



Toxin-Antitoxin Gene Pairs Found in Tn3 Family Transposons Appear To Be an Integral Part of the Transposition Module

^(D)Gipsi Lima-Mendez,^{a,d} Danillo Oliveira Alvarenga,^b Karen Ross,^c Bernard Hallet,^d ^(D)Laurence Van Melderen,^a ^(D)Alessandro M. Varani,^b ^(D)Michael Chandler^e

^aCellular and Molecular Microbiology (CM2), Faculté des Sciences, Université Libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Brussels, Belgium
^bSchool of Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, Universidade Estadual Paulista, Jaboticabal, Sao Paulo, Brazil
^cProtein Information Resource, Department of Biochemistry, Molecular and Cellular Biology, Georgetown University Medical Center, Washington, DC, USA
^dLouvain Institute of Biomolecular Science and Technology, Université Catholique de Louvain (UCLouvain), Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium
^eDepartment of Biochemistry, Molecular and Cellular Biology, Georgetown University Medical Center, Washington, DC, USA

ABSTRACT Much of the diversity of prokaryotic genomes is contributed by the tightly controlled recombination activity of transposons (Tns). The Tn3 family is arguably one of the most widespread transposon families. Members carry a large range of passenger genes incorporated into their structures. Family members undergo replicative transposition using a DDE transposase to generate a cointegrate structure which is then resolved by site-specific recombination between specific DNA sequences (res) on each of the two Tn copies in the cointegrate. These sites also carry promoters controlling expression of the recombinase and transposase. We report here that a number of Tn3 members encode a type II toxin-antitoxin (TA) system, typically composed of a stable toxin and a labile antitoxin that binds the toxin and inhibits its lethal activity. This system serves to improve plasmid maintenance in a bacterial population and, until recently, was believed to be associated with bacterial persistence. At least six different TA gene pairs are associated with various Tn3 members. Our data suggest that several independent acquisition events have occurred. In contrast to most Tn3 family passenger genes, which are generally located away from the transposition module, the TA gene pairs abut the res site upstream of the resolvase genes. Although their role when part of Tn3 family transposons is unclear, this finding suggests a potential role for the embedded TA in stabilizing the associated transposon with the possibility that TA expression is coupled to expression of transposase and resolvase during the transposition process itself.

IMPORTANCE Transposable elements (TEs) are important in genetic diversification due to their recombination properties and their ability to promote horizontal gene transfer. Over the last decades, much effort has been made to understand TE transposition mechanisms and their impact on prokaryotic genomes. For example, the Tn3 family is ubiquitous in bacteria, molding their host genomes by the paste-and-copy mechanism. In addition to the transposition module, Tn3 members often carry additional passenger genes (e.g., conferring antibiotic or heavy metal resistance and virulence), and three were previously known to carry a toxin-antitoxin (TA) system often associated with plasmid maintenance; however, the role of TA systems within the Tn3 family is unknown. The genetic context of TA systems in Tn3 members suggests that they may play a regulatory role in ensuring stable invasion of these Tns during transposition.

KEYWORDS antitoxin, Tn3 family, toxin, transposition

Members of the Tn3 transposon (Tn) family form a tightly knit group having related transposase genes and related DNA sequences at their ends. However, they are highly diverse in the range of passenger genes that they carry (see reference 1) (Fig. 1).

Citation Lima-Mendez G, Oliveira Alvarenga D, Ross K, Hallet B, Van Melderen L, Varani AM, Chandler M. 2020. Toxin-antitoxin gene pairs found in Tn3 family transposons appear to be an integral part of the transposition module. mBio 11:e00452-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/ mBio.00452-20.

Editor Carmen Buchrieser, Institut Pasteur Copyright © 2020 Lima-Mendez et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0

International license. Address correspondence to Michael Chandler, mc2126@georgetown.edu.

This article is a direct contribution from Michael Chandler, a Fellow of the American Academy of Microbiology, who arranged for and secured reviews by Eva Top, University of Idaho; José Escudero, Facultad de Veterinaria Departamento de Sanidad Animal, Universidad Complutense, Madrid; and Sally Partridge, Westmead Institute, University of Sydney.

Received 28 February 2020 Accepted 2 March 2020 Published 31 March 2020

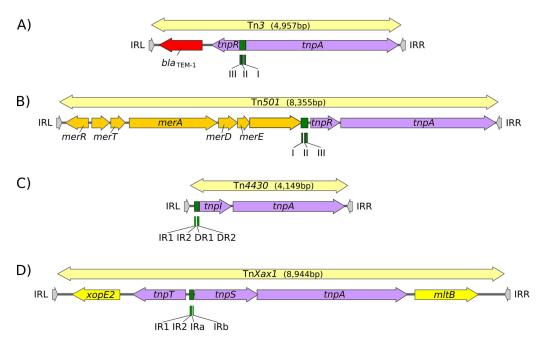


FIG 1 Tn3 family architectures. This figure illustrates the major different types of gene arrangement in members of the Tn3 family. Transposons are shown as pale yellow boxes ending in arrowheads. The transposon length in base pairs is indicated. Terminal inverted repeats (IRs) are indicated by gray arrowheads (IRL and IRR, respectively, labeled by convention with respect to the direction of tnpA transcription from left to right). Recombination sites (res, irs, and rst) are shown in green, transposition genes in purple, and passenger genes in red (antibiotic resistance genes), orange-yellow (heavy metal resistance genes), and bright yellow (plant pathogenicity genes). (A) Tn3. Accession number V00613 (Tn3 subgroup). Carries the bla_{TEM-1a} beta-lactamase gene and divergent serine recombinase/resolvase (tnpR) and transposase (tnpA) genes. The recombination site, res, composed of three subsequences, I, II, and III, is located between tnpR and tnpA, with site III proximal to tnpR. Recombination occurs within site I. (B) Tn501. Accession number Z00027 (Tn21 subgroup). Carries an operon containing mercury resistance genes (mer) and colinear serine recombinase/resolvase (tnpR) and transposase (tnpA) genes. The res site is located upstream of tnpR. It has a similar organization as that of Tn3 with site III proximal to tnpR. Recombination occurs within site I. (C) Tn4430. Accession number X07651.1 (Tn4430 subgroup). Carries no known passenger genes. Tyrosine recombinase/resolvase (tnpl) and transposase (tnpA) genes are colinear, and the recombination site, irs, is located upstream of and proximal to the resolvase gene with four subsites: inverted repeats IR1 and IR2 and direct repeats DR1 and DR2. Recombination occurs at the recombination core site IR1-IR2. (D) TnXax1. Accession number AE008925 (Tn4651 subgroup). Carries two passenger genes involved in plant pathogenicity located at the left (xopE) and right (mlt) ends of the transposon. The resolvase has two components: a tyrosine recombinase (tnpT) and a helper protein (tnpS) expressed divergently. The res site, rst, is located between tnpT and tnpS and is composed of two pairs of inverted repeats, IR1 and IR2 and IRa and IRb. Recombination occurs at the IR1-IR2 inverted repeat.

The basic Tn3 family transposition module is composed of transposase and resolvase genes and two ends with related terminal inverted repeat DNA sequences, the IRs, of 38 to 40 bp or sometimes even longer (2). They encode a large (\sim 1,000-amino-acid [aa]) DDE transposase, TnpA, significantly longer than the DDE transposases normally associated with insertion sequences (IS) (see reference 3). The TnpA transposase catalyzes DNA cleavage and strand transfer reactions necessary for formation of a cointegrate transposition intermediate during replicative transposition (4). The cointegrate is composed of donor (with the transposon) and target (without the transposon) circular DNA molecules fused into a single circular molecule and separated by two directly repeated transposon copies, one at each donor-target junction (4). Phylogenetic analysis based on TnpA sequence identified 7 clusters or subgroups named after representative transposons: Tn3, Tn21, Tn163, IS1071, IS3000, Tn4430, and Tn4651 (1, 5). A second feature of members of this transposon family is that they carry short internal (\sim 100- to 150-bp) DNA segments, at which site-specific recombination between each of the two Tn copies occurs to "resolve" the cointegrate into individual copies of the transposon donor and the target molecules each containing a single transposon copy (1).

This highly efficient recombination system is ensured by a transposon-specified site-specific recombinase: the resolvase. There are at present three known major resolvase types, TnpR, TnpI, and TnpS+TnpT (Fig. 1), distinguished, among other

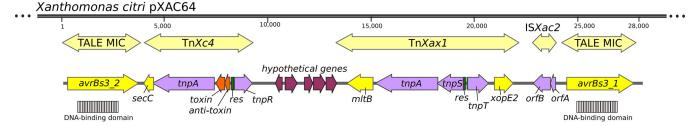


FIG 2 An annotated map of plasmid pXAC64 (accession number CP004400) from *Xanthomonas citri*. The figure shows a section of the plasmid carrying four Tn3 derivative transposons and one insertion sequence, ISXac2. Derivatives located to the left and right are minimal insertion cassettes (MICs) (56), which are devoid of transposition genes. These include TALEs (transcription activator-like elements) (yellow) responsible for pathogenicity, which, in turn, include an array of peptide repeats (DNA-binding domain in gray). Between the flanking MICs are two complete Tn3 family transposons. Tn*Xax1* carries a *tnpS/T* resolvase with an intervening *res* (*rst*) recombination site (green) and two genes (yellow) involved in plant-pathogen interaction. Tn*Xc4* includes a toxin-antitoxin gene pair, in orange, and divergent *tnpA* and *tnpR* genes with an intervening *res* site (green). Coordinates in base pairs are shown on the line at top.

features, by the catalytic nucleophile involved in DNA phosphate bond cleavage and rejoining during recombination. TnpR is a classic serine (S)-site-specific recombinase (e.g., reference 6); Tnpl is a tyrosine (Y) recombinase (7) (see reference 1); and TnpS+TnpT is a heteromeric resolvase combining a tyrosine recombinase, TnpS, and a divergently expressed helper protein, TnpT, with no apparent homology to other proteins (8, 9). The tnpR gene can be in either the same orientation or opposite orientation as tnpA. In the former case, the res site lies upstream of tnpR and, in the latter case, between the divergent tnpR and tnpA genes. For relatives encoding TnpS and TnpT, the corresponding genes are divergent and the res (rst) site lies between tnpS and tnpT. Examples of these architectures are shown in Fig. 1. Each res includes a number of short DNA subsequences which are recognized and bound by the cognate resolvases. These are different for different resolvase systems and called res (for resolution site), IRS (10) or irs (for internal recombination site [11]), or rst (for resolution site tnpS tnpT [8]) (see below). res sites that have been analyzed also include promoters that drive both transposase and resolvase expression (see references 1, 10, and 12). Indeed, TnpR from Tn3 itself was originally named for its ability to repress transposase expression by binding to these sites (13, 14).

The diversity of these Tns resides in the variety of other mobile elements that have been incorporated into their structures such as IS and integrons, as well as other Tn3 family members (see reference 1) and of their passenger genes. The most notorious of these passenger genes are those for antibiotic and heavy metal resistance, although other genes involved in virulence functions for both animals and plants (e.g., Fig. 1) or in organic catabolite degradation also form part of the Tn3 family passenger gene arsenal.

While studying *Xanthomonas citri*, a principal pathogen of citrus trees and an important economic problem (e.g., reference 15), we had identified a number of Tn*3* family structures in pXac64, a conjugative plasmid carrying a variety of pathogenicity and virulence genes (Fig. 2) (2, 16). An interesting observation was that one of the Tn*3*-related transposons, Tn*Xc4*, carries a toxin-antitoxin (TA) system belonging to the type II TA class (17).

Type II TA systems are generally composed of 2 proteins: a stable toxin and a labile antitoxin that binds the toxin and inhibits its lethal activity (see reference 18). The antitoxin includes a DNA binding domain involved in promoter binding and negative regulation of TA expression. They are involved in plasmid maintenance in growing bacterial populations by a mechanism known as postsegregational killing. Upon plasmid loss, degradation of the labile antitoxin liberates the toxin from the inactive complex, which in turn is free to interact with its target and cause cell death. Recently, the Eva Top laboratory (19), while studying plasmid maintenance, observed that a relatively unstable plasmid, pMS0506, could be stabilized by transposition of a 7.1-kb Tn3-related transposon, Tn6231, from the non-self-transmissible plasmid pR28 (20) indigenous to *Pseudomonas moraviensis*. Further analysis revealed that Tn6231 (which

is reported to be 99% identical to Tn4662 [19]) also carried a type II TA gene pair that presumably stabilized the target plasmid.

Although the presence of TA systems in Tn3 family transposons had been noted previously (21, 22) (see reference 1), neither the function of these systems within the Tn3 family nor their genetic context has been examined. These initial observations prompted us to investigate whether TA systems have been acquired by other Tn3 family members in a similar way and to examine their possible involvement in Tn behavior.

RESULTS

Identification of TA gene pairs in Tn3 family members. As a first step, we undertook a detailed annotation of available Tn3 family members in the ISfinder database (23) and also those listed in the work of Nicolas et al. (1). We also searched NCBI for previously annotated Tn3 family members (March 2018) and made use of an in-house script which searches for tnpA, tnpR, and TA genes located in proximity to each other (Tn3finder, https://tncentral.proteininformationresource.org/TnFinder.html; Tn3+TA_finder, https://github.com/danillo-alvarenga/tn3-ta_finder) to search complete bacterial genomes in the RefSeg database at NCBI. Of 190 Tn3 family transposons for which relatively complete sequence data (transposase, resolvase, and generally both IRs) were available, 39 carry TA systems (Fig. 3, colored squares, and Table 1; see also Table S1 in the supplemental material). A phylogenetic tree based on similarity between the *tnpA* gene products is shown in Fig. 3. Note that, with minor exceptions, the entire Tn3 library conforms closely to the previously defined Tn3 family subgroups (1). The majority of Tn3 family members encode a TnpR resolvase (Fig. 3, purple circles), although several members of the Tn163 subgroup carry the TnpS+TnpT resolvase (Fig. 3, pink circles). Only three derivatives, Tn5401, TnBth4, and Tn4430, encode the Tnpl resolvase (Fig. 3, salmon circles).

The Tn-carrying TA systems featured examples from all known combinations and orientations of transposase and resolvase genes (Fig. 4). While most cases occurred in Tn3 family members with *tnpR* resolvase genes, examples were also identified in transposons with *tnpS*+*tnpT* (Tn*Posp1_p* and Tn*HdN1.1*) and *tnpl* (Tn5401 and Tn*Bth4*) genes (Fig. 3). Illustrative examples are shown in Fig. 4.

A diversity of TA types. We examined the diversity of the TA modules associated with Tn3 transposons by comparison of the TA protein sequences with the Pfam database using hmmscan from the HMMER suite (24). Candidates with no Pfam match were searched against the PDB_mmCIF70 database (PDB filtered at 70% sequence identity) using HHsearch, a tool for protein remote homology detection based on profile-to-profile comparison (25). In total, 5 toxin families (RelE/ParE, Gp49, PIN_3, PIN, and HEPN) and 6 antitoxin families (ParD, HTH_37, RHH_6, Phd/YefM, AbrB/MazE, and MNT) were identified (Fig. 3, Table 1, and Table S1). All of these toxin families except ParE have been associated with RNase activity, either experimentally or by sequence similarity (26), while ParE inhibits gyrase activity by an unknown molecular mechanism (27). The majority of examples were found in two Tn3 subgroups, Tn3 (2 toxin families; 12 PIN_3 and 2 ParE) and Tn3000 (3 toxin families; 13 ParE, 5 Gp49, and 1 PIN), while 6 members of 5 different toxin families (ParE, Gp49, PIN_3, PIN, and HEPN) were found distributed in the other subgroups (TnPosp1, TnHdN1.1, and TnTsp1 in subgroup Tn4651; TnAmu2 and TnSku1 in Tn5393; and TnSod9 in Tn21). There are 7 different toxin-antitoxin pairs: ParE-ParD (14 instances), ParE-PhD (2 instances), PIN 3-RHH 6 (13 instances), Gp49-HTH_37 (7 instances), PIN-Phd (1 instance), PIN-AbrB (1 instance), and HEPN-MNT (1 instance).

In general, the TA genes are arranged with the antitoxin located upstream of the toxin gene. However, TA systems in reverse order in which the toxin gene precedes that of the antitoxin have been described in the literature (18). Among the 39 TA systems associated with the Tn3 family transposons, five members of the Tn3000 subgroup (Table 1 and Fig. 3) carried TA systems in which the toxin gene precedes that of the antitoxin. These systems are composed of a Gp49 (PF05973)-type toxin (T) of the

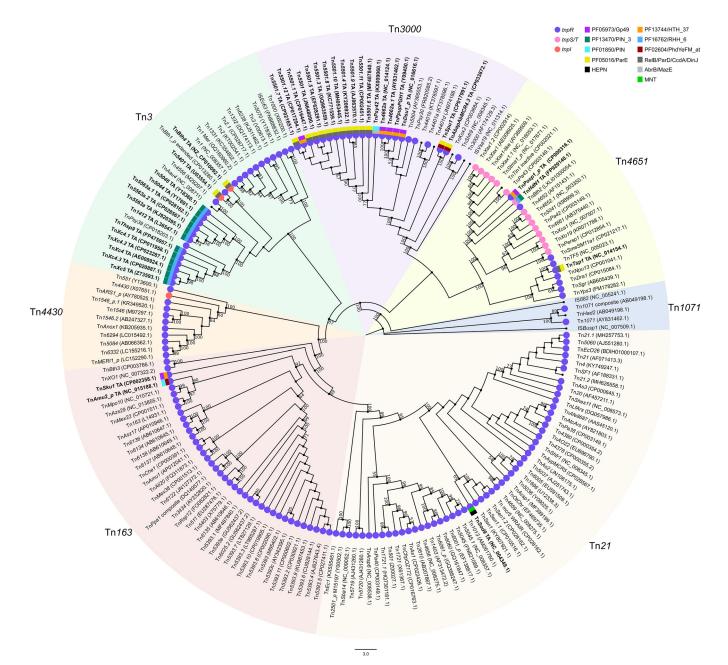


FIG 3 A phylogenetic tree of 190 Tn3 family members based on their TnpA sequences. We extracted Tn3 family members from the lSfinder database which served to generate the subgroups defined in the work of Nicolas et al. (1). Many others were drawn from the literature and have been given official names (Tn followed by digits, e.g., Tn1234; https://transposon.lstmed.ac.uk/tn-registry), while others were identified using Tn3_finder software (TnCentral, https://tncentral.proteininformationresource.org/TnFinder.html) and given temporary names. Each is associated with its GenBank accession number; the GenBank file contains either the extracted transposon or the DNA sequence from which it was extracted (e.g., DNA fragment, plasmid, or chromosome). Numbers above the lines of each clade indicate the maximum likelihood bootstrap values. The subgroups adhere closely to those defined by Nicolas et al. (1) with some minor variations resulting from the significantly larger Tn sample. The majority of members carry *tnpR*, serine resolvases (purple circles). Those that include *tnpl or tnpT/tnpS* are indicated by salmon and pink circles, respectively. The TA gene pairs are indicated by colored squares. Note that Tn5501.5 carries a mutation which truncates its toxin gene, leaving the antitoxin intact. The outer squares represent the toxin, and the inner squares represent the antitoxin. The five toxin types are Gp49 (PF05973), purple; PIN_3 (PF13470), dark green; PIN (PF01850), bright blue; ParE (PF05016), yellow; and HEPN, black. The antitoxins are HTH_37 (PF13744), orange; RHH_6 (PF16762), blue; PhdYeFM_at (PF02604), magenta; RelB/ParD/CcdA/DinJ, dark gray; AbrB/MazE, light gray; and MNT, bright green. The corresponding Tn names and accession numbers are highlighted in bold for clarity. Note that the branches have been extended for clarity.

RelE/ParE superfamily and an HTH_37 (PF13744)-type antitoxin (A) of the HigA superfamily. These all have the configuration <A <T tnpR> tnpA> (where the arrowheads point in the direction of transcription) (18, 28). A similar situation is found in the unrelated Tn4651 subgroup member TnPosp1_p, which has the configuration T> A> tnpR> tnpA>.

du
Ē
and
ase
<u>></u>
reso
the
to
respect
with
operon
ΤA
the -
-jo
ion
s and configurat
and
systems
ΤA
family
LE 1 Tn3
TABLE 1

TABLE	1 Tn3 family	' TA systems a	TABLE 1 Tn3 family TA systems and configuration of the TA operon with respect to the resolvase and TnpA genes	on of the TA	operon with r	espect to the	e resolvase an	d TnpA genes		
								TA transposition		
Toxin family	Cross- reference ^a	Toxin superfamily	Antitoxin	Cross- reference ^a	Antitoxin superfamily	Resolvase ^b	TnpA subaroun ^c	module configuration ^d	Transposon name (acression no)e	Nhŕ
Dare		Pale / DarF			PalB/DarD	B	Thisnon	<pre>/T / A true true true</pre>	The 5501 (101648000 1) The 5501 1 (CD016447 1)	2 -
						2			Thosof (Moreosof), Thosof, Cronomy, Cronomy, The Construction (KY206932.1), Thosof.5* (EF628291.1), Thosof.6 (MF487840.1), Thosof.7 (EF628291.1), Croo21651.1), Thosof.8 (KC771559), Thosof.9 (AJ863570.1), Thosof.10 (MH053445), Thosof.11 (CP002451)	=
ParE	PF05016	RelE/ParE	ParD	4Q2U_C	RelB/ParD	R	Tn4651	<t <a="" tnpr=""> tnpA></t>	Tn <i>Tsp1</i> (NC_014154)	-
ParE	PF05016	RelE/ParE	ParD-noDBD	4Q2U_C	ParD-noDBD	_	Tn3	<t !res!="" <a="" tnpl=""> tnpA></t>	TnBth4 (NZ_CP010092.1), Tn5401 (U03554.1)	2
ParE	PF05016	RelE/ParE	Phd/YeFM	PF02604	Phd/YeFM	R	Tn <i>3000</i>	<tnpr a=""> T> tnpA></tnpr>	TnSpu1 (CP017991.1), TnAbapMCR4.3 (CP033872)	2
PIN_3	PF13470	PIN	RHH_6	PF16762	VapB	В	Tn3	<tnpr a=""> T> tnpA></tnpr>	Tn1412 (L36547), Tn5044 (Y17691.1), Tn5046	12
									(Y18360.1), Tn <i>5563a</i> (KJ920395.1), Tn <i>5563a.1</i>	
									(CP028162), Tn5563a.2 (CP028567), TnThsp9	
									(FP4/595/.1), INXC4 (CP009039.1), INXC5 (7735603) T5 V24 1 (CD011058.1) T5 V24 2	
									(2/3593), INX64.7 (CPULL938.1), INX64.2 (CP023287). TnX64.3 (CP020887.1)	
PIN_3	PF13470	PIN	RHH_6	PF16762	VapB	S/T	Tn4651	<tnpt tnps=""> A> T> tnpA></tnpt>	TnHdN1 (FP929140.1)	-
Gp49	PF05973	RelE/ParE	НТН_37	PF13744	HigA	В	Tn <i>3000</i>	<a <t="" tnpr=""> tnpA>	Tn4662a (NC_014124.1), Tn4662a.1 (AY831462.1),	5
									TnDsu1 (NC_016616.1), TnPpupPGH1	
						c			(YU945U.1), 1N55U1.12 (CPU1/294.1)	,
Gp49	PF059/3	Kele/Pare	HIH_3/	PF13744	HIGA	Y	1 c 0 f u 1	I> A> tnpK> tnpA>	1nPosp1 (CP000316.1)	
Gp49	PF05973	RelE/ParE	НТН	5TN0_A	HigA	В	Tn <i>163</i>	T> A> <tnpr tnpa=""></tnpr>	TnSku1 (CP002358.1)	
PIN	PF01850	PIN	Phd/YeFM	PF02604	Phd/YeFM	Ж	Tn <i>163</i>	<t <a="" <tnpr="" <x=""> tnpA></t>	TnAmu2 (NC_015188.1)	
PIN	PF01850	PIN	AbrB	2MRN_A	AbrB/MazE	В	Tn <i>3000</i>	<t <a="" tnpr=""> tnpA></t>	TnPsy42 (KX009060.1)	
HEPN	5YEP_B	HEPN	Mnt	5YEP_A	Mnt	R	Tn <i>21</i>	<tnpr<td></tnpr<td>	TnSod9 (NC_004349)	1
⁶ Pfam o	^a Pfam or PDB identifier.									

^bAssociated resolvase type. ^cAssociated Tn3 family subgroup. ^dTA module arrangement with respect to *tnpR* and *tnpA* (arrows represent the direction of gene expression). I*res*l indicates the location of the *res* sites. ^eTn5501.5^{*} carries a mutation which truncates its toxin gene, the antitoxin is intact. ^fNb, number of transposons associated with the TA type.

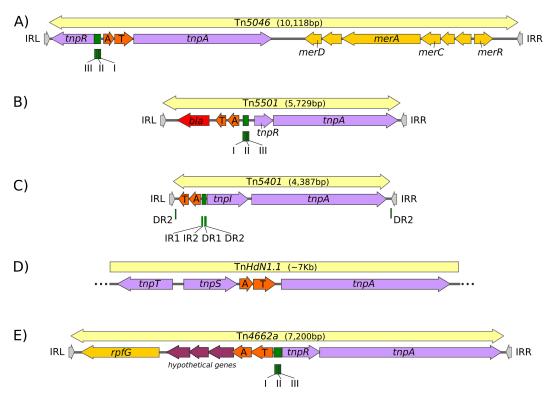
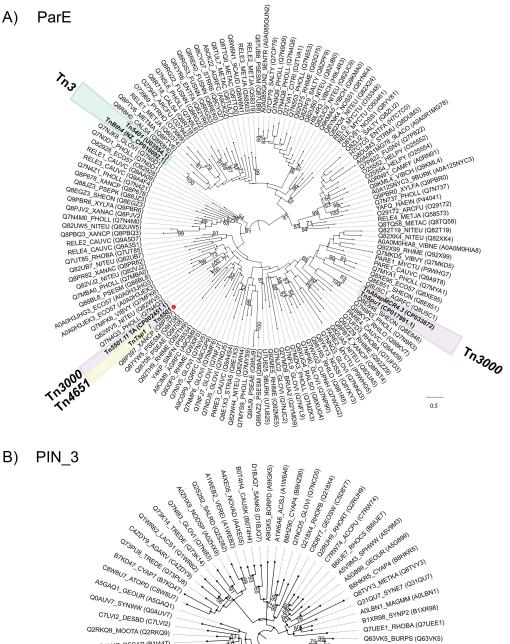


FIG 4 Examples of TA gene pair locations in a variety of Tn3 family transposons. The symbols are the same as those described in Fig. 1 and 2 with toxin-antitoxin gene pairs shown in bright orange and genes of unknown function shown in magenta. (A) Tn5046, accession number Y18360.1, has an unusual structure with the *mer* passenger genes located downstream from the transposase gene. It carries a typical *tnpR* cognate *res* site. (B) Tn5501.6, accession number MF487840.1, carries a *bla*_{NPS-1} passenger genes apart from the TA gene pair. It carries a typical *tnpR* cognate *res* site. (C) Tn5401, accession number U03554.1. There are no known passenger genes apart from the TA gene pair. It carries a typical *tnpl* cognate *irs* site with, in addition, a copy of the DR2 Tnpl binding site close to each end. (D) TnHdN1.1, accession number FP929140.1, is treated as a partial copy since the ends of the transposon have not yet been identified. Consequently, no passenger genes except the TA gene pair have been identified. However, TnHdN1.1 carries a typical *tnpT/tpnS* resolvase pair, and the toxin-antitoxin genes are located between the resolvase and the *tnpA* gene. The *rst* site has not yet been defined, but for other transposons with a TnpS/T/*rst* resolution system, it is located between the divergent *tnpS* and *tnpT* genes (8). (E) Tn4662a, accession number NC_014124.1. This transposon carries a potential metal-dependent phosphohydrolase passenger gene and a *tnpR* cognate *res* site. In this case, in contrast to the vast majority of cases, the toxin gene is located upstream of the antitoxin gene.

Two additional members of the Tn3 subgroup, Tn*5401* and Tn*Bth4*, both with the configuration *tnpl> tnpA>*, carried a different TA system, a ParE toxin (Pfam: PF05016) and a ParD antitoxin, which appears to lack the DNA-binding domain. Among the TA gene pairs found in members of the Tn*3000* transposon subgroup, a majority of toxins are of the ParE (Pfam: PF05016) type while the potential antitoxins have no Pfam match. Results from HHpred indicate that these are antitoxins have an RHH fold similar to that of the classical ParD antitoxin (PDB accession no. 4Q2U_C). It should be noted that this subgroup of Tns (Tn*5501* and its derivatives) are highly related and differ mainly by the passenger genes they carry. With the exception of Tn*5501.12* (discussed below), all Tn*5501* derivatives have identical or nearly identical toxin and antitoxin protein sequences. They were all identified from the nonredundant NCBI nucleotide database using Tn*5501* as query sequence. Interestingly, a single member of the Tn*4651* subgroup, Tn*Tsp1*, also encodes a nearly identical ParE (identical protein sequence)-ParD (2 amino acid substitutions) TA pair.

Acquisition and exchange of TA modules. A relevant question is whether these TA modules (Table 1) were acquired once or multiple times during evolution. This question was addressed by phylogenetic analyses of Tn3-associated toxins assigned to the same Pfam group, along with the seed sequences used to build the Pfam hidden Markov model (HMM) (Fig. 5). If toxins share a recent common ancestor, there are two possible explanations. In cases where the TA module is found in related transposons (with



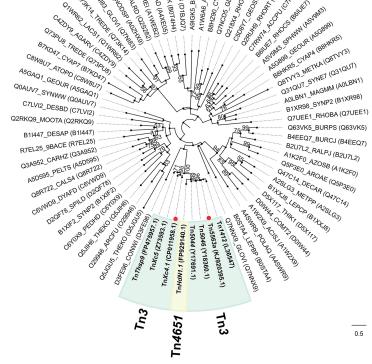
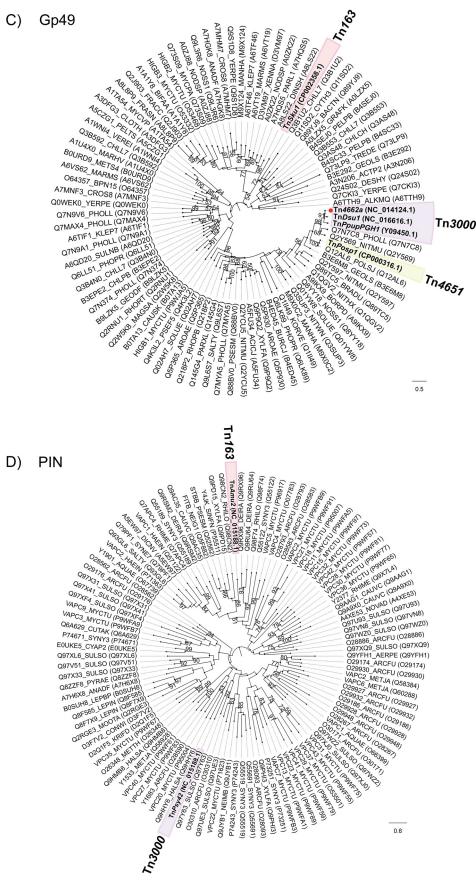


FIG 5 (Continued)





similar *tnpA* and/or resolvase genes), it is likely that it was first acquired by a transposon that subsequently diverged. Alternatively, for transposons which are generally not related (different *tnpA* family, different resolvase) but which harbor TA modules that are similar at the DNA level, it is likely that the TA module was acquired by recombination with another transposon. Tn3 toxins sharing their most common ancestor with non-Tn3 toxins are likely to have been acquired independently. The different TA modules identified and the Tn3 family members in which they are found are described below.

(i) **ParE.** There are 16 *parE* toxin genes in our collection; 14 are paired with a *parD* antitoxin gene and two are paired with a *phd/yefM* antitoxin gene (Table 1; Fig. 5A). The 14 *parE-parD* modules are found in three transposon subfamilies, Tn3000 (11 examples), Tn3 (two examples), and Tn4651 (one example), suggesting that the *parD-parE* operon has been acquired three independent times in this collection (Fig. 5A).

The first acquisition event concerns the 11 *parE-parD* Tn3000 subgroup Tns, which are all Tn5501 relatives and have identical or nearly identical toxin protein sequences (Fig. 5A) and significant similarity at the DNA level within the TA modules.

One Tn5501 derivative, Tn5501.12, is an exception since it carries a *gp49-HTH* TA module and is described further below (Fig. S1B and D).

The *parE-parD* module located in Tn*Tsp1* (Tn*4651* subfamily) is identical at the protein level and nearly identical at DNA level (95%) with the 10 *parE-parD* modules of the set of Tn*5501* derivatives (Fig. S1D), indicating that the *parD-parE* operon might have been acquired via recombination between a Tn*5501* relative which contributes the DNA segment to the left and an unidentified transposon which contributed the DNA segment to the right to generate Tn*Tsp1*. The recombination point is likely to be at, or close to, the *res* site, where the homology between Tn*Tsp1 res* subsite I and Tn*5501 res* subsite I breaks down (Fig. 6A). Resolvase-mediated recombination probably occurs at the dAdT dinucleotide indicated in red in Fig. 6A (see references 29 and 30).

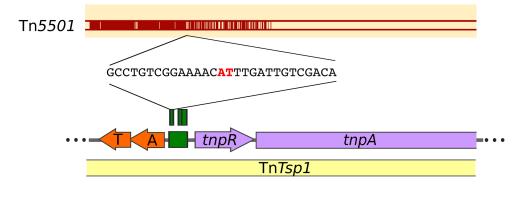
The second event is illustrated by Tn*AbapMCR4.3* (31) and Tn*Spu1* (Tn3000 subgroup) as indicated by the phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 5A). Moreover, they are coupled with a different antitoxin, from the Phd/YefM family (Table 1 and Fig. 3). Identity between the transposition modules of these two transposons is high in (including the TA genes), but they differ in their passenger genes.

The third event is represented by two examples, Tn*Bth4* and Tn*5401* (83% identity at the nucleotide level) in the Tn*3* subgroup (Fig. 5A). Both carry a Tnpl resolvase, and they do not have significant similarity with any of the other transposons carrying the *parE-parD* TA module (Fig. S1D).

(ii) PIN_3. The PIN_3 toxin domain is represented 13 times (8 unique sequences) in our collection. This domain is associated with an RH_6 antitoxin. Twelve Tns having this module are in the Tn3 subgroup, and one belongs to the Tn4651 subgroup (TnHdN1.1). Interestingly, although TnHdN1.1 does not share significant sequence similarity at the nucleotide level with the Tn3 subgroup Tns featuring the same TA module, at the protein level both toxin and antitoxin from TnHdN1.1 share ~80% sequence identity with those in the Tn3 subgroup (Fig. 5B). Phylogenetic analyses of all 13 PIN_3 toxins with the seed proteins used to build the corresponding PFAM family suggest that these

FIG 5 Phylogenetic trees of toxin genes. The phylogenetic history of the transposon-associated toxins reconstructed along the corresponding relative seed proteins downloaded from the Pfam database. The position of transposon-associated toxins is indicated by an outlined colored background indicating the subgroup to which they belong, as in Fig. 3. Red dots indicate the tips where one toxin sequence was chosen as representative of a set of identical toxins (i.e., there are several Tn examples in the collection). (A) ParE. The phylogeny of the ParE toxins suggests that ParE has been recruited 3 times by Tn3s: twice by the Tn3000 subgroup and once by the Tn3 subgroup. Toxin sequences of Tn5501.1, Tn5501.2, Tn5501.3, Tn5501.4, Tn5501.6, Tn5501.7, Tn5501.8, Tn5501.9, Tn5501.10, and Tn7sp1 are identical, which indicates that the last acquired the TA module by recombination with a Tn5501 ancestor. (B) PIN_3. The phylogeny of PIN_3 toxins suggests that this gene has been recruited once by the Tn3 subgroup and further recombined into an ancestor of TnHdN1.1. Toxin sequences of TnXc4.2, and TnXc4.3 are identical. Toxin sequences of Tn5563.3, Tn5563.3, Tn5563.3, Tn5563.3.1, and Tn5563.2 are identical. (C) Gp49. The phylogrup of Gp49 toxins indicates that these have been recruited in 3 different events by the Tn3s: by the Tn33 subgroup, the Tn3000 subgroup, and the Tn4651 subgroup. Toxin sequences of Tn462*a* and Tn5501.12 are identical. (D) PIN. The phylogeny of the PIN toxin suggests that this toxin has been recruited in two separate events.

A) res site I Tn5501 Acagaacgctgcaaggcggggcgtgcgctaggccaaggcc**tgtcggaaaacatttgtttttcgaca**gg<u>c</u>cttcaacggtcctctgc Tn7sp1 Acagaacgctgcaaggcgggggggggggcgtaggccaaggccaaggcc**tgtcggaaaacatttgattgtcgaca**gg<u>t</u>cttcaac<u>agc</u>cctctgc



B)

res site l

Tn <i>5501</i>	ACAGAACGCTGCAAGGCGGGCGTGCGCTAGGCCAAGG-CC TGTCGGAAAAC<mark>AT</mark>TTGTTTTTCGACA GGCC TT CA A C G G T CC T CTG C
Tn <i>5501.12</i>	CTGTTCAGGTAATGATGTAAACGCGGCAACCTCAAGGAGGTGTCGTAAAACATTTGTTTTTCGACAGGCCTTCAACGGTCCTCTGC
Tn4662	CTGTTCAGGT AATG A T G TAAA CG C G GCAACCTCAAGGAGG TGTCGTAAAAC <mark>AT</mark> TTGTTTTGCGACAGGCTGTCAGCCGCCGCTGT

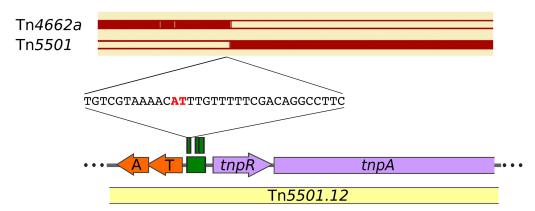


FIG 6 Intertransposon recombination at the *res* site exchanges TA modules. The symbols are the same as defined in Fig. 1, 2, and 4. (A) Comparison of Tn*5501* accession no. JN648090.1 and Tn*Tsp1* accession no. NC_014154 showing a possible recombination point between the two Tns where exchange at the TA gene pair may have occurred. The bottom section shows the region of Tn*Tsp1*, including the TA gene module (orange), the *res* site (green), and *tnpR* and part of *tnpA* (purple). The top segment shows the region of Tn*Tsp1*. Below is shown a DNA sequence alignment (magenta) with the equivalent region of Tn*5501*. The two transposons have similar DNA sequences to the left of *res* site (J res of sequence identity is reduced in *tnpR* and is insignificant in *tnpA*. The *res* site I sequences (green) are shown between the two panels, and the AT dinucleotide at which recombination probably occurs is indicated in red. Sequence nonidentities are underlined. The two sequences are identical up to the probable recombination site and show some diversity to its right. (B) The region of Tn*5501.12* (accession no. CP017294.1) showing the 5' end of the *tnpA* gene, the *tnpR* gene, a *res* site typical of the *tnpR* res sites, and toxin-antitoxin gene pair (note that the toxin gene is upstream of the antitoxin gene [Table 1]). The horizontal magenta lines at the bottom show the alignment of Tn*5501.12* with Tn*5501* (accession no. JN648090.1) and Tn*4662a* (NC_014124.1). The right half of Tn*5501* is clearly highly homologous to the right side of Tn*5501.12* whereas the left side of Tn*462a* (NC_014124.1). The right half of Tn*5501* is clearly highly homologous to the regions of nucleotide identity. This suggests a scenario in which Tn*5501.12* was generated by recombination at *res* site I between transposons similar to Tn*5501* and Tn*4662a*.

proteins were recruited by a transposon in a single event and that an ancestor of Tn*HdN1.1* acquired the TA module via recombination (Fig. 5B).

(iii) **Gp49.** Seven TA modules are composed of a Gp49 toxin and an HTH antitoxin. Phylogenetic analyses suggest that this TA module has been recruited on three occasions (Fig. 5C).

The first was acquisition by the Tn3000 subgroup transposons TnDsu1, TnPupPGH1, Tn4662a, Tn4662a.1, and Tn5501.12. Tn5501.12 is the only relative of Tn5501 to have this TA module. Sequence comparisons suggest that Tn5501.12 resulted from exchange of the entire left end of transposon Tn5501 with a transposon very similar to Tn4662a (Fig. 6B) carrying a Gp49/HTH_37 TA module. The DNA sequence in this region indicates that recombination between the two transposons occurred at a sequence which resembles res site I containing the dinucleotide (in red) at which recombination takes place during the cointegrate resolution step of transposition (29, 30). This mechanism is similar to that proposed for acquisition of the parE-parD module by the Tn4651 subgroup Tn TnTsp1 as described above. The second acquisition concerns TnPosp1 from the Tn4651 subgroup. The TnPosp1 toxin is \sim 60% identical at the protein level to those of the Tn3000 subgroup, but they are not similar at the DNA level (Fig. S1B). The phylogenetic reconstruction (Fig. 5C) indicates that their most recent common ancestor includes two toxins that are not associated with a Tn3 transposon, thus suggesting that TnPosp1 recruited the TA module independently. The third acquisition event is illustrated by TnSku1 (Tn163 subgroup), whose toxin does not share a recent ancestor with those of the Tn3000 group or with the TnPosp1 toxin (Fig. 5C).

(iv) PIN. There are two transposons in the set with a PIN toxin, which appear phylogenetically distant (Fig. 5D), suggesting these represent two independent acquisitions. Furthermore, Tn*Amu2* (Tn4430 subgroup) carries a Phd/YefM antitoxin and Tn*Psy42* has an AbrB/MazE antitoxin.

(v) **HEPN.** Finally, Tn*Sod9* (Tn*21* subgroup), located in the *Shewanella oneidensis* MR-1 megaplasmid, includes an HEPN (<u>higher eukaryotes and prokaryote nucleotidebinding</u>)-type toxin and an MNT (<u>minimal nucleotidyltransferase</u>) antitoxin as identified by their similarity to another toxin and antitoxin pair (HHpred hit PDB identifier 5YEP) encoded in the chromosome of the same strain (32).

Additional indications of independent TA acquisitions are evidenced by Tn3 derivatives in which the order of genes in the TA module is reversed, i.e., the toxin gene being located upstream of the antitoxin gene. This arrangement is found predominantly in members of the Tn3000 subgroup (Tn4662a, Tn5501.12, TnDsu1_p, TnPpupPGH1, and Tn4662a.1), although single examples are observed in the Tn4651 (TnPosp1_p), Tn21 (TnSod9), and Tn163 (Tn5393.1) subgroups.

The Tn3 family-associated TA passenger gene systems are located in a unique position. In most cases, the TA gene pairs are embedded within the transposition module comprising transposase and resolvase genes and the *res* site. They are positioned very close to the *res* sites (Fig. 7). This is in sharp contrast to all other Tn3 family passenger genes, which are generally located away from the resolution and transposon genes and, where known, have often been acquired as integron cassettes or by insertion of other transposons (1). Indeed, several TA-carrying transposons represent closely related derivatives with identical transposase, resolvase, and TA modules but contain different sets of passenger genes (e.g., Tn5501.1 and derivatives 5501.2, 5501.3, 5501.4, etc.).

In the majority of cases (33–37), the Tn3-associated TA gene pairs are located directly upstream of the resolvase genes (*tnpR* or *tnpl*) (Fig. S2). There are only three exceptions to this. The first is the single example of a derivative with the TnpS+TnpT resolvase, TnHdN1.1 (Fig. 3), where the TA genes are located between the resolvase *tnpS* and transposase genes (Fig. 7C). In the second, Tn*Sku1* (not shown), the TA genes are located downstream of and transcribed toward *tnpR*, and in the third, a partial transposon copy, Tn*Amu2*_p (not shown), there is a short open reading frame (ORF) of unknown function between the divergently transcribed antitoxin and *tnpR* genes.

Regulation of TA gene expression. Although it is possible that the TA genes are expressed from their own promoter if present, their position might permit expression from native Tn promoter elements. In Tn3, which has been examined in detail, transposase and resolvase gene expression is controlled by promoters found within the *res* site located between the two divergent genes (Fig. 7A, i). Resolvase binding to these

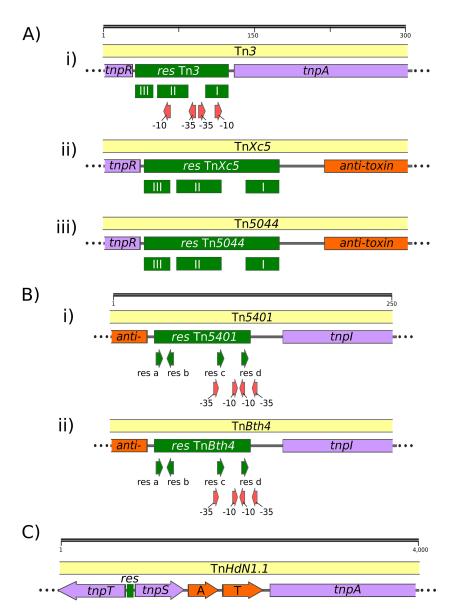


FIG 7 Relationship between the res site, known promoter elements, and TA gene pairs. The symbols are identical to those in Fig. 1, 2, 4, and 6. In addition, potential or proven -10 and -35 promoter elements are shown as red arrows. (A) res sites (green) with a structure related to Tn3. A 300-bp sequence including flanking DNA is shown. tnpR (purple) is expressed to the left, and tnpA (purple, Tn3) and the toxin-antitoxin genes (orange, TnXc5 and Tn5044) are to the right. In this type of organization, the res III subsite is proximal to tnpR. Recombination leading to cointegrate resolution occurs at a TA dinucleotide within res site I. (i) Tn3 (V00613) res site. Taken from the data of Heffron et al. (13). The res site was defined by footprinting using TnpR and by functional deletion analysis. The promoter elements are predicted. (ii) TnXc5 res site (Z73593), also called ISXc5. Taken from the data of Liu et al. (58). The res site was defined by footprinting with TnpR. (iii) Tn5044 (Y17691.1) (59-61). The res site was defined by comparison with TnXc5 (ISXc5) and as described here. (B) res site organization for transposons carrying res sites for the Tnpl resolvase. (i) Tn5401 (U03554.1) res site. This was identified by footprinting with Tnpl and by deletion analysis (5, 12). (ii) TnBth4 res site (NZ_CP010092.1). TnBth4 is similar but not identical to Tn5401 over the res site but varies considerably in the tnpl and tnpA genes. It maintains the promoter elements (red arrows) identified in Tn5401. tnpl and tnpA are expressed to the right. The toxin-antitoxin pair is expressed to the left. (C) Gene organization for transposon TnHdN1.1 carrying the tnpS/T resolvase.

sites autoregulates both *tnpR* and *tnpA* expression (13, 14, 38, 39). The location of the TA genes in proximity to the *res* sites raises the possibility that their expression is also controlled by these promoters.

Few of the *res* sites in the collection of TA-associated Tn3 family members have been defined either experimentally or by sequence comparison. We therefore attempted to

identify potential *res* sites using as a guide the canonical *res*-site organization schematised in the work of Nicolas et al. (1), a *res* site library (kindly provided by Martin Boocock), and RSAT tools (Regulatory Sequence Analysis Tools; http://rsat.sb-roscoff.fr/) (see Materials and Methods). This analysis resulted in identification of 27 potential *res* sites (Table S2). Their organization is shown in Fig. S2. For transposons with a TnpR resolvase, it is striking that in every single case, the TA genes are located just downstream from *res* site I, whereas *tnpR* is located next to *res* site III. In transposons with divergent *tnpA* and *tnpR* genes and *res* sites are organized similarly to those of Tn3, which does not carry TA (Fig. 7A, i), except that *tnpA* is separated from *res* by the intervening TA genes. This organization is also similar in Tn3 members in which *tnpA* is downstream of *tnpR* and in the same orientation (e.g., Tn5501 and TnTsp1 [Fig. S2]).

Promoters have been defined in the *res* (*irs*) site of the *tnpl*-carrying Tn5401 (5, 12), and *tnpl* and *tnpA* expression is modulated by Tnpl binding to the *res* site (12) (Fig. 7B, i). The other *tnpl*-carrying transposon with TA genes, Tn*Bth4* (Fig. 7B, ii), has an identical *res* site, and therefore expression is probably regulated in the same way. Again, the potential promoters are pertinently located for driving expression of the TA module.

Finally, transposon TnHdN1.1 (Fig. 7C) is the only example in our collection of a tnpS+tnpT transposon carrying a TA module. The *res* site and relevant promoter elements for the divergently expressed tnpS+tnpT have been identified between the tnpS and tnpT genes in transposon Tn4651 (8, 9). In TnHdN1.1, the TA gene pair is located to the right of tnpS, between tnpS and tnpA, and all three genes are oriented in the same direction. Although the exact regulatory arrangement remains to be determined, it seems possible that the promoters in the *res* site regulate expression of the TA gene pair.

These arrangements raise the possibility that some TA gene expression might occur from a *res* promoter and be subject to control by resolvase binding. On the other hand, if the TA genes do carry their own promoters, then these might regulate downstream transposon genes such as *tnpA*. Further experimental studies are necessary to examine the detailed regulation of toxin, antitoxin, and other transposon genes.

DISCUSSION

As part of our efforts to build a fully annotated transposon database (TnCentral, https://tncentral.proteininformationresource.org/), we identified and analyzed 190 Tn3 family transposons (Fig. 3; see also Table S1 in the supplemental material) and have observed that 39 of these include type II TA passenger genes from several distinct families (Fig. 3 and Table 1): 5 toxin families (ParE, Gp49, PIN_3, PIN, and HEPN) and 6 antitoxin families (DinJ, HTH 37, RHH 6, Phd/YefM, AbrB/MazE, and MNT). Several lines of evidence suggest that there have been multiple independent TA acquisition events, namely, (i) the transposons in our collection feature different families of toxin and antitoxin pairs (Table 1), (ii) in some cases the TA gene order is inverted, and (iii) we observed proteins with no significant sequence similarity within the same toxin/ antitoxin family but predicted to share diverged TA gene pairs. Excluding those cases likely to have arisen from intermolecular Tn recombination (Fig. 6), and TnHdN1.1, which also appears to have acquired the TA via recombination, as indicated by the toxin tree (Fig. 5B), the most parsimonious interpretation of these observations is that the modules were acquired in 10 separate events. These include three for parE, two for PIN3, three for *qp49*, two for PIN, and one for HEPN (Table 1). At present, it is unclear how such multiple acquisitions have occurred at the molecular level.

In contrast to other passenger genes in Tn3 family transposons, the TA genes are located at an unusual position within the transposon. They are close to the DNA resolution site (*res, irs,* and *rst*) (Fig. 4), and more precisely for those with TnpR resolvases, they consistently neighbor *res* site I (Fig. S2), a DNA sequence which not only probably includes part of a promoter but is the point at which recombination occurs resulting in cointegrate resolution. For those transposons in which the *tnpR* and *tnpA* genes are divergently orientated (Fig. 4A, Fig. 6, and Fig. S2), the TA module is

located between the two genes and expressed in the same direction as *tnpA*. For those in which *tnpR* precedes *tnpA* in the same orientation, the TA module lies upstream from *tnpR* and is oriented in the opposite orientation (e.g., Table 1, Fig. 7, and Fig. S2). A similar arrangement occurs for the two examples located on *tnpl*-carrying transposons. Only a single example of a *tnpS*+*tnpT*-carrying transposon with the TA module was identified, and here, the TA module is located between the resolvase gene pair and the transposase gene.

This location, close to the key enzymes involved in transposition, suggests that the role of the TA pair might not simply be to provide a general addiction system that stabilizes the host replicon, generally a plasmid, carrying the transposon. It seems possible that they play a more intimate role in stabilizing the associated transposon itself. We note, however, that there are two exceptions to this close association of TA genes with the Tn *res* site. For Tn*Sku1*, the TA genes are located downstream of and expressed toward *tnpR*, while in the partial copy, Tn*Amu2*_p, there is a short ORF between the divergently transcribed antitoxin and *tnpR* genes. This does not appear to be related to the 3-component toxin-antitoxin-chaperone (TAC) systems (33).

Interestingly, type II TA expression, like that of *tnpA* and *tnpR*, is tightly regulated at the transcriptional level. Where analyzed, the toxin-antitoxin complex binds to palindromic sequences located in the operon promoter via the antitoxin DNA-binding domain and acts as a negative transcriptional regulator. This regulation depends critically on the relative levels of toxin and antitoxin in a process known as conditional cooperativity, a common mechanism of transcriptional regulation of prokaryotic type II toxin-antitoxin operons in which, at low toxin/antitoxin ratios, the toxin acts as a corepressor together with the antitoxin. At higher ratios, the toxin behaves as a derepressor. It will be important to determine whether the Tn-associated TA genes include their indigenous promoters (18, 34).

In the case of Tn4631 (19), which is 99% identical to Tn4662 from plasmid pDK2 (35), the transposon clearly provides a level of stabilization of the host plasmid. This implies that TA expression occurs in the absence of transposition. There are a number of ways in which this could take place (Fig. 8). Expression could occur from a resident TA promoter (Fig. 8A) if present. However, TA expression might be expected to lead to expression of the downstream *tnpA* gene by readthrough transcription. Alternatively, in the absence of a TA promoter, TA expression could occur stochastically from the *res* promoter (Fig. 8B). However, this does not rule out the possibility that TA expression is regulated at two levels with a low-level "maintenance" expression, resulting in the plasmid stabilization properties described by Loftie-Eaton et al. (19) together with additional expression linked to derepression of the *tnpA* (and *tnpR*) promoters that must occur during the transposition process (Fig. 8C).

Indeed, regulation of *tnpR* and *tnpA* by TnpR is a mechanism allowing a burst of TnpA (and TnpR) synthesis, transitorily promoting transposition as the transposon invades a new host. Subsequent repression by newly synthesized TnpR would reduce transposition activity, reinstalling homeostasis once the transposon has been established, a process similar to zygotic induction (36) or plasmid transfer derepression as originally observed for Coll (37) and subsequently for R100 (40) and R1 (41). An alternative but nonexclusive explanation stems from the observation that the Tn6231 TnpR, in addition to the neighboring TA system, enhances plasmid stability (19). Resolvase systems are known to promote resolution of plasmid dimers (see reference 42), and it was suggested that integration of the TA system into Tn6231 "such that all the transposon genes shared a single promoter region" permits coordinated TA and TnpR expression and may facilitate temporary inhibition of cell division while resolving the multimers, promoting plasmid persistence. In this light, it is interesting that the *ccd* TA system of the *Escherichia coli* F plasmid is in an operon with a resolvase-encoding gene (43, 44).

Expression of the TA module from the *tnpA/tnpR* promoter at the time of the transposition burst could transiently increase invasion efficiency ("addiction") over and above that provided by the endogenous TA regulation system. If the transposon is on a molecule (e.g., a conjugative plasmid) that is unable to replicate vegetatively in the

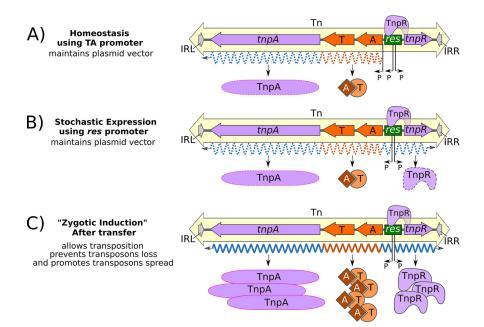


FIG 8 Working model for the integration of TA activity into the transposition process. A hypothetical Tn3 family transposon carrying a TA gene pair is shown. (A) Homeostasis on a plasmid stably established in the cell. Transcription (orange and blue dotted wavy lines) occurs from a putative endogenous TA promoter (P, proximal to TA) and maintains low toxin (T) and antitoxin (A) levels to maintain the vector plasmid in the host cell population. Expression of *tnpA* and *tnpR* from the *res* site promoters is largely repressed by TnpR binding. However, readthrough transcription from the TA gene pair into *tnpA* would be expected to result in a level of background TnpA expression. (B) If the TA genes do not have an endogenous promoter, stochastic expression (blue and orange dotted wavy lines) from the divergent *res* promoters (P, within the *res* site) would result in low TnpA and TnpR levels as well as low-level TA expression. (C) Plasmid conjugation into a recipient cell resulting in derepression of the *res* promoters results in higher levels of *tnpA*, and TA transcription (blue and orange wavy lines) and expression of TA proteins resulting in an increased level of "addiction."

new host, expression of the TA module without transposition to a stable replicon would lead to loss of the transposon and consequent cell death, whereas cells in which transposition had occurred would survive and give rise to a new population in which all cells would contain the Tn. This might be seen as a "take me or die" mechanism, a notion which could be explored experimentally.

Clearly, there remain a number of important questions about the control of TA gene expression that arise from our *in silico* analyses and need to be addressed experimentally. These include whether the TA genes include their own promoters and whether expression is controlled by TA-associated promoter elements or by the resident promoters embedded in the *res* sites. Finally, it is an open question whether resolvase binding to *res* represses TA expression either from proximal TA promoters or from *res*-embedded promoters.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Retrieval of prokaryotic genomes and database building. Nucleotide Fasta files from complete bacterial and archaeal genomes available in the RefSeq database (45, 46) were downloaded on 15 March 2018. Amino acid sequences of type II toxins and their corresponding antitoxins were retrieved from TADB (47, 48), while Tn3 transposases and resolvases were retrieved from the ISfinder database (23) and NCBI GenBank (49). These sequences were compiled into multifasta files to be used as databases in subsequent analyses.

Genomic screening for Tn3 transposons. The complete genomes were compared to the protein sequences from the TADB, ISfinder, and NCBI GenBank databases using tBLASTn 2.2.28 (50) and a custom Python script (Tn3finder available from https://tncentral.proteininformationresource.org/TnFinder.html; Tn3+TA_finder available from https://github.com/danillo-alvarenga/tn3-ta_finder). ORF prediction was performed with Prodigal 2.6.1 (51), and preannotated gbk files were produced with Biopython 1.66 (52). Genomic regions presenting translated protein similarity above 40% and alignment coverage of 60% against Tn3 transposases, resolvases, toxins, and antitoxins within maximum distances of 2,000 bp to each other were retrieved for manual curation.

Manual curation of transposons and accessory genes. Automatic annotations generated by the screening were manually verified in SnapGene Viewer 3.2.1 (GSL Biotech, San Diego, CA). TA gene pairs were evaluated in greater detail by comparisons with the Pfam 32.0 database (53) using hmmscan from the HMMER 3.1b2 suite (24). Remote homologs were searched with HHpred version 3.2.0 (25) against PDB_mmCIF70, a PDB entry filtered at 70% sequence identity. HHpred compares the query HMM to the database of HMMs based on PDB chains and generates query-template alignments. Toxin and antitoxin genes with matches against either Pfam or PDB were associated with the name and identifier (ID) of the Pfam or the PDB ID and known toxins or antitoxins featuring the identified fold (Table 1).

Phylogenetic reconstruction. TnpA protein sequences retrieved from our manually curated data set were aligned with MAFFT 7.309 (54), and their best-fit evolutionary models were predicted with ProTest 3.2.4 (55). A maximum likelihood tree was reconstructed with RaxML 8.2.9 (56) using a bootstrap value of 1,000. The final tree was visualized in FigTree 1.4.4 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree) and edited with Inkscape 0.92.4 (http://www.inkscape.org).

To reconstruct the phylogeny of the toxins, we built a nonredundant toxin set, by removing duplicated sequences. Following the classification of the toxin sequences by comparison with the Pfam database, we downloaded the seed protein sequences for each of the PFAM entries that matched the toxins. Protein sequence alignment of the toxins with the corresponding PFAM seed sequences and phylogenetic reconstruction followed the same procedure described above for TnpA proteins.

Sequence comparison between transposons. Transposons were compared all-against-all using blastn. For transposons having a toxin from the same family, all pairwise sequence similarities between the DNA segments comprising the transposase gene, the resolvase, and the TA were visualized as dot plots using flexidot version 1.06 (57) with 10 as wordsize (default).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available online only. FIG S1, PDF file, 1.4 MB. FIG S2, PDF file, 0.03 MB. TABLE S1, DOCX file, 0.04 MB. TABLE S2, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was primarily funded by the Global Emerging Infections Surveillance (GEIS) and Response System (P0020_18_WR; awarded to Michael Chandler and Patrick McGann).

We thank Martin Boocock for providing information concerning the res sites and Jian Zhang (Protein Information Resource PIR, Georgetown University), Hongzhan Huang (Protein Information Resource PIR, University of Delaware), and Cathy Wu (Protein Information Resource, PIR Georgetown University and University of Delaware) for providing essential expert assistance and both conceptual and practical support. Invaluable contributions were made by Erik Snesrud and Patrick McGann (Walter Reed Army Institute of Research).

REFERENCES

- 1. Nicolas E, Lambin M, Dandoy D, Galloy C, Nguyen N, Oger CA, Hallet B. 2015. The Tn3-family of replicative transposons. Microbiol Spectr 3:MDNA3-0060-2014. https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.MDNA3 -0060-2014
- 2. Ferreira RM, de Oliveira ACP, Moreira LM, Belasque J, Gourbeyre E, Siguier P, Ferro MIT, Ferro JA, Chandler M, Varani AM. 2015. A TALE of transposition: Tn3-like transposons play a major role in the spread of pathogenicity determinants of Xanthomonas citri and other xanthomonads. mBio 6:e02505-14. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.02505-14.
- 3. Mahillon J, Chandler M. 1998. Insertion sequences. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 62:725-774. https://doi.org/10.1128/MMBR.62.3.725-774.1998.
- 4. Shapiro JA. 1979. Molecular model for the transposition and replication of bacteriophage Mu and other transposable elements. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 76:1933–1937. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.76.4.1933.
- 5. Baum JA. 1995. Tnpl recombinase: identification of sites within Tn5401 required for Tnpl binding and site-specific recombination. J Bacteriol 177:4036-4042. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.177.14.4036-4042.1995.
- 6. Stark WM, Boocock MR, Sherratt DJ. 1989. Site-specific recombination by Tn3 resolvase. Trends Genet 5:304-309. https://doi.org/10.1016/0168 -9525(89)90113-3.
- 7. Mahillon J, Lereclus D. 1988. Structural and functional analysis of Tn4430: identification of an integrase-like protein involved in the co-

integrate-resolution process. EMBO J 7:1515-1526. https://doi.org/10 .1002/j.1460-2075.1988.tb02971.x.

- 8. Yano H, Genka H, Ohtsubo Y, Nagata Y, Top EM, Tsuda M. 2013. Cointegrateresolution of toluene-catabolic transposon Tn4651: determination of crossover site and the segment required for full resolution activity. Plasmid 69:24-35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plasmid.2012.07.004.
- 9. Genka H, Nagata Y, Tsuda M. 2002. Site-specific recombination system encoded by toluene catabolic transposon Tn4651. J Bacteriol 184: 4757-4766. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.184.17.4757-4766.2002.
- 10. Heffron F, Kostriken R, Morita C, Parker R. 1981. Tn3 encodes a sitespecific recombination system: identification of essential sequences, genes, and the actual site of recombination. Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol 45(Pt 1):259-268. https://doi.org/10.1101/sqb.1981.045.01 .038.
- 11. Vanhooff V, Galloy C, Agaisse H, Lereclus D, Révet B, Hallet B. 2006. Self-control in DNA site-specific recombination mediated by the tyrosine recombinase Tnpl. Mol Microbiol 60:617-629. https://doi.org/10.1111/j .1365-2958.2006.05127.x.
- 12. Baum JA, Gilmer AJ, Light Mettus AM. 1999. Multiple roles for Tnpl recombinase in regulation of Tn5401 transposition in Bacillus thuringiensis. J Bacteriol 181:6271-6277. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.181.20 .6271-6277.1999.

- analysis of the transposon Tn3: three genes and three sites involved in transposition of Tn3. Cell 18:1153–1163. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092 -8674(79)90228-9.
- Gill RE, Heffron F, Falkow S. 1979. Identification of the protein encoded by the transposable element Tn3 which is required for its transposition. Nature 282:797–801. https://doi.org/10.1038/282797a0.
- Jalan N, Kumar D, Andrade MO, Yu F, Jones JB, Graham JH, White FF, Setubal JC, Wang N. 2013. Comparative genomic and transcriptome analyses of pathotypes of Xanthomonas citri subsp. citri provide insights into mechanisms of bacterial virulence and host range. BMC Genomics 14:551. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-14-551.
- Oliveira ACP, Ferreira RM, Ferro MIT, Ferro JA, Chandler M, Varani AM. 2018. Transposons and pathogenicity in Xanthomonas: acquisition of murein lytic transglycosylases by TnXax1 enhances Xanthomonas citri subsp. citri 306 virulence and fitness. PeerJ 6:e6111. https://doi.org/10 .7717/peerj.6111.
- Martins PMM, Machado MA, Silva NV, Takita MA, de Souza AA. 2016. Type II toxin-antitoxin distribution and adaptive aspects on Xanthomonas genomes: focus on Xanthomonas citri. Front Microbiol 7:652. https:// doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00652.
- Hayes F, Van Melderen L. 2011. Toxins-antitoxins: diversity, evolution and function. Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol 46:386–408. https://doi.org/10 .3109/10409238.2011.600437.
- Loftie-Eaton W, Yano H, Burleigh S, Simmons RS, Hughes JM, Rogers LM, Hunter SS, Settles ML, Forney LJ, Ponciano JM, Top EM. 2016. Evolutionary paths that expand plasmid host-range: implications for spread of antibiotic resistance. Mol Biol Evol 33:885–897. https://doi.org/10.1093/ molbev/msv339.
- Hunter SS, Yano H, Loftie-Eaton W, Hughes J, De Gelder L, Stragier P, De Vos P, Settles ML, Top EM. 2014. Draft genome sequence of Pseudomonas moraviensis R28-S. Genome Announc 2:e00035-14. https://doi.org/ 10.1128/genomeA.00035-14.
- Szuplewska M, Czarnecki J, Bartosik D. 2014. Autonomous and nonautonomous Tn3-family transposons and their role in the evolution of mobile genetic elements. Mob Genet Elements 4:1–4. https://doi.org/10 .1080/2159256X.2014.998537.
- 22. Schlüter A, Heuer H, Szczepanowski R, Poler SM, Schneiker S, Pühler A, Top EM. 2005. Plasmid pB8 is closely related to the prototype IncP-1beta plasmid R751 but transfers poorly to Escherichia coli and carries a new transposon encoding a small multidrug resistance efflux protein. Plasmid 54:135–148. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plasmid.2005.03.001.
- Siguier P, Perochon J, Lestrade L, Mahillon J, Chandler M. 2006. ISfinder: the reference centre for bacterial insertion sequences. Nucleic Acids Res 34:D32–D36. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkj014.
- 24. Eddy SR. 2011. Accelerated profile HMM searches. PLoS Comput Biol 7:e1002195. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1002195.
- Söding J, Biegert A, Lupas AN. 2005. The HHpred interactive server for protein homology detection and structure prediction. Nucleic Acids Res 33:W244–W248. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gki408.
- Anantharaman V, Makarova KS, Burroughs AM, Koonin EV, Aravind L. 2013. Comprehensive analysis of the HEPN superfamily: identification of novel roles in intra-genomic conflicts, defense, pathogenesis and RNA processing. Biol Direct 8:15. https://doi.org/10.1186/1745-6150-8-15.
- 27. Jiang Y, Pogliano J, Helinski DR, Konieczny I. 2002. ParE toxin encoded by the broad-host-range plasmid RK2 is an inhibitor of Escherichia coli gyrase. Mol Microbiol 44:971–979. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2958 .2002.02921.x.
- Anantharaman V, Aravind L. 2003. New connections in the prokaryotic toxin-antitoxin network: relationship with the eukaryotic nonsensemediated RNA decay system. Genome Biol 4:R81. https://doi.org/10 .1186/gb-2003-4-12-r81.
- 29. Reed RR. 1981. Resolution of cointegrates between transposons gamma delta and Tn3 defines the recombination site. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 78:3428–3432. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.78.6.3428.
- Reed RR, Grindley ND. 1981. Transposon-mediated site-specific recombination in vitro: DNA cleavage and protein-DNA linkage at the recombination site. Cell 25:721–728. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(81) 90179-3.
- Martins-Sorenson N, Snesrud E, Xavier DE, Cacci LC, lavarone AT, Mc-Gann P, Riley LW, Moreira BM. 2020. A novel plasmid-encoded mcr-4.3 gene in a colistin-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii clinical strain. J Antimicrob Chemother 75:60–64. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkz413.
- 32. Yao J, Guo Y, Zeng Z, Liu X, Shi F, Wang X. 2015. Identification and

characterization of a HEPN-MNT family type II toxin-antitoxin in Shewanella oneidensis. Microb Biotechnol 8:961–973. https://doi.org/10 .1111/1751-7915.12294.

- Bordes P, Sala AJ, Ayala S, Texier P, Slama N, Cirinesi A-M, Guillet V, Mourey L, Genevaux P. 2016. Chaperone addiction of toxin-antitoxin systems. Nat Commun 7:13339. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms13339.
- Garcia-Pino A, Balasubramanian S, Wyns L, Gazit E, De Greve H, Magnuson RD, Charlier D, van Nuland NAJ, Loris R. 2010. Allostery and intrinsic disorder mediate transcription regulation by conditional cooperativity. Cell 142:101–111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2010.05.039.
- Yano H, Miyakoshi M, Ohshima K, Tabata M, Nagata Y, Hattori M, Tsuda M. 2010. Complete nucleotide sequence of TOL plasmid pDK1 provides evidence for evolutionary history of InCP-7 catabolic plasmids. J Bacteriol 192:4337–4347. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00359-10.
- Jacob F, Wollman EL. 1956. Processes of conjugation and recombination in Escherichia coli. I. Induction by conjugation or zygotic induction. Ann Inst Pasteur (Paris) 91:486–510.
- Ozeki H, Stocker BA, Smith SM. 1962. Transmission of colicinogeny between strains of Salmonella typhimurium grown together. J Gen Microbiol 28:671–687. https://doi.org/10.1099/00221287-28-4-671.
- Chou J, Lemaux PG, Casadaban MJ, Cohen SN. 1979. Transposition protein of Tn3: identification and characterisation of an essential repressor-controlled gene product. Nature 282:801–806. https://doi.org/ 10.1038/282801a0.
- Chou J, Casadaban MJ, Lemaux PG, Cohen SN. 1979. Identification and characterization of a self-regulated repressor of translocation of the Tn3 element. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 76:4020–4024. https://doi.org/10 .1073/pnas.76.8.4020.
- Willetts NS. 1974. The kinetics of inhibition of Flac transfer by R100 in E. coli. Mol Gen Genet 129:123–130. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00268626.
- Lundquist PD, Levin BR. 1986. Transitory derepression and the maintenance of conjugative plasmids. Genetics 113:483–497.
- Field CM, Summers DK. 2011. Multicopy plasmid stability: revisiting the dimer catastrophe. J Theor Biol 291:119–127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j .jtbi.2011.09.006.
- Lane D, de Feyter R, Kennedy M, Phua SH, Semon D. 1986. D protein of miniF plasmid acts as a repressor of transcription and as a site-specific resolvase. Nucleic Acids Res 14:9713–9728.
- de Feyter R, Wallace C, Lane D. 1989. Autoregulation of the ccd operon in the F plasmid. Mol Gen Genet 218:481–486. https://doi.org/10.1007/ bf00332413.
- Tatusova T, Ciufo S, Fedorov B, O'Neill K, Tolstoy I. 2015. RefSeq microbial genomes database: new representation and annotation strategy. Nucleic Acids Res 43:3872. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkv278.
- Tatusova T, Ciufo S, Federhen S, Fedorov B, McVeigh R, O'Neill K, Tolstoy I, Zaslavsky L. 2015. Update on RefSeq microbial genomes resources. Nucleic Acids Res 43:D599–D605. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gku1062.
- Xie Y, Wei Y, Shen Y, Li X, Zhou H, Tai C, Deng Z, Ou H-Y. 2018. TADB 2.0: an updated database of bacterial type II toxin-antitoxin loci. Nucleic Acids Res 46:D749–D753. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkx1033.
- Shao Y, Harrison EM, Bi D, Tai C, He X, Ou H-Y, Rajakumar K, Deng Z. 2011. TADB: a web-based resource for type 2 toxin-antitoxin loci in bacteria and archaea. Nucleic Acids Res 39:D606–D611. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/nar/gkq908.
- 49. Sayers EW, Agarwala R, Bolton EE, Brister JR, Canese K, Clark K, Connor R, Fiorini N, Funk K, Hefferon T, Holmes JB, Kim S, Kimchi A, Kitts PA, Lathrop S, Lu Z, Madden TL, Marchler-Bauer A, Phan L, Schneider VA, Schoch CL, Pruitt KD, Ostell J. 2019. Database resources of the National Center for Biotechnology Information. Nucleic Acids Res 47:D23–D28. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gky1069.
- Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, Madden TL. 2009. BLAST+: architecture and applications. BMC Bioinformatics 10:421. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-10-421.
- Hyatt D, Chen G-L, Locascio PF, Land ML, Larimer FW, Hauser LJ. 2010. Prodigal: prokaryotic gene recognition and translation initiation site identification. BMC Bioinformatics 11:119. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471 -2105-11-119.
- Cock PJA, Antao T, Chang JT, Chapman BA, Cox CJ, Dalke A, Friedberg I, Hamelryck T, Kauff F, Wilczynski B, de Hoon M. 2009. Biopython: freely available Python tools for computational molecular biology and bioinformatics. Bioinformatics 25:1422–1423. https://doi.org/10.1093/ bioinformatics/btp163.
- El-Gebali S, Mistry J, Bateman A, Eddy SR, Luciani A, Potter SC, Qureshi M, Richardson LJ, Salazar GA, Smart A, Sonnhammer ELL, Hirsh L, Paladin

- Katoh K, Standley DM. 2013. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. Mol Biol Evol 30:772–780. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mst010.
- Darriba D, Taboada GL, Doallo R, Posada D. 2011. ProtTest 3: fast selection of best-fit models of protein evolution. Bioinformatics 27: 1164–1165. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr088.
- 56. Stamatakis A. 2014. RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics 30:1312–1313. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033.
- Seibt KM, Schmidt T, Heitkam T. 2018. FlexiDot: highly customizable, ambiguity-aware dotplots for visual sequence analyses. Bioinformatics 34:3575–3577. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bty395.
- Liu CC, Hühne R, Tu J, Lorbach E, Dröge P. 1998. The resolvase encoded by Xanthomonas campestris transposable element ISXc5 constitutes a new subfamily closely related to DNA invertases. Genes Cells 3:221–233. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2443.1998.00182.x.
- Minakhina S, Kholodii G, Mindlin S, Yurieva O, Nikiforov V. 1999. Tn5053 family transposons are res site hunters sensing plasmidal res sites occupied by cognate resolvases. Mol Microbiol 33:1059–1068. https://doi .org/10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01548.x.
- Kholodii G, Gorlenko Z, Mindlin S, Hobman J, Nikiforov V. 2002. Tn5041like transposons: molecular diversity, evolutionary relationships and distribution of distinct variants in environmental bacteria. Microbiology 148:3569–3582. https://doi.org/10.1099/00221287-148-11-3569.
- Kholodii GI, Mindlin SZ, Gorlenko ZM, Bass IA, Kaliaeva ES, Nikiforov VG. 2000. Molecular genetic analysis of the Tn5041 transposition system. Genetika 36:459–469.