.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w</i> [9e-27]	208/208 (100%)	208/208 (100%)	Peptidase_S24 (86-202) [3.1e-26]
<i>orf8</i> (74)	Helix-turn-helix XRE-family like protein (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	DAW29695.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w</i> [9e-56]	74/74 (100%)	74/74 (100%)	
<i>orf12</i> (285)	Dna polymerase B	DAW29710.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [1e-158]	285/285 (100%)	285/285 (100%)	HTH_36 (24-74) [4.4e-05]
<i>orf16</i> (145)	HNH endonuclease (Krishna, 2003)	DAW29694.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [3e-111]	145/145 (100%)	145/145 (100%)	HNH_3 (66-112) [7.5e-10]

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	Pfam domain [E value] ^c
<i>orf21</i> (248)	Phage antirepressor KilAC domain-containing protein (Sandt et al., 2002)	DAW29715.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	247/248 (99%)	248/248 (100%)	AntA (17-85) [5.7e-19] ANT (124-236) [8.9e-32]
<i>orf22</i> (73)	Restriction alleviation protein	DAW29742.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [2e-55]	73/73 (100%)	73/73 (100%)	
<i>tRNA-Met</i>					
<i>orf29</i> (176)	HNH endonuclease (Edgell, 2009)	DAW29714.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [2e-138]	176/176 (100%)	176/176 (100%)	HNH (88-131) [8.1e-08]
<i>orf30</i> (156)	Phage terminase, small subunit (Schouler & Ehrlich, 1994)	WP_060463559.1 <i>L.crispatus</i> [1e-55]	154/156 (99%)	155/156 (99%)	Terminase_4 (29-140) [4.3e-16]
<i>orf31</i> (392)	IS1201, transposase, IS256 family (de Los Reyes-Gavilán et al., 1992)	P35880 <i>L. helveticus</i> [0.0]	333/368 (90%)	352/368 (95%)	
<i>orf33</i> (624)	Phage terminase, large subunit (Schouler & Ehrlich, 1994)	DAW29733.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	624/624 (100%)	624/624 (100%)	Terminase_1 (100-587) [1.5e-50]
<i>orf35</i> (392)	Phage Portal protein (Moore & Prevelige, 2002)	WP_060464314.1 <i>L.crispatus</i> [3e-66]	392/392 (100%)	392/392 (100%)	Phage_portal (47-354) [4.9e-39]
<i>orf36</i> (228)	ATP dependent Clp protease (Wang et al., 1997)	DAW29711.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [7e-174]	228/228 (100%)	228/228 (100%)	CLP_protease (32-175) [2.0e-33]
<i>orf37</i> (452)	Phage major capsid protein	DAW29706.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	452/452 (100%)	452/452 (100%)	Phage_capsid (132-421) [2.8e-17]

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	Pfam domain [E value] ^c
<i>orf38</i> (129)	Phage head-tail adaptor	DAW29705.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [2e-98]	129/129 (100%)	129/129 (100%)	
<i>orf39</i> (121)	Phage head closure knob	DAW29704.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [8e-94]	121/121 (100%)	121/121 (100%)	Phage_H_join (12-110) [0.00065]
<i>orf40</i> (132)	Phage type I neck protein	DAW29703.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [4e-101]	132/132 (100%)	132/132 (100%)	HK97-gp10_like (6-98) [0.00044]
<i>orf41</i> (124)	Phage tail completion protein	DAW29702.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [4e-94]	124/124 (100%)	124/124 (100%)	
<i>orf42</i> (258)	Phage major tail protein (Pell et al., 2013)	DAW29701.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [0.0]	258/258 (100%)	258/258 (100%)	Phage_TTP_1 (8-211) [1.7e-42]
<i>orf43</i> (137)	Tail assembly chaperone protein (Pell et al., 2013)	DAW29701.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [4e-103]	137/137 (100%)	137/137 (100%)	Phage_TAC_3 (7-122) [1.5e-11]
<i>orf45</i> (2339)	Phage minor tail protein (Pell et al., 2013)	DAW29700.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [0.0]	2338/2339 (99%)	2339/2339(100%)	PhageMin_Tail (315-532) [1.1e-38]
<i>orf46</i> (253)	Phage distal tail protein (Pell et al., 2013)	DAW29699.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [0.0]	252/253 (99%)	253/253 (100%)	
<i>orf47</i> (1135)	Phage tail protein (Pell et al., 2013)	DAW29698.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [0.0]	1135/1135 (100%)	1135/1135(100%)	Prophage_tail (73-441) (744-824) [7.2e-13]
<i>orf50</i> (410)	Phage tail protein, truncated (Upton & Buckley, 1995)	DAW29725.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> <i>sp. isolate ct06w1</i> [0.0]	403/407 (99%)	405/407 (99%)	Bppu_N (3-164) [3.7e-08]

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	Pfam domain [E value] ^c
<i>orf51</i> (392)	IS1201E, transposase, IS256 family (de Los Reyes-Gavilán et al., 1992)	P35880 <i>L. helveticus</i> [0.0]	333/368 (90%)	352/368 (95%)	
<i>orf52</i> (416)	Phage tail protein, truncated (Upton & Buckley, 1995)	DAW29725.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	397/398 (99%)	398/398 (100%)	Lipase_GDSL (196-401) [8.4e-12]
<i>orf55</i> (142)	Holin family protein (Gindreau & Lonvaud-Funel, 1999)	DAW29722.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [8e-107]	142/142 (100%)	142/142 (100%)	Phage_holin_6_1 (3-110) [1.3e-05]
<i>orf56</i> (294)	Cp11 lysin (Henrissat et al., 1995)	DAW29716.1 <i>Siphoviridae</i> sp. isolate <i>ct06w1</i> [0.0]	294/294 (100%)	294/294 (100%)	Glyco_hydro_25 (9-196) [1.8e-21]
<i>orf57</i> , 5' end of <i>msrA</i>	Peptide-methionine sulfoxide reductase MsrA, 97 nucleotides included in the <i>attB</i> (Wizemann et al., 1996)				

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

Table 4. Real-time PCR quantification of Tn7088 circular forms and reconstituted *attB* integration site^a.

Strain	Circular Forms	Reconstituted <i>attB</i> site
M247	$3.92 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 2.17 \times 10^{-7})$	$1.03 \times 10^{-4} (\pm 3.27 \times 10^{-5})$
ATCC 33820	$1.81 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 2.14 \times 10^{-6})$	$3.45 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 1.21 \times 10^{-6})$

^a Concentration was expressed as copies per chromosome.

Table 5. Insertion sequences found in the *L. crispatus* M247 genome.

IS family	IS name (reference)	Intact transposase	Truncated or frameshift	Total number
IS256	IS1201 (de Los Reyes-Gavilán et al., 1992)	74	9	83
IS982	ISLhe5 (Callanan et al., 2008)	7	2	9
	ISLh1 (D. Pridmore et al., 1994)	15	0	15
IS3 sub-group IS150	ISLhe6 (Callanan et al., 2008)	5	2	7
	ISEnfa5 (Y. Liu et al., 2012)	8	2	10
	ISL6 (Lapierre et al., 2002)	1	0	1
	ISSau2 (Holden et al., 2004)	6	0	6
IS110	ISSpn10 (Baldry S., 2010 ^a)	6	0	6
	ISLHe4 (Callanan et al., 2008)	13	1	14
	ISL4 (Lapierre et al., 2002)	1	0	1
IS30	IS1139 (Lortie et al., 1994)	13	3	16
	ISSag3 (Tettelin et al., 2005)	2	0	2
	ISLjo1 (R. D. Pridmore et al., 2004)	1	1	2
	IS1070 (Vaughan & de Vos, 1995)	1	0	1

IS family	IS name (reference)	Intact transposase	Truncated or frameshift	Total number
IS4 sub-group IS <i>Pepr1</i>	ISL5 (Lapierre et al., 2002)	9	0	9
	ISLre1 (De Palmenaer et al., 2008)	2	1	3
ISLre2	ISLcr2 (Guerillot and Glaeser, 2012 ^a)	7	4	11
IS4 sub-group IS4	IS1675 (Rincé et al., 1997)	10	0	10
IS66	ISSwo2 (Copeland et al., 2006 ^a)	4	0	4
	IScth11 (Copeland et al., 2007 ^a)	4	0	4
IS200/IS605 sub-group IS1341	ISLhe65 (Callanan et al., 2008)	2	0	2
	ISBth17 (Ziniu and Qiu, 2009 ^a)	1	0	1
IS1182	ISLac (Altermann et al., 2005)	2	1	3
IS200/IS605	ISLjo5 (R. D. Pridmore et al., 2004)	2	0	2
ISL3	ISLhe2 (Callanan et al., 2008)	1	0	1
	ISSm4 (Boyd, 2013 ^a)	1	0	1
ISNCY	ISH7A (Ng et al., 1998)	2	0	2
Total		200	26	226

^a Direct submission - no publication associated with the IS

Table 6. Annotated ORFs of the Tn7088 of *L. crispatus* M247.

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			Pfam domain [E value] ^c
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf1</i> (254)	Transcriptional regulator, putative (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)				HTH_3 (6–66) [1.0e - 12]
<i>orf3</i> (183)	Cell division protein FtsK, putative (Begg et al., 1995)				
<i>orf4</i> (264)	Cell division protein FtsK (Begg et al., 1995)				FtsK_SpoIIIIE (2-109) [1.1e-05]
<i>orf5</i> (273)	Relaxase (Balson & Shaw, 1990)				Rep_trans (133-273) [1.1e-19]
<i>orf7</i> (59)	Putative excisionase, helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein				
<i>orf8</i> (409)	DNA integrase (Kwon et al., 1997)				Phage_integrase (183-397) [9.8e-14]
<i>orf9</i> (44)	Listeriolysin S family TOMM bacteriocin (S. W. Lee et al., 2008)	WP_180680548 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [0.25] (47aa)	11/25(44%)	13/25(52%)	
<i>orf10</i> (284)	ABC transporter: ATP-binding protein (S. W. Lee et al., 2008)				ABC_tran (21-150) [7.6e-22]
<i>orf11</i> (251)	ABC transporter: permease (S. W. Lee et al., 2008)				ABC2_membrane (5-212) [3.2e-12]

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Homologous protein			Pfam domain [E value] ^c
		Protein ID Origin [E value] ^b	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf12</i> (101)	Glucosyl transferase, LlsX family protein (Cotter et al., 2008)	WP_187990302 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [1e-12]	40/100 (40%)	63/100 (63%)	Glucos_trans_II (15-99) [0.00018]
<i>orf13</i> (292)	Peptide dehydrogenase, SagB family (S. W. Lee et al., 2008)	WP_117383294 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [5e-95]	135/291 (46%)	192/291 (65%)	Nitroreductase (105-285) [5.8e-13]
<i>orf14</i> (240)	Listeriolysin S biosynthesis cyclodehydratase, truncated (S. Lee, 2020)	WP_115905105 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [1e-45]	88/219 (40%)	133/219 (60%)	
<i>orf15</i> (285)	<i>ISLhe5</i> , transposase, <i>IS982</i> family (Callanan et al., 2008)	WP_012211839 <i>L. helveticus</i> [0.0]	240/285 (84%)	259/285 (90%)	
<i>orf16</i> (438)	Cyclodehydratase, YcaO-like family (S. W. Lee et al., 2008)	WP_003730945 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [4e-172]	240/440 (55%)	312/440 (70%)	YcaO (70-407) [1.5e-28]
<i>orf17</i> (170)	Intramembrane metalloprotease, CPBP family, putative bacteriocin leader cleavage (S. Lee, 2020)	EAG8006596 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> [4e-172]	65/161 (40%)	102/161 (63%)	CPBP (5-170) [0.045]
<i>orf18</i> (408)	<i>IS1201</i> , transposase, <i>IS256</i> family (de Los Reyes-Gavilán et al., 1992)	P35880 <i>L. helveticus</i> [0.0]	333/368 (90%)	352/368 (95%)	

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

Supplementary Table S1. General statistics of M247 Nanopore and Illumina reads.

	Nanopore reads ^a (SRR17479173)		Illumina reads ^b (SRR17479172)	
	Overall	95x	R1	R2
Reads (n)	153,079	5,275	268,663	268,663
Mean read length	13,483.4	41,433.7	209.4	194.4
Median read length	7,705.0	36,622.0	250.0	220.0
Read length N50 ^c	25,587	44,883	251	225
Mean read quality (Q) ^d	11.8	13.9	33.8	30.2
Median read quality (Q) ^d	12.0	13.9	35.0	29.8
Sequencing output (no of bases)	2,064,031,022	218,562,625	56,246,560	52,216,531

^a The overall Nanopore reads were filtered to obtain a 95x coverage of a 2.3 Mbp genome size

^b R1 and R2 refer to forward and reverse Illumina reads, respectively

^c N50 is the length of a sequence in a set for which all sequences of that length or greater sum to 50% of the set's total size.

^d Phred quality score Q expresses the confidence in a particular base-call and is logarithmically related to the base-calling error probability P ($Q = -10 \log_{10} P$).

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FIGURE LEGEND

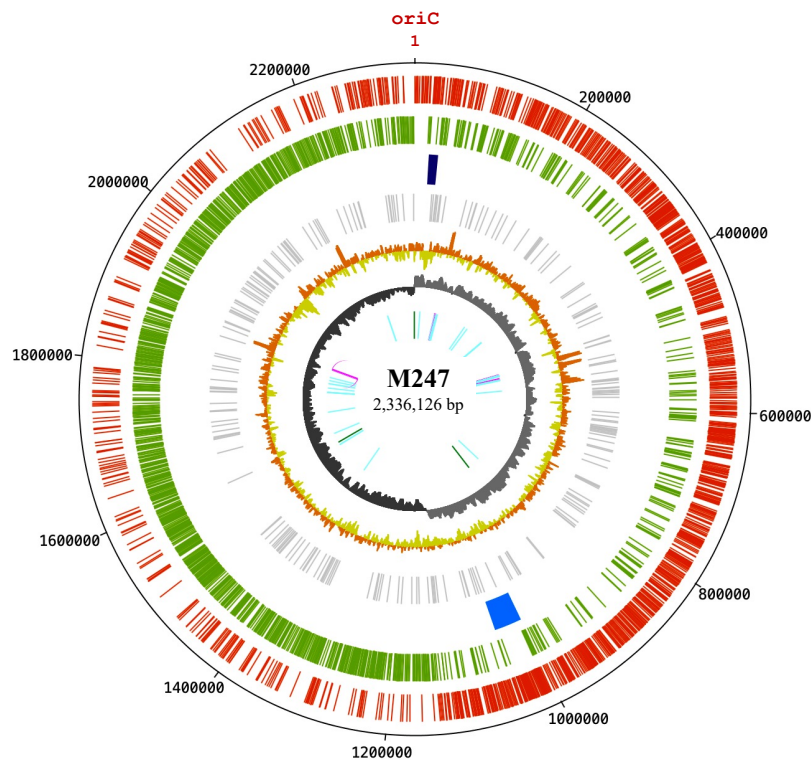


Figure 1. Circular representation of the *L. crispatus* M247 genome. Circles range from 1 (outer circle) to 7 (inner circle). Circle 1 shows predicted coding regions located on the plus strand (orange). The second circle shows predicted coding regions on the minus strand (green). The dark blue and the blue blocks indicate the 14,184-bp long integrative and mobilizable element and the 42,649-bp long prophage, respectively. The fourth circle represents insertion sequences (grey ticks) distribution in the M247 genome. The fifth and the sixth circles show GC content (orange/yellow) and GC skew (black/grey), respectively. The innermost circle shows tRNA in light-blue, rRNA in pink and structural RNA in dark-green. Graphic genome representation was created using Artemis DNA-Plotter (v.17.0.1).

Tn7088 14,184-bp

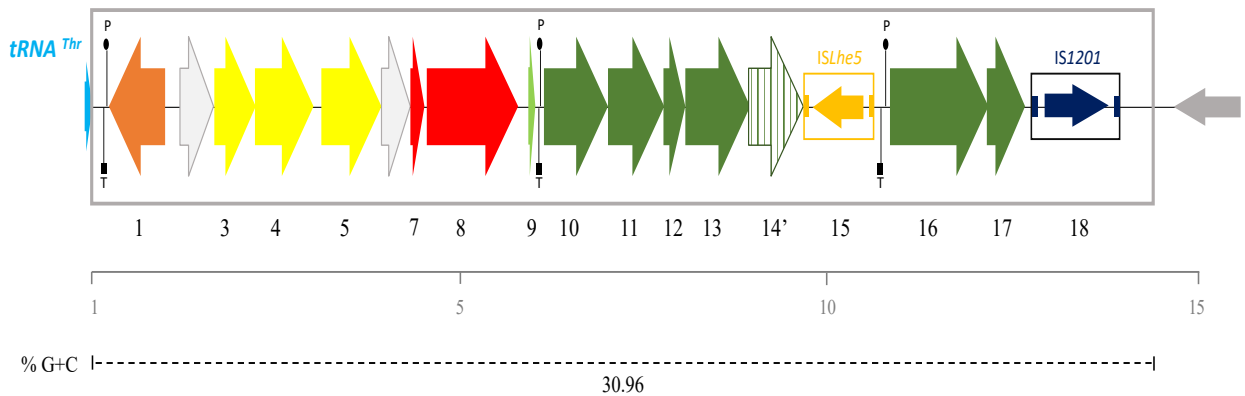


Figure 2. Structure of Tn7088 of *L. crispatus* strain M247. Tn7088 is 14,184 bp-long and contains 18 ORFs. ORFs and their direction of transcription are represented by arrows, while annotated ORFs are indicated by sequential numbers. Insertion sequences are reported as boxed arrows and their inverted repeat are indicated by solid rectangles. All genes belonging to the bacteriocin biosynthetic gene-cluster are depicted in green. Genes involved in the putative intercellular mobilization of the element are represented in yellow, while genes for the integration/excision are highlighted in red. Pattern fill indicate truncated genes. In light blue is represented the tRNA^{Thr} gene of which the last 12 nucleotides at 3' end are part of the Tn7088 target site of integration. The GC content of the element is indicated by dotted bars. Scale, kilobases

Variant(bp)	Bacterial species	Frequency	Sequence
attB1 (79)	<i>L. crispatus</i>	12/14	<u>TCTAGTCAGCATTAGA</u> -----AATACGTTTAAGTCTTTCAAATAAGTTCAATCAAGCTTGATTGAAAGCCTTTTTTGTCTACTT
attB2 (79)	<i>L. crispatus</i>	1/14G..C.....T.....
attB3 (79)	<i>L. amylophilus</i>	1/1G..G.....T..G..
attB4 (79)	<i>L. kefirifaciens</i>	1/1G.....CA.....T.....
attB5 (79)	<i>L. helveticus</i>	1/4G.....CA..T.....T.....
attB6 (73)	<i>L. amylovorus</i>	1/1AT-----G.ACGA.T.AG...TC..A..G..TT.A..A.....
attB7 (61)	<i>L. wkb8</i>	1/1AT-----ATACG..T.AG.C..TC..ATT-----G.....
attB8 (90)	<i>L. kullabergensis</i>	1/1TTAAGCAACTTAC.AGTT.....A..TT.....G.AAG..T..TA..T.....T.....
attB9 (84)	<i>L. helveticus</i>	1/4TTAAACAATTTA.CA.TT.....A..TT.....G.AAG.....TA..T.....
attB10 (90)	<i>L. helveticus</i>	2/4TTAAACAACTTA.TAGTT.....A..GT.....G.AAG.....TG..T.A.....T.....
attB11 (12)	<i>L. crispatus</i> ATCC33820	1/14

Figure 3. Allelic variants of Tn7088 attB integration sites in other bacterial species. Genome sequence analysis identified Tn7088 attB sites in the DNA sequence of other 22 complete genomes available in the microbial database (December 2021), of strains all belonging to genus *Lactobacillus*, with a size ranging from 12 nt of *L. crispatus* ATCC 33820 to 90 nt for *L. kullabergensis*. Inside *L. crispatus* and *L. helveticus* species, different strains can harbour different allelic variants (up to 3). Frequency expresses the number of strains per species displaying the associated attB variant. The 79-bp variant of M247 (attB1) is the most frequent among all variants and it is carried by the genome of 12 strains (52% of all strains analyzed), including FDAARGOS, CO3MRSII, AB70, KT-11, Lc116, Lc1226, Lc1700, Lc 2029, PMC201, PRL2021, 1D, and used as reference for the alignment. Within the sequences identical nucleotides are indicated by periods, substitutions are in red. For better alignment, dashes are inserted. The 12 nucleotides belonging to the tRNA^{Thr} coding sequence are underlined in the reference sequence and boxed to highlight that are conserved among the strains.

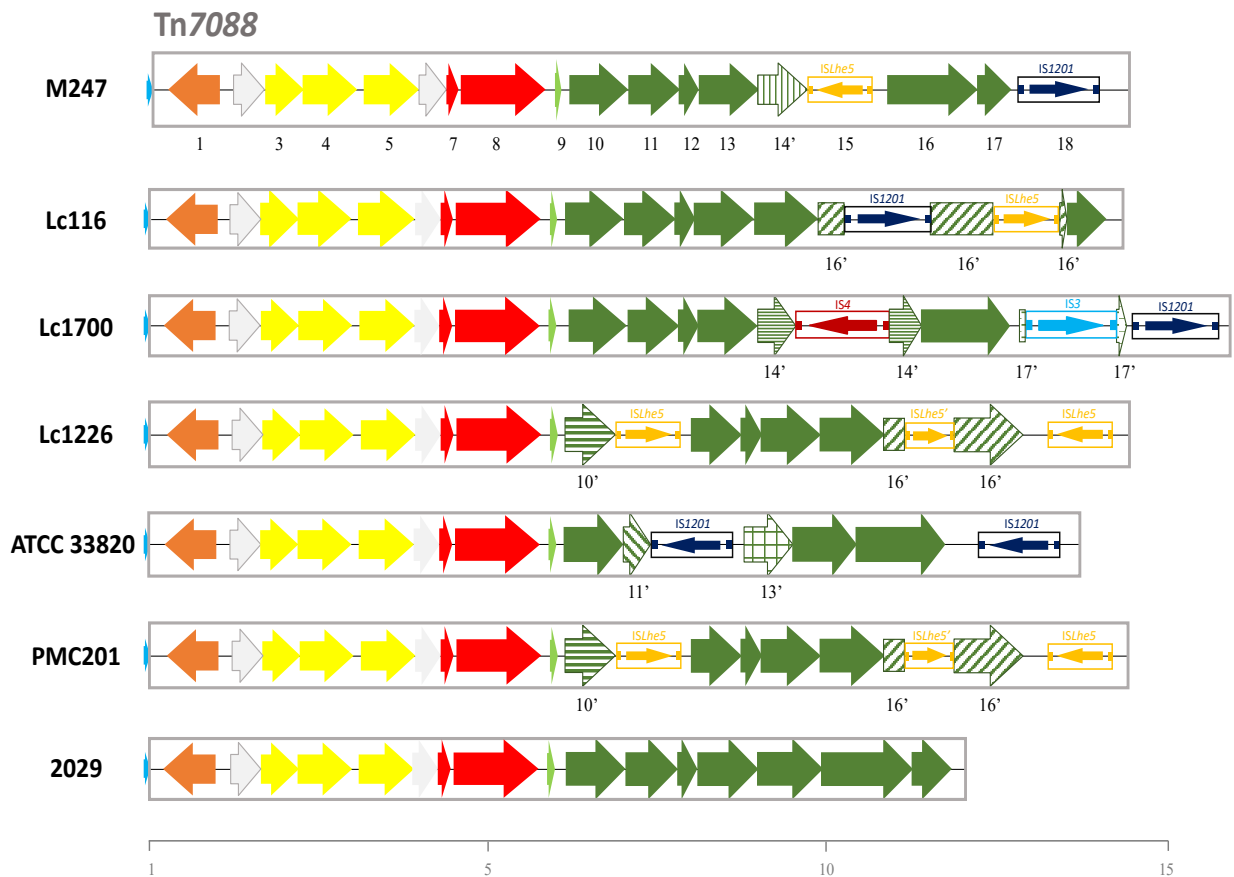
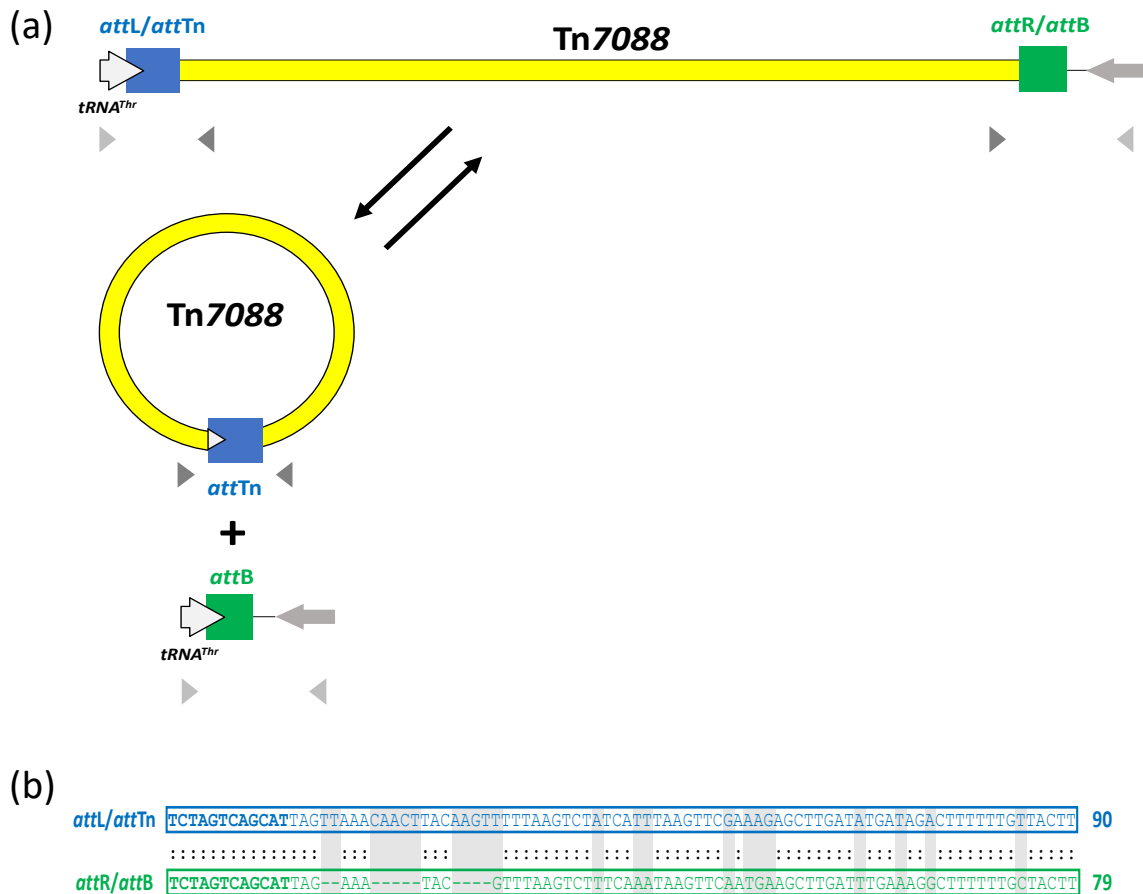


Figure 4. Schematic comparison of Tn7088 with other *L. crispatus* Tn7088-like elements.

Tn7088 is compared with six Tn7088-like elements identified in *L. crispatus* complete genomes available in the NCBI database. Strains names are reported on the left. ORFs are represented as arrows, insertion sequences are boxed arrows and their inverted repeat indicated by solid rectangles, whereas pattern fill arrows indicate truncated *orfs*. All Tn7088-like elements integrate in the 3' end of the threonine tRNA encoding gene (light blue arrow). DNA sequences vary in length from 11,757-bp for the Tn7088-like element of strain 2029 up to 16,080-bp for strain Lc1700. The 6,026-bp DNA sequence spanning from nucleotide 1 (*orf1*) to nucleotide 6,026 (*orf9*) of Tn7088 is shared by all Tn7088-like elements, whereas the remaining DNA sequence containing the bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster vary among Tn7088-like elements. Variations include the integration of different ISs causing deletions of DNA sequences and disruptions of genes (*orf^o*). The Tn7088-like element of strain 2029 harbors an undisrupted biosynthetic gene cluster devoid of additional inserted genetic material. Scale, kilobases.



Supplementary Figure S1. (a) Mechanism of excision/integration of Tn7088 and (b) sequence alignment of attachment sites in *L. crispatus* M247. (a) Tn7088 excises from the *L. crispatus* M247 chromosome producing a circular form and a reconstitution of *attB* insertion site. In the circular form the of Tn7088 the left and right ends are joined by *attTn* which is identical to *attL* whereas the reconstituted *attB* site is identical to *attR*. *att* sites are represented as filled rectangles, chromosomal genes as arrows, Tn7088 as a yellow bar. Arrowheads represent PCR primers used for circular form (dark grey) and reconstituted *attB* site (light grey) detection. Not scaled. (b) *attR-attB* is 79-bp long and contains the last 12 nucleotides at 3' end of a threonine encoding gene (bold letters). *attL-attTn* contain 12 nucleotide changes and 11 nucleotides insertion compared to *attR-attB* (grey blocks).

CHAPTER 3

The unusual duplication of a 69.9-kb long chromosomal segment produces two copies of an inverted repeat and generates genomic instability in a laboratory strain of *Lactobacillus crispatus*

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1. ABSTRACT

Objectives: Laboratory bacterial strains tend to evolve according to the specific laboratory conditions in which have been sub-cultured for years since their first isolation. In this study, the unusual duplication of a 69.9-kb long chromosomal segment that produces two copies of an inverted repeat and generates genomic instability in a laboratory strain of *Lactobacillus crispatus*, was reported and analyzed.

Methods: The complete genome sequence of the laboratory strain of *L. crispatus*, carried in the University of Siena laboratory strain collection since 1990, namely M247_Siena, was determined combining both Nanopore and Illumina sequencing technologies. PCR genome mapping and coverage graph with Nanopore reads were used for genome structure analysis. Genome comparison analysis were carried out with bioinformatic tools.

Results: M247_Siena genome is organized in one circular chromosome of 2.38 Mb in length, containing 2,359 open reading frames with an average GC content of 37.07%. Compared to the original M247 strain, the genome of M247_Siena shows an unusual duplication of a 69.9-kb long chromosomal segment producing two copies of an inverted repeat located 224.4-kb apart. In M247_Siena the 69.9-kb repeat was found to replace a 15.4-kb sequence present at the same position on the M247 chromosome. Furthermore, in the M247_Siena genome a 224.4-kb inversion of the DNA sequence flanked by the 69.9-kb repeats and containing the origin of replication, occurred. Both the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA regions are flanked by the same insertion sequences, namely *IS1201* and *ISLcr2*, occurring in the form of inverted repeats on the chromosomal DNA sequence. PCR analysis indicated that the original M247 strain is subject to genomic instability consisting of chromosomal rearrangements that involve both the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA sequences. These chromosomal rearrangements in the M247 bacterial population were rare. However, in the M247_Siena strain coverage graph with Nanopore reads indicated that the chromosomal rearrangements are favored by the presence of the 69.9-kb repeats. Multiple alignment of the 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes showed that no other genome contains the

69.9-kb duplication, whereas the 15.4-kb region is always present, and that chromosomal rearrangements occur within the *L. crispatus* strains.

Conclusion: Our work reports the analysis of an unusual 69.9-kb DNA sequence duplication producing two copies of an inverted repeat in a laboratory strain of *L. crispatus*. The newly generated 69.9-kb repeats increase the genomic instability intrinsic to the strain.

2. INTRODUCTION

Bacterial genomes are remarkably stable from one generation to the next but are plastic on an evolutionary time scale, thus implying the existence of a delicate balance between genome maintenance and instability which depends on the type of bacteria, the cell cycle and the environment (Darmon & Leach, 2014). Genome instability is used by most bacteria as a driving force for survival, diversification, adaptation and evolution. Bacterial genomes are shaped by external agents such as mobile genetic elements and by internal events occurring mainly during DNA replication and DNA repair (Roth et al., 1996). Large-scale chromosomal rearrangements involving long stretches of DNA from few kilobases to sometimes up to millions of base pairs, have been detected in bacterial genomes (Darling et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2012). Chromosomal rearrangements include deletions, duplications, insertions and translocations resulting in loss, amplification, gain, change of location and orientation of a DNA segment, respectively (Periwal & Scaria, 2015). These types of structural variants may be important in evolution because they can alter the chromosome organization and gene expression in ways not possible through point mutations (Raeside et al., 2014). Chromosomal rearrangements can also markedly impact on the bacterial phenotype, inducing phase and antigenic variation that leads to the appearance of one or different bacterial subpopulation (Guérillot et al., 2019; Sousa et al., 1997). The detection of large-scale chromosomal rearrangements is subjected to bias due to i) the natural selective pressure which favors the maintenance of the relative replichores length and the distance of particular genes to the replication origin (*oriC*) or termination region (*ter*) (Eisen et al., 2000; Guinane et al., 2011; Suyama & Bork, 2001; Tillier & Collins, 2000); ii) the limit of the sequencing technology in producing reads that are enough long to span and describe the structural variants (Schmid et al., 2018). Genome instability also affects laboratory bacterial strains which evolves according to the specific laboratory conditions in which have been sub-cultured for decades since their first isolation (Fux et al., 2005). In this work we report the genome of a laboratory strain of *Lactobacillus crispatus*, named M247_Siena, which presents an unusual duplication of a 69.9-kb

long chromosomal segment that produces two copies of an inverted repeat, located 224.4-kb apart. We also investigate i) the possible molecular mechanisms underlying the generation of such chromosomal structural variant and ii) the putative impact of these 69.9-kb long inverted repeats on genome stability.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The *L. crispatus* M247 object of this study, isolated from the feces of a human newborn (Cesena et al., 2001) was carried in the University of Siena laboratory strain collection since 1990. Therefore, it was renamed M247_Siena to distinguish it from the previously described M247 strain (Colombini et al., unpublished). Frozen starter culture was grown in DeMan-Rogosa-Sharpe medium (MRS) broth (Oxoid LTD, Basingstoke, Hampshire, England) in anaerobic condition at 37°C.

3.2. DNA purification and quantification

Bacterial culture (500 ml) was harvested in exponential phase growth ($OD_{590}=1.9$) and centrifuged at 5,000 x g for 30 min at 4°C. *Lactobacillus* cells pellet was dry vortex-mixed for 2-3 min and incubated in 15 ml of protoplasting solution (20% Raffinose, 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 5 mM EDTA, 4 mg/ml lysozyme) at 37°C for 1 h to obtain protoplasts formation. Protoplast solution was centrifuged (5,000 x g for 5 min) and, to obtain osmotic lysis, the pellet was resuspended in 15 ml of ddH₂O and incubated at 37°C for 30 min adding 100 µg/ml proteinase K (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and SDS (after 15 min) at a final concentration of 0.5%. Then NaCl was added at a final concentration of 0.55 M and the mixture was incubated for additional 10 min. High molecular weight DNA was extracted with 1 volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1 [v:v]). DNA was precipitated in 0.6 volumes of ice-cold isopropanol and spooled on a glass rod. DNA was resuspended in 10-fold diluted saline-sodium citrate (SSC) 1x buffer, then adjusted to 1x SSC. The DNA solution was homogenized using a rotator mixer and maintained at +4°C. DNA

was quantified with Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, United States) using the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and with spectrophotometer (Implen, Munich, Germany). DNA integrity and size were assessed by horizontal gel electrophoresis using 0.6% Seakem LE (Lonza, Rockland, ME USA) agarose in 0.5X Tris Borate EDTA running buffer.

3.3. Illumina Whole Genome Sequencing

Illumina sequencing was performed at MicrobesNG (University of Birmingham, United Kingdom) using Nextera library preparation kit (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) followed by sequencing on a NovaSeq 6000 device (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) (2x250 bp paired-end sequencing). Illumina reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (De Coster et al., 2018). Illumina reads properties and accession numbers were reported in Supplementary Table S1.

3.4. Nanopore Whole Genome Sequencing

Sequencing reactions were carried out in 1.5 ml LoBind tubes (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany) using wide bore (\varnothing 1.2 mm) tips for DNA manipulation in order to reduce physical shearing. DNA size selection of the genomic DNA was obtained with 0.5 volumes of AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Milano, Italy) according to manufacturer's instructions. 2 μ g of size-selected DNA were used for library construction by using the SQK-LSK 108 kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, United Kingdom). Library preparation was performed following the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications: (i) incubation on rotator mix for 15 min; (ii) the Library Loading Beads (LLB) were not added. Finally, 1 μ g of DNA library was loaded onto a R9.4 MinION flow cell (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). A 48-h sequencing run was performed on GridION device (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Real time base calling was performed with Guppy v3.2.6 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies), filtering out reads with a quality cutoff $> Q7$. Base called reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (De Coster et al., 2018). Nanopore reads properties and accession numbers were reported in Supplementary Table S1.

3.5. Genome assembly and annotation

Nanopore reads were filtered using Filtlong v0.2.0 (<https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong>) initially with the parameter `--min_length 80000` to remove reads shorter than 80 kb, then with `--target_bases 253000000` to obtain a 110x coverage of a 2.3 Mbp genome size. Filtered Nanopore reads were assembled with Unicycler v0.4.7 tool (Wick et al., 2017). The genome sequence was polished with Medaka v0.7.1 software (<https://github.com/Nanoporetech/medaka>) using the Nanopore reads longer than 80 kb. Two additional polishing rounds were carried out with the Pilon v1.22 tool using the Illumina reads (Walker et al., 2014). Assembly completeness was assessed with the Bandage v.0.8.1 tool (Wick et al., 2015), whereas assembly quality was evaluated with both Ideel (<https://github.com/mw55309/ideel>) and CheckM v1.1.3 tools (Parks et al., 2015). BWA v0.7.17 (Li, 2013) and minimap2 v2.13 (Li, 2018) programs were used to align the Illumina reads and the Nanopore reads to the assembled genome, respectively. Alignments were visualized with the Tablet v1.17.08.17 tool (Milne et al., 2013). Coverage graph obtained by genome mapping with all Nanopore reads longer than 80 kb, was used to investigate and validate the genomic structure. Location of the long inverted repeated DNA regions was further confirmed by PCR genome mapping. Genome was automatically annotated with NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) v4.10 (Tatusova et al., 2016). Manual gene annotation of the DNA sequences of interest was carried out by BLAST homology searching of the databases available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/gquery>). Protein domains were identified using the protein family database Pfam (<https://pfam.xfam.org>). Default parameters were used for all software unless otherwise specified.

3.6. Genome analysis

Chromosomal structural variants were investigated using the Sniffles v1.0.12 structural variation caller (Sedlazeck et al., 2018) and the npInv v.1.24 tool (Shao et al., 2018) for non-allelic homologous recombination mediated genomic inversion, then visualized with the integrative genomics viewer visualization tool (Robinson et al., 2011). Suggested alternative chromosomal

assembly structures of M247_Siena were designed in silico and aligned to Nanopore reads longer than 80 kb which account for a 363x genome coverage (Supplementary Table S1). Aligned reads were processed with samclip v.0.4.0 (<https://github.com/tseemann/samclip>) with parameter `--max 100` for soft and hard clipping and then filtered with SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) using the command `view` with the parameter `-b` specifying the chromosomal region of interest maintaining only reads spanning the repeated regions that are useful to support the different chromosomal structures. The previously described *L. crispatus* M247 genome (Colombini et al., unpublished, GenBank accession no. CP088015) was used for genome comparison. Furthermore, the publicly available *L. crispatus* complete genomes in the NCBI Microbial Genome Database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/genomes/1815/>) at the moment of this study (December 2021) namely PRL2021 (CP058996), FDAARGOS_743 (CP046311), AB70 (CP026503), 1D (CP047415), CO3MRSI1 (CP033426), C25 (CP047142), B4 (CP059140), DC21.1 (CP039266), ATCC 33820 (CP072197), Lc1226 (CP083392), Lc1700 (CP083389), Lc116 (CP083393), PMC201 (CP076522), 2029 (CP079206), were downloaded and used for comparison. Genome comparison was obtained with the following tools: (i) Mauve (Darling et al., 2010); (ii) Blast <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>; (iii) Artemis and Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT) v17.0.1 (Carver et al., 2008); (iv) MUMmer v3.23 (Marçais et al., 2018).

3.7. Nucleotide sequence accession numbers

The complete genome sequence of *L. crispatus* M247_Siena is available under GenBank accession no. CP046589, whereas Nanopore and Illumina sequencing reads are available under Sequence Read Archive accession no. SRR10902282 and SRR10902283, respectively. The BioProject number is PRJNA594001.

3.8. PCR

PCR reactions were carried out following an already described protocol (Iannelli et al., 1998; Santoro et al., 2010). Long and short ranges PCR were performed to validate both the canonical and the rearranged genomic structures. Oligonucleotide primers are listed in Table 1.

3.9. Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Real-time PCR experiments were carried out with the KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR kit Master Mix Universal (2X) (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) on a LightCycler 1.5 apparatus (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany). Real-time PCR mixture contained, in a final volume of 20 μ l, 1 \times KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR reaction mix, 5 pmol of each primer and 2 μ l (20 ng) of bacterial gDNA as starting template. Thermal profile was an initial 4 min denaturation step at 95°C followed by 40 cycles of repeated denaturation (10 s at 95°C), annealing (15 s at 60°C), and polymerization (3 min at 72°C). The temperature transition rate was 20°C/s in the denaturation and annealing step and 5°C/s in the polymerization step. A standard curve for the *gyrB* gene of *L. crispatus* M247 was built plotting the threshold cycle against the number of chromosome copies using serial dilutions of chromosomal DNA with known concentration. This external standard curve was used to quantify in each sample the number of rearranged chromosomal structures. Primer pairs IF1118/IF1119 and IF1111/IF1121 were used to detect and quantify the left and right DNA junctions of the rearranged 69.9-kb region, respectively, whereas IF1120/IF1122 and IF1110/IF1117 were used for left and right DNA junction of the rearranged 15.4-kb region, respectively. The frequency of M247 rearranged chromosomal structures was calculated as the average of the DNA junction frequencies. Primers are listed in Table 1 and primers pairs used for chromosomal rearrangements detection are represented in Figure 3. Melting curve analysis was performed to differentiate the amplified products from primer dimers. Electrophoresis gel run was performed to further verified the amplification products.

4. RESULTS

4.1. An unusual 69.9-kb long inverted repeat in the genome of the *L. crispatus* laboratory strain M247_Siena

Genome sequencing was performed on a *L. crispatus* laboratory strain carried in our laboratory for over 20 years, which we named M247_Siena to differentiate from the previously sequenced

strain M247 (Colombini et al., unpublished, GenBank accession no. CP088015). The complete genome sequence was obtained combining Illumina sequencing reads with very long Nanopore sequencing reads (>80 kb) which were necessary to resolve the genome complexity of this laboratory strain. Sequence analysis showed that the M247_Siena genome is organized in one circular chromosome of 2,385,061 base pairs (bp) in length, containing 2,359 open reading frames (ORFs) with an average GC content of 37.07%. Compared to the previously sequenced strain M247, M247_Siena resulted 48,935-bp longer and characterized by an unusual duplication of a 69.9-kb long chromosomal segment producing two long inverted repeats (LIRs), 69,925 and 69,919 bp in length, located 38,619 bp downstream (LIR1) and 185,826 bp upstream (LIR2) of the chromosomal origin of replication, respectively (Figure 1). Interestingly, the 69.9-kb duplicated DNA sequence (LIR2) of M247_Siena was found i) replacing a 15,482-bp DNA sequence spanning nucleotides (nt) 2,133,454 to 2,148,935 in the original M247 genome, and ii) associated to the inversion of the 224,443-bp DNA region flanked by LIR1 and LIR2 and containing the replication origin (Figure 1). The absence of the 69.9-kb duplication and of the 15.4-kb region from strains M247 and M247_Siena, respectively, was further verified and confirmed by genome mapping with Nanopore reads (Supplementary Figure S1) and by PCR analysis.

4.2. Nucleotide sequence of the M247_Siena 69.9-kb long inverted repeat and the associated 15.4-kb deletion

Each copy of the 69.9-kb repeats of M247_Siena contains 72 ORFs, of which 46 have the same direction of transcription. By manual homology-based annotation, it was possible to attribute a putative function to the hypothetical gene product of 59 ORFs (Table 2). Hypothetical gene products were used to search public protein databases and the Pfam protein family database, taking into account significant homologies with functionally characterized proteins or good matches with Pfam domains. Annotated ORFs include 18 ORFs encoding for metabolic enzymes, 8 for genetic information processing factors, 18 for proteins involved in signaling and cellular processes, 8 for

ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA and 7 for insertion sequences (ISs) (Table 2). Each repeat contains at the 5' end a copy of *IS1201* and at the 3' end a copy of *ISLcr2* (Figure 2). Sequence comparison showed that the 2 LIRs contain 4 nucleotides changes and a 6-bp insertion all located in the 5' end copy of *IS1201*. Similarly, the 15,482-bp region is bounded at the 5' end by a copy of *IS1201* and at the 3' end by a copy of *ISLcr2* (Figure 2). Therefore, these two ISs occur in both the M247_Siena and the M247 genomes in the form of inverted repeats (Figure 2). Manual homology-based annotation with functional prediction of the hypothetical gene product was possible for 15 out of the 17 ORFs contained in the 15.4-kb deleted region, whereas 2 ORFs encoded hypothetical proteins that showed no homology to other characterized sequences (Table 3). The GC content of the 69.9-kb and of the 15.4-kb DNA regions were 38.4% and 37.2%, respectively, comparable to the overall genome GC content of both M247 and M247_Siena strains (37.04 and 37.07%, respectively).

4.3. Strain M247 shows chromosomal rearrangements involving both the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA regions

PCR analysis was conducted in the M247 original strain to investigate the presence of putative chromosomal rearrangements underlying the origin of the 69.9-kb repeat and of the 15.4-kb deletion. Divergent primers were designed on the ends of both the 69.9-kb and 15.4-kb DNA segments, whereas convergent primers were designed on the flanking chromosomal regions (Figure 3). PCR results indicated that the M247 genome is subject to chromosomal rearrangements leading to the exchange of the chromosomal position occupied by the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA segments. The recombination events driving this type of rearrangements seem to occur at the level of the ISs, namely *IS1201* and *ISLcr2* that flank both DNA segments (Figure 3). To obtain a quantitative estimate of bacterial chromosomes carrying the rearrangements, real-time PCR was used to quantify concentration of chromosomes in which the 69.9-kb DNA segment was exchanged with the 15.4-kb DNA region. Chromosomal rearrangements showed a low frequency rate of approximately 2.19 ± 0.69 per 10^5 chromosomes (Table 4).

4.4. The presence of the 69.9-kb long inverted repeat favors chromosomal rearrangements in strain M247_Siena

We also evaluate the potential of the 69.9-kb repeats to generate chromosomal rearrangement within the M247_Siena strain. Genome structural variants were investigated with the Sniffles v1.0.12 structural variation caller (Sedlazeck et al., 2018) and with the npInv v.1.24 (Shao et al., 2018) tool for non-allelic homologous recombination mediated genomic inversions detection, using Nanopore reads longer than 80 kb which accounted for a 363x genome coverage (Supplementary Table S1). Genome structure analysis revealed the presence of two different chromosomal structures also for the M247_Siena characterized by the inversion of the 224,443-bp DNA region containing the *oriC* and flanked by the LIRs. A semi-quantitative estimation, obtained by reads counting, revealed that 118 out of 480 repeats-spanning reads (23.3%) contain the alternative inverted structure (Figure 4).

4.5. Chromosomal structure analysis of the other *L. crispatus* complete genomes

When we investigated the presence of the 69.9-kb repeats in the 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes available in the NCBI database (December 2021) we found that a DNA fragment homologous to the LIR1 of M247_Siena is always present. No DNA fragment homologous to LIR2 was found, whereas the 15.4-kb region is always present. In strain Lc1226 the LIR1-homologous region and the 15.4-kb region are flanked by *IS1201* and *ISLcr2* elements, located at the 5' end at the 3' end, respectively, and arranged in the same way as in the M247 and M247_Siena genomes. In the other strains one or both ISs elements are deleted or differentially arranged. Furthermore, whole genome alignment of the 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes using M247_Siena as reference indicated that in all the other strains the 224,443-bp DNA region containing the *oriC* is arranged as in the less represented M247_Siena chromosomal structure (Figure 5). Some strains show further inversion: CO3MRSI1 displays an inversion of 191-kb around the origin of replication, whereas AB70, FDAARGOS, DC21.1 and 2029 have an additional DNA inversion of 610-kb, 619-kb, 1,3 Mb and 1,7 Mb in length respectively occurring in proximity of the putative termination sites.

5. DISCUSSION

In this work we reported the unusual genomic structure of a *L. crispatus* laboratory strain, named M247_Siena, which has been carried in our laboratory for over 20 years. The peculiarity of the M247_Siena genome is the presence of a duplication of a 69.9-kb DNA segment producing two copies of an inverted repeat, located about 224-kb apart (Figure 1). These types of large structural variations are thought to have mostly remained undetected with short reads next generation sequencing technologies (Chaisson et al., 2015, 2019; De Coster et al., 2019; Huddleston et al., 2017; Pendleton et al., 2015). However, the formation of very long inverted repeats in bacterial genomes is still considered to be an extremely rare event; it has been reported that for over 9600 prokaryotic genomes, only a small subset of strains (3%) harbor long near identical repeats above 30 kb in their genome (Schmid et al., 2018). The events involved in the generation of these long inverted repeated regions are not yet fully understood, but have been hypothesized to occur in the context of bacterial chromosomal rescue during double strand break repairing (El Kafsi et al., 2017). Genome comparison of the laboratory strain M247_Siena with the original M247 strain highlighted a 15.4-kb DNA region which was lost and replaced by the 69.9-kb repeat (Figure 1). Nucleotide sequence analysis of both 15.4- and 69.9-kb regions excluded the hypothesis of a mobile DNA origin because no *int/xis* genes were found (Rocco & Churchward, 2006; Rudy et al., 1997) and GC content was comparable with the rest of the genome (Bohlin et al., 2017; Sueoka, 1962). However, both regions were flanked by the same ISs elements namely *ISLcr2* and *IS1201* (Figure 2). ISs have been described as source of genomic instability within bacterial genome and also reported to induce large chromosomal inversion (Daveran-Mingot et al., 1998; Lee et al., 2016). PCR analysis revealed the presence of chromosomal rearrangements in the original M247 population, involving the exchange of the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb regions on the chromosome, thus suggesting that genome-scale rearrangements occur spontaneously (Figure 3). Real-time PCR quantification indicated that these types of chromosomal rearrangements were rare events occurring approximately in 2 out of 100,000 bacterial cells. The 69.9-kb LIRs of M247_Siena

generate large regions of homology that may allow intrachromosomal homologous recombination during the DNA replication. Intrachromosomal homologous recombination can lead to deletions, duplications, translocations (for direct repeats), and inversions (for inverted repeats) (Achaz et al., 2003; Romero & Palacios, 1997; Roth et al., 1996; Smith, 1988). Long inverted repeats are reported to transiently stall DNA replication by forming hairpin structures on both the leading and lagging strands (Lai et al., 2016; Leach, 1994), contributing to the formation of a “X-shaped” symmetrical rearrangement involving the origin or terminus of replication (Eisen et al., 2000; Guinane et al., 2011; Suyama & Bork, 2001; Tillier & Collins, 2000). Indeed, genome mapping with Nanopore reads showed the presence of two alternative chromosomal structures in the M247_Siena population characterized by a 224,443-bp inversion of the region flanked by the LIRs and containing the origin of replication (Figure 4). The M247_Siena inversion does not alter significantly the replicore length, as observed for previously described large chromosomal inversions (Eisen et al., 2000; Tillier & Collins, 2000). A semi-quantitative estimation by sequencing reads counting, showed that 118 out of 480 (23.3%) repeats-spanning reads contain the inverted structure (Figure 4) suggesting that the chromosomal structure is rearranged approximately in 1 out of 5 bacterial cells. Quantitative PCR performed on M247 DNA showed that the frequencies of chromosomal rearrangements were significantly lower (2 out of 10^5 cells), thus suggesting that the newly generated long inverted repeats of M247_Siena increased the intrinsic genomic instability of the strain. Whole genome alignment with other available *L. crispatus* complete genomes revealed that i) no *L. crispatus* complete genome contains a repeated DNA sequence like M247_Siena, ii) in each genome a 69.9-kb and a 15.4-kb DNA homologous sequences are present as in M247 and that iii) the chromosomal structures of M247 and of the other *L. crispatus* strains examined resemble the M247_Siena structure containing the 224.4-kb inversion, which is the less represented form of M247_Siena (Figure 5). Furthermore, genomes alignment highlights the presence of chromosomal rearrangements also in other *L. crispatus* strains

suggesting that genomic instability is shared within the *L. crispatus* species, although it is not known if ISs elements or other causative factors are involved.

In conclusion, we identified chromosomal rearrangements associated with the presence of insertion sequences in the original M247 strain which might explain the origin of the unusual 69.9-kb duplication in the laboratory strain M247_Siena. In addition, we have determined that the presence of such structural variant in the M247_Siena genome increases the genomic instability intrinsic of strain M247.

TABLES

Table 1. Oligonucleotide primers.

Name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Position on M247 chromosome (GenBank ID: CP088015)
IF1110	CTGGAATTATATTTATCTCTCGTA	38,489 - 38,512
IF1111	AAAAGGTATAGCAAAACGTA	41,626 - 41,604
IF1118	GGTAGTCCTTATCATAAGTAGAA	106,610 - 106,632
IF1119	TACCTGTAGTAGAAATCCAGTTA	2,132,588 - 2,132,610
IF1120	ACGATTCAGTGGTAGAAATACTA	108,608 - 108,586
IF1121	TAAACTGAGGATGCTATACTGA	2,149,162 - 2,149,141
IF1123	TTATGGATACTTACGAAGACGAA	74,750 - 74,728
IF1124	TTGTCGAATGCCTTAACAACCAT	74,576 - 74,598
IF1125	ATATTGATGCCAACGAGGTTAT	55,104 - 55,083
IF1126	AACTGCGTTTGTGGCACTAT	92,970 - 92,991
IF1502	GTTACCTCCTACGGATATTCAT	38,404 - 38,425
IF1503	TTGTGAAGTAGAGTTTAACCGAA	55,247 - 55,225
IF1504	GCACGCTCGTCATCAGTATA	92,919 - 92,938
IF1505	GTATTGAGTCTGGATCGGATT	108,705 - 108,685
IF1506	GTTGTAAAGTATGTGTTCTCAAG	2,132,825 - 2,132,847
IF1507	AGGAAGAGGACTAGGTAAGAA	2,141,741 - 2,141,721
IF1508	AGAGGACTAGGTAAGAAGACAT	2,141,737 - 2,141,716
IF1509	CACTGCTCCAGAAATGATACAA	2,140,801 - 2,140,822

Table 2. Annotated ORFs of the 69.9-kb long inverted repeated DNA sequence of M247_Siena.

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf1</i> (392)	IS1201, transposase, IS256 family (Tailliez et al., 1994)		L26311 <i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i> . [0.0]	332/368 (90%)	351/368 (95%)	
<i>orf2</i> (469)	ISL5, transposase, IS4 ssgR <i>ISPepr1</i> family (Lapierre et al., 2002)		AY040218 <i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> [7e-156]	212/326 (65%)	260/326 (79%)	
<i>orf6</i> (392)	IS1201, transposase, IS256 family (Tailliez et al., 1994)		L26311 <i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i> . [0.0]	333/368 (90%)	352/368 (95%)	
<i>orf7</i> (200)	Transcriptional regulator, truncated, putative (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	HTH_19 (4-65) [5.8e-11]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf8</i> (270)	Transcriptional regulator, putative (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	HTH_19 (4-67) [4.9e-07]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf10</i> (117)	Protease, truncated, putative					metabolic enzymes
<i>orf11</i> (285)	ISLhe5, transposase, IS982 family (Callanan et al., 2008)		NC_010080 <i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i> [5e-168]	241/285 (85%)	259/285 (90%)	

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf12</i> (225)	Protease, truncated, putative					metabolic enzymes
<i>orf13</i> (130)	CPBP family intramembrane metalloprotease (Pei et al., 2011)	CPBP (1-74) [1.5e-09]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf14</i> (66)	Transcriptional regulator, putative (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	HTH_3 (4-58) [6.7e-16]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf16</i> (379)	Amino acid permease (Weber et al., 1988)	AA_permease_2 (10-377) [2.0e-22]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf18</i> (257)	ABC transporter permease, putative (Rafii & Park, 2008)	ABC_trans_CmpB (10-164) [1.1e-44]	RYQ23281 <i>Bifidobacterium pseudolongum</i> [2e-24]	42/135 (31%)	72/135 (53%)	signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf19</i> (54)	ATP:cob(I)alamin adenosyltransferase (Mera et al., 2009)	Cob_adeno_trans (1-33) [1.7e-06]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf22</i> (300)	YSIRK-type signal peptide-containing protein	YSIRK_signal(3-28) [1.6e-08]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf23</i> (87)	YSIRK-type signal peptide-containing protein	Mub_B2 (1-63) [5.8e-10]				signaling and cellular processes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf24</i> (189)	LPXTG-motif protein cell wall anchor domain protein, partial	Gram_pos_anchor (146-189) [3.3e-07]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf25</i> (370)	ISL <i>he2</i> , transposase, ISL3 family (Callanan et al., 2008)		CP000517 <i>L. helveticus</i> . [0.0]	282/363 (78%)	295/363 (81%)	
<i>orf26</i> (586)	Oligopeptide ABC transporter substrate-binding protein (Kempf & Bremer, 1995)	SBP_bac_5 (100-509) [3.7e-62]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf27</i> (344)	AI-2E family transporter (Herzberg et al., 2006)	AI-2E_transport (14-333) [5.3e-42]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf28</i> (190)	Hydrolase SGNH/GDSL family (Upton & Buckley, 1995)	Lipase_GDSL (3-183) [2.1e-18]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf30</i> (444)	Solute carrier, family 45 major facilitator superfamily transporter (Pao et al., 1998)	MFS_1 (11-403) [5.6e-24]	PRO95402 <i>Lactiplantibacillus pentosus</i> [4e-167]	232/436 (53%)	310/436 (71%)	signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf31</i> (253)	ATP-binding cassette domain-containing protein (Hung et al., 1998)	ABC_tran (25-180) [6.6e-29]				signaling and cellular processes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf32</i> (298)	ABC transporter permease (Woodson & Devine, 1994)	BPD_transp_2 (3-277) [2.1e-31]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf33</i> (330)	ABC transporter substrate-binding protein (Hung et al., 1998)	ABC_sub_bind (34-325) [4.0e-98]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf34</i> (237)	Noncanonical pyrimidine nucleotidase, YjjG family	HAD_2 (8-202) [4.5e-24]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf36</i> (285)	Aldo/keto reductase (Bohren et al., 1989)	Aldo_ket_red (20-271) [1.7e-49]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf37</i> (641)	Tetracycline resistance ribosomal protection protein (Lépine et al., 1993)	GTP_EFTU (2-224) [1.5e-49] EFG_C (509-594) [2.2e-19] EFG_IV (388-502) [5.6e-18] EFG_II (315-387) [5.7e-09]	Q08425 <i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> [9e-92]	185/616 (30%)	305/616 (49%)	signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf38</i> (272)	Haloacid dehalogenase-like family hydrolase (Koonin & Tatusov, 1994)	Hydrolase_3 (9-265) [6.9e-56]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf39</i> (389)	Major facilitator superfamily transporter (Pao et al., 1998)	MFS_1 (7-275) [2.9e-16]				signaling and cellular processes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf40</i> (337)	D-lactate dehydrogenase (Dengler et al., 1997)	2-Hacid_dh_C (112-299) [1.8e50] 2-Hacid_dh (4-331) [8.0e-32]	2DLD_A <i>L. helveticus</i> . [0.0]	324/337 (96%)	335/337 (99%)	metabolic enzymes
<i>orf41</i> (83)	YSIRK-type signal peptide-containing protein	YSIRK_signal (6-31) [1.1e-12]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf42</i> (179)	LPXTG-motif cell wall anchor domain protein	Gram_pos_anchor (138-178) [5.8e-08]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf43</i> (275)	Exodeoxyribonuclease III (Mol et al., 1995)	Exo_endo_phos (4-266) [1.1e-13]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf44</i> (480)	Amino acid permease (Weber et al., 1988)	AA_permease_2 (20-462) [1.6e-58]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf45</i> (942)	DEAD/DEAH box helicase, putative (Tanner & Linder, 2001)	ResIII (204-356) [4.7e-31] PLDc_2 (41-170) [1.7e-13] Helicase_C (419-529) [4.7e-11]	AJT50415 <i>L. mucosae</i> LM1 [0.0]	438/977 (45%)	608/977 (62%)	genetic information processing factors
<i>orf46</i> (387)	Serine hydrolase (Neu, 1969)	Beta-lactamase (38-363) [2.3e-30]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf48</i> (137)	Peptide deformylase (Meinzel et al., 1996)	Pep_deformylase (4-137) [7.3e-23]				metabolic enzymes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf49</i>	16S ribosomal RNA					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf50</i>	tRNA-Ile					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf51</i>	tRNA-Ala					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf52</i>	23S ribosomal RNA					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf53</i>	5S ribosomal RNA					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf54</i>	tRNA-Asn					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf55</i> (73)	Steroid-binding protein (Lederer, 1994)	Cyt-b5 (5-69) [2.6e-07]				genetic information processing factors
<i>orf56</i> (289)	1-acyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (Lu et al., 2006)	Acyltransferase (77-210) [1.9e-08]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf57</i> (315)	Glycosyltransferase family 8 protein (Campbell et al., 1997)	Glyco_transf_8 (4-248) [4.1e-42]				metabolic enzymes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf58</i> (285)	Glycosyltransferase family 8 protein (Campbell et al., 1997)	Glyco_transf_8 (1-218) [3.1e-34]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf59</i> (392)	IS1201, transposase, IS256 family (Tailliez et al., 1994)	Transposase_mut (3-374) [1.5e-107]	L26311 <i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i> . [0.0]	333/368 (90%)	352/368 (95%)	
<i>orf60</i> (274)	Glycosyl transferase (Campbell et al., 1997)	Glyco_transf_8 (2-236) [4.5e-16]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf61</i> (254)	1-acyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase, putative (Lu et al., 2006)					metabolic enzymes
<i>orf62</i>	tRNA-Lys					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf64</i>	tRNA-Lys					ribosomal proteins and transfer RNA
<i>orf65</i> (238)	Response regulator transcription factor, YycF/WalR (Türck & Bierbaum, 2012)	Response_reg (5-114) [3.8e-30] Trans_reg_C (156-232) [2.2e-26]	ABD29209 <i>S. aureus</i> [3e-118]	155/234 (66%)	193/234 (82%)	genetic information processing factors
<i>orf66</i> (617)	Cell wall metabolism sensor histidine kinase	HATPase_c (495-607) [3.7e-30] HisKA (376-443) [8.6e-19] HAMP	Q2G2U4 <i>S. aureus</i> [1e-169]	259/623 (42%)	395/623 (63%)	signaling and cellular processes

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
	YycG/WalK (Türck & Bierbaum, 2012)	(201-253) [1.6e-14] PAS (263-367) [2.6e-06]				
<i>orf68</i> (274)	Auxiliary regulator of two-component system, YycI family (Türck & Bierbaum, 2012)	YycI (32-260) [4.6e-56]	YP_004888125 <i>L. plantarum</i> WCFS1 [4e-49]	87/272 (32%)	153/272 (56%)	signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf69</i> (265)	Metallo-beta-lactamase fold metallo-hydrolase (Carfi et al., 1995)	Lactamase_B_2 (22-219) [1.4e-25]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf70</i> (420)	Serine protease (Yan et al., 1998)	Trypsin_2 (138-279) [2.0e-30] PDZ_2 (321-417) [1.1e-22]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf71</i> (159)	23S rRNA (pseudouridine(1915)-N(3))-methyltransferase RlmH (Tkaczuk et al., 2007)	SPOUT_MTase (1-158) [1.7e-55]				metabolic enzymes
<i>orf72</i> (469)	<i>ISLcr2</i> , transposase, <i>ISLre2</i> family, partial		NZ_GL531739 <i>L. crispatus</i> [0.0]	289/301 (96%)	290/301 (96%)	

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

Table 3. Annotated ORFs of the 15.4-kb DNA sequence of M247, found deleted and replaced by LIR2 in the M247_Siena genome.

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain [E value] ^b	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf1</i> (392)	ISLcr2, transposase, ISLre2 family, partial		NZ_GL531739 <i>L. crispatus</i> [0.0]	289/301 (96%)	290/301 (96%)	
<i>orf2</i> (470)	C69 family peptidase (Vesanto et al., 1996)	Peptidase_C69 (9-399) [9.2e-129]	CAA86210 <i>L. helveticus</i> [2e-89]	159/475 (33%)	253/475 (53%)	metabolism
<i>orf3</i> (224)	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	AAA_16 (22-199) [9.9e-05]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf4</i> (366)	ABC transporter permease, pseudogene					signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf5</i> (174)	TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator	TetR_N (22-54) [7.5e-05]				signaling and cellular processes
<i>orf6</i> (199)	Histidine phosphatase family protein	His_Phos_1 (3-195) [7.1e-48]				
<i>orf7</i> (251)	Protease, truncated, putative	Peptidase_S9 (51-247) [0.00027]				metabolism
<i>orf8</i> (253)	Peroxide stress protein YaaA (Liu et al., 2011)	H2O2_YaaD (1-234) [8.3e-74]				
<i>orf9</i> (214)	Alpha-fucosidase, putative	Alpha_L_fucos (12-113) [0.068]				

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain [E value] ^b	Homologous protein			Functional group
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity	
<i>orf11</i> (344)	<i>ISLdl3</i> , transposase, IS30 family (Ravin & Alatossava, 2003)		AJ316615 <i>L. delbrueckii</i> . [2e-106]	165/345 (48%)	223/345 (64%)	
<i>orf12</i> (400)	L, D-transpeptidase family protein (Bielnicki et al., 2005)	YkuD (274-399) [2.4e-16] PG_binding_4 (125-246) [7.5e-06]	SDA61766 <i>L. kefiranofaciens</i> [7e-161]	216/398 (54%)	297/398 (74%)	
<i>orf14</i> (251)	Membrane protein					
<i>orf15</i> (150)	LytTR family transcriptional regulator (Nikolskaya, 2002)	LytTR (52-144) [1.2e-21]				
<i>orf17</i> (390)	<i>IS1201</i> , transposase, IS256 family (Tailliez et al., 1994)		L26311 <i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i> . [0.0]	332/368 (90%)	351/368 (95%)	

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

Table 4. Real-time PCR quantification of M247 chromosomes carrying chromosomal rearrangements^a.

Primer pair	Chromosomes with rearrangements
IF1118 - IF1119	6.47×10^{-6} ($\pm 8.10 \times 10^{-7}$)
IF1120 - IF1122	3.46×10^{-5} ($\pm 4.01 \times 10^{-8}$)
IF1111 - IF1121	2.14×10^{-6} ($\pm 1.57 \times 10^{-6}$)
IF1110 - IF1117	4.44×10^{-5} ($\pm 3.71 \times 10^{-7}$)
Average	2.19×10^{-5} ($\pm 0.69 \times 10^{-6}$)

^a Frequency is expressed as number of rearranged chromosomal structures per total number of chromosomes.

Supplementary Table S1. General statistics of the M247_Siena Nanopore and Illumina reads.

	Nanopore reads^a (SRR10902282)			Illumina reads^b (SRR10902283)	
	Overall (2,230x)	>80 kb (363x)	>80 kb (110x)	R1	R2
Reads (n)	335,898	8,280	2,425	280,486	280,486
Mean read length	15,275.0	104,794.3	104,383.0	225.3	213.9
Median read length	6,448.0	97,512.5	97,400.0	251.0	251.0
Read length N50 ^c	36,990	102,516	102,207	251	251
Mean read quality (Q) ^d	12.1	12.1	14.0	33.1	29.1
Median read quality (Q) ^d	12.4	12.3	14.0	36.0	29.0
Sequencing output (no of bases)	5,130,846,027	867,696,545	253,128,657	63,191,714	60,009,977

^a The overall Nanopore reads were filtered for length >80 kb and the output was further filtered to obtain a 110x coverage of a 2.3 Mbp genome size.

^b R1 and R2 refer to illumina reads, forward and reverse, respectively.

^c N50 is the length of a sequence in a set for which all sequences of that length or greater sum to 50% of the set's total size.

^d Phred quality score Q expresses the confidence in a particular base-call and is logarithmically related to the base-calling error probability P ($Q = -10 \log_{10} P$).

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NS4A peptide of BK strain hepatitis C virus: A 2.2 Å resolution structure in a hexagonal crystal form: 2.2 Å crystal structure of the NS3 protease of hepatitis C virus. *Protein Science*, 7(4), 837–847. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pro.5560070402>.

FIGURE LEGEND

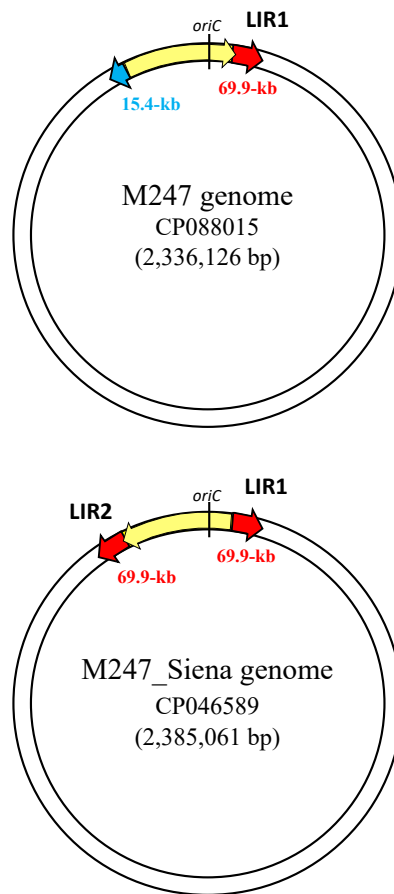


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the *L. crispatus* laboratory strain M247_Siena genome, in comparison with the original *L. crispatus* M247 genome. The *L. crispatus* M247_Siena genome, 2,385,061 bp in length, contains a duplication of a 69.9-kb long chromosomal segment that produces two long inverted repeats (LIRs, red arrows) 224.4-kb apart. LIR1 and LIR2 are located 38,619 nucleotides downstream and 185,826 nucleotides upstream of the chromosomal origin of replication (*oriC*), respectively. Comparison with the *L. crispatus* original M247 genome indicated that i) the LIR2 was replacing a 15.4-kb DNA sequence (blue arrow) which is deleted in the M247_Siena genome and that ii) the LIR2 is associated to a 224.4-kb inversion of the genomic region flanked by LIR1 and LIR2, containing the *oriC* (yellow arrow).

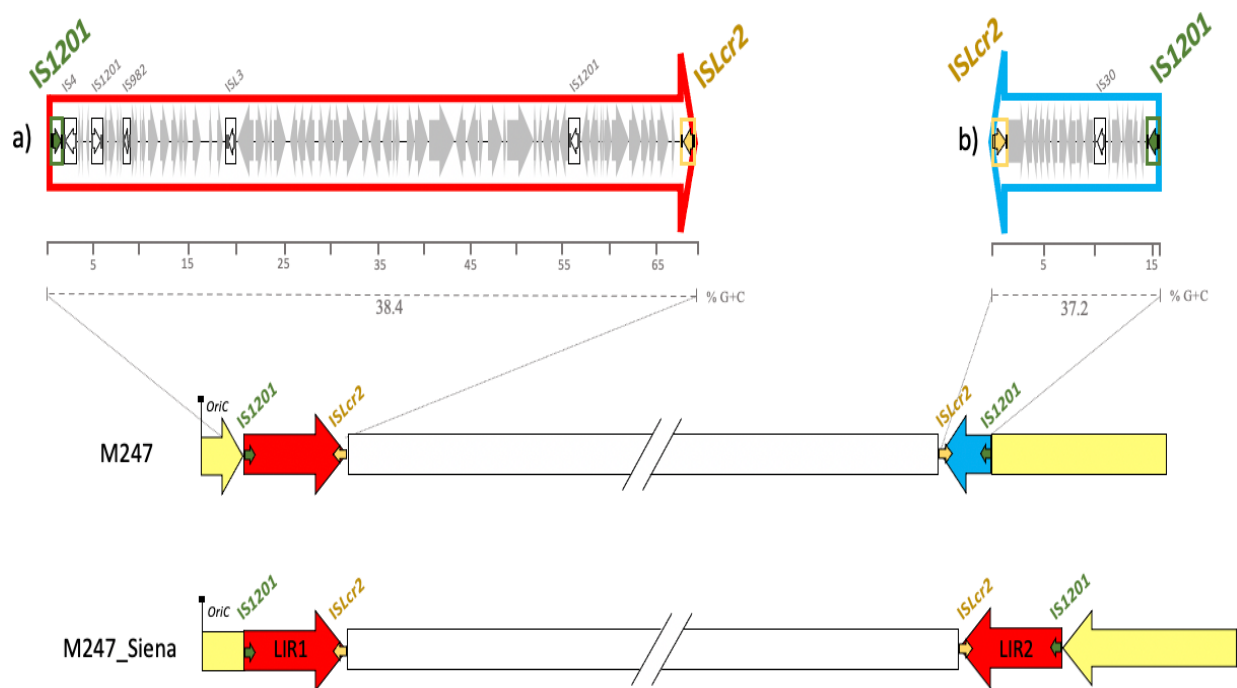


Figure 2. (a) Structure of the M247_Siena 69.9-kb repeat and (b) of the 15.4-kb DNA sequence of M247 which is deleted and replaced by LIR2 in M247_Siena. (a) Sequence analysis of the M247_Siena LIR1 and LIR2 showed that each copy of the repeat contains 72 ORFs, of which 46 have the same direction of transcription. Each repeat contains at the 5' end a copy of *IS1201* and at the 3' end a copy of *ISLcr2*. Sequence comparison showed that the 2 LIRs contains 4 nucleotides changes and a 6-bp insertion all located in the 5' end copy of *IS1201* (not shown). LIRs have an overall GC content of 38.4%. ORFs and their direction of transcription are represented by grey arrows, whereas boxed arrows are ISs. Scale, kilobases. (b) The same IS elements flanking the LIR, namely *IS1201* and *ISLcr2* were found at 5' end and 3' end, respectively, of the deleted 15.4-kb DNA sequence. The 15.4-kb region contains 17 ORFs and has a GC content of 37.2%. The linear representation of M247 and M247_Siena genomes highlights that in both genomes *IS1201* and *ISLcr2* (green and orange small arrows, respectively) occur in the form of inverted repeats; the figure is not scaled.

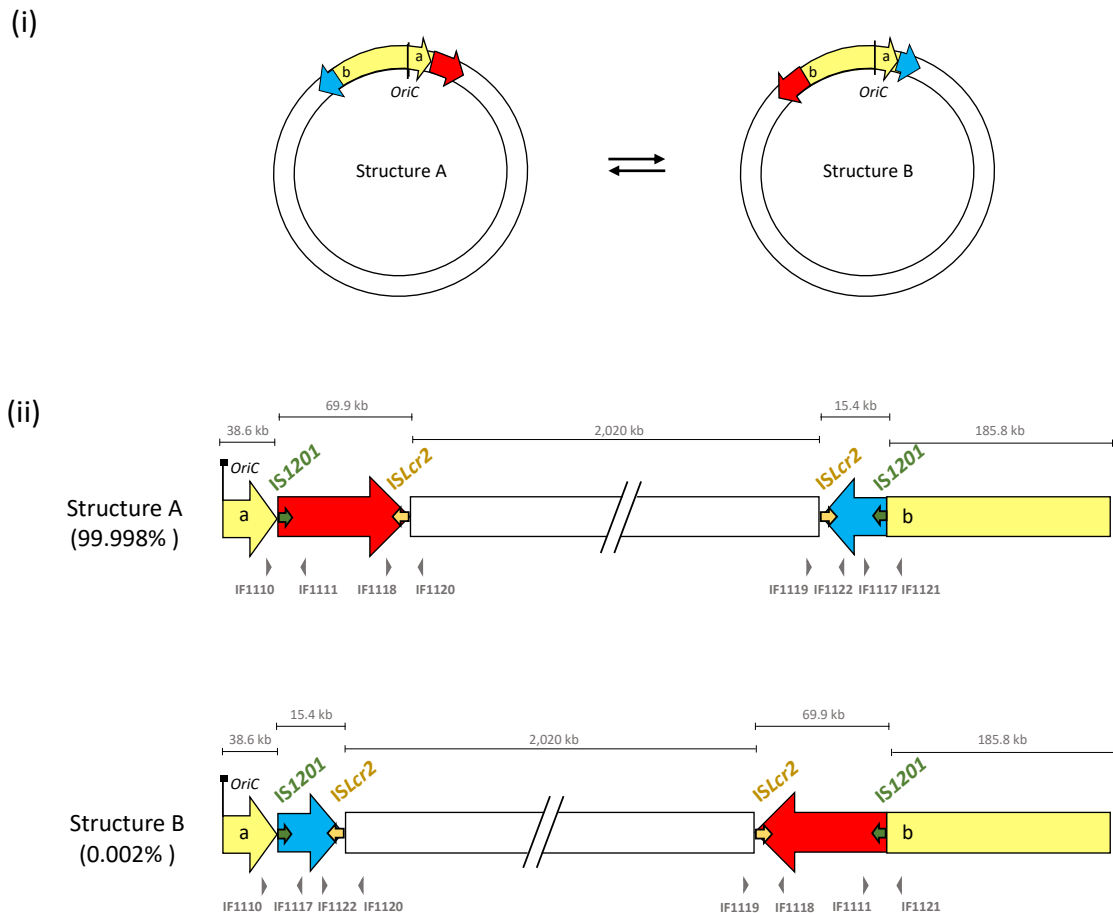


Figure 3. Detection of chromosomal rearrangements within the original M247 population by PCR analysis. (i) Circular and (ii) linear representations of the two chromosomal structures detected within the M247 population (structure A and structure B). PCR analysis indicated the presence of M247 chromosomes in which the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA sequences were exchanged (structure B) in comparison to the assembled chromosomal structure (structure A). PCR mapping also suggested the IS elements namely *IS1201* and *ISLcr2* (green and orange small arrows, respectively) flanking the exchanged DNA sequences as breakpoints of rearrangements. The PCR real-time quantification of the two M247 chromosomal structures estimated that chromosomal rearrangements involving the 69.9-kb and the 15.4-kb DNA sequences occurred in approximately 2 out of 100,000 M247 chromosomes (0.0002%). Red and blue arrow blocks represent the 69.9-kb region (duplicated in M247_Siena) and the 15.4-kb DNA segment (deleted in M247_Siena), respectively. Grey arrowheads indicate primers used for chromosomal structure analysis. The figure is not scaled.

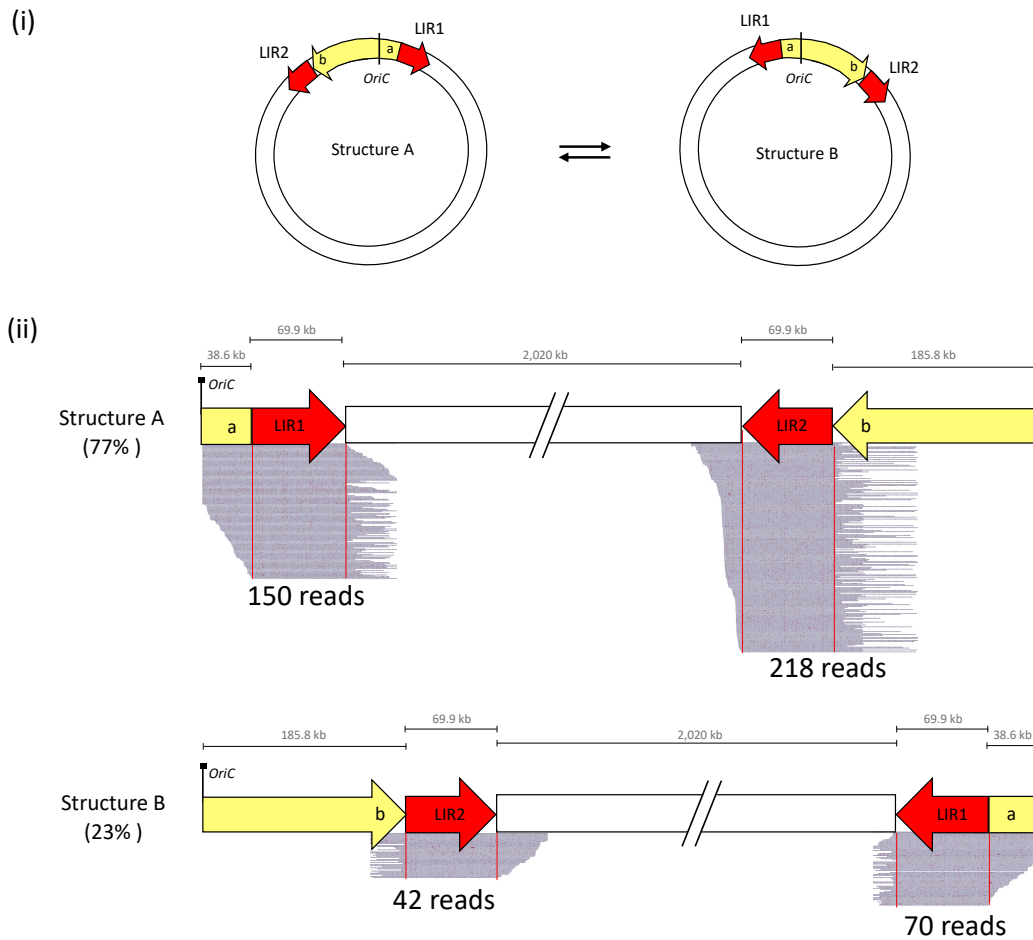


Figure 4. Detection of chromosomal rearrangements in the M247_Siena genome by genome mapping with Nanopore reads. Analysis of Nanopore reads longer than 80-kb using npInv and Sniffles tools indicated the presence of reads supporting two chromosomal structures in M247_Siena (structure A and structure B). (i) Homologous recombination between the 2 long inverted repeats LIR1 and LIR2 produces the inversion of the 224,443-bp DNA region (yellow arrow), flanked by the LIRs (red arrows), which characterizes the two chromosomal structures A and B. The figure is not scaled. (ii) Linear representation of the 2 genomic structures aligned to the Nanopore reads (grey) longer than 80-kb spanning LIR1 and LIR2, which are useful in structural identification. The distribution images of the reads were copied by Tablet v1.17.08.17 interface panel and have been slightly modified to improve readability. A semi-quantitative estimation, obtained by reads counting, revealed that 112 out 480 useful reads (23.3%) contain the inverted structure (structure B).

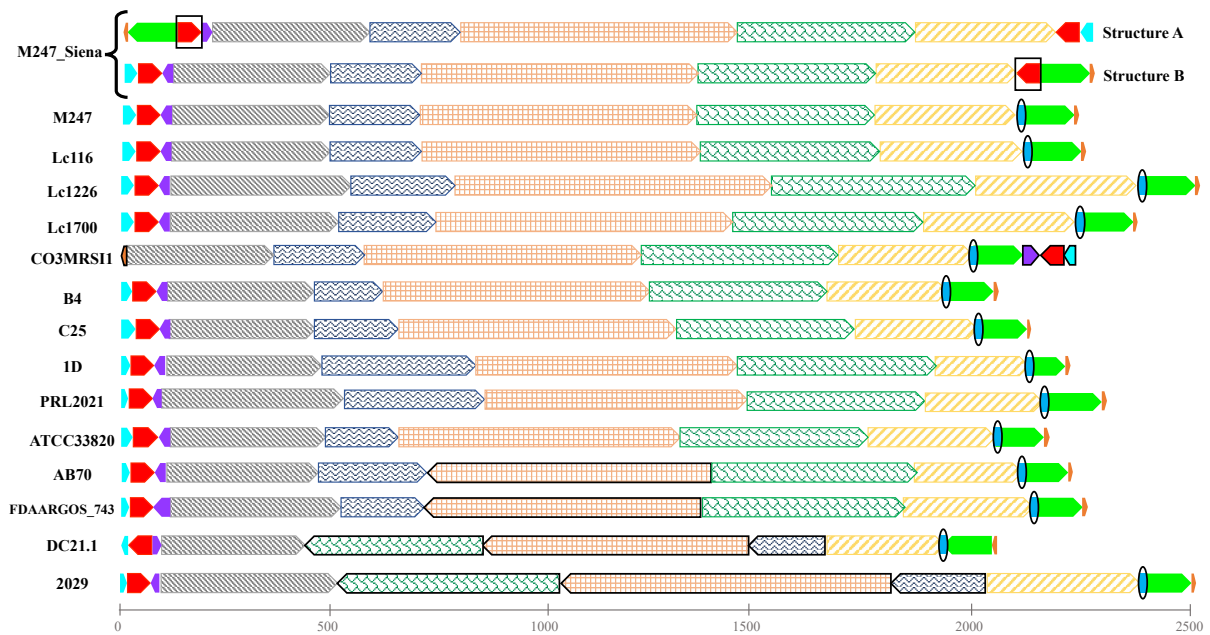
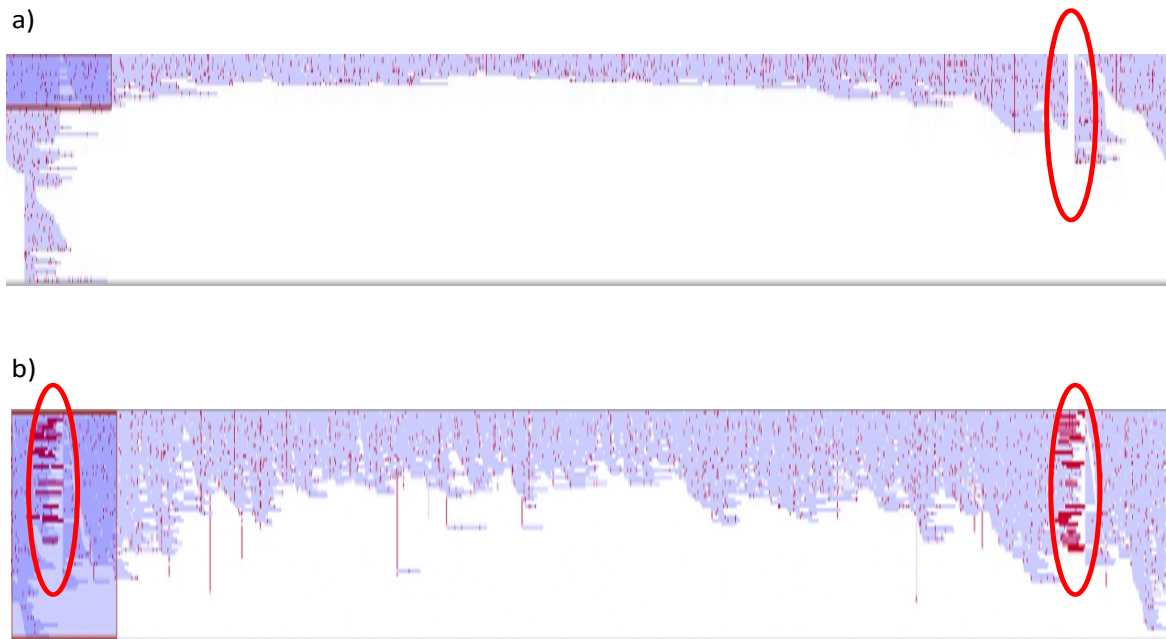


Figure 5. Multiple alignment of the 14 *L. crispatus* complete genomes using M247_Siena as reference. Each chromosome has been laid out horizontally: identically colored blocks indicate similar nucleotide sequences, left oriented blocks indicate reverse complement orientation relative to the reference chromosome (M247_Siena). Names of strains carrying the sequences are reported on the left of the figure. Each *L. crispatus* genome is covered by eleven blocks of homology, of which light blue and orange containing the replication origin and the termination sites, respectively; red indicates the 69.9-kb region duplicated in M247_Siena, light blue indicates the 15.4-kb region, whereas remaining blocks (light green, green, yellow, violet, grey, dark blue and brown) are conserved syntenic sequences. Other *L. crispatus* strains display a chromosomal structure resembling the M247 genome and therefore, characterized by the presence of the 15.4-kb region (circled light blue block) and the absence of LIR2 (boxed red block). In all strains the 224.4-kbp DNA segment (light blue, light green and orange blocks) is arranged as in the structure B of M247_Siena. Some strains show further inversion (black outlined blocks): CO3MRS11 displays an inversion of 191-kb around the origin of replication, whereas AB70, FDAARGOS, DC21.1 and 2029 have an additional DNA inversion of 610-kb, 619-kb, 1,3 Mb and 1,7 Mb in length respectively occurring in proximity of the putative termination sites. Scale, kilobases.



Supplementary Figure S1. M247_Siena and M247 genome mapping with Nanopore reads. (a) Alignment of the M247_Siena Nanopore reads (2,151x coverage) to the M247 genome highlights the 15.4-kb deletion (red circle), whereas (b) the alignment of the M247 Nanopore reads (883x coverage) to the laboratory strain M247_Siena genome highlights the absence of the 69.9-kb repeats (red circles). Figure was generated using Tablet v1.17.08.17.

CHAPTER 4

Sequence typing and antimicrobial susceptibility testing of infertility-associated *Enterococcus faecalis* reveals clonality of aminoglycoside resistant strains

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1. ABSTRACT

Objectives: Infertility affects 9-12% of reproductive-aged couples. Both symptomatic and asymptomatic genital infections can contribute to infertility. We have recently shown that asymptomatic genital infection of infertile couples by *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Mycoplasma hominis* and *Ureaplasma urealyticum* was predictive of *in vitro* fertilization failure. This study aims at characterizing antibiotic susceptibility and population structure of a collection of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* strains.

Methods: Antibiotic susceptibility testing included VITEK-2, MIC and disk-diffusion assays. Oxford Nanopore and Illumina sequences were employed for hybrid genome assemblies. Genomes were used for multilocus sequence typing and identification of antimicrobial resistance genes.

Results: All 41 strains were susceptible to β -lactams, glycopeptides, tigecyclin, linezolid and nitrofurantoin, whereas 8/41 isolates were resistant to at least one antimicrobial. All the 8 strains showed resistance to high-level aminoglycosides, of which 7 were resistant to gentamicin. Only one strain was resistant to gentamycin, streptomycin, ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin. Simpson's diversity index indicated genotypic diversity of the infertility-associated *E. faecalis* population. Seventeen sequence types (STs) were identified and assigned to 3 clonal complexes (CCs) and 14 singletons. CC40 was the most predominant, followed by ST81 and CC16. Interestingly, 6/7 gentamicin resistant isolates clustered in CC16/ST480. The *aac(6')-aph(2'')* and *ant(6)* genes encoding aminoglycoside modifying enzymes were identified in the gentamicin and streptomycin resistant strains, respectively, whereas quinolone resistance was mediated by point-mutations in the *gyrA* and *parC* genes.

Conclusions: All isolates were susceptible to most clinically relevant antimicrobials. Twenty percent of the strains showed resistance to high-level aminoglycosides and 75% of those clustered in CC16/ST480.

Keywords: Infertility, asymptomatic genital infection, infertility-associated *Enterococcus faecalis*, antibiotic susceptibility, sequence type, clonal complex.

2. INTRODUCTION

According to the International Committee for Monitoring Assisted Reproductive Technology (ICMART) and the World Health Organization (WHO), infertility is a disease of the reproductive system which generates disability as an impairment of function [1]. Infections of the genital tract are accounted amongst the factors contributing to infertility [2–4]. We have recently reported that asymptomatic infections of the genital tract had a negative impact on couple fertility, and the presence of *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Mycoplasma hominis* and *Ureaplasma urealyticum* in genital samples was predictive of an adverse outcome of *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) [5]. In particular, *E. faecalis* was significantly associated to reduced motility and abnormal morphology of spermatozoa in semen specimens and lower levels of lactobacilli in vaginal swabs [5]. Association of *E. faecalis* to altered semen parameters in infertile males with no symptoms of genital tract infections has also been described by other authors [6–8]. Couples seeking medical help due to infertility seldom present with genital infections with overt symptoms, such as pain, discomfort or discharge. Nonetheless, numerous studies have associated asymptomatic or poorly symptomatic genital infections to impaired fertility [3,7,9–19]. Given that asymptomatic genital tract infections can threaten fertility and antimicrobial therapy may improve reproduction efficiency, the present study was conducted to characterize the *E. faecalis* clinical isolates previously associated to couple infertility [5] with the prospect of a potential antibiotic treatment of genital tract infections caused by *E. faecalis* in infertile couples. *E. faecalis* is the species responsible for the majority of enterococcal infections in humans, including urinary tract infections (UTIs), sepsis, endocarditis, peritonitis, abdominal/pelvic and soft tissue infections [20]. The most frequent clinical manifestation is UTI, of which *E. faecalis* is the second most common agent worldwide after *Escherichia coli* [21]. *E. faecalis* is also the leading pathogen among Gram-positive bacteria of catheter-associated UTIs (CAUTIs) in healthcare settings [22]. Ascending UTIs and intra-abdominal infections can lead to bacteremia and endocarditis. Both *Enterococcus faecium* and *E. faecalis* have a remarkable tropism for the endocardium and/or the heart valves, but *E. faecalis*

alone accounts for about 90% of enterococcal endocarditis cases, especially in risk groups [23]. Treatment of asymptomatic enterococcal bacteriuria is not recommended by recent guidelines [24]. Uncomplicated enterococcal UTIs are generally managed with drugs in monotherapy (*i.e.*, ampicillin, fosfomicin, nitrofurantoin or fluoroquinolones). Antimicrobial agents for complicated UTIs and pyelonephritis by *E. faecalis* include penicillin/ampicillin, vancomycin, linezolid and daptomycin [25]. Treatment of enterococcal endocarditis, blood and deep-tissue infections requires the synergic combination of β -lactams or glycopeptides together with aminoglycosides, typically gentamicin [23,25]. Management of endocarditis and sepsis caused by aminoglycoside resistant enterococci necessitates alternative combination antimicrobial therapies [26]. Despite *E. faecalis* is one of the most commonly isolated uropathogen from semen samples of infertile men [5,8,27,28], therapeutic management of *E. faecalis* bacteriospermia is still controversial among reproductive medicine specialists. Antimicrobial therapy of enterococcal infections is complicated by their intrinsic resistance to several antibiotic classes, including cephalosporins, sulphonamides and low concentrations of aminoglycosides [29]. In addition, acquired antibiotic resistance may limit the number of therapeutic options especially for severe infections. Of special concern is the acquisition by horizontal transfer of genes coding for aminoglycoside modifying enzymes (AMEs) and conferring resistance to high concentrations of aminoglycosides [29,30]. As a result, the synergistic bactericidal effect between β -lactams and aminoglycosides is eliminated prompting the need for different combination therapies. According to the latest european surveillance report, the population-weighted mean percentage of high-level aminoglycoside resistance in *E. faecalis* in 2019 was 26.6 [31]. In the perspective of antimicrobial treatment of asymptomatic genital tract infections, it is important to investigate the epidemiology of antibiotic resistance of the bacterial pathogens isolated from genital samples of infertile couples. In the present study, antimicrobial susceptibility testing, whole-genome sequencing and multilocus sequence typing (MLST) were jointly used to characterize population structure and antibiotic resistance of a collection of *E. faecalis* clinical strains isolated from asymptomatic couples with infertility.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Clinical isolates

A total of 41 clinical isolates of *E. faecalis* from 285 infertile couples attending the Centre for Diagnosis and Treatment of Couple Sterility at Siena University Hospital were analyzed. All couples were asymptomatic for genital tract infections. *E. faecalis* strains included 28 isolates from semen samples and 13 from vaginal swabs as described [5].

3.2. Bacterial growth conditions

Each *E. faecalis* isolate was grown on solid Brain Heart Infusion (BHI; Oxoid, Milan, Italy) enriched with 5% defibrinated horse blood (Liofilchem, Teramo, Italy) at 37°C overnight (o.n.). Four to six isolated bacterial colonies were suspended in 10 ml of liquid BHI medium (Oxoid) and incubated at 37°C until they reached the optical density at 590 nm (OD₅₉₀) of 0.5. Cultures were aliquoted, added with 10% glycerol (Baker, Bridgend, England) and stored at -80°C until use.

3.3. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

For each isolate, antimicrobial susceptibility testing was initially performed using VITEK® 2 (Biomerieux Italia S.p.A., Florence, Italy) with the AST-P658 card (Biomerieux) covering the antibiotics recommended for enterococci by EUCAST (The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. Breakpoint tables for interpretation of MICs and zone diameters, version 11.0, 2021). To confirm and implement the VITEK data, both MIC and disk diffusion (Kirby-Bauer and E-test) assays were carried out. *E. faecalis* OG1RF [32] was used as reference strain. Each isolate was cultured o.n. on blood-agar BHI plates, and then few isolated colonies were suspended in dH₂O to reach the turbidity of 0.5 McFarland. For MIC testing of gentamicin (GEN) and streptomycin (STR), bacterial suspensions were diluted (1:700) in liquid Mueller Hinton medium (Biomérieux) and distributed into the wells (50 µl/well) of a custom microtiter plate for gram-positive bacteria (Sensititre GPN3F; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milano, Italy). The plate was incubated at 37°C o.n., and MICs were determined by manual reading. Kirby-

Bauer assays were used to test susceptibility to all antibiotics (Oxoid), while E-test was employed for linezolid. Results were assessed based on EUCAST breakpoints.

3.4. Genomic DNA preparation

Frozen stocks of the 41 enterococcal isolates were diluted (1:100) in 40 ml of BHI and grown until an OD₅₉₀ of 2.0. Genomic DNA extraction was carried out as described [33]. DNA samples were resuspended in 0.9% NaCl and quantified with the Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) using the Qubit dsDNA BR assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

3.5. Oxford Nanopore Sequencing

Sequencing reactions were carried out in 1.5 ml LoBind tubes (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany) using wide bore (\varnothing 1.2 mm) tips to reduce DNA shearing. DNA size selection of genomic DNA was obtained with 0.5 vol of AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter S.r.l., Milano, Italy) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Approximately 2 μ g of size-selected DNA was employed for library construction by using the Nanopore sequencing kit SQK-LSK 108 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, United Kingdom). Multiple samples were pooled using the Nanopore 'Native Barcoding Expansion 1-12 kit' (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Library preparation was performed following the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications: (i) each incubation step with the XP beads was done on a rotator mixer for 15 min; (ii) the 'Library Loading Beads' (LLB) were not employed. Finally, the pooled DNA library (at least 200 ng) was loaded onto a R9.4 MinION flow cell (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Sequencing run was performed on the GridION X5 device (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) until a 100x genome coverage for each sample was reached (approximately 8-12 h). Real-time basecalling and analysis of basecalled reads was carried out as described [33]. Features of nanopore reads obtained from sequencing the 8 aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* strains are reported in Table S2.

3.6. Illumina sequencing

Illumina sequencing was performed at Microbes NG (University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK), using the Nextera library preparation kit (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) followed by HiSeq2500 sequencing (Illumina Inc.) (2x250 bp paired-end sequencing). Illumina reads were trimmed and analysed as reported [33]. Features of Illumina reads achieved from sequencing the 8 aminoglycoside resistant isolates are described in Table S3.

3.7. Genome assembly, annotation and analysis

Nanopore and Illumina reads of all 41 strains were assembled, polished and quality-assessed as described [33]. Genomes were automatically annotated using Prokka v1.14.5 ([34]; <https://github.com/tseemann/prokka>). Genome analysis was carried out using: (i) Artemis and Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT) v17.0.1 [35]; (ii) Blast (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>); (iii) PlasmidFinder v2.0.1 [36]. *E. faecalis* OG1RF genome was obtained from the NCBI Microbial Genome Database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/808?genome_assembly_id=168518, CP002621.1) and used as a reference strain.

3.8. Statistical analyses

Starting from the sequenced genomes, ST of each isolate was assigned based on the 7 housekeeping genes *gdh*, *gyd*, *pstS*, *gki*, *aroE*, *xpt* and *yqiL* used for enterococcal typing [37]. For each locus, a distinct allele number was assigned in accordance with the *E. faecalis* MLST database (<https://pubmlst.org/organisms/enterococcus-faecalis/>). Simpson's index of diversity (D) with 95% confidence interval was calculated [$0 \leq (1-D) \leq 1$, with values near zero corresponding to high diversity and values near one corresponding to more homogeneous populations]. The relatedness amongst different STs was investigated by the UPGMA agglomerative hierarchical clustering method using PHYLOViZ v2.0 [38]. The UPGMA method was used to construct a dendrogram from the matrix of pairwise allelic differences between the STs. The nearest two clusters were joined into a higher level cluster, and the distance (Hamming distance) between any

two clusters is the mean distance between elements of each cluster. Clusters of related STs differing in ≤ 2 allelic loci and descending from a common ancestor were grouped into CCs by using goeBURST [38]. A singleton was defined as a ST unrelated to any other in the population at single-locus variant level [38]. Antimicrobial resistance genes were identified using ABRicate v1.0.1 (Seemann T, *Abricate*, <https://github.com/tseemann/abricate>) on the following databases ARG-ANNOT (Antibiotic Resistance Gene-ANNOTation) [39], CARD (Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database) [40], MEGARes 2.00 [41] and ResFinder [42].

4. RESULTS

4.1. Antimicrobial susceptibility of infertility-associated *E. faecalis*

Susceptibility of all 41 *E. faecalis* isolates to 14 clinically relevant antimicrobial drugs was tested according to the EUCAST guidelines. Results obtained with the VITEK 2 automated system were confirmed by both disk diffusion and broth microdilution MIC methods. All the strains tested (41/41) were susceptible to β -lactams, glycopeptides, tigecycline, linezolid and nitrofurantoin, whereas 8/41 (19.5%) were resistant to at least one antimicrobial agent (Fig. 1). High-level aminoglycoside resistance was observed in all resistant isolates (8/8), whereas only one strain (1/8) was resistant to the fluoroquinolones ciprofloxacin (CIP) and levofloxacin (LVX). A total of 4 different phenotypic antimicrobial resistance patterns was defined (Table 1). Five isolates were resistant only to GEN, one only to STR, one to both GEN and STR, and eventually one to GEN, STR, CIP and LVX (Table 1).

4.2. Sequence types and identification of clonal complexes

Complete genomes of all isolates were obtained by using both short- and long-read sequencing techniques followed by hybrid assembly. Whole genome sequences were used to perform MLST on the 7 genes employed for *E. faecalis* typing. MLST allowed to assign 17 different sequence types (STs) (Fig. 2). All STs were present in the *E. faecalis* database. The most frequently found types were ST40 (11/41 isolates), ST81 (7/41) and ST179 (5/41) (Fig. 2 and Table S1). The other

14 STs were identified in ≤ 3 isolates (Fig. 2 and Table S1). Calculation of the Simpson's index of diversity (1-D, $D = 0.889$; 95% confidence interval = 0.83-0.95) showed a high level of diversity of the infertility-associated *E. faecalis* population. The goeBURST algorithm was then used to group the STs with allelic variants in one or two loci into clonal complexes (CCs). Analysis resolved 3 groups and 11 singletons with single- and double-locus variants. Blast with *E. faecalis* MLST database clustered the 17 STs into 14 distinct CCs, of which 3 (CC40, CC16 and CC21) comprised strains belonging to at least two different STs and 11 were singletons. The most prevalent cluster was CC40 (12/41 isolates), followed by ST81 (7/41) and CC16 (6/41) (Table S1). CC40 comprised ST40 and the single-locus variant ST268, CC16 covered ST16 and the single-locus variant ST179, while CC21 included ST21 and ST117 (Table S1).

4.3. Phylogenetic relatedness of high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* strains

Analysis of the distribution of aminoglycoside resistance among the STs showed that 6 out of the 8 resistant isolates were closely related (Fig. 2). In particular, 4 isolates (strains 5245, 2819, 4638 and 5034) belonged to ST179, while the other 2 were part of ST16 (strain 5410) and ST480 (strain 4774). The remaining 2 isolates belonged to the more distant ST211 (strain 4153) and ST40 (strain 4953) (Fig. 2). Construction of the minimum spanning tree containing the allelic variants in just 1 locus ($n-1$, $n=7$) indicated that ST179 and ST16 belonged to the same CC, of which ST16 is the group founder (CC16) (Fig. 3). Further inclusion of allelic variants in 4 gene loci ($n-4$) allowed to comprise also ST480 in the group (Fig. 3). Interestingly, 6 out the 7 isolates (85.7%) resistant to high-level GEN clustered in CC16/ST480, suggesting clonality of high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* isolates. In contrast, strains belonging to ST211 and ST40 presented allelic variants in 6 and 7 loci, respectively, indicating higher phylogenetic distance to the other isolates (Fig. 3).

4.4. Resistance to high-level aminoglycosides is mediated by aminoglycoside modifying enzymes

Complete genomes of the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant strains were searched for the presence of genes encoding AME and conferring high-level resistance to GEN and STR, using ABRicate. All the 7 GEN resistant strains were found to carry one copy of the *aac(6')-aph(2'')* gene coding for the bifunctional 6'-aminoglycoside acetyltransferase-2''-aminoglycoside phosphotransferase enzyme, whose presence in gram-positive bacteria is known to confer resistance to GEN and most other aminoglycosides, except for STR [30] (Fig. 4). A single copy of the *ant(6)* gene, conferring high-level STR resistance, was found in all the 3 STR resistant strains (Fig. 4). The ANT(6) enzyme is an aminoglycoside O-nucleotidyltransferases with streptomycin as a unique substrate [43]. Strains 5034 and 4774 harbored both *aac(6')-aph(2'')* and *ant(6)* genes (Fig. 4). Analysis of the genomic location of AME genes showed that they were placed in the *E. faecalis* chromosome in 6 out of 8 isolates, whereas in two cases (strains 4153 and 4953) they were carried by plasmids (Fig. 4).

4.5. Resistance to fluoroquinolones is due to mutations

Strain 4774 is the only isolate resistant to both CIP and LVX. The genome of 4774 was searched for the presence of both acquired resistance genes and point mutations in the chromosomal genes *gyrA* and *parC*. The strain was found to carry two point mutations in *gyrA* (Ser83Tyr) and *parC* (Ser80Ile) that conferred fluoroquinolone resistance, as also confirmed by MIC results (4 µg/ml for both CIP and LVX).

5. DISCUSSION

Infections of the genital tract can negatively impact on couple fertility [5]. Both subclinical and chronic infections are considered as a potential threaten to human fertility [3,44], since low-grade but persistent inflammation in the genital tract can affect reproductive efficiency. Specifically, inflammatory mediators such as cytokines, chemokines and reactive oxygen species can harm the

functions of Sertoli cells resulting in reduced spermatogenesis and failed acrosome reaction [45,46]. In the female, dysbiosis of the vaginal microbiome [*i.e.*, bacterial vaginosis (BV) and aerobic vaginitis] is often accompanied by increased levels of proinflammatory cytokines and reactive oxygen species at the genital mucosa, which in turn can alter the estrous cycle, ovulation, oocyte and embryo quality [47–49]. Because these infections often remain asymptomatic, they can ascend along the reproductive tract and also be transmitted to the uninfected partner during natural intercourse or assisted reproductive technology (ART) procedures, thereby increasing the risk of couple infertility [2,4,49]. Yet, as genital infections are preventable and curable causes of infertility, efforts should be made to diagnose and treat potential infections caused by microbial pathogens associated to couple infertility. Interestingly, recent studies have shown that antibiotic treatment of asymptomatic genital infections caused by *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *U. urealyticum*, *M. hominis* and *Mycoplasma genitalium* improved semen parameters [12–15,17], possibly enhancing male fertility. Moreover, despite treatment of asymptomatic BV is not currently recommended [50], however, antimicrobial therapy may prevent sexual transmission of BV-associated pathogens and reduce BV complications, including tubal factor infertility and early spontaneous abortion in patients subjected to ART procedures [51–53]. In the present study, we have characterized a collection of *E. faecalis* clinical strains previously isolated from infertile couples [5]. Although *E. faecalis* did not cause a symptomatic infection in either partner, it negatively affected sperm parameters and levels of vaginal lactobacilli, likely contributing to the observed IVF failure [5]. Starting from those findings, we have investigated the antibiotic susceptibility and population structure of 41 infertility-associated *E. faecalis* clinical isolates for a prospective antimicrobial treatment of asymptomatic genital infections in infertile couples prior to being subjected to IVF cycles. The majority (33/41) of isolates were susceptible to clinically relevant antimicrobials, and almost all (40/41) were susceptible to antibiotics used to treat *E. faecalis* UTIs (Fig. 1). The 8 remaining strains were resistant to high-level aminoglycosides, and 1 of those (strain 4774) was also resistant to fluoroquinolones (Table 1). Several epidemiological

studies reported the prevalence of high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* strains isolated from different geographic areas and human body sites [54–60], however, to our knowledge, no previous work has specifically described the antibiotic resistance profile of *E. faecalis* isolates associated to human infertility. Here, the prevalence of high-level GEN and STR resistance was 17.1% and 7.3%, respectively. The 2 strains displaying high-level resistance to both GEN and STR were vaginal isolates (5034 and 4774), in accordance with a report by Quinones *et al.* describing aminoglycoside resistance in community-acquired vaginal isolates over a 5 year-period in Cuba [55]. Compared to the most recent european surveillance report [31], high-level GEN resistance rate in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* strains was lower than both the european (26.6%) and italian (35.2%) mean rate percentages, which however, did not specifically refer to UTI or genital tract infections. MLST of enterococci has shown the emergence of specific CCs of antibiotic resistant isolates responsible for hospital and community outbreaks [56,60–63]. In contrast to *E. faecium*, *E. faecalis* has an overall non-clonal population structure due to high level of genetic recombination [60–62]. Also in this study, MLST analysis showed a highly diverse *E. faecalis* population associated to infertility. However, a homogeneous group was constituted by 5 out the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant strains that all belonged to CC16 (Figs 2 and 3), which is widely spread among both hospital and community isolates throughout Europe [56,62]. Moreover, the 4774 vaginal strain belonged to the closely related ST480, indicating that 75% of high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* isolates clustered in CC16 and ST480. Consistent with our data, a recent genomic analysis of *E. faecalis* strains collected from 16 middle-east and african countries showed that CC16 was the most predominant complex and almost all the ST16/ST480 strains originated from UTI and CAUTI and were resistant to high-level GEN [64]. Association of high-level GEN resistance with ST16 was also observed in european community-acquired isolates [56]. In contrast, mono-resistance to STR (strain 4953, CC40) was clonally distant from CC16/ST480. Of note, an *E. faecalis* epidemic clone circulating in Poland over a 10 year-period, was enriched with multi-drug resistant strains mostly belonging to ST40 (CC40) [54]. In our case,

CC40 was the largest complex of the population gathering 29.2% of the isolates, which were instead susceptible (except for strain 4953) to the antimicrobials tested. Recently, a genomic analysis of a large collection of 2027 *E. faecalis* isolates from different sources showed that ST6, ST16 and ST40 were the largest STs, of which ST16 and ST40 contained strains of both human and animal origin, while ST6 was exclusively human-associated [65]. None of the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant strains belonged to the high-risk enterococcal complexes CC2 and CC9, which are well adapted to the hospital environment and capable of global dissemination [56,61–63]. High-level aminoglycoside resistance in enterococci is generally mediated by enzymatic drug modification by AMEs, including phosphotransferases (APH), acetyltransferases (AAC), and nucleotidiltransferases (ANT) [30,66]. The most common gene is *aac(6′)-aph(2′′)*, encoding the bifunctional enzyme AAC(6′)-APH(2′′), that confers resistance to virtually all clinically available aminoglycosides except for STR [67] and partially arbekacin [30]. Also in our case, 7 out of 8 isolates resistant to high-level GEN (MIC ≥ 1024 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) carried the *aac(6′)-aph(2′′)* gene (Fig 4). On the other hand, the *ant(6)* gene was identified in the 2 vaginal isolates (strains 4774 and 5034) and in strain 4953 which all showed resistance to high-level STR (MIC ≥ 2048 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (Fig 4). As previously reported [68], the *ant(6)* gene was found to be part of the described gene cluster *ant(6)-sat4A-aph(3′)*, which mediates resistance to STR, kanamycin and streptothricin. Indeed, the 3 high-level STR resistant isolates were also resistant to kanamycin and streptothricin (De Giorgi *et al.*, data not shown). In addition, strain 4774 was also resistant to CIP and LVX due to two previously described point-mutations in both *parC* and *gyrA* [69]. Whole genome sequencing analysis of the 8 resistant isolates showed that the AME genes were located either on the chromosome (6/8 strains) or on plasmids (2/8 strains). Interestingly, all the 6 strains with chromosomally-located AME genes clustered in CC16/ST480, revealing a clonal structure and suggesting the presence of a common genetic element mediating high-level aminoglycoside resistance in the infertility-associated *E. faecalis* collection (Colombini *et al.*, data not shown).

Asymptomatic infections of the genital tract in infertile couples often remain undetected and consequently untreated, possibly affecting natural fertility [3,5,44]. There is still a substantial lack of clinical data on the impact of antimicrobial therapy on natural conception and reproductive outcomes. However, as antibiotic therapy may improve semen quality and health of vaginal microbiota, species identification and drug susceptibility testing of microbial pathogens associated to human infertility should be pursued and provided to clinicians to treat genital infections. In this study, most infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates were susceptible to antibiotics commonly employed to manage *E. faecalis* UTI. Nevertheless, antibiotic resistance to high-level aminoglycosides was still observed in 20% of the population, which mostly showed clonality in CC16/ST480. High-level aminoglycoside resistance, a key marker of enterococcal antibiotic resistance worldwide, needs to be carefully monitored as it impedes the synergistic effect of aminoglycosides with cell-wall active agents. Therefore, understanding the molecular epidemiology and antimicrobial resistance of *E. faecalis* isolated from the urogenital tract is important not only to treat UTI and possible systemic infections, but also to provide a tailored antimicrobial treatment to infertile couples before they approach the cumbersome ART procedures.

TABLES

Table 1. Antibiotic resistance patterns in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates

Isolates (n)	Resistance pattern ^a			
5	Gm ^R			
1	Gm ^R	Sm ^R	Cip ^R	Lvx ^R
1	Gm ^R	Sm ^R		
1		Sm ^R		
8	Total			

^a Gm^R, high-level gentamicin resistance; Sm^R, high-level streptomycin resistance; Cip^R, ciprofloxacin resistance; Lvx^R, levofloxacin resistance.

Table S1. Sequence type and clonal complex distribution in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates.

ST	Frequency (%)	CC ^a
40	11 (26.8)	40
81	7 (17.1)	81*
179	5 (12.2)	16
44	3 (7.3)	44*
34	2 (4.9)	34*
191	2 (4.9)	191*
16	1 (2.4)	16
19	1 (2.4)	19*
21	1 (2.4)	21
25	1 (2.4)	25*
53	1 (2.4)	53*
55	1 (2.4)	55*
72	1 (2.4)	72*
117	1 (2.4)	21
211	1 (2.4)	211*
268	1 (2.4)	40
480	1 (2.4)	480*

^a CCs were obtained by blasting the isolates with the *E. faecalis* MLST database (<https://pubmlst.org/organisms/enterococcus-faecalis>) using goeBURST. Different STs were grouped into the same CC when they differed in 1 or 2 out of the 7 gene loci used for typing *E. faecalis* strains.

*, Singletons. Singletons are defined as STs unrelated to any other in the population at single-locus variant level [38].

Table S2. Statistics of the nanopore reads obtained from sequencing the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* strains associated to infertility.

Strains	Reads (n)	Lenght (no of bases)			Quality (Q) ^b		Sequencing output (bp)
		Mean	Median	N50 ^a	Mean	Median	
2819	99,212	21,887.3	15,893.0	37,366	9.6	9.7	2,171,480,426
4153	80,292	12,374.3	6,296.5	26,882	12.3	12.6	993,556,414
4638	1,859	17,411.7	11,306.0	31,361	9.3	9.4	32,368,292
4774	49,490	18,367.5	13,517.0	29,310	9.7	9.7	909,007,230
4953	32,764	20,964.0	16,261.5	32,716	10.4	10.4	686,865,305
5034	28,647	20,878.0	14,031.0	35,873	9.6	9.6	598,093,079
5245	40,517	17,466.4	13,689.0	25,715	10.4	10.4	707,686,757
5410	163,553	6,193.7	3,319.0	11,921	12.3	12.6	1,012,992,166

^a N50 is the length of a sequence in a set for which all sequences of that length or greater sum to 50% of the set's total size.

^b Phred quality score Q expresses the confidence in a particular base-call and is logarithmically related to the base-calling error probability P ($Q = -10 \log_{10} P$).

Table S3. Statistics of the trimmed Illumina reads obtained from sequencing the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant *E. faecalis* strains associated to infertility.

Strain	Reads (n) ^a	Quality ^b		Sequencing output (bp)
		Mean	Median	
2819	R1 (2,115,916)	33.5	34.7	434,674,786
	R2 (2,115,916)	31.1	31.3	411,540,257
4153	R1 (1,199,574)	31.5	31.6	260,978,599
	R2 (1,199,574)	28.4	27.4	227,373,392
4638	R1 (252,341)	30.3	30.1	59,754,920
	R2 (252,341)	26.5	25.1	52,419,311
4774	R1 (239,572)	29.6	29.2	58,100,485
	R2 (239,572)	24.6	23.9	49,177,827
4953	R1 (57,071)	31.6	31.8	12,503,658
	R2 (57,071)	28.4	27.4	10,882,249
5034	R1 (668,018)	23.0	22.8	155,126,281
	R2 (668,018)	25.8	25.7	159,583,694
5245	R1 (491,176)	32.3	32.8	102,697,037
	R2 (491,176)	29.6	28.9	91,011,815
5410	R1 (428,302)	30.7	30.7	102,947,546
	R2 (428,302)	26.0	24.9	89,371,420

^a For each strain, the Illumina paired-end run generates two read files R1 (forward) and R2 (reverse).

^b Phred quality score Q expresses the confidence in a particular base-call and is logarithmically related to the base-calling error probability P ($Q = -10 \log_{10} P$).

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Contributor roles

SDG, investigation, data curation, formal analysis, writing (original draft); SR, conceptualization, data curation, supervision, writing (original draft, review & editing); LC, investigation, data curation, formal analysis; DP, investigation; FS, data curation, writing (original draft); FI, data curation, writing (original draft); SC, investigation, data curation; PP, data curation, writing (original draft); VDL, conceptualization; GP, conceptualization, supervision, funding acquisition, and writing (original draft, review & editing). All authors read and approved the manuscript.

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FIGURE LEGEND

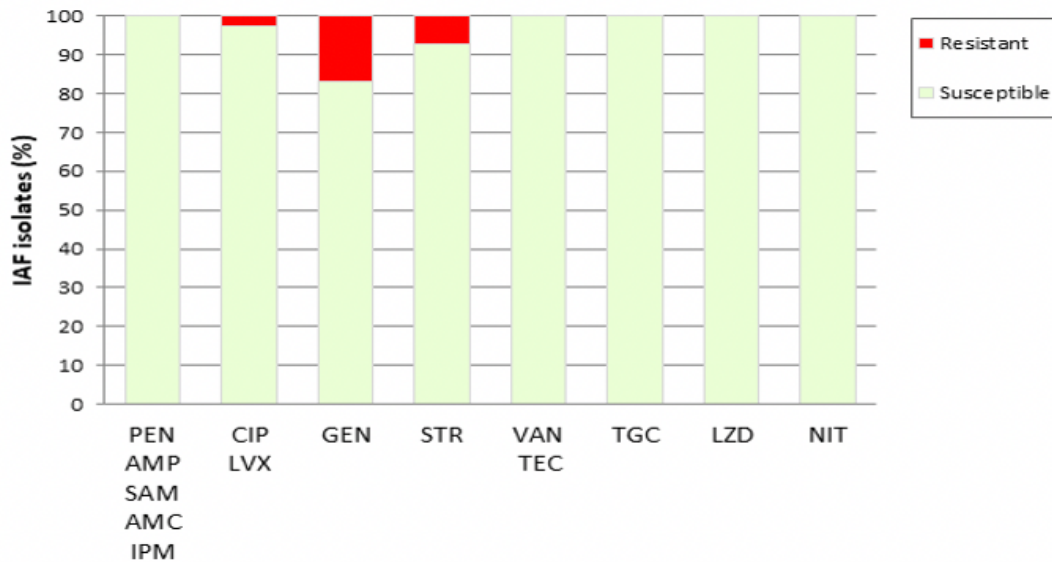


Figure 1. Antibiotic susceptibility profile of infertility-associated *E. faecalis*. Forty-one *E. faecalis* clinical isolates were tested for their susceptibility to β -lactams (PEN, AMP, SAM, AMC, IPM), quinolones (CIP, LVX), high-level aminoglycosides (GEN, STR), glycopeptides (VAN, TEC), tetracyclines (TGC), oxazolidones (LZD) and nitrofurans (NIT). Results were obtained by VITEK-2 and confirmed by both MIC (Sensititre GPN3F plate) and diffusion-disk methods. Antibiotic susceptibility testing was assessed according to EUCAST guidelines. Resistant (red), Susceptible (light green).

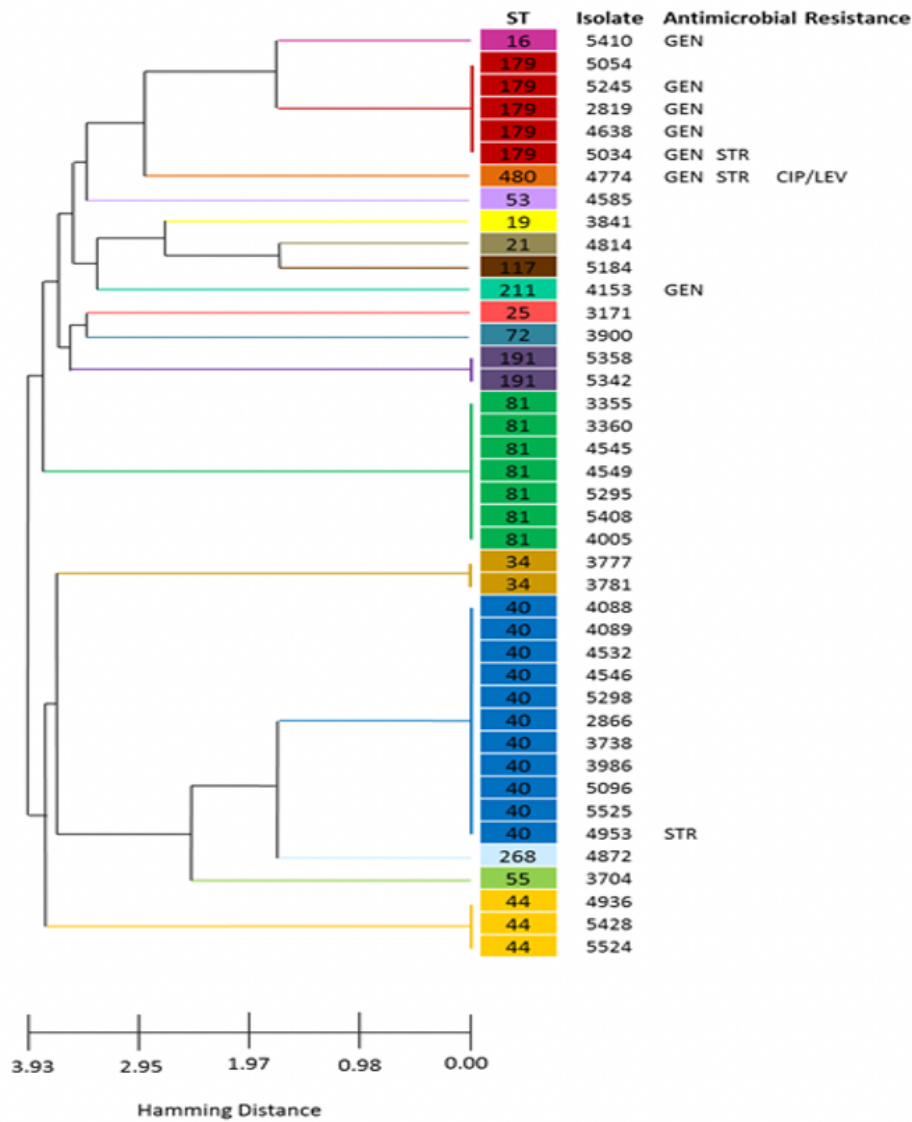


Figure 2. Unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) dendrogram of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates based on ST. The UPGMA dendrogram was constructed starting from the matrix of pairwise allelic differences of the 7 loci defining *E. faecalis* ST by using PHYLOViZ v2.0 [38]. The two groups with the lowest number of allelic differences were combined into a higher level cluster, and the process was reiterated until the most distant groups were linked. The mean distance between any two clusters was measured by the Hamming distance, defined as the number of positions at which two aligned sequences differ. For each ST, isolate number and antimicrobial resistance are shown. GEN, gentamicin; STR, streptomycin; CIP, ciprofloxacin; LVX, levofloxacin.

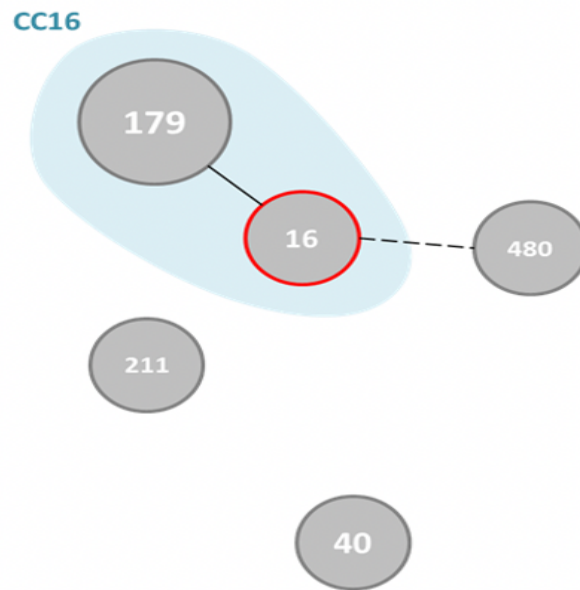


Figure 3. Minimum spanning tree of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* strains resistant to high-level aminoglycosides. The tree was constructed using PHYLOViZ v2.0 based on the goeBURST algorithm [38]. goeBURST divides large MLST data into nonoverlapping groups of related STs or CCs and then distinguishes the most parsimonious groups of descendants within each CC from the predicted founder. In *E. faecalis*, as the number of loci (n) defining ST is 7, the tree structure can be drawn at 7 levels of relatedness. The present diagram includes the 8 high-level aminoglycoside resistant isolates which are grouped into 5 different STs. Each ST is represented as a node whose size varies based on the number of isolates. ST179 contains 4 isolates (all Gm^R, except for one strain which is Gm^R Sm^R), while ST16 (Gm^R), ST480 (Gm^R Sm^R), ST211 (Gm^R) and ST40 (Sm^R) comprise 1 isolate each. ST16 and ST179 belong to the same CC with ST16 being the CC16 founder (red circle). The level of relatedness between ST16 and ST179 ($n-1$, solid line) and between ST16 and ST480 ($n-4$, dotted line) are also shown. ST211 and ST40 are more distantly related ($>n-4$, no connecting lines).

Strain	ST/CC ^a	MIC (µg/mL)		Aminoglycosides modifying enzyme (AME) genes		
		GEN	STR	GEN	STR	Genomic location
				<i>aac(6')-aph(2'')</i>	<i>ant(6)</i>	
2819	16	1024	64			Chromosome
4638	16	8192	64			Chromosome
5245	16	4096	64			Chromosome
5410	16	2048	16			Chromosome
5034	16	8192	8192			Chromosome
4774	480	8192	2048			Chromosome
4153	211	8192	64			Plasmid
4953	40	16	4096			Plasmid

Figure 4. Genetic bases of resistance to aminoglycosides in infertility-associated *E. faecalis*.

For each strain, isolate number, CC/ST, MIC values of GEN and STR, and related AME genes are shown. GEN and STR were tested as recommended by EUCAST. MIC values >128 µg/ml (for GEN) and >512 µg/ml (for STR) were regarded as high-level aminoglycoside resistance (red boxes). Resistance to GEN conferred by *aac(6')-aph(2'')* covers resistance to virtually all aminoglycosides, including tobramycin, amikacin, kanamycin, netilmicin and dibekacin. Search of AME genes conferring resistance to aminoglycosides was performed on the genomes of the 8 resistant strains by using the ABRicate tool on ARG-ANNOT, CARD, MEGARes and ResFinder databases. All the AME genes with a coverage and identity $\geq 99\%$ are shown (light blue boxes). MIC values of GEN and STR of *E. faecalis* reference strain OG1RF were 1 µg/ml and 256 µg/ml, respectively.

^a CC, clonal complex. ST, sequence type. Strains 4774 (ST480) and 4153 (ST211) are singletons.

CHAPTER 5

Nucleotide sequence analysis of the novel composite transposon Tn7086 carrying aminoglycoside resistant genes in infertility-associated *Enterococcus faecalis* belonging to the clonal complex/sequence type CC16/ST480

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Manuscript in preparation

1. ABSTRACT

Background: A recent study has reported that aminoglycoside-resistant *Enterococcus faecalis* strains, isolated from infertile couples, showed clonality in the clonal complex (CC)/sequence type (ST) CC16/ST480. In this study, a novel mobile genetic element carrying aminoglycosides resistances genes in 6 infertility-associated and clonally-related *E. faecalis* clinical isolates was identified and characterized.

Methods: The complete genomes of the *E. faecalis* strains 2819, 4638, 4774, 5034, 5245, 5410, were obtained and compared to the genome of the reference strain OG1RF. The DNA sequence of a novel composite transposon was analyzed. PCR mapping was performed to investigate the excision mechanism, and quantitative real-time PCR was used to quantify the number of circular intermediates.

Results: A novel composite transposon carrying the resistance genes *aac(6')-aph(2'')*, *sat4A*, *aphA3*, *erm(B)* and *aadE* flanked by identical copies of the insertion sequence *IS1216E* was identified and found to be integrated in the *panE* gene of *E. faecalis* strain 4638. The transposon was denominated Tn7086. DNA sequence analysis showed that Tn7086 is 24,643 bp-long and contains 29 open reading frames, of which 27 were annotated. PCR analysis demonstrated that Tn7086 excises from the bacterial chromosome leaving one copy of *IS1216E* in the site of integration and forms circular intermediates in which the ends are joined by the other *IS1216E* copy. Genome comparison with the other 5 aminoglycosides resistant *E. faecalis* strains belonging to CC16/ST480 identified 5 different Tn7086-like elements which: (i) are integrated in the chromosomal *panE* gene (ii) excise and form circular intermediates in the same way as Tn7086, (iii) show comparable DNA sequences comprehensive of antibiotic resistance gene clusters. Tn7086-like elements of strains 5034 and 5410 contain one DNA insert each carrying *lnu(B)-lsa(E)* and *ant9*, *cat*, *str* resistance genes, respectively, while both inserts are present in strain 4774. The Tn7086-like element of strain 2819 was found to contain a different DNA insert which constitutes another novel composite transposon flanked by two copies of a new *ISLcr* element and

denominated Tn7087. Circular forms of Tn7086 in strain 4638 were present at a concentration of 1.54×10^{-5} copies per chromosome, whereas reconstituted integration sites in the bacterial chromosomes were at 6.72×10^{-5} . These values were comparable for all the Tn7086-like elements.

Conclusion: The present study reports the identification and characterization of the novel composite transposon Tn7086, representative of a family of mobile genetic elements which are flanked by *IS1216E* copies, contain aminoglycosides resistance genes and integrate in the chromosomal *panE* gene of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates that cluster in CC16/ST480.

2. INTRODUCTION

Aminoglycosides are potent, broad-spectrum antibiotics which are used as single antimicrobial agents or in combination with other antibiotics in both empirical and definitive therapy (Avent et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2013; Krause et al., 2016). Aminoglycosides are synergistically used in combination with a cell wall biosynthesis inhibitor to treat certain severe bacterial infections, including complicated enterococcal infections such as enterococcal endocarditis and/or sepsis (Mercurio et al., 2018). The acquisition via horizontal gene transfer of aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes (AMEs) encoding genes confers resistance to high concentrations of aminoglycosides and therefore, restricts the use of these antibiotics (Krause et al., 2016). AMEs are broadly categorized into three groups based on their ability to acetylate (N-acetyltransferase, AACs), phosphorylate (O-phosphotransferases, APHs), or adenylate (O-nucleotidyltransferases, ANTs) amino or hydroxyl groups found at various positions in the aminoglycoside core scaffold (Ramirez & Tolmasky, 2010). The ability of enterococci to acquire mobile genetic elements, conveying antibiotic resistance and virulence traits among both Gram-positive and -negative bacterial species, has contributed to their emergence as leading human pathogens (Courvalin, 1994; Palmer et al., 2010; Pöntinen et al., 2021). *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Enterococcus faecium* are the two enterococcal species most frequently associated with both hospital- and community-acquired infections, such as urinary tract infections, peritonitis, abscesses, endocarditis and bacteremia (Hidron et al., 2008; Lebreton et al., 2014). Compared to their commensal enterococcal relatives, hospital-adapted *E. faecalis* and *E. faecium* have been reported to contain a larger mobilome which is estimated to account for over a quarter of the genome (Hegstad et al., 2010; Weaver, 2019). Transposable elements constitute the majority of the mobilome in enterococci (Lam et al., 2012; Paulsen et al., 2003; Qin et al., 2012), including: (i) composite transposon (class I transposons), (ii) Tn3/21 family transposons (class II transposons), and (iii) integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs) comprehensive of the Tn916-family of conjugative transposons (Weaver, 2019). Composite transposons owe their intracellular mobility to the presence of flanking copies of

insertion sequences (ISs) of the same family that act together to move the DNA between them, while Tn3/21 family transposons are bounded by short inverted repeats and contain both genes needed for transposon movement and accessory genes (Harmer et al., 2020). *ISEf1*, *IS256* and *IS1216* are the most frequent ISs of *E. faecalis*, with the latter two (*IS256* and *IS1216*) being described to be associated with both simple composite transposons and large, mosaic genetic elements (Weaver, 2019). Recently, epidemiological characterization of a collection of 41 clinical isolates of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* showed the presence of AME genes conferring resistance to high level aminoglycosides in almost 20% (8/41) of the strains (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). Whole genome sequencing analysis of all the 8 aminoglycoside resistant isolates located the AME genes either on the chromosome (6/8 strains) or on plasmids (2/8 strains). Interestingly, all the six strains with chromosomally-located AME genes clustered in the clonal complex (CC)/sequence type (ST) CC16/ST480, showing a clonal structure and suggesting the presence of a common genetic element mediating aminoglycoside resistance in the infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates. In the present study, we have identified and characterized a novel composite transposon denominated Tn7086. All the six infertility-associated *E. faecalis* strains here investigated carry either Tn7086 or Tn7086-like elements, which share the same genomic traits, including being flanked by identical ISs elements, using the same chromosomal integration site and carrying AMEs genes and other resistance determinants.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Bacterial strains

E. faecalis strains 2819, 4638, 4774, 5034, 5245 and 5410 were isolated from genital samples of infertile couples (Ricci et al., 2018) and epidemiologically characterized as previously reported (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). *E. faecalis* strain OG1RF was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection and used as a reference control strain. Bacterial strains were grown in liquid Brain Heart Infusion (BHI; Oxoid, Milan, Italy) medium at 37°C.

3.2. Genomic DNA preparation and genome sequencing

Bacteria were harvested by centrifugation at the end of the exponential phase of growth [optical density at 590 nm (OD₅₉₀) of ~2.0]. Genomic DNA extraction and purification were performed as previously described (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). DNA was precipitated in 2 volumes of ice-cold ethanol, washed with 70% ethanol, and resuspended in 0.9% NaCl. DNA was quantified with Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, United States) by using the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and results were confirmed by spectrophotometer measurement (Implen, Munich, Germany). DNA integrity and size were assayed by agarose (0.6%; Seakem LE, Lonza, Rockland, ME USA) gel electrophoresis 0.5X Tris Borate EDTA running buffer. DNA sequencing was performed using both Oxford Nanopore (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) and Illumina (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) technologies (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). Briefly, Nanopore sequencing library was prepared using the SQK-LSK 108 kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies), and samples were sequenced on a GridION instrument (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) using an R9.4 flow cell (FLO-MIN106) (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Illumina sequencing was performed at MicrobesNG (University of Birmingham, UK) using the Nextera library preparation kit (Illumina Inc.) followed by paired-end sequencing (2x250 bp paired-end sequencing) on a NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina Inc.).

3.3. Genome assembly and analysis

Hybrid genome assembly of Nanopore and Illumina reads was obtained using Unicycler v0.4.7 (Wick et al., 2017) with default parameters (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). Automatic genome annotation was carried out with the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) v4.10 (Tatusova et al., 2016). Comparative genomics analyses were performed with BLAST (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) and Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT) v17.0.1 (Carver et al., 2008). The genome sequence of *E. faecalis* strain OG1RF (GenBank accession number CP002621) was downloaded and used for genome comparison.

3.4. DNA sequence analysis

DNA sequence analysis including coding sequence identification was performed with the software Artemis v. 17.0.1 (Carver et al., 2008). Manual gene annotation of each open reading frame (ORF) was carried out by BLAST homology searching of the databases available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?PAGE=Proteins>). Protein domains were identified using the protein family database Pfam (<https://pfam.xfam.org>). Transposon names were assigned by the Tn Registry website curators (<https://transposon.lstmed.ac.uk/tn-registry>).

3.6. PCR

PCR and sequencing of PCR products were carried as described before (Iannelli et al., 1998; Santoro et al., 2010). Convergent primers designed on the chromosomal regions flanking the insertion site were used to investigate the excision of the transposon from the chromosome, whereas divergent primers designed on the ends of the element served to evaluate its ability to form circular intermediates. Oligonucleotide primers are listed in Table 1.

3.7. Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Real-time PCR experiments were carried out using the KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR kit Master Mix Universal (2X) (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) on a LightCycler 1.5 apparatus (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany). Real-time PCR mixture contained, in a final volume of 20 μ l, 1 \times KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR reaction mix, 5 pmol of each primer and 2 μ l of bacterial DNA. Thermal profile was an initial 4 min denaturation step at 95°C followed by 40 cycles of repeated denaturation (10 sec at 95°C), annealing (15 sec at 61°C), and elongation (3 min at 72°C). DNA elongation time was increased up to 4 min for strains 4774, 5034 and 5410 and. The temperature transition rate was 20°C/sec in the denaturation and annealing steps and 5°C/sec in the elongation step. A standard curve for the *gyrB* gene was built by plotting the threshold cycle against the number of chromosome copies using serial dilutions of chromosomal *E. faecalis* OG1RF DNA with known concentration. The standard curve was used to quantify the number of:

(i) chromosome copies, (ii) circular intermediates, and (iii) reconstituted site of integration in the chromosome. Quantification of reconstituted integration site in the bacterial chromosome of each strain was performed with the primer pairs IF1344/1345, whereas circular intermediates were quantified using the primer pairs 1404/1405, 1396/1418, 1406/1418, 1482/1418, 1484/1418, 1400/1418 for strains 4638, 2819, 5245, 5410, 5034, 4774, respectively (Table 1). Melting curves were analyzed to differentiate the amplified products from primer dimers. Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed to control the amplification products.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Identification of Tn7086, a novel composite transposon carrying aminoglycoside resistance genes

A recent study reported that the infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates 2819, 4638, 4774, 5034, 5245 and 5410 belonged to CC16/ST480 and carried the *aac(6')-aph(2'')* gene conferring resistance to gentamicin (De Giorgi et al., unpublished). To investigate the genetic bases of aminoglycoside resistance in these clonally-related strains, whole genomes were obtained and compared to the genome of OG1RF which does not possess any native antibiotic resistance genes (Dunny et al., 1978). Genome comparison analysis revealed that the *aac(6')-aph(2'')* gene was carried by a novel family of composite transposons sharing the same features in all the 6 *E. faecalis* strains: i) being flanked by identical ISs, ii) insertion in the same chromosomal gene and iii) presence of similar DNA sequences that comprise additional genes conferring resistance to other antimicrobials. Nucleotide sequence analysis suggested that the element of *E. faecalis* isolate 4638 was the reference genetic element of the family. Therefore, the transposon of strain 4638 was denominated Tn7086 and described, whereas elements of the other *E. faecalis* strains were referred as Tn7086-like elements and compared to Tn7086.

4.2. Nucleotide sequence of Tn7086

DNA sequence analysis showed that the transposon Tn7086 spans nucleotides (nt) 1,554,378 to 1,579,020 of *E. faecalis* 4638 chromosome and therefore it is 24,643 bp-long, with an overall GC content (34.87%) lower than the average of the whole genome (37.45%). The transposon contains 29 ORFs, of which 28 are transcribed in the same direction (Figure 1). Tn7086 integrates 142 bp upstream the 5' end of the *rbgA* gene, into the *panE* gene which encodes for a 2-dehydropantoate 2-reductase enzyme (Zheng & Blanchard, 2000). Compared to the OG1RF reference strain, the integrated form of Tn7086 is associated to a 555-bp deletion involving: (i) 427 bp at the 3' end of the *panE* gene (*panE*₅₁₆₋₉₄₂), and (ii) 128 bp downstream of *panE*. The transposon is flanked by two direct repeats of the IS1216E element, which belong to the IS6 family (<https://isfinder.biotoul.fr/scripts/ficheIS.php?ident=99>). Each IS1216E is 808bp-long and contains a 681-bp transposase encoding gene flanked by two inverted repeats of 23 bp (5'-GGTTCTGTTGCAAAGTTTTAAAT-3').

4.3. Excision mechanism of Tn7086

PCR and PCR sequencing analysis showed that Tn7086 is able to excise from the bacterial chromosome of strain 4638 producing circular intermediates (Figure 2). The recombination event leading to the excision of the transposon occurs between the two copies of IS1216E. Upon excision from the chromosome, a single copy of IS1216E remains at the insertion site in the chromosome, whereas the two ends of Tn7086 circular intermediates are joined by the other IS1216E copy (Figure 2). The 555-bp deleted DNA sequence of *panE* was not retrieved in any circular intermediate of Tn7086.

4.4. Description of the ORFs in Tn7086

Manual homology-based annotation with functional prediction of the hypothetical gene products was possible for 27 out of the 29 predicted ORFs, whereas 2 ORFs, namely *orf3* and *orf19*, encoded hypothetical proteins that showed no homology to other described sequences (Table 2). All ORFs begin with the ATG starting codon, except for *orf6*, *orf11*, *orf17* and *orf24* (GTG) and

orf15 (TTG). *orf2* and *orf13* are identical ISS_{Su5} elements of the IS1380 family (Chen et al., 2007), arranged in opposite directions. Tn7086 contains different antimicrobial resistance genes (Table 2 and Figure 1) which are present on other characterized transposons: i) the macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin resistance determinant *ermB* gene of Tn917 (Shaw & Clewell, 1985), which is present in two copies in Tn7086 (*orf9* and *orf23*); ii) the aminoglycoside-streptothricin resistance gene cluster *ant6-1a'-sat4-aphA-3* (*orf18'-orf17-orf16*) present in Tn5405, which is also disseminated among *E. faecium* isolates (Werner et al., 2001); iii) the gentamicin resistance determinant *acc(6')-aph(2'')* (*orf20*) found in Tn4001 (Rouch et al., 1987). *orf8* and *orf10* encode a signal peptide and a leader peptide, respectively, associated to *ermB* (*orf9*), whereas *orf22* codes for a signal peptide associated to the second copy of *ermB* (*orf23*). *orf11* and *orf24* code for transcriptional regulators that possibly play a role in the *ermB* gene expression regulation. *orf4* and *orf5* constitute a toxin-antitoxin system which may contribute to the maintenance of the element ensuring the persistence of transposon within a bacterial population (Hayes, 2003; Meinhart & Alonso, 2003) and it is likely regulated by *orf6* which encodes a transcriptional repressor. *orf28* is a recombinase that may assist Tn7086 transposition, whereas *orf7* codes for a plasmid partition protein which usually plays a role in accurate partitioning of plasmid during cell division (Pratto et al., 2008). *orf14* encodes an adenine phosphoribosyltransferase essential for purine homeostasis in prokaryotes (Islam et al., 2007). Finally, the transposon also carries several truncated *orfs*. *orf12*, *orf25*, *orf27* encoding DNA topoisomerase (TopB) are truncated: *orf12* is a 1,474-bp duplication of the 3' end of *orf25*, whereas *orf25* and *orf27* contain the 3' and the 5' end DNA sequence of the undisrupted DNA topoisomerase gene, respectively. *orf26* codes for a group II intron, which is reported to have activities of endonuclease, RNA maturase and reverse transcriptase (Lambowitz & Zimmerly, 2011) and disrupts the sequence of the DNA topoisomerase encoding genes (*orf25* and *orf27*). Similarly, *orf15*, *orf18* and *orf21*, encoding aminoglycoside 6-adenyltransferases, are also truncated: *orf18* is a duplication of the 3' end of

orf15, which in turn contains the 3' end sequence of the original *ant6-1a* gene, whereas *orf21* contains the 5' end (Figure 1 and Table 2).

4.5. BLAST sequence analysis of Tn7086

BLAST analysis of DNA sequence similarity using as a query the 24,643 bp-long Tn7086 showed that Tn7086-like elements are present in the genomes of many *E. faecalis* and *E. faecium* strains and also in few other bacterial species, such as *Streptococcus suis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Compared to previously described enterococcal mobile genetic elements, the DNA sequence of transposon Tn7086 shows homology to i) plasmid p16-164 of *E. faecium* ((Dejoies et al., 2021); acc. no. CP065774) with a total of 76% of DNA sequence homology that covers all *orfs*, except for those encoding the toxin-antitoxin system and the two IS*su5* copies and to ii) *E. faecalis* conjugative plasmid pRE25 ((Schwarz et al., 2001); acc. no. NC_008445) and therefore to plasmids pE35048-oc ((Morrone et al., 2018); acc. no. MF580438) and pWZ909 ((Zhu et al., 2010); acc. no. GQ484954), which share the pRE25 backbone, with a total of 65% of DNA sequence homology involving *orf1*, *orfs3* to 12, *orfs15* to 19 and *orf29*; iii) homologous to the previously described Tn6349 of *S. aureus* AOUC-0915 ((D'Andrea et al., 2019); acc. no. MH746818), with which Tn7086 shares a common backbone that includes the boundary IS1216E elements, the toxin-antitoxin system, one undisrupted DNA topoisomerase TopB encoding gene, and *ermB*, thus suggesting that a common transposon ancestor may have diverged in *E. faecalis* and *S. aureus* acquiring different antimicrobial resistance genes; iv) homologous to MES₆₂₇₂₋₂-like structure of *E. faecium* V19 ((Lin et al., 2020); acc. no. MT877068) with 42% of DNA sequence homology including all antibiotic resistance genes and the IS1216E elements (*orf1*, *orfs8-10*, *orfs14-21*, *orf29*) (Supplementary Table S1).

4.6. Identification and structure of Tn7086-like composite transposons in aminoglycoside-resistant infertility-associated *E. faecalis* isolates

Aminoglycoside-resistant infertility-associated *E. faecalis* strains 2819, 4774, 5034, 5245 and 5410 belonging to CC16/ST480 were searched for the presence of Tn7086-like mobile elements.

DNA sequence analysis of the transposon-chromosome junction region indicated that all the Tn7086-like elements were integrated within the chromosomal *panE* gene located between the *rbgA* and *cynR* genes. Upon integration, 3 cases were identified: (i) a 555-bp deletion involving the 3'-end of *panE* and 128 nucleotides of the downstream intergenic region was found in strains 5245 and 5034 as already described for Tn7086 of strain 4638; (ii) an 8-bp (AGCCAGCG) target site duplication of nucleotides 509-516 of *panE* occurred in strains 4774 and 5410; (iii) a 624-bp deletion involving a larger portion of the 3'-end of *panE* that includes the 8-bp target site and the same 128 nucleotides downstream was identified in strain 2819 (Figure 3). Tn7086-like elements vary in length from 15.4-kb (strain 5410) up to 35.3-kb (strain 2819), but they are all flanked by two identical copies of *IS1216E* (Figure 4). Comparison of the Tn7086 DNA sequence with that of the other five Tn7086-like transposons indicates that all five genetic elements have a 398-bp insertion at nt 809 carrying a truncated *orf* encoding a putative homologous to the chaperon protein *DnaJ* homologous. A 5'-end deletion of the *ISSsu5* element (*orf2* of Tn7086) is present in the transposons of both strains 4774 and 5034, whereas in strain 5410 there is a larger (8,072 bp) 5'-end deletion ranging from nt 809 of *orf2* to nt 8,881 of *orf12*. A 3-end deletion of 3,188-bp from nt 20,645 to nt 23,833 (part of *orf26* and *orfs 27-28*) was found in strains 4774, 5034 and 5410, whereas the 3'-end deletion it was larger in strain 5245 (5,163 bp) spanning nt 18,670 to nt 23,833 thus including the entire *orf26* and the 3' end of *orf25*. These 3'-end deletions may have been caused by the autocatalytic RNA activity of the group II intron transcript (Lambowitz & Zimmerly, 2011). A further 1,973-bp deletion was identified at nucleotide 11,633 in the central region of *orf15* spanning to *orf17* in strain 5410. In addition to the aminoglycoside resistance genes carried by all the composite transposons of the Tn7086 family, strains 4774 and 5034 also contain a 10,666-bp DNA sequence carrying the *lnu(B)-lsa(E)* and *ant9* resistant genes (Table 3), inserted at nt 11,633 of *orf15* and producing a 1,153-bp direct duplication involving *orf15* and *orf16*. Moreover, strains 4774 and 5410 present a 4,891 bp-long DNA insert at nt 23,833 of *orf29* carrying the *cat* and *str* genes (Table 3), which generates an 809-bp direct duplication involving *orf29* (Figure 4). Finally,

a distinct genetic element was found inserted at nucleotide 23,833 (*orf29*) in strain 2819 and named Tn7087 (Figure 4). Tn7087 is 9,925 bp-long, has a 31.9% GC content and it is flanked by two copies of a novel IS arranged in the same orientation, but characterized by different length and nucleotide sequence and therefore referred as IS*LcrL* and IS*LcrR* (Supplementary Figure S1). IS*LcrL* is 654 bp-long and contains 34 nucleotide changes and 1 nucleotide deletion compared to IS*LcrR*, whereas both are bounded by two imperfect inverted repeats of 14 bp (5'-ATATTAAGTGCAAA-3' and 5'-TTTGCCATTTAAAT-3'). PCR and sequencing analysis showed that Tn7087 excises from Tn7086 and produces a circular form and a deletion in the Tn7086 of strain 2819. As previously described for Tn7086, excision of Tn7087 also occurs by recombination between the flanking IS*Lcr* copies, leaving the IS*LcrL* in Tn7086, whereas the ends of Tn7087 in the circular forms are joined by IS*LcrR* (Supplementary Figure S1).

4.7. Quantitative analysis of excision of Tn7086 and Tn7086-like elements from *E. faecalis* strains

To analyze the frequency of excision from the *E. faecalis* chromosome of the six different transposons belonging to the Tn7086 family, real-time PCR was used to quantify the number of copies of circular intermediates and reconstituted integration chromosomal sites (Table 4). The number of circular intermediates varied with the strain ranging from 1.3 ± 0.16 (strain 5410) to 22.4 ± 17.7 (strain 5245) copies per 10^6 chromosomes. Calculation of the number of reconstituted integration sites showed a range from 6.11 ± 2.18 (strain 4774) to 67.2 ± 15.1 (strain 4638) copies per 10^6 chromosomes, indicating a 3-4.7-fold higher copy numbers compared to circular forms and suggesting that some circular intermediates of Tn7086 may be lost after excision from the chromosome (Table 4). Of note is the behavior of strain 5245, where the number of reconstituted integration site was exceedingly higher reaching 7280 copies per million of *E. faecalis* chromosomes (Table 4).

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we described a novel family of composite transposons represented by Tn7086 of strain 4638 which harbors the consensus DNA sequence of the family. Tn7086 and Tn7086-like i) are flanked by two direct repeats of the IS1216E, ii) integrate in the chromosomal *panE* gene and iii) carry multiple antibiotic resistance determinants including *ermB*, *ant6-1a'-sat4-aphA-3*, *acc(6')-aph(2'')*, *lnu(B)-lsa(E)*, *ant9*, *cat* and *str*. Upon transposon integration, 3 scenarios regarding the *panE* gene were identified: 2 cases involving a partial deletion of *panE* and 1 case in which *panE* was disrupted with a consequent 8-bp internal target site duplication (Figure 3). Tn7086 and Tn7086-like elements were demonstrated to excise from the bacterial chromosome leaving a copy of the IS1216E in the integration site and producing circular intermediates in which the ends were joined by the other IS1216E copy. Thus, it can be concluded that the recombination event driving the excision of the transposons occurred between the two copies of IS1216E with no reconstitution of the *panE* gene. This type of movement has been previously described in both Gram-negative and -positive bacteria for mobile genetic elements bounded by IS26 and IS1216E copies, respectively (Harmer et al., 2014, 2020; Harmer & Hall, 2016, 2017). Three types of DNA inserts were identified by DNA sequence comparison of Tn7086 with other Tn7086-like elements: i) a 4.8-kb insert (strains 4774 and 5410) containing a chloramphenicol acetyltransferase and a streptomycin adenylyltransferase encoding resistance genes, ii) a 10.6-kb insert (strains 4774 and 5034) containing an aminoglycoside nucleotidyltransferase encoding gene and iii) a 9.9-kb insert (strain 2819) found to be a composite transposon itself and named Tn7087. Tn7087 was flanked by two new ISs and was demonstrated to move like Tn7086. Interestingly, the 10.6-kb and the 4.8-kb inserts were found inserted at specific nt positions (*orf15* and *orf29*), respectively, suggesting that these positions may act as hotspots for insertions of additional genetic material.

TABLES

Table 1. Oligonucleotide primers.

Name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Strain: genome position
IF1344	GCCTGTTACGAGCCAATTT	2819: 1,526,733 – 1,526,752
IF1345	CGCTATGGGCAGTCGCTTT	2819: 1,562,987 – 1,562,969
IF1396	GGCACAATCACGGTAACTCAA	2819: 1,560,295 – 1,560,315
IF1397	CCTATTCGTACTCTATCGTT	2819: 1,553,452 – 1,553,431
IF1418	ACACCCGAACAGTTTAAGGATA	2819:1,528,105 – 1,528,084
IF1421	GCCATTTTCAACCAACCTCTAA	2819: 1,551,029 – 1,551,050
IF1422	ACAGAACCCTAATATCTCCTT	2819: 1,561,768 – 1,561,748
IF1400	GTGTGAGAGATAGCAATAGATTTA	4774: 1,571,687 – 1,571,710
IF1404	GCCATTTTCAACCAACCTCTAA	4638: 1,560,295 – 1,560,315
IF1405	CCTATTCGTACTCTATCGTT	4638: 1,553,452 – 1,553,431
IF1406	TCCTGAAGTGATTACATCTGTA	5245: 1,547,193 – 1,547,214
IF1482	TTTGGAAGAAAGTATCTGCCTA	5410: 1,556,827 – 1,556,806
IF1484	TGCTTCTAAGTCTTATTTCCATAA	5034: 1,508,257 – 1,508,280
IF1496	GTTGCCACACTTAGGACATTT	5034: 1,508,805 – 1,508,825

Table 2. Annotated ORFs of Tn7086.

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
<i>orf1</i> (226)	IS1216E, transposase, IS6 family (Arthur et al., 1997)		AAC44739 / <i>E. faecium</i> [3e-171]	223/225 (99%)	223/225 (99%)
<i>orf2</i> (439)	ISSsu5, transposase, IS1380 family (Chen et al., 2007)		ABP92124 / <i>S. suis</i> [0.0]	439/439 (100%)	439/439 (100%)
<i>orf4</i> (287)	Zeta toxin (Meinhart & Alonso, 2003)	Zeta_toxin (17-217) [1.6e-47]	1GVN_B / <i>S. pyogenes</i> [0.0]	278/287 (97%)	283/287 (98%)
<i>orf5</i> (90)	Epsilon antitoxin (Meinhart & Alonso, 2003)	Epsilon_antitox (2-90) [3.5e-56]	1GVN_A / <i>S. pyogenes</i> [9e-65]	90/90 (100%)	90/90 (100%)
<i>orf6</i> (69)	Omega transcriptional repressor (Murayama et al., 2001)	Omega_Repress (1-69) [6.5e-47]			
<i>orf7</i> (298)	Plasmid partition protein A (Pratto et al., 2008)	AAA_31 (35-214) [3.3e-32]	2OZE_A / <i>S. suis</i> [0.0]	293/298 (98%)	297/298 (99%)
<i>orf8</i> (43)	Signal peptide (Shaw & Clewell, 1985)		AAA27453 / <i>E. faecalis</i> Tn917 [2e-31]	43/43 (100%)	43/43 (100%)
<i>orf9</i> (245)	23S rRNA adenine N-6-methyltransferase (Shaw & Clewell, 1985)	RrnaAD (1-242) [2.7e-75]	AAA27452 / <i>E. faecalis</i> Tn917 [0]	243/245 (99%)	244/245 (99%)
<i>orf10</i> (31)	23S rRNA methyltransferase leader peptide (Shaw & Clewell, 1985)	ErmC (1-31) [6.7e-26]	AAA27451 / <i>E. faecalis</i> Tn917 [9e-16]	26/31 (84%)	26/31 (83%)
<i>orf11</i> (54)	Omega transcriptional repressor (Murayama et al., 2001)	Omega_Repress (1-53) [1.9e-27]			

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
<i>orf12</i> (495)	DNA topoisomerase, truncated (Lima et al., 1994)	Topoisom_bac (2-373) [4.1e-77] zf- C4_Topoisom (411- 443). [3.9e-11]	EGQ1712264/ <i>S.</i> <i>pseudointermedius</i> [0.0]	483/489 (99%)	486/489 (99%)
<i>orf13</i> (439)	ISS <i>Su5</i> , transposase, IS <i>1380</i> family (Chen et al., 2007)		ABP92124 / <i>S.suis</i> [0.0]	439/439 (100%)	439/439 (100%)
<i>orf14</i> (175)	Adenine phosphoribosyltransferase (Islam et al., 2007)	Pribosyltran (25-173) [4.8e-17]			
<i>orf15</i> (237)	Aminoglycoside 6- adenylyltransferase, truncated (Werner et al., 2001)	Adenyl_transf (59-227) [2.7e-60]	AAK62560 / <i>E. faecium</i> [3e-98]	136/164 (83%)	149/164 (90%)
<i>orf16</i> (264)	Aminoglycoside 3'- phosphotransferase (Werner et al., 2001)	APH (25-257) [3.2e- 26]	AAK62562 / <i>E. faecium</i> [0.0]	263/264 (99%)	264/264 (100%)
<i>orf17</i> (180)	Streptogramin A acetyltransferase (Werner et al., 2001)	Acetyltransf_1 (35- 153) [5.3e-20]	AAK62561 / <i>E. faecium</i> [1e-122]	180/180 (100%)	180/180 (100%)
<i>orf18</i> (233)	Aminoglycoside 6- adenylyltransferase, truncated (Werner et al., 2001)	Adenyl_transf (1-208) [1.7e-82]	AAK62560 / <i>E. faecium</i> [2e-180]	233/233 (100%)	233/233 (100%)
<i>orf20</i> (479)	Bifunctional AAC(6')- APH(2'') (Rouch et al., 1987)	APH (204-440) [1.4e- 23] Acetyltransf_8 (13- 159) [9.2e-23]	AAA88548 / <i>S. aureus</i> pSK1 [0.0]	478/479 (100%)	479/479 (100%)
<i>orf21</i> (173)	Aminoglycoside 6- adenylyltransferase, truncated (Werner et al., 2001)	Acetyltransf_1 (36- 154) [1.1e-17]	AAK62560 / <i>E. faecium</i> [2e-20]	37/37 (100%)	37/37 (100%)

ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
			Protein ID /Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
		Adenyl_transf (1-70) [1.4e-11]			
<i>orf22</i> (43)	Signal peptide (Shaw & Clewell, 1985)		AAA27453 / <i>E. faecalis</i> Tn917 [2e-31]	43/43 (100%)	43/43 (100%)
<i>orf23</i> (245)	23S rRNA adenine N-6-methyltransferase (Shaw & Clewell, 1985)	RrnaAD (1-242) [2.7e-75]	AAA27452 / <i>E. faecalis</i> Tn917 [0.0]	243/245 (99%)	244/245 (99%)
<i>orf24</i> (77)	Omega transcriptional repressor (Murayama et al., 2001)	Omega_Repress (1-69) [2.0e-46]			
<i>orf25</i> (558)	DNA topoisomerase, truncated (Lima et al., 1994)	Topoisom_bac (2-436) [9.9e-105]	EGQ1712264 / <i>S. pseudointermedius</i> [0.0]	557/557 (100%)	557/557 (100%)
<i>orf26</i> (628)	Group II intron reverse transcriptase/maturase	RVT_1 (105-352) [8.1e-38]	WP_160459188 / <i>S. aureus</i> [0.0]	626/628 (99%)	626/628 (99%)
<i>orf27</i> (120)	DNA topoisomerase, truncated (Aravind, 1998)	Toprim (3-119) [5.6e-15]	EGQ1712264 / <i>S. pseudointermedius</i> [9e-82]	116/117 (99%)	116/117 (99%)
<i>orf28</i> (205)	DNA resolvase (Yang & Steitz, 1995)	Resolvase (3-142) [1.3e-33]			
<i>orf29</i> (226)	IS1216E, transposase, IS6 family (Arthur et al., 1997)		AAC44739 / <i>E. faecium</i> [3e-171]	223/225 (99%)	223/225 (99%)

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis. *orf3* and *orf19* are not reported because no homology with previously described sequences was found.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

Table 3. Annotated ORFs of the DNA inserts of Tn7086-like elements of *E. faecalis* strains 2819, 4774, 5034 and 5410, identified by DNA sequence comparison with Tn7086 of strain 4638.

Strain	Length (bp) of DNA insert	ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
					Protein ID/ Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
2819	9,925 ^d	<i>orf1</i> (267)	<i>ISLcr</i>				
		<i>orf2</i> (475)	DNA integrase (Dyda et al., 1994)	Integrase core domain rve (154-284) [9.0e-23] Mu transposase, C-terminal (351-411) [1.9e-15] HTH_28 (19-70) [9.6e-10]			
		<i>orf3</i> (194)	DNA resolvase (Yang & Steitz, 1995)	Resolvase (2-138) [1.6e-44] HTH_7 (140-183) [2.2e-15]			
		<i>orf4</i> (680)	Histidinol-phosphatase, putative		MVH72510.1 <i>S.aureus</i> [0.0]	572/573 (99%)	573/573 (100%)
		<i>orf5</i> (408)	Cell wall protein containing LPxTG motif, putative	Gram_pos_anchor (365-408) [0.00061]			
		<i>orf6</i> (145)	<i>ISLcr</i>				
4774, 5034	10,666 ^e	<i>orf1</i> (244)	Class I S-Adenosyl-l-methionine (SAM)-dependent methyltransferase	Methyltransf_11 (47-141) [3.8e-25]			

Strain	Length (bp) of DNA insert	ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
					Protein ID/ Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
		<i>orf2</i> (289)	Nucleotidyltransferase (Holm & Sander, 1995)	NTP_transf_2 (4-116) [4.8e-12]			
		<i>orf3</i> (74)	Transcriptional regulator, putative (Brennan & Matthews, 1989)	HTH_26 (6-63) [2.7e- 10]			
		<i>orf4</i> (359)	IS <i>Vlu1</i> , transposase, IS <i>L3</i> family		QZN88035 <i>Vagococcus lutrae</i> [0.0]	264/358 (74%)	307/358 (85%)
		<i>orf5</i> (267)	Lincosamide nucleotidyltransferase Lnu(B)	Polbeta (9-96) [4.3e- 05]			
		<i>orf6</i> (494)	ABC-F type ribosomal protection protein Lsa(E)	ABC_tran (21-146) [1.6e-15] ABC_tran (325-451) [4.2e-19]			
		<i>orf7</i> (144)	DNA recombinase, truncated (Singleton et al., 2001)	RecG_N (15-64) [0.5] RecG_N (42-130) [0.36]	WP_198518244 <i>E.</i> <i>faecium</i> [7e-97]	144/144 (100%)	144/144 (100%)
		<i>orf9</i> (269)	Aminoglycoside nucleotidyltransferase	Polbeta (18-100) [3.7e-08]			
		<i>orf10</i> (112)	Adenine phosphoribosyltransferase (Islam et al., 2007)	Pribosyltran (24-91) [0.19]			
		<i>orf11</i> (237)	Aminoglycoside 6- adenylyltransferase,	Adenyl_transf (59- 227) [2.7e-60]	AAK62560 <i>E.</i> <i>faecium</i> [3e-98]	136/164 (83%)	149/164 (90%)

Strain	Length (bp) of DNA insert	ORF (aa) ^a	Annotation and comments (reference)	Pfam domain ^b [E value]	Homologous protein		
					Protein ID/ Origin [E value] ^c	aa identity	aa similarity
			truncated (Werner et al., 2001)				
4774, 5410	4,891 ^f	<i>orf1</i> (226)	IS1216E, transposase, IS6 family (Arthur et al., 1997)	Methyltransf_11 (47- 141) [3.8e-25]	AAC44739 <i>E.</i> <i>faecium</i> [3e-171]	223/225 (99%)	223/225 (99%)
		<i>orf2</i> (94)	Replication initiation protein, putative				
		<i>orf3</i> (215)	Chloramphenicol acetyltransferase	CAT (3-205) [9.6e-90]			
		<i>orf4</i> (264)	Replication initiation protein	Mob_Pre (1-115) [3.8e-33] Rep_trans (89-261) [3.0e-08]			
		<i>orf5</i> (282)	Streptomycin adenyltransferase	Adenyl_transf (1-279) [1.8e-98]			

^a The number of amino acids of each ORF is shown in parenthesis.

^b Numbers in parentheses represent the part of the protein homologous to the Pfam domain.

^c Determined by compositional matrix adjustment.

^d A 9.9-kb-long DNA sequence was inserted at nucleotide 23,833 of strain 2819; this 9.9-kb-long is a composite transposon named Tn7087.

^e A 10.6-kb-long DNA sequence was inserted at nucleotide 11,633 of strains 4774 and 5034.

^f A 4.8-kb-long DNA sequence was inserted at nucleotide 23,833 of strains 4774 and 5410.

Table 4. Frequency of excision of Tn7086 in *E. faecalis* strain 4638 and of Tn7086-like composite transposons in the other *E. faecalis* isolates^a.

Strain	Circular forms	Reconstituted integration site
4638	$1.54 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 4.05 \times 10^{-6})$	$6.72 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 1.51 \times 10^{-5})$
2819	$3.24 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 1.81 \times 10^{-7})$	$5.88 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 3.22 \times 10^{-6})$
4774	$6.98 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 3.62 \times 10^{-6})$	$6.11 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 2.18 \times 10^{-6})$
5245	$2.24 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 1.77 \times 10^{-5})$	$7.28 \times 10^{-3} (\pm 9.67 \times 10^{-4})$
5410	$1.30 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 1.64 \times 10^{-7})$	$7.23 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 6.98 \times 10^{-7})$
5034	$5.09 \times 10^{-6} (\pm 6.67 \times 10^{-8})$	$1.30 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 4.14 \times 10^{-6})$

^a The frequency of excision is expressed as number of copies of circular forms or reconstituted chromosomal integration sites per bacterial chromosome

Supplementary Table S1. Results of BLAST homology search to Tn7086^a.

Sequence name	GenBank accession no.	Origin	Reference	Percentage of query coverage (Tn7086 ORFs)
<i>lsa(E)</i> -carrying resistance gene cluster	MG765453	<i>E. faecalis</i> E512		87% (<i>orf1</i> -26, 29)
p16-164	CP065774	<i>E. faecium</i> 16-164	(Dejoies et al., 2021)	76% (1, 6, 8-12, 14-29)
IS1216V, Tn551	LC125351	<i>S. aureus</i> 6272		72% (1, 7, 7-11, 14-29)
pRE25	NC_008445	<i>E. faecalis</i> RE25	(Schwarz et al., 2001)	65% (1,3-12, 15-19, 29)
pE35048-oc	MF580438	<i>E. faecium</i> E35048	(Morrone et al., 2018)	57% (3-11, 22-29)
pWZ909	GQ484954	<i>E. faecalis</i>	(Zhu et al., 2010)	56% (3-12, 23-29)
Tn6349	MH746818	<i>S. aureus</i> AOUC-0915	(D'Andrea et al., 2019)	53% (1, 3-12, 26-29)
pVEF4	MG674582	<i>E. faecium</i> HL1	(Leinweber et al., 2018)	53% (1, 3, 6-7, 12, 27-29)
partial pVEF4	FN424376	<i>E. faecium</i> 399/F98/A4	(Sletvold et al., 2010)	53% (1, 3, 6-7, 12, 24-29)
IS1216V	LC125352	<i>S. aureus</i> 2250		52% (<i>orf1</i> , 6, 8-12, 22-29)
<i>lsa(E)</i> -carrying multidrug resistance gene cluster	KX156278	<i>E. faecalis</i> E533		46% (<i>orf2</i> , 8-9, 13-23)
pVEF1	AM296544	<i>E. faecium</i>	(Sletvold et al., 2007)	43%
pAMB1	GU128949	<i>E. faecalis</i> DS5		43%
MESPM1 and MES6272-2	MT877068	<i>E. faecium</i> V19 plasmid pV19	(Lin et al., 2020)	42% (1, 8-10, 14-21, 29)
pKM0218	MF477836	<i>Macrococcus canis</i>	(Chanchaithong et al., 2019)	42% (<i>orf1</i> , 8-11, 15-23, 29)

Sequence name	GenBank accession no.	Origin	Reference	Percentage of query coverage (Tn7086 ORFs)
pRUM	AF507977	<i>E. faecium</i>	(Grady & Hayes, 2003)	34%
<i>Isa(E)</i> -carrying multidrug resistance gene cluster	KX712118	<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	(Deng et al., 2017)	34% (8-9, 14-23)
Tn6215	KC166248	<i>Clostridium difficile</i> CD80	(Goh et al., 2013)	33% (5-9, 11-12, 22-25)
ABC-F type ribosomal protection protein OptrA (optrA), HNH endonuclease, hypothetical protein, ABC transporter ATP-binding protein, ParA partitioning protein (parA), putative replication protein, RepS (rep), hypothetical protein, site-specific recombinase, resolvase family, and group II intron reverse transcriptase/maturase genes, complete cds	MT723949	<i>Enterococcus thailandicus</i>	(Fioriti et al., 2020)	28%
Plasmid pIlo8 omega2 gene, <i>ermL</i> gene, <i>ermIP</i> gene, ORF3, delta gene, omega gene, epsilon gene and ORFZ	AJ549242	pIlo8	(Zúñiga et al., 2003)	26%
Tn6003	AM410044	<i>S. pneumoniae</i> Ar4	(Cochetti et al., 2007)	26%
Integrative and conjugative element ICESsu05SC260	KX077888	<i>S. suis</i>	(Huang et al., 2016)	24%
ATP-binding protein gene, partial cds; and membrane protein, peptidase P60, conjugal transfer protein, ABC transporter ATP-binding protein, ABC-2 transporter	MN625138	<i>Clostridioides difficile</i> 1-11	(Zhao et al., 2020)	24%

Sequence name	GenBank accession no.	Origin	Reference	Percentage of query coverage (Tn7086 ORFs)
permease, 23S rRNA-methyltransferase Erm(B), ParA family protein				
pSCBC1	CP038169	<i>E. faecium</i> SCBC1	(Lei et al., 2019)	23%
pYN2-1	CP038173	<i>E. faecium</i> YN2-1	(Fioriti et al., 2020)	23%
ISS _{Su5} composite transposon	KP998101	<i>S. aureus</i> LAR2682		22%
Tn6194	HG475346	<i>Clostridium difficile</i> CII7		22%
<i>aadE-sat4-aphA-3</i> gene cluster	JQ655275	<i>Campylobacter coli</i> SX81	(S. Qin et al., 2012)	21%
pBEE99	GU046453	<i>E. faecalis</i> E99	(Tendolkar et al., 2006)	19%
Tn1116	AM411377	<i>S. pyogenes</i> A-3	(Brenciani et al., 2007)	17%
CVM N48037F	CP028720	<i>E. faecalis</i> CVM N48037F	(Tyson et al., 2018)	16%
pTEF2	CP046110	<i>E. faecalis</i> 133170041-3		4%
pAD1	CP046109	<i>E. faecalis</i> 133170041-3		3%

^a Analysis was performed to search NCBI using the DNA sequence of Tn7086 as the query. Only mobile genetic elements/gene clusters previously identified are reported (homology results with genome assemblies are not included)

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FIGURE LEGEND

Tn7086 (24,643 bp)

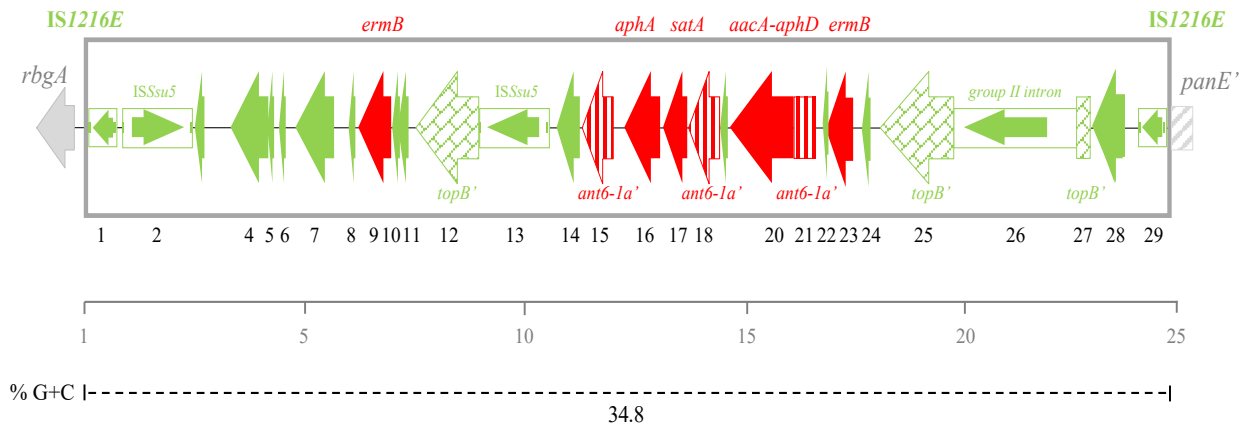


Figure 1. Structure of Tn7086 of *E. faecalis* strain 4638. Tn7086 was found integrated 142 bp upstream the 5' end of the *rbgA* gene, into the *panE* gene. Tn7086 is 24,643 bp-long and contains 29 ORFs. ORFs and their direction of transcription are represented by arrows, while annotated ORFs are indicated by sequential numbers. ISs are reported as boxed arrows and inverted repeat within ISs are indicated by solid rectangles, whereas group II intron is represented only as a boxed arrow. All genes are depicted in green except for antimicrobial resistance genes which are highlighted in red. Chromosomal genes flanking the Tn7086 insertion site are represented as grey arrows. Arrows and boxes with a pattern fill indicate truncated genes. The GC content of the element is indicated by dotted bars. Scale, kilobases.

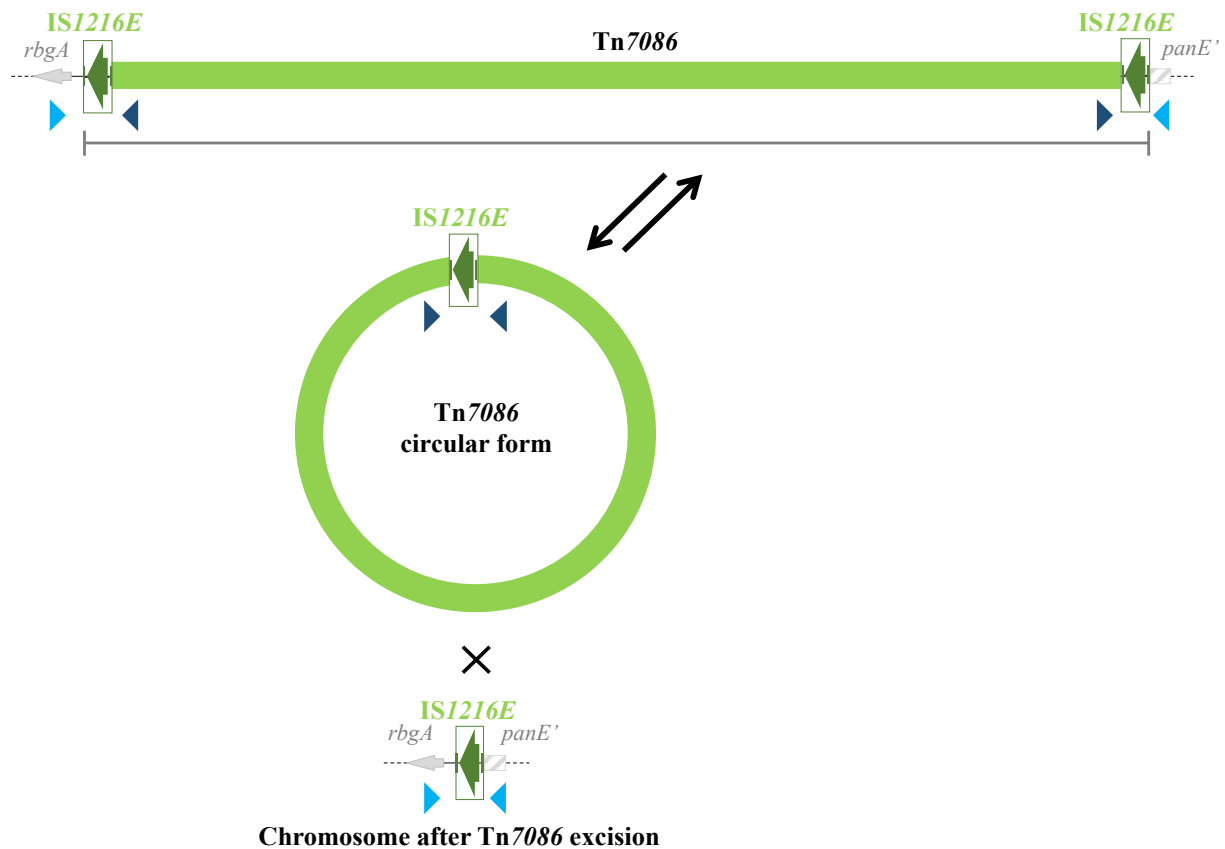


Figure 2. Mechanism of excision/integration of Tn7086 in *E. faecalis* strain 4638. Tn7086 is able to excise from the bacterial chromosome producing circular forms. Excision of Tn7086 occurs by recombination between the flanking IS1216E copies (boxed dark green arrows) and leaves a single IS1216E copy in the chromosome, whereas the ends of the transposon in the circular forms are joined by the other IS1216E copy. Arrowheads represent PCR primers used for detection of circular forms (dark blue) and reconstituted chromosomal site of integration (light blue). The structure of Tn7086 is described in Figure 1.

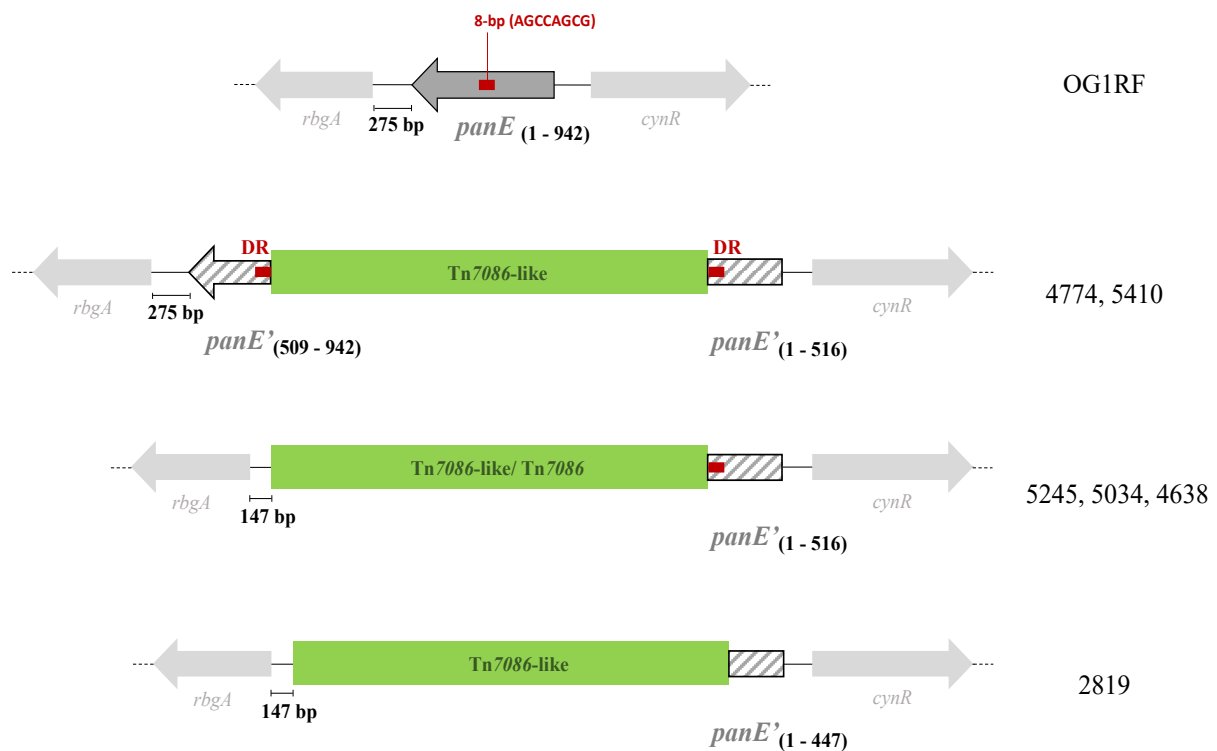


Figure 3. Chromosomal integration sites of Tn7086-like composite transposons in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* CC16/ST480 strains. All Tn7086-like elements (green blocks) were found all integrated in the chromosomal gene *panE* localized upstream of the *rbgA* and downstream of the *cynR* genes (grey arrows). Upon integration: (i) a duplication of an 8-bp target site sequence (AGCCAGCG, red square) of *panE* occurred in strains 4774 and 5410; (ii) a 555-bp deletion involving the 3'-end of *panE* and 128 bp of the downstream intergenic region occurred in strains 5034 and 5245 as described for Tn7086 in strain 4638; (iii) a 624-bp deletion involving a larger portion of the 3'-end of *panE* inclusive of the 8-bp target site and the same 128 nucleotides downstream *panE* was found in strain 2819. Disrupted *panE* genes (*panE'*) are depicted as striped arrows/ boxes. The strains are compared to OG1RF reference strain which displays an undisrupted *panE* gene. The figure is not in scale.

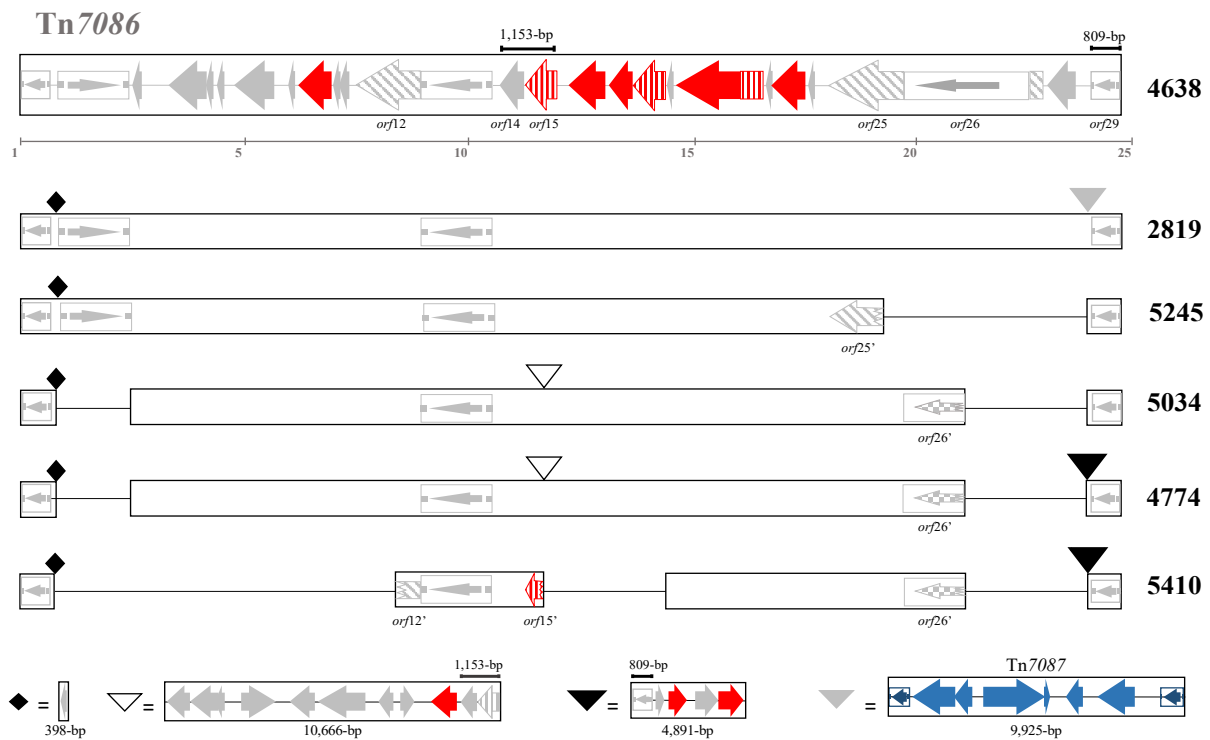
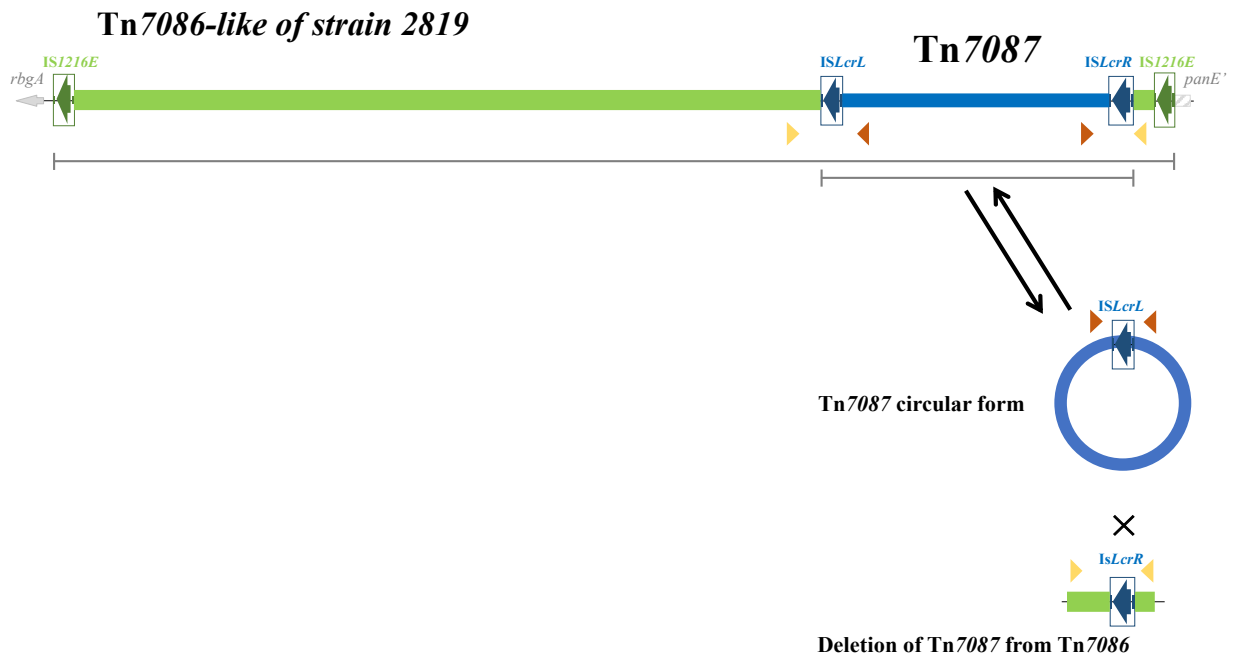


Figure 4. Structure of Tn7086-like composite transposons in infertility-associated *E. faecalis* CC16/ST480 strains. The 24.6-kb-long Tn7086 DNA sequence of *E. faecalis* strain 4638 (query) is compared to the homologous DNA sequences of Tn7086-like transposons found in the other infertility-associated strains (on the right). Tn7086-like transposons are depicted in a sequential order based on decreasing sequence homology percentage compared to Tn7086. All transposons are flanked by two identical IS1216E copies, whereas their DNA sequences vary in length from 15.4 kb (strain 5410) up to 35.3 kb (strain 2819). Homologous sequences are drawn as white blocks (scale in kb). ISs are reported as boxed arrows and their IR indicated by solid rectangles, whereas serrated edge arrows and serrated box with pattern fill indicate truncated *orf* in comparison with those found in Tn7086. Red arrows highlight antimicrobial resistance genes. For clearer alignment, homologous sequence blocks were represented as devoid of additional genetic elements, indicated at the bottom of the figure as a solid black diamond (398 bp-long) and as solid black (4.8 kb-long insert), solid grey (9.9 kb-long insert) and empty (10.6 kb-long insert) triangles. The 10.6-kb and the 4.8-kb inserted DNA sequences produced a 1,153-bp duplication of *orf*14-16 and an 809-bp duplication of *orf*29, respectively (indicated on the Tn7086 DNA sequence of strain 4638). The 9.9-kb insert of strain 2819 is an independent composite transposon named Tn7087.



Supplementary Figure S1. Mechanism of excision/integration of Tn7087 from Tn7086 in *E. faecalis* strain 2819. Tn7087 is a 9,925 bp-long element integrated into the Tn7086-like composite transposon of *E. faecalis* strain 2819. Tn7087 excises from Tn7086 and produces circular forms. Excision of Tn7087 occurs by recombination between the flanking ISLcr copies (boxed dark blue arrows), leaving ISLcrL in the Tn7086, whereas the ends of Tn7087 in the circular forms are joined by ISLcrR copy. Arrowheads represent PCR primers used for detection of circular forms (brown) and reconstituted chromosomal site of integration (yellow).

CHAPTER 6

Complete genome sequence of *Lactobacillus crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820

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Complete Genome Sequence of *Lactobacillus crispatus* Type Strain ATCC 33820

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ABSTRACT The complete genome sequence of *Lactobacillus crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 was obtained by combining Nanopore and Illumina sequencing technologies. The genome consists of a 2.2-Mb circular chromosome with 2,194 open reading frames and an average GC content of 37.0%.

L *actobacillus crispatus* is the most frequently isolated species among the vaginal lactobacilli of the human microbiota of healthy women; its presence is associated with reduced risk of preterm delivery, viral sexually transmitted infections, and bacterial vaginosis (1). To date (June 2021), only eight *L. crispatus* complete genomes are available in the NCBI database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/browse#/prokaryotes/1815/>). Here, we contribute to the genomic characterization of this species by publicly releasing the genome of strain ATCC 33820, the type strain of *Lactobacillus crispatus* (Fig. 1). The strain was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection in October 2020 and grown in 250 ml of DeMan-Rogosa-Sharpe (MRS) broth at 37°C to an optical density at 590 nm (OD₅₉₀) of 1.9. Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000 × *g* for 30 min at 4°C), and the cell pellet was dry-vortexed and incubated for 1 h at 37°C in protoplasting buffer (20% raffinose, 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 5 mM EDTA) containing 4 mg/ml lysozyme. Protoplasts were centrifuged (5,000 × *g* for 5 min), resuspended in 15 ml of deionized H₂O with 100 μg/ml proteinase K (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany), and incubated for 30 min at 37°C to obtain osmotic lysis, with 0.5% SDS added after 15 min. Then, 0.55 M NaCl was added, and the mixture was incubated for 10 min at room temperature. High-molecular-weight DNA was purified by three extractions with 1 volume of Sevag (chloroform-isoamyl alcohol, 24:1 [vol:vol]), precipitated in 0.6 volume of cold isopropanol, and spooled on a glass rod. DNA was resuspended in saline-sodium citrate (SSC)/10 buffer and then adjusted to 600 μl SSC 1×. The DNA solution was homogenized using a rotator mixer and stored at 4°C. DNA sequencing was performed with both Oxford Nanopore GridION and Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instruments. The Nanopore sequencing library was prepared using the Nanopore sequencing kit SQK-LSK 109 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK), and the sample was sequenced using an R9.4 flow cell (FLO-MIN106). Real-time high-accuracy base calling (quality cutoff, >Q7) of Nanopore reads was performed using Guppy v4.0.11 (<https://github.com/nanoporetech/pyguppyclient>), and base-called reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (2). Illumina sequencing was performed at MicrobesNG (University of Birmingham, UK) using a Nextera XT library preparation kit (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA), followed by paired-end sequencing. Illumina reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.30 (3) and analyzed with FastQC v0.11.5 (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc>). Nanopore and Illumina sequencing generated 136,000 long reads (630,559,194 bp; *N*₅₀, 8.7 kb) and 762,936 read pairs (2 × 250 bp), respectively. Nanopore reads were filtered using Filtlong v0.2.0 with the parameter --target_bases to retain a total of 230 Mbp (<https://github.com/rwvick/Filtlong>) (*N*₅₀, 19,822 bp) and assembled using Unicycler v0.4.7 (4). The resulting circular contig was polished using

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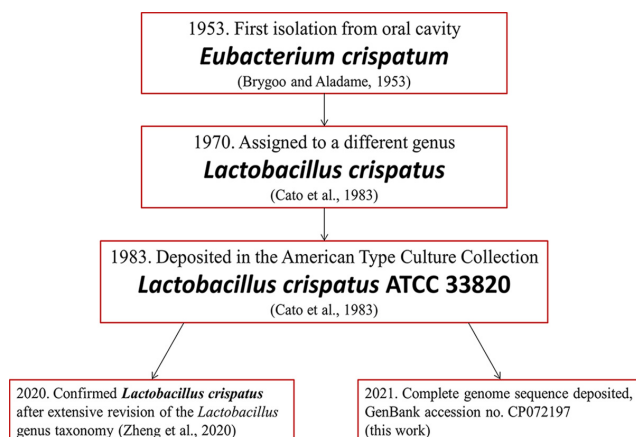


FIG 1 History of *Lactobacillus crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820. *L. crispatus* type strain ATCC 33820 was isolated at the Institut Pasteur in 1953 by E. R. Brygoo and N. Aladame from an oral sample of a European individual in Saigon and was considered a new species of the genus *Eubacterium* (Collection of the Institut Pasteur, Paris, strain II) (7). Later, it was deposited in the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University as VPI 3199 and identified as *Lactobacillus* (8). Further characterization upon American Type Culture Collection deposition indicated that ATCC 33820 DNA was 100% homologous to the previously defined *L. acidophilus* group A2 (8). Over the years, the *L. crispatus* type strain has been distributed among different collections and also designated DSM 20584 = CCUG 30722 = CIP 102990 = CIPP II = JCM 1185 = LMG 9479. Recently, Zheng and colleagues (9) reclassified the genus *Lactobacillus* into 25 genera through a polyphasic approach; however, the nomenclature of *Lactobacillus crispatus* remained unchanged. Strain ATCC 33820 was acquired by our laboratory in October 2020. Arrows indicate sequential steps in the history of the *L. crispatus* type strain. Red boxes contain the year, followed by a brief description of the event, the strain name (in bold), and the reference (in parentheses).

Medaka v0.7.1 (<https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka>) with all Nanopore reads, followed by two polishing rounds with Pilon v1.22 using the Illumina reads (5). Assembly quality was evaluated using Ideel (<https://github.com/mw55309/ideel>). Annotation was performed with the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) v5.1 (6). Default parameters were used for all software unless otherwise specified. The genome of *L. crispatus* ATCC 33820 consists of a single circular chromosome (2,239,089 bp) with an overall GC content of 37.0%. The assembly contains 2,194 open reading frames, 78.8% with putative biological function, 64 tRNA genes, 3 rRNA operons, and 3 structural RNAs.

Data availability. Sample information and sequence and genomic assembly/annotation are accessible under the NCBI BioProject, BioSample, and whole-genome sequence accession numbers [PRJNA716945](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA716945), [SAMN18472633](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/biosample/SAMN18472633), and [CP072197](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/CP072197), respectively. Raw Nanopore and Illumina sequencing reads are accessible under Sequence Read Archive accession numbers [SRR14509463](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/SRR14509463) and [SRR14509462](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/SRR14509462), respectively.

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Illumina genome sequencing was provided by MicrobesNG.

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CHAPTER 7

Complete genome sequence of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain Rx1, a Hex mismatch repair-deficient standard transformation recipient

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Complete Genome Sequence of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* Strain Rx1, a Hex Mismatch Repair-Deficient Standard Transformation Recipient

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ABSTRACT The complete genome sequence of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain Rx1, a Hex mismatch repair-deficient standard transformation recipient, was obtained by combining Nanopore and Illumina sequencing technologies. The genome consists of a 2.03-Mb circular chromosome, with 2,054 open reading frames and a GC content of 39.72%.

Streptococcus pneumoniae is a human pathogen and the most important model organism for studying bacterial genetics and genomics. Widely used laboratory strains include type 2 Avery's strain D39 and its derivatives Rx1 and R6, which are standard transformation recipients (1, 2). We characterized the complete genome sequence of Rx1, a highly transformable and Hex mismatch repair system-deficient strain. To track the genomic changes that gave rise to Rx1, we also sequenced the genome of its unencapsulated parental strain R36A (Table 1). Strains, which were obtained from the Guild laboratory collection (3), were grown in tryptic soy broth at 37°C for 4 h until they reached an optical density at 590 nm (OD₅₉₀) of 0.8. Pneumococcal cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000 × *g* for 30 min at 4°C), and the cell pellet was dry vortex-mixed and lysed in 0.1% deoxycholate-0.008% SDS. High-molecular-weight DNA was purified three times with 1 volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1 [vol/vol]), precipitated in 0.6 volumes of ice-cold isopropanol, and spooled on a glass rod. DNA was resuspended in 10× saline-sodium citrate (SSC) buffer (1× SSC is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate) and then adjusted to 1× SSC and maintained at 4°C. The DNA solution was homogenized using a rotary mixer. Oxford Nanopore Technologies MinION and Illumina HiSeq 2500 instruments were used for DNA sequencing. DNA was not sheared; size selection was obtained with 0.8 volumes of AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter). The Nanopore sequencing library was prepared using the SQK-LSK108 kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) following the manufacturer's instructions, and the sample was sequenced using an R9.4 flow cell (FLO-MIN106). Postsequencing high-accuracy base calling and adapter trimming of raw Nanopore reads were performed using Guppy v4.0.11 with configuration dna_r9.4.1_450bps_hac, and base-called reads were analyzed with NanoPlot v1.18.2 (4). Illumina sequencing was performed at MicrobesNG (University of Birmingham) using the Nextera XT library preparation kit (Illumina Inc.), followed by paired-end sequencing. Illumina reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.30 (5) and analyzed with FastQC v0.11.5 (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc>). Nanopore and Illumina sequencing generated 3,892 long reads (26,780,859 bp [*N*₅₀, 18.3 kbp]) and 86,582 read pairs (2 × 250 bp), respectively, for Rx1, whereas 4,771 long reads (27,433,219 bp [*N*₅₀, 16.9 kbp]) and 278,462 read pairs were obtained for R36A. Sequence coverage was 31.6× for Rx1 and 67.0× for R36A. A hybrid assembly of Nanopore and Illumina reads was obtained using Unicycler v0.4.712 (6). Assembly completeness and quality were assessed using Bandage v0.8.1 (7) and Ideel (<https://github.com/mw5309/ideel>), respectively.

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TABLE 1 Genealogy of the *S. pneumoniae* Rx1 strain

Strain	Description ^a	Relevant properties ^b	GenBank accession no. (year) ^a
D39	Avery's strain, clinical isolate (1916); type 2, virulent (3, 19–23)	pDP1 ⁺ , Hex ⁺ , DpnI ⁺ , <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	CP000410.1 (2007) (24)
R36	D39 passaged 36 times in anti-type 2 serum (1944); rough, avirulent (3, 21, 22)	pDP1 ⁺ , Hex ⁺ , DpnI ⁺ , <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	Not available
R36A	Highly transformable R36 colony morphology variant (1944); rough, avirulent (3, 20, 23, 25)	pDP1 ⁻ , Hex ⁺ , DpnI ⁺ , <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	CP079922 (2021) (this study)
R6	Highly transformable R36A single-colony isolate (1962); rough, avirulent (3, 26, 27)	pDP1 ⁻ , Hex ⁺ , DpnI ⁺ , <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	AE007317.1 (2001) (16)
A66	Avery's strain, clinical isolate (1949); type 3, virulent (23, 25)	Hex ⁺ , DpnI, <i>comC2-comD2</i> , <i>pspC11.4</i>	LN847353.1 (2015) (28)
SIII-N	R36A transformed with A66 DNA (1949); type 3, virulent (20, 23, 25, 29)	<i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	Not available
Rx	Spontaneous rough derivative of R36A (1959); reduced type 3 capsule production, avirulent (3, 17, 23, 30)	pDP1 ⁻ , Hex ⁻ (HexB ⁻), <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i>	Not available
Rx1	Highly transformable derivative of Rx (1959); reduced type 3 capsule production (Ugd mutant), avirulent (3, 31)	pDP1 ⁻ , Hex ⁻ (HexB ⁻), DpnI ⁻ (DpnC ⁻), <i>comC1-comD1</i> , <i>pspC3.1</i> ^c	CP079923 (2021) (this study)

^aThe year of the first strain description (except for the D39 isolation year) or of the sequence release is reported in parentheses.

^bpDP1 is a 3,161-bp cryptic plasmid (32). Hex is the DNA mismatch repair system encoded by *hexA* and *hexB* (33). DpnI is a restriction system composed of the DpnI/DpnC endonuclease and DpnD (34). *comC-comD* competence genes encode the competence-stimulating peptide (CSP) and its ComD receptor (35–38). *pspC* encodes the virulence surface protein PspC (39, 40).

Annotation was performed with the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) v5.1 (8). Default parameters were used for all tools unless otherwise specified. The Rx1 genome consists of a 2,030,186-bp single circular chromosome containing 2,054 open reading frames (ORFs), of which 1,813 have a predicted function. The 2,039,955-bp circular chromosome of R36A contains 2,059 ORFs, of which 1,834 have a putative function. Both

S. pneumoniae capsule locus

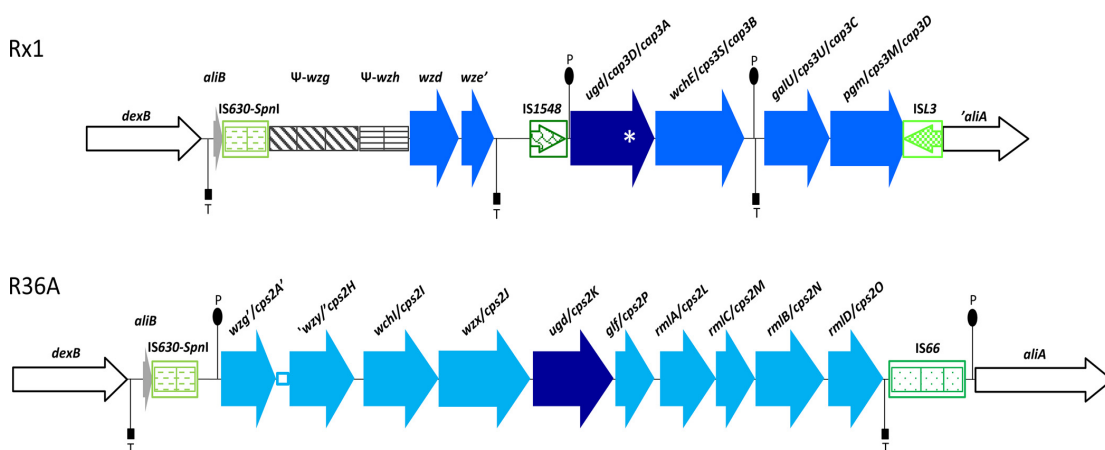


FIG 1 *S. pneumoniae* capsule locus. Rx1 harbors a type 3 capsule locus acquired by A66 DNA through a double crossover between IS630-*SpnI* and *aliA*. At the 3' end, recombination produced the insertion of an ISL3 transposase and a 950-bp deletion of the *aliA* 5' end, as in the A66 capsule locus. IS1548 identifies (i) a 5' fragment, common to all serotypes (14), that contains *wzg* and *wzh* pseudogenes and *wzd* and *wze* genes and is not involved in type 3 capsular synthesis (15) and (ii) a 3' fragment containing *ugd/cap3D/cap3A* UDP-glucose dehydrogenase gene, *wchE/cps35/cap3B* synthase gene, *galU/cps3U/cap3C*, and *pgm/cps3M/cap3D* genes involved in UDP-glucose biosynthesis (15–17). The nucleotide change g.317,495C>T in *ugd/cps3A/cps3D* (indicated with an asterisk) causes p.R320C in the UDP-glucose dehydrogenase UDP-binding domain. The type 2 capsule locus of R36A harbors a 7,505-bp deletion involving the 3' end of *wzg/cps2A*, seven genes (namely, *wzh/cps2B*, *wzd/cps2C*, *wze/cps2D*, *wchA/cps2E*, *wchF/cps2T*, *wchG/cps2F*, and *wchH/cps2G*), and the 5' end of *wzy/cps2H* (18). The deletion event left an inverted 25-bp fragment (indicated with an open box) belonging to the lost *wzg/cps2A* 3' end.

genomes have (i) a GC content of 39.72%, (ii) 58 tRNA genes, 3 rRNA operons, and 3 structural RNAs, (iii) a 36.6-kb pneumococcal pathogenicity island 1 (PPI1) (9), (iv) prophage remnants, and (v) remnants of the integrative and conjugative element Tn5253 (10–12). Rx1 and R36A capsule loci are schematized in Fig. 1. Rx1 harbors type I restriction-modification system SpnD39III variant C, while R36A harbors variant D (13). In Rx1, g.168,614C>A, g.1,979,527G>A, and g.1,629,603delA nucleotide changes introduce premature termination codons in *hexB*, *pspC3.1*, and *dpnC*, respectively.

Data availability. The complete genome sequences of R36A and Rx1 are available under GenBank accession no. [CP079922](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8) and [CP079923](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8), respectively. The sequencing project is available under NCBI BioProject accession no. [PRJNA748391](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8). Nanopore and Illumina sequencing reads are available under Sequence Read Archive (SRA) accession no. [SRR15216323](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8) and [SRR15216322](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8), respectively, for R36A and SRA accession no. [SRR15216380](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8) and [SRR15216379](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0923-2508(02)01312-8), respectively, for Rx1.

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CHAPTER 8. General conclusions

Lactic acid bacteria are a heterogeneous group of microorganisms that includes strains of interest for both commercial and health purposes. The study of their genomes is important to better understand pathways and components responsible for environmental interactions and peculiar properties of single strains. In this thesis, I obtained and investigated the whole genome of lactic acid bacteria belonging to different species including *L. crispatus*, *E. faecalis* and *S. pneumoniae*, by analyzing the genomic features of both chromosome and mobilome associated to environmental response and antimicrobial resistance. The main focus was on the characterization of the *L. crispatus* M247 probiotic strain genome. It was demonstrated that the M247 mobilome includes an integrative and mobilizable element named Tn7088, carrying a class I bacteriocin biosynthetic gene cluster homologous to the listeriolysin S gene cluster of *Listeria monocytogenes*. Therefore, Tn7088 may confer a niche adaptive advantage to its bacterial host. Then, the presence of genomic instability in the M247 strain was proved consisting of ISs mediated chromosomal rearrangements involving two DNA regions of 69.9-kb and 15.4-kb in length. These chromosomal rearrangements were probably implicated in the duplication of the 69.9-kb region which produced two long inverted repeats in the genome of a *L. crispatus* laboratory strain namely M247_Siena. Quantification analysis of chromosomal rearrangements, indicated that the newly generated 69.9-kb long inverted repeats of M247_Siena increased the intrinsic genomic instability of strain M247. In the second part of the thesis, the use of whole genome sequencing (for MLST) and antimicrobial susceptibility testing on a collection of infertility-associated *E. faecalis* showed that the enterococcal isolates that were resistant to high-level aminoglycosides had a clonal structure. The strains that clustered in the clonal complex/sequence type CC16/ST480 were further investigated by genomic comparison analysis and a novel composite transposon named Tn7086 was identified. Characterization of Tn7086 and of other Tn7086-like elements indicated that this new family of transposons shared integration site, excision/integration mechanism and also the genes conferring aminoglycosides resistance. Finally, the complete genome sequence of the type strain of *L.*

crispatus namely ATCC 33820 useful for a better understanding of the *L. crispatus* species characteristic traits, was obtained. The genome sequences of the *S. pneumoniae* Rx1 strain, a common laboratory strain devoid of the Mismatch Repair System, and of its parental strain R36A were also determined to track genome evolution.

APPENDIX. Scientific *Curriculum Vitae*

• Education

- October 2018 - present: **PhD student** in the XXXIV cycle of doctoral program in Medical Biotechnologies by the Medical Biotechnologies Department of the University of Siena, Italy.

Main areas of interest: bacterial genomics, whole genome sequencing, NGS, data analysis.

- October 2016 - September 2018: **Master's Degree** in Medical Biotechnologies (courses held in English), Department of Medical Biotechnologies, University of Siena, Italy.

Thesis title: “Complete genome sequences of the *Lactobacillus crispatus* probiotic strain M247 and its isogenic nonaggregating mutant Mu5”. Mark: 110/110 cum laude and special mention.

- October 2012 - July 2016: **Bachelor's Degree** in Biotechnologies, University of Pisa, Italy.

Thesis title: “Effects of berberine on cell migration analysed in two different human cancer cell lines”. Mark: 106/110.

• Training courses

- 2020, May. “**Metagenomics applied to surveillance of pathogens and antimicrobial resistance**” on-line course Coursera platform, organized by Technical University of Denmark – DTU, Denmark.
- 2020, April. “**Whole genome sequencing of bacterial genomes – tool and application**” on-line course Coursera platform, organized by Technical University of Denmark – DTU, Denmark.

- 2019, May. “**Introduction to Machine Learning algorithms**” ALMALE (2018DU0092), organized by the University of Siena, project “Tuscan Start-Up Academy 4.0”, Regione Toscana funds.

- **Languages**

- **Italian:** native
- **English:** very good knowledge of English language (written and spoken). 2018: B2 English qualification, Centro Linguistico Ateneo (CLA), University of Siena, Italy

- **List of publications**

1. Complete Genome Sequence of *Lactobacillus crispatus* Type Strain ATCC 33820. Lucia Teodori a[†], **Lorenzo Colombini**[†], Anna Maria Cuppone, Elisa Lazzeri, David Pinzauti, Francesco Santoro, Francesco Iannelli and Gianni Pozzi. *Microbiol Resour Announc.* 2021 August 12. doi: 10.1128/MRA.00634-21. (†These authors contributed equally to this work)
2. Complete Genome Sequence of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* Strain Rx1, a Hex Mismatch Repair-Deficient Standard Transformation Recipient. Anna Maria Cuppone*, **Lorenzo Colombini***, Valeria Fox, David Pinzauti, Francesco Santoro, Gianni Pozzi, Francesco Iannelli. *Microbiol Resour Announc.* 2021 October 14. doi: 10.1128/MRA.00799-21. (*These authors contributed equally to this work)

- **Conferences**

- 2021, 1-3. Nanopore Community Meeting, virtual conference organized by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK.
- 2021, 17-18 June. London Calling 2021, virtual conference organized by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK.

- 2020, 1-3 December. Nanopore Community Meeting, virtual conference organized by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK
- 2020, 17-18 June. London Calling 2020, virtual conference organized by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK.
- 2019, 19-22 June. XXXIII SIMGBM Congress, Microbiology 2019, Florence, Italy. “Complete genome sequence of *Lactobacillus crispatus* M247 strain and its derivative Mu5 lacking the auto-aggregation phenotype”. Lorenzo Colombini, Francesco Santoro, Anna Maria Cuppone, David Pinzauti, Gianni Pozzi, Francesco Iannelli. **Poster.**

- **Nucleotide sequences deposited in GenBank:**

1. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain R36A, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP079922, BioProject ID PRJNA748391. Cuppone,A.M., Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Pozzi,G and Iannelli,F. 2021
2. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain Rx1, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP079923, BioProject ID PRJNA748391. Cuppone,A.M., Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Pozzi,G. and Iannelli,F. 2021
3. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain ATCC33820, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP072197.1, BioProject ID PRJNA716945. Colombini,L., Teodori,L., Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Pinzauti,D., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2021
4. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain M247, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP088015, BioProject ID PRJNA782912. Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Morelli,L., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.
5. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain Mu5, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP054313, BioProject ID PRJNA634156. Colombini,L., Pinzauti,D.,

Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.

6. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain M247_Siena, complete genome. GenBank Accession no. CP046589, BioProject ID PRJNA594001. Colombini,L., Pinzauti,D., Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.

- **Nucleotide sequences deposited in Sequence Read Archive:**

1. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain R36A whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA748391. Cuppone,A.M., Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Pozzi,G and Iannelli,F. 2021
2. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* strain Rx1 whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA748391. Cuppone,A.M., Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Pozzi,G. and Iannelli,F. 2021
3. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain ATCC33820 whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA716945. Colombini,L., Teodori,L., Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Pinzauti,D., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2021
4. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain M247 whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA782912. Colombini,L., Santoro,F., Morelli,L., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.
5. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain Mu5 whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA634156. Colombini,L., Pinzauti,D., Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.
6. *Lactobacillus crispatus* strain M247_Siena whole genome sequencing. BioProject ID PRJNA594001. Colombini,L., Pinzauti,D., Cuppone,A.M., Lazzeri,E., Santoro,F., Iannelli,F. and Pozzi,G. 2022. Not publicly available yet.