The most widespread phage in animals:

Genomics and taxonomic classification of Phage WO

Sarah R. Bordenstein*1,2 and Seth R. Bordenstein1,2,3,4 ¹ Department of Biological Sciences, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA ² Vanderbilt Microbiome Innovation Center, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA ³ Department of Pathology, Microbiology and Immunology, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA ⁴ Vanderbilt Institute of Infection, Immunology, and Inflammation, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA * Corresponding Author: Sarah R. Bordenstein, Department of Biological Sciences, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA, 615-343-2647, sarah.bordenstein@vanderbilt.edu

Abstract

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

Wolbachia are the most common obligate, intracellular bacteria in animals. They exist worldwide in arthropod and nematode hosts in which they commonly act as reproductive parasites or mutualists, respectively. Bacteriophage WO, the largest of Wolbachia's mobile elements, includes reproductive parasitism genes, serves as a hotspot for genetic divergence and genomic rearrangement of the bacterial chromosome, and uniquely encodes a Eukaryotic Association Module with eukaryotic-like genes and an ensemble of putative host interaction genes. Despite WO's relevance to genome evolution, selfish genetics, and symbiotic applications, relatively little is known about its origin, host range, diversification, and taxonomic classification. Here we analyze the most comprehensive set of 150 Wolbachia and phage WO assemblies to provide a framework for discretely organizing and naming integrated phage WO genomes. We demonstrate that WO is principally in arthropod Wolbachia with relatives in diverse endosymbionts and metagenomes, organized into four variants related by gene synteny, often oriented opposite the origin of replication in the Wolbachia chromosome, and the large serine recombinase is an ideal typing tool to assign taxonomic classification of the four variants. We identify a novel, putative lytic cassette and WO's association with a conserved eleven gene island, termed Undecim Cluster, that is enriched with virulence-like genes. Finally, we evaluate WO-like Islands in the Wolbachia genome and discuss a new model in which Octomom, a notable WO-like Island, arose from a split with WO. Together, these findings establish the first comprehensive Linnaean taxonomic classification of endosymbiont phages that includes distinguishable genera of phage WO, a family of non-Wolbachia phages from aquatic environments, and an order that captures the collective relatedness of these viruses.

Introduction

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

Intracellular, endosymbiotic bacteria comprise some of the most intimate and enduring hostmicrobe interactions. While reductive evolutionary forces are often presumed to lead to streamlined, tiny genomes, many endosymbionts that host switch contain notable levels of active or relic mobile DNA [1]. An exemplar is the genus Wolbachia which harbor transposons [2], temperate phages [3, 4], and putative plasmids [5, 6]. Wolbachia are members of the Anaplasmataceae family [7] that also includes the intracellular genera Anaplasma, Ehrlichia, Neorickettsia, Aegptianella, and several newly classified bacteria. Wolbachia occur in a vast number of invertebrates spanning some nematodes and roughly half of all arthropod species, thus making them the most widespread endosymbionts in animals [8]; but unlike its sister genera, it does not naturally occur in mammalian hosts [9]. Transmission routes are predominantly vertical through the germline, and horizontal transmission of Wolbachia in arthropods is frequent on an evolutionary timescale [10, 11], leading to coinfections and subsequent bacteriophage exchanges in the same host [12-16]. Integrated within the bacterial chromosome, these bacteriophages are hot spots of genetic divergence between Wolbachia strains [6, 17-20]. Many arthropod-associated Wolbachia cause various forms of reproductive parasitism including feminization, parthenogenesis, male killing, and cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI). These selfish modifications hijack sex determination, sex ratios, gametogenesis, and/or embryonic viability to enhance the spread of Wolbachia through the transmitting matriline [21, 22]. Nematode-associated Wolbachia, however, generally lack phage WO and more often act as mutualists within their animal host [23, 24]. Thus, phage WO was originally hypothesized to contribute to these reproductive manipulations in arthropods through horizontal acquisition and differential

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

expression of parasitism genes that are not part of the core Wolbachia genome [20, 23, 25-28]. Indeed, transgenic expression of two genes from phage WO or WO-like Islands (genomic islands that are associated with and/or derived from phage WO) demonstrated cytoplasmic incompatibility factors cifA and cifB as the primary cause of Wolbachia-induced CI and rescue [29-32]. In addition, transgenic expression of the WO-mediated killing gene wmk recapitulates male-specific embryo lethality and is a candidate for male killing [33]. Conversely, lytic activity of phage WO associates with reduced Wolbachia densities and CI levels [34]. First observed in 1978 as "virus-like bodies" within the gonads of *Culex pipiens* mosquitoes [35], phage WO is a temperate phage that exists in a lysogenic state (the integrated form of a phage genome is termed a prophage) until an event triggers particle production and subsequent lysis of the cell [4, 34, 36-38]. Unlike phages of free-living bacteria, however, the phage particles of intracellular Wolbachia contend with a two-fold cell challenge of bacterial and eukaryotic-derived membranes surrounding Wolbachia as well as the cytoplasmic and/or extracellular environments of the eukaryotic host. These unique challenges encountered by phage WO presumably selected for the evolution of a novel Eukaryotic Association Module (EAM) that comprises up to 60% of its genome with genes that are eukaryotic-like in function and/or origin [39]. The phage WO genome also features one of the longest genes ever identified in a phage and an abundance of ankyrin repeat domain genes [20, 23, 34, 40, 41], though their function has not been clearly elucidated as it has for the Ankyphages of sponge symbionts that aid in the evasion of the eukaryotic immune system [42]. Given the abundance and importance of phage WO in Wolbachia and for understanding genomic flux in endosymbioses worldwide, a firm grasp of its biology,

including classification, evolution, and functions, will be important for establishing and comparing the rules across systems of endosymbiotic phages.

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

Here we survey prophage WO from 150 Wolbachia genome assemblies currently available in the NCBI database [43]. We report the patterns of distribution, chromosomal location, and functions of WO, and we propose a Linnaean classification system according to consultation with the International Committee and their guidelines on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) [44, 45] in which there are three distinguishable phage WO genera within a new taxonomic order encompassing prophages of obligate, intracellular bacteria. We show that WO generally occurs in arthropodassociated Wolbachia, and prophage insertions are enriched away from the origin of replication in the bacterial chromosome. We fully annotate the EAM boundaries of representative WO genomes and highlight the presence of the CI genes, cifA and cifB, and a conserved set of eleven genes, defined here as the *Undecim Cluster*. We also establish a new model suggesting Octomom is derived from the EAM of prophage WO, with implications for Octomom-based pathogenicity, and we determine that all intact prophage WO genomes have a putatively novel patatin-based lytic cassette immediately upstream from the tail module. Finally, we report for the first time, to our knowledge, that prophage WO-like variants occur in diverse bacterial endosymbionts as well as metagenomes of putative symbionts from aquatic environments, providing a deeper understanding of WO origins, evolution, and ecology within and between endosymbiotic bacteria.

Results

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

Comprehensive survey of Wolbachia's prophage WO and WO-like

Islands

Prophage WO elements generally occur in arthropod-associated Wolbachia Wolbachia occur in many protosome animal species of the superphylum Ecdysozoa, while prophage WO has previously been described as restricted to arthropod-associated strains. Because WO molecular surveys typically use single gene markers [15, 16], we comprehensively explored the NCBI database for prevalence of prophage WO, as determined by presence of one or more core phage WO genes (Fig 1a), throughout all sequenced Wolbachia genomes. All Wolbachia strains are indicated by a lower-case w followed by descriptor of host species, and prophage WO genomes are indicated by a WO prefix followed by the same host descriptor (listed in S1 Table). Fig 1. Prophage WO is modular in structure and associated with all arthropod-infecting Wolbachia. (a) A genomic map of prophage WOMelB from the D. melanogaster wMel Wolbachia strain highlights phage WO core genes in blue and EAM genes in gray. Genes are illustrated as arrows and direction correlates with forward/reverse strand. The phage WO core consists of recombinase (green), connector/baseplate (royal blue), head (purple), replication and repair (light blue), tail fiber (light pink), tail (salmon), and lysis (brown). The WOMelB EAM encodes cifA and cifB (cotton candy pink), WO-PC2 containing HTH_XRE transcriptional regulators (lavender), and a conserved set of genes termed the *Undecim Cluster* (navy blue). (b) At least one phage WO core gene (teal) is associated with all sequenced arthropod-Wolbachia Supergroups and Supergroup F, which infects both arthropods (blue) and nematodes (purple). The Undecim Cluster (navy blue) is found in the majority of Supergroup A, B, E, and M Wolbachia genomes, and CI genes (pink) are encoded by the majority of Supergroup A, B, T, and F genomes. Phage WO elements are absent from all strictly-nematode Wolbachia Supergroups. The number of genomes analyzed

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

is listed in parentheses above each Supergroup. Each bar indicates the % of genomes containing each phage WO element. Source data is provided in S1 Table. Out of 150 assemblies across nematode and arthropod Wolbachia, phage WO occurs in arthropod Wolbachia with one exception from the mixed host supergroup of F Wolbachia (Fig 1b; S1 Table). All arthropod-associated strains contained evidence of intact or relic phage WO, termed WO-like Islands, and the single instance of WO genes in a nematode occurs in strain wMhie from Madathamugadia hiepei, a parasite of the insectivorous South African gecko. The wMhie genome encodes four genes that are conserved throughout phage WO's transcriptional regulation and replication/repair modules (S2 Table) and are not part of the core Wolbachia genome. Interestingly, wMhie is a member of Supergroup F that occurs in both arthropods and nematodes. Thus, the presence of phage WO genes in this Wolbachia genome supports a horizontal transfer of WO from arthropods to nematodes. In addition to core phage WO genes, we characterized the widespread distribution of two phage WO elements across arthropod Wolbachia: (i) the cytoplasmic incompatibility factor genes cifA and cifB and (ii) Undecim Cluster (Fig 1b). Generally located within phage WO's Eukaryotic Association Module (EAM [39]; Fig 1a) or in WO-like Islands (genomic islands that are associated with and/or derived from phage WO), cifA and cifB occur in Supergroups A, B, F, and T; the latter two are newly reported here. Wolbachia strains wMov and wOc of Supergroup F both encode phylogenetic Type I cifA and cifB genes, whereas wChem of Supergroup T encodes Type II cifA and cifB genes (S3 Table; See [29, 46, 47] for a discussion of cif Types). Likewise, we identified a highly conserved set of eleven phage WO-associated genes, hereby termed the Undecim Cluster

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

(Fig 1a, discussed below), that is distributed across most arthropod Supergroups but notably absent from all nematode Wolbachia genomes. Characterizing the prophage WO genome Prophage WO genomes are comprised of conserved structural modules and a **Eukaryotic Association Module** Prophage WO genomes adhere to the "modular theory" of phage evolution [18] and thus contain conserved structural gene modules (See discussion in S1 Text) and a Eukaryotic Association Module (EAM) [39]. To date, the EAM is unique to Wolbachia's phage WO and as such is often overlooked by prophage prediction algorithms during the bacterial genome assembly process. Moreover, WO can markedly vary in gene content and synteny, and whether this variation does or does not sort into discrete genomic variants has not been investigated. Thus, we sought to identify conserved and distinguishing genomic features for a comprehensive nomenclature system for the community to classify phage WO major groupings. We mapped and re-annotated prophage WO regions from fully sequenced Wolbachia genomes to include the EAM and, more generally, incorporate updated annotations for each module. All prophage WO regions were manually curated based on gene content and synteny (Fig 2; S1-S7 Figs) with regards to eight core phage modules (recombinase, replication & repair, head, connector/baseplate, putative tail fiber, tail, putative lysis, and EAM; labeled in Fig 1) and three newly identified and highly conserved gene clusters shown in Fig 2: (i) WO protein cluster 1 (WO-PC1), corresponding to hypothetical proteins WOCauB3_gp2-gp3; (ii) WO protein cluster 2 (WO-

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

PC2), located within the EAM and corresponding to putative HTH XRE transcriptional regulators, DUF2466 (formerly RadC), and hypothetical proteins WOMelB_WD0622-WD0626; and (iii) the Undecim Cluster, an eleven-gene region located within the EAM and corresponding to WOMelB_WD0611-WD0621. Fig 2. Prophage WO variants feature distinguishable module synteny. Prophage WO variants are organized by genome content and synteny of their structural modules. Sr1WO and sr2WO feature a 5'-core prophage WO region (blue) and a 3'-EAM (gray). Sr3WO features an internal core prophage WO region that is flanked by EAM genes and mobile elements (yellow). Sr4WO is only present in wFol and features three genomic regions with multiple prophage segments. WO-like Islands feature small clusters of prophage WO-like genes; they are comprised of singular structural modules and/or subsets of EAM genes. All modules are color coded: green = recombinase; turquoise = WO-PC1; light blue = replication; purple = head; blue = connector/baseplate; light pink = tail fiber; salmon = tail; brown = putative lysis; lavender = WO-PC2; and navy blue = Undecim Cluster. In addition, ankyrins are shown in red; transposable elements are shown in yellow; and cifA;cifB are shown in cotton candy pink. Dotted lines represent breaks in the assembly; module organization is estimated based on closely related variants. Sr1WO is highlighted in hot pink; sr2WO is highlighted in green; sr3WO is highlighted in purple; sr4WO is highlighted in blue; WO-like Islands are highlighted in gray. There are four distinguishable prophage WO variants: sr1WO, sr2WO, sr3WO, and sr4WO While gene synteny within each core module is generally consistent, the arrangement of modules across prophage genomes is variable and does not correlate with the early organization of orf7based WO clades, WO-A and WO-B [16, 48]. To formally update this classification with a more comprehensive classification system, we identified conserved WO loci and modular synteny

diagnostic of the four WO arrangement groupings that reflect genus-level ranking. Sequence variation in one gene candidate was consistently associated with similar variation in gene content and synteny: the large serine recombinase [18, 49]. Phage-encoded large serine recombinases facilitate integration of the phage genome into specific attachment sites within the bacterial chromosome as well as control the excision, often with the help of an accessory protein, of the prophage genome during the lytic cycle [50]. A BLASTN analysis of the WO serine recombinase gene confirmed that only those associated with comparable WO module arrangement were full-length reciprocal BLAST hits. Phylogenetic analysis of the recombinase peptide sequence also supported four distinct genus-level clades of prophage WO (common names sr1WO, sr2WO, sr3WO, and sr4WO; nomenclature proposed in [49] and based on the "serine recombinase") as well as closely-related recombinases in prophage regions of non-Wolbachia endosymbionts, including the Paramecium endosymbiont Holospora obtusa (Fig 3a). The genomic content, organization, and chromosomal integration of each srWO variant are described below.

Fig 3. Phylogeny of prophage WO's large serine recombinase correlates with module synteny and genomic integration. (a) A phylogenetic tree of prophage WO's recombinase sequence illustrates the utility of this gene as a WO-typing tool to classify prophage WO variants. Four distinct clades correlate with sr1WO-sr4WO genome organization shown in Fig 2. Non-Wolbachia sequences represent similar prophages from other bacterial hosts, such as the prophage HOObt1 of Holospora obtusa, an endonuclear symbiont of Paramecium. The tree was generated by Bayesian analysis of 283 amino acids using the JTT-IG model of evolution. Consensus support values are indicated for each branch. (*) indicates that the prophage regions are highly degraded; while they likely originated from the corresponding prophage group, they are now classified as WO-like Islands (S7 Fig). (b) Prophage WO integration loci are concentrated opposite the origin of replication, ori. All Wolbachia genomes have been standardized where each dot represents % nucleotide distance calculated by: (nucleotide distance between 5'-WO and ori / genome size) * 100.

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

(†) indicates the genome is not closed/circularized; genomic locations are estimated based on alignment of contigs to a reference genome (obtained from authors in [51, 52]). sr1WO. The proposed genus-level taxonomic name for sr1WO, described below, is Cautellavirus. Most sr1WO recombinases integrate into Wolbachia's magnesium chelatase gene, as we previously reported [39], with portions of the bacterial gene found flanking either side of the prophage region. Two exceptions are in: (i) closely-related wRi and wAna where the sr1WO prophage has since been rearranged in the Wolbachia genome (S1 Fig) with a portion of the magnesium chelatase now associated with each prophage fragment (S8a-b Fig); and (ii) wCauB which contains at least two sr1WO prophages, and WOCauB3 has a secondary intergenic attachment site between *sua5* and a hypothetical protein (S8c Fig). A key characteristic of sr1WOs is the single domain HTH_XRE transcriptional regulators of WO-PC2 (S1 Fig, lavender) that are located at the 3'-end of the prophage region. Because the genes are fused in most other WO prophages, they are sometimes annotated as pseudogenes (i.e., wRi p006660 and wRi p006630 of WORiC) in the Wolbachia genome; however, conservation across multiple variants suggests they are functional. Sr1WOs also lack the methylase/ParB gene that is associated with all other WO prophages. A few genomes (i.e, WORiC, WOAnaC, WOSuziC) harbor cifA and cifB genes, though the origin of these genes remains inconclusive due to a downstream, highly-pseudogenized sr3WO recombinase (wRi_p006680) and adjacent transposases. Finally, all members of the sr1WO group have a distinct 5'-core-prophage region followed by an ankyrin-rich 3'-EAM (Fig 2 and S1 Fig).

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

sr2WO. The proposed genus-level taxonomic name for sr2WO, described below, is Vitrivirus. sr2WO prophages genes are also organized as 5'-core-prophage followed by 3'-EAM (Fig 2 and S2 Fig), yet module synteny is quite distinct from sr1WO: (i) they lack WO-PC1; (ii) the replication, head, and connector/baseplate modules are reversed; (iii) WO-PC2 is located at the juncture between the core-prophage and EAM regions rather than at the terminal 3'-end of the prophage genome; and (iv) cifA and cifB genes are absent from assembled genomes thus far. The sr2WO recombinase integrates into variable number tandem repeat 105 (VNTR-105) as previously reported [39], a conserved intergenic region used to type closely-related A-Wolbachia strains [53]. While flanking, disrupted portions of the magnesium chelatase correlate with prophage boundaries of sr1WO genomes, disrupted VNTR-105 regions likewise flank the complete sr2WO genome, including the eukaryotic-like secA [54] EAM of WOHa2. Sr3WO. The proposed genus-level taxonomic name for sr3WO, described below, is Taiwavirus. Unlike the previous groups, sr3WO appears to lack a conserved integration site. Rather, these variants feature a core prophage region that is flanked on either side by EAM regions, are separated from adjacent Wolbachia genes by an enrichment of transposase-encoding insertion sequences (Fig 2, yellow and S4 Table), and are concentrated away from the origin of replication in the bacterial chromosome (Fig 3b). While their function here is unknown, transposable Mu-like phages replicate via replicative transposition in the bacterial chromosome and, much like phage WO, are associated with severe chromosomal rearrangements and disruptions [55]. Under a similar model, sr3WO transposases could mediate prophage replication and movement throughout the Wolbachia genome.

Sr3WO core-prophage module synteny generally resembles that of sr2WO, although a subset of variants also encode an eleven-gene module termed the *Undecim Cluster* (S4 Fig and S5 Fig), discussed in detail below. Most importantly, unlike other prophage WO groups, a majority of the sr3WO variants contain at least one *cifA* and *cifB* gene pair, the locus responsible for *Wolbachia*'s cytoplasmic incompatibility phenotype [29, 30, 32, 46, 47].

Sr4WO. The prophage WO group identified strictly in *w*Fol of *Folsomia candida* springtails is tentatively labelled sr4WO. Unlike the above clades, sr4WO will remain unclassified at the genus level due to high variability and rearrangement of the prophage genomes. A formal classification will be evaluated when more genomes are sequenced that support conserved taxonomic characteristics for the clade. Three variants, broken into multiple segments (S6 Fig), loosely resemble the module synteny of sr3WO. WOFol1 is associated with an Undecim Cluster similar to sr3WO, but all variants contain single-domain HTH_XRE genes similar to sr1WO. The sr4WO

variants of this group are needed to analyze chromosomal integration.

WO-like Islands

We identified numerous portions of the prophage WO genome that do not contain enough genetic information to be properly classified. Termed WO-like Islands, they are comprised of single core phage modules, such as a baseplate or tail, and/or genes that are typically associated with the prophage WO genome rather than part of the core *Wolbachia* genome (Fig 2 and S7 Fig). Most WO-like Islands are therefore considered "cryptic", "relic", or "defective" prophages, and likely

prophages contain multiple genomic duplications and mobile elements [56]. While they appear to

lack cifA and cifB genes, they are enriched with multiple copies of ligA and resolvase. More

originated from an ancestral prophage WO genome where they have since been domesticated by the bacterial host or are in the process of degradation and elimination from the chromosome. Based on studies in other systems, conserved prophage genes or gene modules that are not part of a complete prophage are likely to provide a fitness advantage to their host [57, 58] and may interact with, even parasitize, fully intact phages within the same bacterial host [59, 60].

Like sr3WO prophages, WO-like Islands are often flanked by at least one insertion sequence (S4 Table) and are commonly associated with CI genes *cifA* and *cifB*. In the unusual case of the *w*Irr

Table) and are commonly associated with CI genes *cifA* and *cifB*. In the unusual case of the *w*Irr WO-like Island, four CI loci, along with multiple transposases, are arranged in a single genomic cluster that is not associated with conserved WO genes (S7 Fig). We tentatively label the region as a WO-like Island because (i) the *cif* genes and adjacent hypothetical proteins are overwhelmingly associated with prophage WO regions and (ii) there is evidence of a highly disrupted prophage genome about 160kb upstream in the *w*Irr chromosome (S4 Fig) that is also enriched with transposases, allowing for the possibility of a prophage WO origin. Such a model for the putative phage WO origin of one highly studied WO-like Island, *w*Mel's Octomom, is discussed in detail below.

Prophage WO is spatially concentrated away from the origin of replication in

the Wolbachia chromosome

To comprehensively examine the association of each prophage WO variant with its chromosomal location in *Wolbachia*, we mapped integration sites, determined by the recombinase or the most 5'- WO gene, on the chromosome with respect to normalized distance from the putative origin of replication, *ori* [61]. There is a clustering of prophage WO insertion loci, particularly sr3WOs,

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

opposite the origin of replication (Fig 3b; Chi-square 2-tailed, p=0.0035) that is similar to the localization patterns of temperate phages in *Escherichia, Salmonella*, and Negativicutes [62-65]. WO chromosomal location patterns support a model in which prophage insertions and WO-like Islands may not be tolerated in regions directly surrounding the origin of replication. Transposable elements may facilitate transposition and domestication of prophage WO regions In addition to specific chromosomal integration patterns, we next surveyed the relationship between WO and its associated mobile elements. With the exception of WOCauB3, all fully sequenced prophage WO genomes and WO-like Islands contained at least one transposable element beyond the phage recombinase. The diversity of the WO-associated transposable elements by prophage variant is listed in S4 Table and includes (i) transposases of insertion sequence families IS3, IS4, IS5, IS6, IS66, IS110, IS256, IS481, IS630, IS982; (ii) recombination-promotion nuclease (Rpn), which encodes a PD-(D/E)XK nuclease family transposase; and (iii) reverse transcriptase of group II intron origin (RT). WO's transposable elements are associated with the genomic rearrangement (e.g., WORiC), degradation or domestication (e.g., WORiA), and copy number variation (e.g., WORiB) of various prophage genomes. As discussed above, flanking transposases of sr3WO variants may also play a role in replicative transposition similar to phage Mu. We observed that reverse transcriptases of group II intron origin (RT) are associated with chromosomal rearrangements, insertions, and/or duplications of multiple sr3WO and sr4WO prophages (illustrated in S9 Fig). Likewise, we identified numerous associations of cifA; B gene

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

pairs with RTs of sr3WO variants (including WOPip1, WOVitA4, WOIrr, WOHa1, WORiB, WOAnaB, WOSuziB) and the *w*Irr WO-like Island. Therefore, the association of CI loci with transposable elements – both within and beyond prophage regions – could be indicative of post-integration genomic rearrangement and/or domestication of the genes, as previously discussed [6]. Below we propose a detailed model and evidence for the most intriguing RT-associated genomic rearrangement, the origin of *w*Mel's Octomom from prophage WOMelA to generate a WO-like Island (Fig 4).

Fig 4. Comparative genomics supports a WO:Octomom origin model for Wolbachia proliferation in wMelPop. (a) A new model for Octomom origin predicts the initial infection of wMel with a WOMelA phage. After integration, Octomom splits from the WOMelA core prophage region to form a WO-like Island. (b) A genome map of the putative, intact, ancestral WOMelA where Octomom is highlighted in yellow and the extant WOMelA genome in teal illustrates placement of Octomom in the WO EAM. (c-d) An alignment of the WO-PC2 region with closely related prophages shows that half of the conserved module (WD0507-WD0508) is now associated with Octomom and the other half (WD0257-WD0254) remained with WOMelA prophage region. DUF2466 is split across the genomic regions and, when concatenated, shares homology to intact DUF2466 genes of WO-PC2. An IS5 insertion (d) is associated with single-copy Octomom stability in the wMel chromosome. In wMelCS-like genomes, where the flanking RTs are intact (see S10 Fig), Octomom varies in copy number. (e) When Octomom (orange-yellow) and Octomom-like (green, defined by homology to WD0512, WD0513 and WO-PC2 and illustrated in S10 Fig) regions exist in a single copy, either within or outside the corresponding prophage region, Wolbachia proliferation is normal, and it is nonpathogenic. (f) If the WO-like Island occurs in multiple copies or is absent from the genome, Wolbachia overproliferate and are pathogenic. (*) Restoring the 1:1 (WO:Octomom) ratio returns the wMelPop phenotype back to normal levels. The association of Octomom with pathogenicity (i.e., correlation vs. causation) is still to be determined [66-68]. NCBI accession numbers are listed for each genome; (†) indicates circular genomes are unavailable and genomic locations are putative.

Unique characteristics of prophage WO

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

The WO-Octomom Model posits that Octomom is derived from the EAM; Wolbachia proliferation may be dependent upon a 1:1 ratio of Octomom: prophage WO Octomom is a cluster of eight genes in the D. melanogaster wMel Wolbachia genome that has been described for its resemblance to a bacterial pathogenicity island (see S10 Fig for genome schematic) [69]. Increasing the environmental temperature of flies either containing multiple copies or completely lacking this region results in Wolbachia over-proliferation and pathogenicity [67, 68]. Based on our observations of RT-associated genomic rearrangement, we present a new WO-Octomom Model (Fig 4a) with genomic evidence (Fig 4b-d), in which Octomom putatively originated from the EAM of ancestral WOMelA (sr3WO). First, an ancestral phage WOMelA with core phage genes as well as an Octomom-encoding EAM infects wMel and integrates into the bacterial chromosome. Second, Octomom splits from the prophage EAM region, possibly mediated by RTs, to form an independent WO-like Island about 38kb from the extant WOMelA (Fig 4a). This is supported by gene synteny of the WO-PC2 variant that is split between Octomom and WOMelA at the DUF2466 gene (also annotated as radC). Notably, by concatenating the two regions at Octomom's WD0507 (5'-DUF2466) and WOMelA's WD0257 (3'-DUF2466), the gene synteny forms a complete WO-PC2 and closely resembles that of related sr3WO prophages (Fig 4b-d). Furthermore, Octomom homologs of the two-domain HTH_XRE transcriptional regulator

(WD0508) are characteristic of sr2WO and sr3WO prophages, and the *mutL* paralog (WD0509)

from Octomom is a phage WO-specific allele [70] that is distinct from the chromosomal *mutL* (WD1306). This supports an ancestral WOMelA prophage genome comprised of core structural modules and an Octomom-containing EAM with intact WO-PC2 (Fig 4b). An alternative explanation could be that genes WD0512-WD0514 existed as a pathogenicity island in the *Wolbachia* chromosome prior to WOMelA infection and later acquired adjacent EAM genes from the prophage to form a complete Octomom Island. In this case, we would expect to find at least one other instance of WD0512-WD0514 occurring independent of prophage regions in other *Wolbachia* strains. Instead, the only *Wolbachia* homologs, to date, are associated with the EAMs of WOPip5 and the wSYT (*Wolbachia* of *Drosophila santomea*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. teissieri*, respectively) prophages [6, 19, 71] (S10 Fig).

An interesting and robust correlation of this WO-Octomom Model is that one copy relative to prophage WO, either within or outside of the prophage region, is always a distinguishing factor of non-pathogenic *Wolbachia* (Fig 4e), while absence *or* multiplication of Octomom are notably associated with *Wolbachia* over-proliferation and pathogenicity (Fig 4f). This has been previously reported in context of the *Wolbachia* chromosome [66, 67], and we make the distinction here of a *prophage* association to enable a more fine-tuned exploration of Octomom biology. For example, the disruption (*w*Mel) or absence of one (*w*SYT) or both (*w*Pip) flanking RTs correlates with a static 1:1 ratio of the Octomom-like region (i.e., containing WD0512-WD0513 and a transcriptional regulation gene) and its corresponding prophage genome (Fig 4e). Conversely, the region is flanked by identical RTs on either side in all *w*Mel clade VI strains, including *w*MelCS and the dynamic *w*MelPop that ranges from 0 to multiple copies of the WO-like Island (Fig 4f; *w*Mel phylogeny presented in [66, 72]). When the 1:1 ratio in clade VI strains is disrupted, possibly

in conjunction with flanking RTs, *Wolbachia* develops a pathogenic relationship with its animal host [66, 72]. The possible association of RTs with Octomom copy number is also notable due to the observed dependence of both RT activity [73, 74] and *w*MelPop pathology [67, 68] on environmental conditions, such as temperature. The direct role of Octomom on host phenotype is a subject of debate [66, 67], and understanding the association of prophage WO with this region, if any, could inform the biology of this unique system. The two phage-derived regions, for example, may share a common regulatory mechanism since the proposed ancestral splitting of Octomom from WOMelA broke a cluster of transcriptional regulators, namely one transcriptional regulator (WD0508) from the other two (WD0254 and WD0255) that would typically form an intact module. Alternatively, a split of Octomom from its associated prophage genome may influence epigenetic modifications via WOMelA's adenine methylase (WD0267; see [66] for a discussion of epigenetic vs. genetic factors).

Undecim Cluster is a unique eleven gene island associated with prophage WO Another "pathogenicity island" candidate in the *Wolbachia* chromosome is a highly conserved set of genes (WD0611 to WD0621; Fig 5a) defined here as the *Undecim Cluster* (*Undecim* is Latin for "eleven"). We identify it in the majority of WO-containing *Wolbachia* genomes (Fig 1b), particularly in association with *cifA*- and *cifB*-encoding regions of sr3WO (S4 Fig and S5 Fig) and WO-like Islands (S7 Fig). Unlike sr3WO prophages themselves, however, the Undecim Cluster does not occur more than once per *Wolbachia* genome. Its complete absence from both *w*Pip and *w*Rec suggests that it is not strictly required for *Wolbachia*'s intracellular survival and/or ability to induce cytoplasmic incompatibility. Rather, it may contribute to variation in host-symbiont interactions [18, 48] by encoding a broad spectrum of metabolic functions and transport potential

[75, 76], including cellular exopolysaccharide and/or lipopolysaccharide (LPS) biosynthesis (WD0611-WD0613; WD0620), methylation (WD0613-WD0614; WD0621), production and export of antibiotics and cytotoxic compounds (WD0615-WD0616) and metabolite transport and biosynthesis (WD0617-WD0619) (Fig 5b). It was identified in phage particle genomes from both wVitA and wCauB [39], indicating that the region may be transferred between Wolbachia strains via the phage. In addition, both RNA-SEQ [77] and mass spectrometry data [75] show that the region is highly expressed. Interestingly, ten of the eleven genes were involved in a lateral gene transfer event between Wolbachia and the Rickettsia endosymbiont of Ixodes scapularis (REIS; [17, 76]) with WD0612 to WD0618 sharing 74% nucleotide identity to a region of the Rickettsial plasmid pREIS2 and WD0619 to WD0621 sharing 67% identity to a region of the bacterial chromosome (Fig 5a). We also identified homologs in Cardinium hertigii cHgTN10 (CP029619.1; 67% nucleotide identity) and Phycorickettsia trachydisci (CP027845.1; 68% nucleotide identity). While not contiguous in C. hertigii, adjacent transposases may have facilitated post-integration rearrangement.

Fig 5. The Undecim Cluster contributes a wide range of cellular processes associated with host-symbiont interactions. (a) A genome map illustrates prophage WO's Undecim Cluster. Gene labels UC1 - UC11 correlate with wMel locus tags WD0611-WD0621. Lines under the genes indicate lateral gene transfer events of this region between Cardinium hertigii cHgTN10, Phycorickettisa trachydisci, and multiple strains of Rickettsia, including the Rickettsia endosymbiont of Ixodes scapularis (REIS) and its plasmid (pREIS2). Nucleotide identity is listed to the right. Dashed lines indicate that the region is not contiguous in the genome. UC1 shares partial homology with a core Wolbachia gene, glmU (WD0133) and was either not involved in the transfer event or has since been lost from non-Wolbachia genomes. (b) A cellular model illustrates the putative functions associated with this region. Cellular reactions are highlighted in boxes and membrane transporters are drawn as ovals. Wolbachia genes are labeled in blue; Undecim Cluster genes are labeled in red. UC3 (WD0613) is a fusion protein with an N-terminal glycosyltransferase and C-

terminal radical SAM domain; therefore, it is listed twice. Reactions in light gray are likely precursors to multiple pathways in glycosylation, exopolysaccharide biosynthesis, cell division, and/or virulence. Light blue is associated with methylation; dark gray is associated with the production and export of antibiotics and cytotoxic compounds; and navy blue is associated with metabolite transport and biosynthesis. The above functions are predicted based on annotation and homology to other systems. Given the contiguous conservation of the Undecim Cluster throughout prophage WO, all functions, including those not captured in this model, are likely interrelated and influence host-symbiont dynamics.

Phage WO putatively harbors a novel lytic cassette

The most direct impact on *Wolbachia* cellular biology is the potential for phage WO to induce cell lysis [34, 78]. The mechanism of phage-induced cell lysis has been well documented and generally involves a three-component lysis system in gram-negative infecting phages: endolysin, holin, and spanins [79]. This genetic system is noticeably absent from prophage WO genomes, and peptidoglycan, the bacterial target of canonical phage endolysins, has never been detected in *Wolbachia* [80]. We therefore hypothesized that WO phages encode an alternative lytic pathway. The top candidate is a putative and novel patatin-based lytic cassette immediately upstream from the tail module [81].

The cassette contains a patatin-like phospholipase A₂, a small holin-like protein, and an ankyrin-repeat protein. A few prophage WO variants (i.e., WOVitA1, WOAuB, WOPip1, WOPip4, and WOPip5) additionally encode an endonuclease of the phospholipase D family. Patatin-like proteins determine virulence in multiple gram-negative bacteria and specifically facilitate disruption of host cell membranes by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Rickettsia typhi* [82, 83]. They are significantly more common in pathogenic bacteria and symbionts than in non-pathogens,

suggesting a role in host-association [84]. Holins are not easily annotated because they do not share conserved domain sequence homology, yet several lines of evidence suggest the small protein adjacent to patatin is a "holin-like" candidate: it (i) encodes a single N-terminal transmembrane domain with no predicted charge; (ii) features a C-terminal coiled coil motif; (iii) is smaller than 150 amino acid residues; and (iv) has a highly charged C-terminal domain (S11a Fig) [79, 85, 86]. In addition, homologs of this holin-like gene in prophages from bacterial chromosomes other than Wolbachia (e.g., a Tara Oceans Prophage and Holospora sp.) are directly adjacent to a GH108 lysozyme, further supporting its holin-like potential (S11b and S11c Fig, Fig 6). The third conserved gene in this module, an ankyrin repeat protein with a C-terminal transmembrane domain, may have the potential to impact membrane stability similar to spanins of the traditional phage lysis model; alternatively, they may play a role in evasion of the arthropod-host immune response similar to those in sponge-associated Ankyphages [42]. Together, this module is fairly conserved across tailed WO phages and is a likely candidate in the exit and/or entry of phage particles through Wolbachia's multiple membranes.

Other prophage genes in the Wolbachia chromosome are Gene Transfer Agents

(GTAs)

In addition to prophage WO, we identified several non-WO prophage genes (S12 Fig) in the majority of *Wolbachia* Supergroups, including those of the filarial nematodes. Similar to the well-studied GTA of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (RcGTA; [87, 88]), at least six of these genes encode *E. coli* phage HK97-like conserved domains (S5 Table). We also identified GTA terminase genes associated with the *Wolbachia* chromosome. As reported for *Rickettsiales*, the GTA loci are found in multiple locations across the genome rather than organized in an identifiable prophage-like

cluster [89]. To investigate the evolutionary relationship of the GTA genes with their *Wolbachia* host, we performed individual nucleotide alignments and recovered two highly conserved genetic groups that demarcate Supergroup A and B *Wolbachia* (S13 Fig), supporting vertical descent with modification across these major supergroups. While absent from Supergroups J and L of nematodes, they are present across all other *Wolbachia* Supergroups as well as the closely related genera *Candidatus* Mesenet, *Anaplasma*, *Ehrlichia*, and *Rickettsia* (S12b Fig). These results imply that *Wolbachia*'s GTA genes are vertically inherited, codiverge with their bacterial hosts, and likely functional given their intact sequences. They are, however, distinct from phage WO, not indicative of former WO-infections, and may be lost during genome reduction.

Prophage WO beyond Wolbachia

Prophage WO-like variants occur in diverse bacterial endosymbionts and

metagenomes

We identified multiple prophage WO-like variants beyond the *Wolbachia* genus that have gene synteny and nucleotide identity to prophage WO structural modules in: (i) endonuclear bacterial symbionts of *Paramecium* (*Holospora obtusa*, *H. undulata*, *H. elegans*, and *H. curviuscula*) [90]; (ii) metagenome projects from an advanced water treatment facility [91], the Indian Ocean (*Tara* Oceans circumnavigation expedition [92]), and a marine aquaculture habitat [93]; (iii) *Candidatus* Mesenet longicola, the CI-inducing bacterial endosymbiont of *Brontispa longissima* [94]; and (iv) multiple strains of *Orientia tsutsugamushi* isolated from humans (Fig 6a). While the structural genes closely resembled those of prophage WO, novel genes were identified in the replication/repair and lysis modules (Fig 6a, genes with prophage WO homology are highlighted

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

in yellow). All non-Wolbachia variants except Candidatus Mesenet longicola lacked signature Wolbachia phage WO genes such as patatin, ankyrin repeats, and the EAM that are putatively or definitively involved in phage-by-arthropod interactions. Fig 6. WO-like prophage regions are found in endonuclear *Paramecium* endosymbionts, aquatic environments, and other animal-associated bacteria. (a) Genome maps of non-Wolbachia prophage regions illustrate similar gene content and synteny to prophage WO. Locus tags are listed in italics above the genes; NCBI contig accession numbers are shown in the right-hand corner of each genome. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Genes with nucleotide homology to prophage WO are highlighted in yellow and genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. Candidatus Mesenet longicola is the only genome to feature EAM genes, including cifA and cifB. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage genomes. Genome maps for H. elegans and H. curviuscula prophages are not shown. (b) WO-like Islands featuring tail and lysis genes share homology with the Orientia regions and may represent phage-derived bacteriocins. Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Images illustrate the isolation source for each prophage: green borders represent protozoa; blue borders represent aquatic environments; gold borders represent animals. Relative to the full-length genomes recovered from *Holospora*, *Candidatus* Mesenet longicola and the metagenome projects, Orientia prophages appeared to be highly degenerate. These regions featured only tail and lysis genes, but the modules are noticeably intact. Some WO-like Islands, such as WOAlbB2, WONo4, and WOMau3 (Fig 6b), also harbor sole tail and lysis modules. The retention of a complete phage structural module in the bacterial chromosome suggests that it has been domesticated and adapted to benefit the host. For example, several studies report phagederived bacteriocins that consist of tail and lysis genes and target other strains of the same bacterial species [57]. Similarly, an extracellular contractile injection system (eCIS) comprised of phage

tail-like proteins specifically targets eukaryotic cells [95]. Overall, the presence of WO-like variants in non-Wolbachia genera continue to support phage WO lateral transfer between unrelated, coinfecting symbionts. This is further evident by the presence of the CI genes, *cifA* and *cifB*, in the *O. tsutsugamushi* genome [96], which may represent a derived variant of phage WO from *Wolbachia* that has since been domesticated by its bacterial host. Alternatively, the association of CI genes in a bacterium harboring WO-like variants could be indicative of two other possible origins - either the last common ancestor of the WO and WO-like phages encoded *cifA* and *cifB*, or the loci may have originated in WO-like phages and transferred to *Wolbachia*. For divergent, horizontally transferred elements, it is often not possible in practice to assign a direction of evolution and origin story.

Linnaean classification of phage WO

Finally, while phage WO is a model organism to study the tripartite association between viruses, endosymbiotic bacteria, and animal hosts, it is not yet recognized by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV). Recently, the ICTV Executive Committee implemented a pipeline for the official classification of viruses from metagenomic datasets [45], including those originating from integrated prophage sequences. Through our comparative analysis of prophage WO sequences here with those that have been sequenced from active particles (i.e., WOVitA1 and WOCauB3), we propose a formal phage WO taxonomy (Fig 7) to align with the ICTV Linnaean-based classification code [44]. The correlation between common name and proposed scientific name for each taxonomic rank is listed in Table 1.

Fig 7. Comparative genomics supports a new order-level designation for prophage WO classification.

Symbiovirales is proposed as a new taxonomic order of tailed phages within the class *Caudoviricetes*. It contains viruses that primarily infect *Wolbachia* (proposed family Woviridae) and other symbionts (proposed family Holoviridae). Two proposed subfamilies, Kuehnivirinae and Pipivirinae, distinguish the sr1WO/sr2WO and sr3WO clades (Figs 2 and 3, respectively). Three proposed genera of Woviridae include Cautellavirus (sr1WO), Vitrivirus (sr2WO), and Taiwavirus (sr3WO). sr4WO prophages are currently unclassified. Holoviridae contains a single proposed genus, Paramecivirus, that encompasses closely related prophages of *Holospora* and metagenomeassembled genomes (MAGs) from aquatic environments.

Table 1. The correlation between common name and proposed scientific name is listed for each phage WO exemplar variant and taxonomic rank.

| WO Exemplar | | | |
|-------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Variant | Taxonomic Rank | Common Name | Proposed Scientific Name |
| | Species | WOCauB3 | Wolbachia virus WOCauB3 |
| | Genus | sr1WO | Cautellavirus |
| WOCauB3 | Subfamily | N/A | Kuehnivirinae |
| | Family | Phage WO | Woviridae |
| | Order | WO-like viruses | Symbiovirales |
| WOVitA1 | Species | WOVitA1 | Wolbachia virus WOVitA1 |
| | Genus | sr2WO | Vitrivirus |
| | Subfamily | N/A | Kuehnivirinae |
| | Family | Phage WO | Woviridae |
| | Order | WO-like viruses | Symbiovirales |
| WOMelB | Species | WOMelB | Wolbachia virus WOMelB |
| | Genus | sr3WO | Taiwavirus |
| | Subfamily | N/A | Pipivirinae |
| | Family | Phage WO | Woviridae |
| | Order | WO-like viruses | Symbiovirales |
| | | | |

We propose that all phage WO and WO-like viruses be classified in existing class *Caudoviricetes* (phylum *Uroviricota*; kingdom *Heunggongvirae*; realm *Duplodnaviria*) for tailed phages based on the presence of a tail module and observed tail-like structure in electron microscopy [34, 78].

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

We propose the new order Symbiovirales to recognize the association of these viruses with endosymbionts. Two proposed families, Woviridae and Holoviridae, are named after the first bacterial host identified for each family (Wolbachia endosymbionts of arthropods and Holospora endonuclear symbionts of Paramecium, respectively). Modules shared across the proposed Symbiovirales order are recombinase, replication, head, connector/baseplate, tail fiber, tail, and a putative lytic cassette (See Fig 8 for a summary of taxonomic traits). Fig 8. Linnaean classification of prophage WO-like viruses is supported by taxonomic traits at the order, family, subfamily, and genus level. (a) Proposed order Symbiovirales encompasses viruses that infect symbiotic bacteria, contain a large serine recombinase for integration and a PAAR gene in the connector/baseplate module, and feature a conserved set of core phage modules. They share nucleotide homology to Wolbachia's prophages. (b) Subfamilies are classified by presence (Woviridae) or absence (Holoviridae) of an EAM and ankyrin repeat containing proteins. Woviridae may utilize patatin for lysis whereas Holoviridae encode a canonical GH108 endolysin. (c) Two proposed subfamilies address the diversity of chromosomal integration patterns and EAM location of prophages within the Woviridae family. (d) Proposed genera are further distinguished by multiple factors including structural module synteny, HTH_XRE domains, and genome composition. The suggested family Woviridae encompasses all phage WO and prophage WO variants and is distinguishable by the presence of EAM and eukaryotic-like genes, a patatin-like phospholipase, and multiple ankyrin repeat containing proteins (Fig 8). Upon ICTV approval, Woviridae will be split into two subfamilies - Kuehnivirinae and Pipivirinae - named after the first purification of phage WO particles from *Ephestia kuehniella* [37] and *Culex pipiens* [35], respectively.

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

The proposed Kuehnivirinae will encompass two genera for phages that integrate into discrete att sites and feature 3'-placement of the prophage EAM. The first suggested genus of this subfamily, Cautellavirus, recognizes the sequenced genomes from wCauB phages [37, 38] and encompasses all sr1WO prophages (Fig 7). Cautellavirus core module synteny (replication, head, connector/baseplate) is inverted relative to other members of the proposed Woviridae; the ankyrin located between the tail module and putative lytic cassette is encoded on the opposite strand; and the genome does not contain a methylase/ParB protein (S1 Fig). The second suggested genus of this subfamily, Vitrivirus, recognizes the first fully sequenced genome from phage WOVitA1 particles [39] and encompasses all sr2WO prophages (Fig 7). Members of this genus feature discrete integration into the VNTR-105 locus, and the recombinase is adjacent to ankyrin repeats rather than WO-PC1. Members of the proposed subfamily Pipivirinae are currently not associated with distinct att sites and are often flanked by EAM-like genes and transposases (S4 Table) on both ends of the integrated genome. Pipivirinae contains only one genus, Taiwavirus, named after the first prophage WO sequence fragment from wTai [3, 78]. The proposed genus Taiwavirus will encompasses all sr3WO prophages (Fig 7) and is the most speciose genus of Symbiovirales. Likewise, it also features the greatest number of degraded prophage regions both within and across diverse Wolbachia. As more prophages are sequenced, it may be prudent to further classify this clade into subgenera based on presence or absence of the Undecim Cluster (Fig 2). Finally, the WO-like prophages of Candidatus Mesenet longicola are likely classified as Woviridae due to nucleotide homology of structural genes and the presence of cifA; B containing

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

EAM, but complete sequence information (specifically the recombinase and 5'-region beyond the CI loci) is necessary to definitively classify these phages. Likewise, the wFol prophages will remain as *Unclassified* Woviridae until more genomes are sequenced to provide definitive taxonomic characteristics for the sr4WO variants. As more prophage WO genomes are sequenced, we propose using the srWO designation as a "common name" that roughly correlates with genuslevel demarcation and referencing srWO when proposing future additions to the Woviridae taxonomy. The proposed family Holoviridae includes the WO-like prophages from most non-Wolbachia metagenomic sequences and is currently comprised of phages from aquatic endosymbionts. They lack an EAM and ankyrin repeat containing proteins, feature a GH108 hydrolase rather than patatin-like phospholipase in the putative lytic cassette, and encode LexA and YqaJ that are generally absent from Woviridae genomes (Fig 6). Due to gene synteny and sequence homology of these prophage genomes, all species are currently classified into a single Paramecivirus genus. The first representatives of this genus were identified in *Holospora* spp., endonuclear symbionts of *Paramecium caudatum* and *P. bursaria* [97]. In summary, we propose that viruses should be classified as Symbiovirales based on reciprocal BLAST homology and shared gene content with core phage WO. The large serine recombinase can be used as a typing tool (Fig 3a) and intact genomes for inclusion should include (i) recombinase, (ii) replication and repair, (iii) connector/baseplate, (iv) tail fiber, (v) tail, and (vi) lytic modules. Woviridae are delineated by the presence of a eukaryotic association module (EAM), multiple ankyrin repeats, and a patatin-containing lytic module. Holoviridae are

characterized by the absence of an EAM, lack of ankyrin repeats, and a GH108-containing lytic module.

Discussion

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

The survey of 150 genomes coupled with manual annotations and comparative sequence analyses offers the most comprehensive overview of Wolbachia prophage WO genomics, distribution, and classification to date. From these analyses, we propose four major prophage WO variants corresponding with genus-level Linnaean taxonomy and support the creation of a new order Symbiovirales (within the *Caudoviricetes*) containing two distinct families, Woviridae and Holoviridae. Results presented above suggest that tailed, intact prophage WO genomes serve as a proxy for estimating prophage autonomy vs. domestication in the Wolbachia genome where multiple "degraded" prophages and WO-like Islands are indicative of prophage WO domestication by the bacterial host. WO regions enriched with transposable elements contribute to genome plasticity of the bacterial chromosome and may play a role in the domestication of these prophages. One such region, Octomom, has a putative WO origin in which a former EAM region is dynamically replicated or eliminated, and is associated with pathogenicity when not in a 1:1 ratio with its ancestral prophage. Finally, while there is currently no transformation system for Wolbachia, future applications may take advantage of conserved integration loci associated with each srWO and utilize the serine recombinase to introduce new genetic material into the bacterial chromosome.

Establishment of the prophage WO database

To assist future analyses of prophage WO, a database of genomes discussed in this study is publicly available at https://lab.vanderbilt.edu/bordenstein/phage-wo/. The Prophage WO Database features sequence data, enhanced annotations, and phylogenetic tools to support: (i) identification of prophage WO regions in newly assembled *Wolbachia* genomes; (ii) annotation of the Undecim Cluster, cytoplasmic incompatibility (*cif*) genes, putative EAM genes, WO-PC2, and other WO-associated regions; and (iii) taxonomic classification of prophage WO-like viruses.

Methods

695

696

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

Prophage WO genome maps and chromosomal integration patterns Prophage WO regions were manually retrieved from sequenced Wolbachia genomes in GenBank via BLASTN searches against each individual Wolbachia genome in the Nucleotide (NR/NT) and WGS databases [43]. Genomes from WOCauB3, WOVitA1, WOMelB, WOPip5, and WOFol3 were the primary reference genomes used for each search. Because most prophage regions were incomplete and located at the ends of contigs, we selected more complete assemblies for comparative genomics: wRi, wAna, wSuzi, wVitA, wHa, wMel, wPip, wNo, wAu, wIrr, wFol, wAlbB, wMau, and the previously described prophage genomes WOKue, WOCauB2, WOCauB3, WOSol, WORecA, and WORecB (See S1 Table for accession numbers). All genomes were reannotated in Geneious Prime v2019.2 using the InterProScan [98] plug-in along with information from BLASTP [99], Pfam [100], HHPRED [101], ISFinder [102], and SMART [103] databases. Prophages were then organized into groups based on similar gene content and module organization. Whole genome alignments were performed with the Mauve [104] plug-in in Geneious. Prophage genomic boundaries for sr1WO and sr2WO were defined by 5' and 3' homology to a known attP site (discussed below). Prophage genomic boundaries for sr3WO and sr4WO were identified by translating each prophage gene and "walking out" from the structural modules by using a BLASTP of each gene product against the core Wolbachia genome. If a gene was identified in most Wolbachia strains, including those infecting nematodes, as well as in the closely related genera Ehrlichia and Anaplasma, it was considered a core Wolbachia gene and not included in the

prophage annotation. If a gene was only present in WO-like regions of other *Wolbachia* genomes, it was considered a phage-associated gene. Because the HTH_XRE transcriptional regulators (WO-PC2) were identified in phage purifications from WOCauB3 and WOVitA1, any genes located between the structural modules and WO-PC2 were considered part of the prophage genome. Through this method, we identified flanking 5' and 3' transposases that separated phage-associated genes and the bacterial chromosome in sr3WO and sr4WO regions. Because some transposable elements did not fall within the known IS Groups for *Wolbachia* [2], they were comparably annotated to IS Family using ISFinder.

Chromosomal integration patterns were analyzed by similarly aligning all circular genomes based on the putative origin of replication, *ori* [61]: WD1027 (CBS domain-containing)-like genes were oriented in the reverse direction and WD1028 (*hemE*)-like genes were oriented in the forward direction. The nt-distance from *ori* to the prophage recombinase, or 5'-gene, was divided by the length of the total *Wolbachia* genome and multiplied by 100 for a % distance from *ori*. The *w*VitA and *w*Rec genome arrangements may not be exact as they contain multiple scaffold breaks and genome orientation was estimated based on homology to closely related genomes.

Recombinase homology and phylogenetics

Large serine recombinase genes from each reference genome were translated and aligned using the MUSCLE [105] plugin in Geneious. The best model of evolution, according to corrected Akaike information criteria, was determined by ProtTest [106, 107] and the phylogenetic tree was constructed using default parameters of the MrBayes [108] plugin in Geneious with Rate

Matrix=jones and Rate Variation=invgamma. A Consensus Tree was built with a support threshold of 50% and burn-in of 10%.

Phage WO att sites

The *attP* sites for WOVitA1 and WOCauB3 were previously identified by sequencing active phage particles and confirmed with PCR and Sanger sequencing [39]. Each *attP* sequence was submitted as a BLASTN query against *Wolbachia* genomes harboring similar prophage haplotypes to identify specific *attL* and *attR* sites. The *attB* sites were predicted by concatenating chromosomal sequences adjacent to *attL* and *attR*. The predicted *attB* sites were then used as queries in a BLASTN search against *Wolbachia* genomes to confirm that the sequences exist, uninterrupted, in chromosomes lacking similar prophage haplotypes.

Phage WO beyond Wolbachia

Contigs containing WO-like prophage regions in *Holospora*, *Orientia*, *Candidatus* Mesenet, and multiple metagenome-associated taxa were identified by a BLASTP query of prophage WO sequences against the NCBI database. The nucleotide sequence for each homolog (usually a contig in the WGS database) was manually inspected for WO-like regions. If detected, the boundaries of each prophage region were determined using the similar "walk out" BLASTP approach described above, looking for homology to other phage or bacterial genes. All non-Anaplasmataceae prophage genomes had concise boundaries (recombinase and lysis module) that did not include an EAM.

Identification of Gene Transfer Agents

The genome annotations used for comparative genomics were manually inspected for keywords *phage, capsid*, and *tail*. Any gene not within an annotated prophage WO region was translated and a BLASTP was performed against the NCBI database. Based on top hits, genes were binned into "WO-like" indicating homology to phage WO and "GTA" indicating homology to HK97 phage.

Taxonomic Classification

The proposed taxonomic classification of phage WO was drafted in accordance with ICTV guidelines for genome-based taxonomy [109] and will be formally reviewed by the Committee in the next cycle. Specifically, it is recommended that phages should be assigned the same species if their genomes are more than 95% identical; assigned the same genus if genomes share 80% nucleotide identity across the genome length and form monophyletic groups based on a phylogenetic tree of signature gene(s); assigned the same subfamily (optional) if they share a low degree of sequence similarity and the genera form a clade in a marker tree phylogeny; assigned the same family if they share orthologous genes and form a cohesive and monophyletic group in a proteome-based clustering tool; and assigned the same order when two or more families are related. Prophage WO taxonomic classification satisfied all demarcation criteria except for genus designation. At the genus level, due to the high variability of the EAM, we applied alternative criteria: genomes should (i) share >70% nucleotide homology across >30% of the genome; (ii) form a distinct phylogenetic clade based on the amino acid sequence of the signature typing gene, large serine recombinase; and (iii) demonstrate shared gene and module synteny.

Supplementary Figures

S1 Fig. Cautellavirus (sr1WO) genome maps. Genome maps of sr1WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. All genomes contain tail modules with the exception of the partial WOVitA2 sequence. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. The large, black diagonal lines between the recombinase and transposase in WORiC and WOSuziC represent post-integration rearrangement of the prophage region in the *Wolbachia* chromosome. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text.

S2 Fig. Vitrivirus (sr2WO) genome maps. Genome maps of sr2WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. WOVitA1-like prophage genomes encode all structural modules (shaded in blue) and an EAM (shaded in gray) whereas WORiA-like prophage genomes encode an intact head module, recombinase, lysozyme, AAA16, and disrupted connector. They lack most other modules. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text. S3 Fig. Taiwavirus (sr3WO) genome maps. Genome maps of sr3WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. Three wPip prophages exist as one contiguous prophage region in the Wolbachia genome and are illustrated here as WOPip1, WOPip2, and WOPip3 (based on [110]). Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. sr3WO is comprised of highly variable genomes that are often flanked by mobile elements (transposases are shown in yellow). They generally contain a recombinase, connector/baseplate, head, and EAM with only a few genomes encoding a complete tail. Prophages in this group often contain cifA; B (pink). Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text. S4 Fig. Taiwavirus (sr3WO and sr3WO-Undecim Cluster) genome maps. Genome maps of sr3WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. WOIrr is one contiguous prophage region in the Wolbachia genome that is illustrated here as Segment 1 and Segment 2. A subset of sr3WO prophages is further categorized by the presence of a highly

conserved WD0611-WD0621 like region, termed the Undecim Cluster (navy blue). Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. sr3WO is comprised of highly variable genomes that are often flanked by mobile elements (transposases are shown in yellow). Prophages in this group often contain *cifA;B* (pink). Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text.

S5 Fig. Taiwavirus (sr3WO-Undecim Cluster) genome maps. Genome maps of sr3WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. This subset of sr3WO prophages is further categorized by the presence of a highly conserved WD0611-WD0621 like region, termed the Undecim Cluster (navy blue). Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. sr3WO is comprised of highly variable genomes that are often flanked by mobile elements (transposases are shown in yellow). Prophages in this group often contain *cifA;B* (pink). Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly whereas small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text.

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

874

875

876

S6 Fig. Unclassified (sr4WO) genome maps. Genome maps of sr4WO prophage regions where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. To date, sr4WO prophages have only been identified in the parthenogenic strain of Folsomia candida, wFol. WOFol2 is one contiguous prophage region in the Wolbachia genome that is illustrated here as Segment 1 and Segment 2. Likewise, the WOFol3 prophage region is illustrated as three segments. Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Small diagonal lines represent a continuation of the genome onto the next line. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text. S7 Fig. WO-like Island genome maps. Genome maps of WO-like Islands where genes are drawn to scale in forward and reverse directions. These regions contain only one structural module and/or group of WO-related genes. Regions flanked by assembly breaks (i.e., WORecB, WORecA, and wVitA) are tentatively classified as WO-like Islands due to lack of a full-length prophage in the genome assembly. Names are based on the original author's description. If it was identified as a prophage in the genome announcement, the reported WO name is listed here. Otherwise, the name simply refers to the encoding Wolbachia genome. Many WO-like Islands contain cifA;B; some Islands (i.e., wNo, wVitA, WOMau4, and WOAlbB3) contain both Type III cifA; B (pink) and the Undecim Cluster (navy blue). Predicted physical structures are illustrated to the left of each genome. Prophage WO Core Genes are shaded in blue and predicted EAM genes are shaded in

878

879

880

881

882

883

884

885

886

887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

897

898

gray. Genes of similar function are similarly color-coded according to the figure legend. Locus tags, if available, are listed in italics above the genes. Dashed lines represent breaks in the assembly. Arrows with diagonal stripes represent genes that may be pseudogenized relative to homologs in other prophage WO genomes. The putative function for each structural gene is discussed in S1 Text.

S8 Fig. In silico predictions of phage WO attachment (att) sites. An integrated prophage sequence contains left and right attachment sites (attL and attR, respectively) at the points of chromosomal integration. Half of the att site is phage-derived (green); the other half is bacterial derived (black). If the DNA sequence of the bacterial attachment site (attB, black) is known, a nucleotide alignment of the intact sequence with the integrated prophage genome will correlate with 5'- (attL) and 3'- (attR) prophage boundaries. (a) WORiC, a member of sr1WO, integrates into wRi's magnesium chelatase gene. By aligning an intact copy of this gene (WD0721) from closely related wMel that does not harbor sr1WO, (b) the juncture points of the disrupted magnesium chelatase indicate the attL and attR sites for the WORiC prophage region within the wRi genome. (b) The phage attachment site (attP, green) is predicted in silico by concatenating the non-Wolbachia portions of the attL and attR sites. (c) Likewise, this method can also be applied when the bacterial integration locus is intergenic. The homologous intergenic region of closely related, sr1WO-free wPip can be used to predict att sites for WOCauB3. Nucleotides in orange represent a common region, O, that is shared by all four att sites. This method was adapted from [39] where the *attP* site was used to predict the *attB* site of sr2WO phages.

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

920

S9 Fig. RT is associated with duplication, inversion, and recombination of the prophage WO **genome.** (a) The WOMelB prophage genomes of wMel2_a and wMel2_b are duplicated relative to the wMel reference genome [72]. (b) The entire WORiB prophage region is duplicated in wRi [19]. (c) WOHa1 encodes a second, pseudogenized cifA; B-containing region relative to closely related WOAuA, WORiB, WOSuziB, and WOSol prophages. (d) A ligase-containing region is duplicated in wFol's WOFol1 and WOFol2 [56]. (e) Based on homology to other prophage regions (Fig 2), the connector/baseplate should be adjacent to a head module and the WOPC-2 and replication genes should be oriented in the opposite direction; this indicates a likely insertion and/or recombination in the WOFol3 prophage region. (f) The WOIrr head module is inverted relative to other sr3WOs. Genes are illustrated as arrows; putative gene annotations are labeled in S1-S7 Figs. In each example, the regions of chromosomal rearrangement are highlighted in light orange and flanked by at least one RT. S10 Fig. Comparative genomics of Octomom-like variants across diverse Wolbachia. Octomom (yellow-orange) and Octomom-like (green) regions are illustrated for wMelCS, wMel, wSYT clade, and wPip. Characteristics of each region are listed next to the genome schematic. Notably, the wMelCS genome, representative of the dynamic wMelPop, is distinguished from other variants by intact, flanking reverse transcriptases of group II intron origin (RT) on both sides. wPip, the only Wolbachia Supergroup B variant, is the most divergent and not associated with an RT, MutL or ankyrin repeat. Rather it is adjacent to WP1349, another gene that has been horizontally transferred between phage and arthropod [71].

922

923

924

925

926

927

928

929

930

931

932

933

934

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943

closely related Anaplasmataceae genera.

S11 Fig. Prophage WO encodes a putative lytic cassette. Adjacent to the tail module of most prophage WO variants are three phage lysis candidates: ankyrin repeat containing protein (not shown), holin-like, and patatin-like phospholipase. (a) Similar to canonical holins, the prophage WO gene product encodes a single N-terminal transmembrane domain with no predicted charge. It is smaller than 150 amino acid residues, features a C-terminal coiled coil motif, and has a highly charged C-terminal domain. Unlike canonical holins, however, it is adjacent to a patatin-like gene rather than a characterized endolysin. (b) The prophage WO holin-like peptide shares 41.1% amino acid identity to a homolog in the non-Wolbachia prophage from the Tara Oceans Project that is directly adjacent to a GH108 lysozyme (complete genome illustrated in Fig 6). (c) A Mauve alignment of these genomic regions (core phage modules only; EAM not included) indicates 50.3% nucleotide identity across the majority of the sequence, including the holin-like gene (marked with a gold star). The similarity of these prophages suggest that prophage WO may utilize a similar holin-like gene with a different lytic enzyme (i.e., patatin rather than lysozyme) to lyse the bacterial cell. S12 Fig. Wolbachia contains both prophage regions and GTA-like genes scattered through the chromosome. (a) Circular wMel contains three prophage WO-like regions (teal) and multiple genes with homology to GTAs (orange) scattered throughout the genome, illustrated relative to the putative origin of replication (ori, gray). The Undecim Cluster is highlighted in navy blue, cifA; B are highlighted in pink, and wmk is highlighted in purple. (b) GTAs are present in at least one strain of each Wolbachia Supergroup except Supergroups J and L. They are also present in

S13 Fig. Distance matrices of GTA nucleotide homology indicate evolution with the *Wolbachia* **chromosome.** Nucleotide alignments of GTA genes (a) portal, (b) BRO599, (c) TIM barrel, (d) major capsid, (e) head-tail connector, and (f) terminase indicate strict delineation based on *Wolbachia* supergroup. This supports evolution with the *Wolbachia* chromosome rather than independent evolution of a phage genome.

Supplementary Tables

S1 Table. Prophage WO genes are associated with arthropod-infecting Wolbachia. Wolbachia genomes are listed according to (A) host phylum; (B) Wolbachia supergroup; (C) Wolbachia name (D) host species and (E) host strain/lineage, if applicable; (F) NCBI accession number; (G) genome assembly status; (H) identification of prophage WO core genes; (I) identification of CI genes; and (J) identification of the Undecim Cluster. Wolbachia strains that did not include official names in the assembly reports are listed here using a capital letter for host genus and two to three lowercase letters for host species. "Highly pseudogenized" in column H indicates that the prophage genome is highly pseudogenized and encodes very few Core WO genes. (*) indicates that the genome lacks a complete Undecim Cluster but encodes WD0616 and/or WD0621 homologs. (**) indicates that the genome was not included as Source Data for Fig 1b due to incomplete genome information.

S2 Table. *w***Mhie encodes prophage WO genes.** *w***Mhie**, a *Wolbachia* endosymbiont from the nematode *Madathamugadia hiepei*, encodes four genes that are conserved throughout phage WO's transcriptional regulation and replication/repair modules. Each gene is listed by locus tag, annotation, and nucleotide homology to prophage WOVitA1.

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

980

981

982

983

984

985

986

987

988

S3 Table. cifA and cifB genes are associated with Wolbachia Supergroups F and T. cifA and cifB are identified in Supergroups F and T. NCBI accession numbers and genomic coordinates (or locus tags) are provided for each locus. S4 Table. Diversity of prophage WO mobile elements. All mobile elements, both flanking and internal, are listed for each prophage WO genome according to original genome annotations and ISFinder [102]. The sr1WO group and WOVitA1-like prophages of the sr2WO group do not feature transposases on the 5'- and 3'- flanking regions. The WORiA-like prophages of the sr2WO group are associated with 3'- transposases; these correlate with putative truncations of the prophage regions. Most genomes within the sr3WO group feature mobile elements on both 5'- and 3'- ends. IS refers to Insertion Sequence Family; RT refers to reverse transcriptase of group II intron origin; Rpn refers to recombination promoting nuclease. (*) indicates a sequencing gap or artificial join in the Wolbachia genome. Complete sequence information is unknown. (**) indicates that these prophage sequences were obtained from contigs and may be segmented in the Wolbachia chromosome; the exact 5' and 3' ends are uncertain. Genomic locations for each mobile element are illustrated in S1-S7 Figs. S5 Table. Wolbachia GTA genes. The annotation of Wolbachia's distributed GTA genes is based on a BLASTP against NCBI Conserved Domains; E-values are listed in column B.

Supplementary Text

989

990

991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999

1000

S1 Text: Phage WO Structural Modules.

Phage WO structural genes are organized into head, connector/baseplate, tail, and tail fiber

modules. The predicted function of each gene is discussed based on conserved protein domains

and homology to other model systems, including lambda, T4, P2, and Mu phages.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Evelien Adriaenssens for helpful guidance with the taxonomic

classification of prophage regions.

Author Contributions

Contributor Role Role Definition

Conceptualization Sarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

Data Curation Sarah Bordenstein

Formal Analysis Sarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

Funding AcquisitionSeth BordensteinInvestigationSarah Bordenstein

Methodology Sarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

Project Administration Sarah Bordenstein

Resources Sarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

Software Sarah Bordenstein

SupervisionSarah Bordenstein and Seth BordensteinValidationSarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

Visualization Sarah Bordenstein **Writing – Original Draft Preparation** Sarah Bordenstein

Writing – Review & Editing Sarah Bordenstein and Seth Bordenstein

| List of Abbreviations |
|---|
| CI – cytoplasmic incompatibility |
| EAM – eukaryotic association module |
| GTA – gene transfer agent |
| ICTV - International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses |
| IS – insertion sequence |
| HTH – helix-turn-helix |
| NCBI – National Center for Biotechnology Information |
| Rpn – recombination-promotion nuclease |
| RT – reverse transcriptase of group II intron origin |
| VNTR – variable number tandem repeat |
| WO-PC1 – WO protein cluster 1 |
| |

WO-PC2 – WO protein cluster 2

References

1015

- 1016 1. Newton IL, Bordenstein SR. Correlations between bacterial ecology and mobile DNA.
- 1017 Curr Microbiol. 2011;62(1):198-208. doi: 10.1007/s00284-010-9693-3. pmid: 20577742
- 1018 2. Cerveau N, Leclercq S, Leroy E, Bouchon D, Cordaux R. Short- and long-term
- 1019 evolutionary dynamics of bacterial insertion sequences: insights from Wolbachia
- 1020 endosymbionts. Genome Biol Evol. 2011;3:1175-86. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evr096. pmid: 21940637
- 1021 3. Masui S, Kamoda S, Sasaki T, Ishikawa H. Distribution and evolution of bacteriophage
- 1022 WO in Wolbachia, the endosymbiont causing sexual alterations in arthropods. J Mol Evol.
- 1023 2000;51(5):491-7. doi: 10.1007/s002390010112. pmid: 11080372
- 1024 4. Kent BN, Bordenstein SR. Phage WO of Wolbachia: lambda of the endosymbiont world.
- Trends Microbiol. 2010;18(4):173-81. doi: 10.1016/j.tim.2009.12.011. pmid: 20083406
- 1026 5. Reveillaud J, Bordenstein SR, Cruaud C, Shaiber A, Esen OC, Weill M, et al. The
- 1027 Wolbachia mobilome in Culex pipiens includes a putative plasmid. Nat Commun.
- 1028 2019;10(1):1051. doi: 10.1038/s41467-019-08973-w. pmid: 30837458
- 1029 6. Baiao GC, Janice J, Galinou M, Klasson L. Comparative genomics reveals factors
- associated with phenotypic expression of Wolbachia. Genome Biol Evol. 2021. doi:
- 1031 10.1093/gbe/evab111. pmid: 34003269
- 1032 7. Kaur R, Shropshire JD, Cross KL, Leigh B, Mansueto AJ, Stewart V, et al. Living in the
- endosymbiotic world of *Wolbachia*: A centennial review. Cell Host Microbe. 2021;29(6):879-93.
- 1034 doi: 10.1016/j.chom.2021.03.006. pmid: 33945798
- 1035 8. Weinert LA, Araujo-Jnr EV, Ahmed MZ, Welch JJ. The incidence of bacterial
- endosymbionts in terrestrial arthropods. Proc Biol Sci. 2015;282(1807):20150249. doi:
- 1037 doi:10.1098/rspb.2015.0249. pmid: 25904667
- 1038 9. Pruneau L, Moumene A, Meyer DF, Marcelino I, Lefrancois T, Vachiery N. Understanding
- 1039 Anaplasmataceae pathogenesis using "Omics" approaches. Front Cell Infect Microbiol.
- 1040 2014;4:86. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2014.00086. pmid: 25072029
- 1041 10. Vavre F, Fleury F, Lepetit D, Fouillet P, Bouletreau M. Phylogenetic evidence for
- 1042 horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* in host-parasitoid associations. Mol Biol Evol.
- 1043 1999;16(12):1711-23. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a026084. pmid: 10605113
- 1044 11. Boyle L, O'Neill SL, Robertson HM, Karr TL. Interspecific and intraspecific horizontal
- 1045 transfer of *Wolbachia* in *Drosophila*. Science. 1993;260(5115):1796-9. doi:
- 1046 10.1126/science.8511587. pmid: 8511587
- 1047 12. Chafee ME, Funk DJ, Harrison RG, Bordenstein SR. Lateral phage transfer in obligate
- intracellular bacteria (Wolbachia): verification from natural populations. Mol Biol Evol.
- 1049 2010;27(3):501-5. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msp275. pmid: 19906794
- 1050 13. Wang N, Jia S, Xu H, Liu Y, Huang D. Multiple Horizontal Transfers of Bacteriophage WO
- and Host Wolbachia in Fig Wasps in a Closed Community. Front Microbiol. 2016;7:136. doi:
- 1052 10.3389/fmicb.2016.00136. pmid: 26913026
- 1053 14. Kent BN, Salichos L, Gibbons JG, Rokas A, Newton IL, Clark ME, et al. Complete
- 1054 bacteriophage transfer in a bacterial endosymbiont (Wolbachia) determined by targeted
- 1055 genome capture. Genome Biol Evol. 2011;3:209-18. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evr007. pmid: 21292630

- 1056 15. Gavotte L, Henri H, Stouthamer R, Charif D, Charlat S, Bouletreau M, et al. A Survey of
- the bacteriophage WO in the endosymbiotic bacteria Wolbachia. Mol Biol Evol. 2007;24(2):427-
- 1058 35. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msl171. pmid: 17095536
- 1059 16. Bordenstein SR, Wernegreen JJ. Bacteriophage flux in endosymbionts (Wolbachia):
- infection frequency, lateral transfer, and recombination rates. Mol Biol Evol. 2004;21(10):1981-
- 1061 91. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msh211. pmid: 15254259
- 1062 17. Ishmael N, Dunning Hotopp JC, Ioannidis P, Biber S, Sakamoto J, Siozios S, et al.
- 1063 Extensive genomic diversity of closely related Wolbachia strains. Microbiology. 2009;155(Pt
- 1064 7):2211-22. doi: 10.1099/mic.0.027581-0. pmid: 19389774
- 1065 18. Kent BN, Funkhouser LJ, Setia S, Bordenstein SR. Evolutionary genomics of a temperate
- bacteriophage in an obligate intracellular bacteria (Wolbachia). PLoS One. 2011;6(9):e24984.
- 1067 doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0024984. pmid: 21949820
- 1068 19. Klasson L, Westberg J, Sapountzis P, Naslund K, Lutnaes Y, Darby AC, et al. The mosaic
- genome structure of the Wolbachia wRi strain infecting Drosophila simulans. Proc Natl Acad Sci
- 1070 U S A. 2009;106(14):5725-30. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0810753106. pmid: 19307581
- 1071 20. Sanogo YO, Dobson SL. WO bacteriophage transcription in Wolbachia-infected Culex
- 1072 *pipiens*. Insect Biochem Mol Biol. 2006;36(1):80-5. doi: 10.1016/j.ibmb.2005.11.001. pmid:
- 1073 16360953
- 1074 21. Werren JH, Baldo L, Clark ME. Wolbachia: master manipulators of invertebrate biology.
- 1075 Nat Rev Microbiol. 2008;6(10):741-51. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro1969. pmid: 18794912
- 1076 22. Charlat S, Hurst GD, Mercot H. Evolutionary consequences of *Wolbachia* infections.
- 1077 Trends Genet. 2003;19(4):217-23. doi: 10.1016/S0168-9525(03)00024-6. pmid: 12683975
- 1078 23. Fenn K, Blaxter M. Wolbachia genomes: revealing the biology of parasitism and
- 1079 mutualism. Trends Parasitol. 2006;22(2):60-5. doi: 10.1016/j.pt.2005.12.012. pmid: 16406333
- 1080 24. Slatko BE, Taylor MJ, Foster JM. The Wolbachia endosymbiont as an anti-filarial
- nematode target. Symbiosis. 2010;51(1):55-65. doi: 10.1007/s13199-010-0067-1. pmid:
- 1082 20730111
- 1083 25. Yamada R, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Brownlie JC, O'Neill SL. Functional test of the influence of
- 1084 Wolbachia genes on cytoplasmic incompatibility expression in Drosophila melanogaster. Insect
- 1085 Mol Biol. 2011;20(1):75-85. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2583.2010.01042.x. pmid: 20854481
- 1086 26. Sinkins SP, Walker T, Lynd AR, Steven AR, Makepeace BL, Godfray HC, et al. Wolbachia
- variability and host effects on crossing type in *Culex* mosquitoes. Nature. 2005;436(7048):257-
- 1088 60. doi: 10.1038/nature03629. pmid: 16015330
- 1089 27. Duron O, Fort P, Weill M. Hypervariable prophage WO sequences describe an
- unexpected high number of Wolbachia variants in the mosquito Culex pipiens. Proc Biol Sci.
- 1091 2006;273(1585):495-502. doi: 10.1098/rspb.2005.3336. pmid: 16615218
- 1092 28. Duron O, Bernard C, Unal S, Berthomieu A, Berticat C, Weill M. Tracking factors
- modulating cytoplasmic incompatibilities in the mosquito *Culex pipiens*. Mol Ecol.
- 1094 2006;15(10):3061-71. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-294X.2006.02996.x. pmid: 16911221
- 1095 29. LePage DP, Metcalf JA, Bordenstein SR, On J, Perlmutter JI, Shropshire JD, et al.
- 1096 Prophage WO genes recapitulate and enhance Wolbachia-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility.
- 1097 Nature. 2017;543(7644):243-7. doi: 10.1038/nature21391. pmid: 28241146

- 1098 30. Shropshire JD, On J, Layton EM, Zhou H, Bordenstein SR. One prophage WO gene
- 1099 rescues cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
- 1100 2018;115(19):4987-91. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1800650115. pmid: 29686091
- 1101 31. Chen H, Ronau JA, Beckmann JF, Hochstrasser M. A Wolbachia nuclease and its binding
- partner provide a distinct mechanism for cytoplasmic incompatibility. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
- 2019;116(44):22314-21. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1914571116. pmid: 31615889
- 1104 32. Beckmann JF, Ronau JA, Hochstrasser M. A Wolbachia deubiquitylating enzyme induces
- cytoplasmic incompatibility. Nat Microbiol. 2017;2:17007. doi: 10.1038/nmicrobiol.2017.7.
- 1106 pmid: 28248294
- 1107 33. Perlmutter JI, Bordenstein SR, Unckless RL, LePage DP, Metcalf JA, Hill T, et al. The phage
- gene *wmk* is a candidate for male killing by a bacterial endosymbiont. PLoS Pathog.
- 1109 2019;15(9):e1007936. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1007936. pmid: 31504075
- 1110 34. Bordenstein SR, Marshall ML, Fry AJ, Kim U, Wernegreen JJ. The tripartite associations
- between bacteriophage, Wolbachia, and arthropods. PLoS Pathog. 2006;2(5):e43. doi:
- 1112 10.1371/journal.ppat.0020043. pmid: 16710453
- 1113 35. Wright JD, Sjostrand FS, Portaro JK, Barr AR. The ultrastructure of the rickettsia-like
- 1114 microorganism Wolbachia pipientis and associated virus-like bodies in the mosquito Culex
- pipiens. J Ultrastruct Res. 1978;63(1):79-85. doi: 10.1016/s0022-5320(78)80046-x pmid: 671578
- 1116 36. Biliske JA, Batista PD, Grant CL, Harris HL. The bacteriophage WORiC is the active phage
- 1117 element in wRi of Drosophila simulans and represents a conserved class of WO phages. BMC
- 1118 Microbiol. 2011;11:251. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-11-251. pmid: 22085419
- 1119 37. Fujii Y, Kubo T, Ishikawa H, Sasaki T. Isolation and characterization of the bacteriophage
- 1120 WO from Wolbachia, an arthropod endosymbiont. Biochem Biophys Res Commun.
- 1121 2004;317(4):1183-8. doi: 10.1016/j.bbrc.2004.03.164. pmid: 15094394
- 1122 38. Tanaka K, Furukawa S, Nikoh N, Sasaki T, Fukatsu T. Complete WO phage sequences
- reveal their dynamic evolutionary trajectories and putative functional elements required for
- integration into the *Wolbachia* genome. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2009;75(17):5676-86. doi:
- 1125 10.1128/AEM.01172-09. pmid: 19592535
- 1126 39. Bordenstein SR, Bordenstein SR. Eukaryotic association module in phage WO genomes
- 1127 from Wolbachia. Nat Commun. 2016;7:13155. doi: 10.1038/ncomms13155. pmid: 27727237
- 1128 40. Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Burke GR, Riegler M, O'Neill SL. Distribution, expression, and motif
- variability of ankyrin domain genes in Wolbachia pipientis. J Bacteriol. 2005;187(15):5136-45.
- 1130 doi: 10.1128/JB.187.15.5136-5145.2005. pmid: 16030207
- 1131 41. Siozios S, Ioannidis P, Klasson L, Andersson SG, Braig HR, Bourtzis K. The diversity and
- evolution of *Wolbachia* ankyrin repeat domain genes. PLoS One. 2013;8(2):e55390. doi:
- 1133 10.1371/journal.pone.0055390. pmid: 23390535
- 1134 42. Jahn MT, Arkhipova K, Markert SM, Stigloher C, Lachnit T, Pita L, et al. A Phage Protein
- 1135 Aids Bacterial Symbionts in Eukaryote Immune Evasion. Cell Host Microbe. 2019;26(4):542-50
- 1136 e5. doi: 10.1016/j.chom.2019.08.019. pmid: 31561965
- 1137 43. National Library of Medicine (US) National Center for Biotechnology Information.
- 1138 National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Bethesda (MD)1988. Available from:
- 1139 https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/.

- 1140 44. International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses Executive Committee. The new scope
- of virus taxonomy: partitioning the virosphere into 15 hierarchical ranks. Nat Microbiol.
- 1142 2020;5(5):668-74. doi: 10.1038/s41564-020-0709-x. pmid: 32341570
- 1143 45. Simmonds P, Adams MJ, Benko M, Breitbart M, Brister JR, Carstens EB, et al. Consensus
- statement: Virus taxonomy in the age of metagenomics. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2017;15(3):161-8.
- 1145 doi: 10.1038/nrmicro.2016.177. pmid: 28134265
- 1146 46. Lindsey ARI, Rice DW, Bordenstein SR, Brooks AW, Bordenstein SR, Newton ILG.
- 1147 Evolutionary Genetics of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility Genes cifA and cifB in Prophage WO of
- 1148 *Wolbachia*. Genome Biol Evol. 2018;10(2):434-51. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evy012. pmid: 29351633
- 1149 47. Martinez J, Klasson L, Welch JJ, Jiggins FM. Life and Death of Selfish Genes: Comparative
- 1150 Genomics Reveals the Dynamic Evolution of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility. Mol Biol Evol.
- 2021;38(1):2-15. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msaa209. pmid: 32797213
- 1152 48. Wu M, Sun LV, Vamathevan J, Riegler M, Deboy R, Brownlie JC, et al. Phylogenomics of
- the reproductive parasite Wolbachia pipientis wMel: a streamlined genome overrun by mobile
- genetic elements. PLoS Biol. 2004;2(3):E69. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.0020069. pmid:
- 1155 15024419
- 1156 49. Crainey JL, Hurst J, Lamberton PHL, Cheke RA, Griffin CE, Wilson MD, et al. The Genomic
- 1157 Architecture of Novel Simulium damnosum Wolbachia Prophage Sequence Elements and
- 1158 Implications for Onchocerciasis Epidemiology. Front Microbiol. 2017;8:852. doi:
- 1159 10.3389/fmicb.2017.00852. pmid: 28611731
- 1160 50. Smith MCM. Phage-encoded Serine Integrases and Other Large Serine Recombinases.
- 1161 Microbiol Spectr. 2015;3(4). doi: 10.1128/microbiolspec.MDNA3-0059-2014. pmid: 26350324
- 1162 51. Metcalf JA, Jo M, Bordenstein SR, Jaenike J, Bordenstein SR. Recent genome reduction
- of Wolbachia in Drosophila recens targets phage WO and narrows candidates for reproductive
- 1164 parasitism. PeerJ. 2014;2:e529. doi: 10.7717/peerj.529. pmid: 25165636
- 1165 52. Newton IL, Clark ME, Kent BN, Bordenstein SR, Qu J, Richards S, et al. Comparative
- 1166 Genomics of Two Closely Related Wolbachia with Different Reproductive Effects on Hosts.
- 1167 Genome Biol Evol. 2016;8(5):1526-42. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evw096. pmid: 27189996
- 1168 53. Riegler M, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Woolfit M, Miller WJ, O'Neill SL. Tandem repeat markers
- as novel diagnostic tools for high resolution fingerprinting of Wolbachia. BMC Microbiol.
- 1170 2012;12 Suppl 1:S12. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-12-S1-S12. pmid: 22375862
- 1171 54. Duplouy A, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Beatson SA, Szubert JM, Brownlie JC, McMeniman CJ, et
- al. Draft genome sequence of the male-killing Wolbachia strain wBol1 reveals recent horizontal
- 1173 gene transfers from diverse sources. BMC Genomics. 2013;14:20. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-14-
- 1174 20. pmid: 23324387
- 1175 55. Harshey RM. Transposable Phage Mu. Microbiol Spectr. 2014;2(5). doi:
- 1176 10.1128/microbiolspec.MDNA3-0007-2014. pmid: 26104374
- 1177 56. Kampfraath AA, Klasson L, Anvar SY, Vossen R, Roelofs D, Kraaijeveld K, et al. Genome
- 1178 expansion of an obligate parthenogenesis-associated Wolbachia poses an exception to the
- 1179 symbiont reduction model. BMC Genomics. 2019;20(1):106. doi: 10.1186/s12864-019-5492-9.
- 1180 pmid: 30727958
- 1181 57. Bobay LM, Touchon M, Rocha EP. Pervasive domestication of defective prophages by
- bacteria. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2014;111(33):12127-32. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1405336111.
- 1183 pmid: 25092302

- 1184 58. Ramisetty BCM, Sudhakari PA. Bacterial 'Grounded' Prophages: Hotspots for Genetic
- 1185 Renovation and Innovation. Front Genet. 2019;10:65. doi: 10.3389/fgene.2019.00065. pmid:
- 1186 30809245
- 1187 59. Fillol-Salom A, Martinez-Rubio R, Abdulrahman RF, Chen J, Davies R, Penades JR. Phage-
- inducible chromosomal islands are ubiquitous within the bacterial universe. ISME J.
- 1189 2018;12(9):2114-28. doi: 10.1038/s41396-018-0156-3. pmid: 29875435
- 1190 60. Penades JR, Christie GE. The Phage-Inducible Chromosomal Islands: A Family of Highly
- 1191 Evolved Molecular Parasites. Annu Rev Virol. 2015;2(1):181-201. doi: 10.1146/annurev-
- 1192 virology-031413-085446. pmid: 26958912
- 1193 61. Ioannidis P, Dunning Hotopp JC, Sapountzis P, Siozios S, Tsiamis G, Bordenstein SR, et al.
- 1194 New criteria for selecting the origin of DNA replication in Wolbachia and closely related
- 1195 bacteria. BMC Genomics. 2007;8:182. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-8-182. pmid: 17584494
- 1196 62. Rands CM, Brussow H, Zdobnov EM. Comparative genomics groups phages of
- 1197 Negativicutes and classical Firmicutes despite different Gram-staining properties. Environ
- 1198 Microbiol. 2019;21(11):3989-4001. doi: 10.1111/1462-2920.14746. pmid: 31314945
- 1199 63. Oliveira PH, Touchon M, Cury J, Rocha EPC. The chromosomal organization of horizontal
- 1200 gene transfer in bacteria. Nat Commun. 2017;8(1):841. doi: 10.1038/s41467-017-00808-w.
- 1201 pmid: 29018197
- 1202 64. Canchaya C, Fournous G, Brussow H. The impact of prophages on bacterial
- 1203 chromosomes. Mol Microbiol. 2004;53(1):9-18. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2004.04113.x. pmid:
- 1204 15225299
- 1205 65. Bobay LM, Rocha EP, Touchon M. The adaptation of temperate bacteriophages to their
- 1206 host genomes. Mol Biol Evol. 2013;30(4):737-51. doi: 10.1093/molbev/mss279. pmid:
- 1207 23243039
- 1208 66. Woolfit M, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Brownlie JC, Walker T, Riegler M, Seleznev A, et al.
- 1209 Genomic evolution of the pathogenic Wolbachia strain, wMelPop. Genome Biol Evol.
- 1210 2013;5(11):2189-204. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evt169. pmid: 24190075
- 1211 67. Duarte EH, Carvalho A, Lopez-Madrigal S, Costa J, Teixeira L. Forward genetics in
- 1212 Wolbachia: Regulation of Wolbachia proliferation by the amplification and deletion of an
- addictive genomic island. PLoS Genet. 2021;17(6):e1009612. doi:
- 1214 10.1371/journal.pgen.1009612. pmid: 34143770
- 1215 68. Rohrscheib CE, Frentiu FD, Horn E, Ritchie FK, van Swinderen B, Weible MW, 2nd, et al.
- 1216 Intensity of Mutualism Breakdown Is Determined by Temperature Not Amplification of
- 1217 Wolbachia Genes. PLoS Pathog. 2016;12(9):e1005888. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1005888.
- 1218 pmid: 27661080
- 1219 69. Chrostek E, Teixeira L. Mutualism breakdown by amplification of Wolbachia genes. PLoS
- 1220 Biol. 2015;13(2):e1002065. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.1002065. pmid: 25668031
- 1221 70. Fallon AM. DNA recombination and repair in Wolbachia: RecA and related proteins. Mol
- 1222 Genet Genomics. 2021;296(2):437-56. doi: 10.1007/s00438-020-01760-z. pmid: 33507381
- 1223 71. Klasson L, Kambris Z, Cook PE, Walker T, Sinkins SP. Horizontal gene transfer between
- 1224 Wolbachia and the mosquito Aedes aegypti. BMC Genomics. 2009;10:33. doi: 10.1186/1471-
- 1225 2164-10-33. pmid: 19154594
- 1226 72. Chrostek E, Marialva MS, Esteves SS, Weinert LA, Martinez J, Jiggins FM, et al. Wolbachia
- variants induce differential protection to viruses in *Drosophila melanogaster*: a phenotypic and

- 1228 phylogenomic analysis. PLoS Genet. 2013;9(12):e1003896. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1003896.
- 1229 pmid: 24348259
- 1230 73. Matsuura M, Saldanha R, Ma H, Wank H, Yang J, Mohr G, et al. A bacterial group II
- intron encoding reverse transcriptase, maturase, and DNA endonuclease activities: biochemical
- demonstration of maturase activity and insertion of new genetic information within the intron.
- 1233 Genes Dev. 1997;11(21):2910-24. doi: 10.1101/gad.11.21.2910. pmid: 9353259
- 1234 74. Dong X, Qu G, Piazza CL, Belfort M. Group II intron as cold sensor for self-preservation
- and bacterial conjugation. Nucleic Acids Res. 2020;48(11):6198-209. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkaa313.
- 1236 pmid: 32379323
- 1237 75. Baldridge GD, Markowski TW, Witthuhn BA, Higgins L, Baldridge AS, Fallon AM. The
- 1238 Wolbachia WO bacteriophage proteome in the Aedes albopictus C/wStr1 cell line: evidence for
- 1239 lytic activity? In Vitro Cell Dev Biol Anim. 2016;52(1):77-88. doi: 10.1007/s11626-015-9949-0.
- 1240 pmid: 26427709
- 1241 76. Gillespie JJ, Joardar V, Williams KP, Driscoll T, Hostetler JB, Nordberg E, et al. A *Rickettsia*
- 1242 genome overrun by mobile genetic elements provides insight into the acquisition of genes
- 1243 characteristic of an obligate intracellular lifestyle. J Bacteriol. 2012;194(2):376-94. doi:
- 1244 10.1128/JB.06244-11. pmid: 22056929
- 1245 77. Gutzwiller F, Carmo CR, Miller DE, Rice DW, Newton IL, Hawley RS, et al. Dynamics of
- 1246 Wolbachia pipientis Gene Expression Across the Drosophila melanogaster Life Cycle. G3
- 1247 (Bethesda). 2015;5(12):2843-56. doi: 10.1534/g3.115.021931. pmid: 26497146
- 1248 78. Masui S, Kuroiwa H, Sasaki T, Inui M, Kuroiwa T, Ishikawa H. Bacteriophage WO and
- virus-like particles in *Wolbachia*, an endosymbiont of arthropods. Biochem Biophys Res
- 1250 Commun. 2001;283(5):1099-104. doi: 10.1006/bbrc.2001.4906. pmid: 11355885
- 1251 79. Young R. Bacteriophage lysis: mechanism and regulation. Microbiol Rev. 1992;56(3):430-
- 1252 81. pmid: 1406491
- 1253 80. Otten C, Brilli M, Vollmer W, Viollier PH, Salje J. Peptidoglycan in obligate intracellular
- 1254 bacteria. Mol Microbiol. 2018;107(2):142-63. doi: 10.1111/mmi.13880. pmid: 29178391
- 1255 81. Bordenstein SR, Bordenstein SR. Temperature affects the tripartite interactions between
- bacteriophage WO, Wolbachia, and cytoplasmic incompatibility. PLoS One. 2011;6(12):e29106.
- 1257 doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0029106. pmid: 22194999
- 1258 82. Rahman MS, Ammerman NC, Sears KT, Ceraul SM, Azad AF. Functional characterization
- of a phospholipase A(2) homolog from *Rickettsia typhi*. J Bacteriol. 2010;192(13):3294-303. doi:
- 1260 10.1128/JB.00155-10. pmid: 20435729
- 1261 83. Sato H, Frank DW. ExoU is a potent intracellular phospholipase. Mol Microbiol.
- 2004;53(5):1279-90. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2004.04194.x. pmid: 15387809
- 1263 84. Banerji S, Flieger A. Patatin-like proteins: a new family of lipolytic enzymes present in
- 1264 bacteria? Microbiology. 2004;150(Pt 3):522-5. doi: 10.1099/mic.0.26957-0. pmid: 14993300
- 1265 85. Kamilla S, Jain V. Mycobacteriophage D29 holin C-terminal region functionally assists in
- holin aggregation and bacterial cell death. FEBS J. 2016;283(1):173-90. doi:
- 1267 10.1111/febs.13565. pmid: 26471254
- 1268 86. Wang IN, Smith DL, Young R. Holins: the protein clocks of bacteriophage infections.
- 1269 Annu Rev Microbiol. 2000;54:799-825. doi: 10.1146/annurev.micro.54.1.799. pmid: 11018145

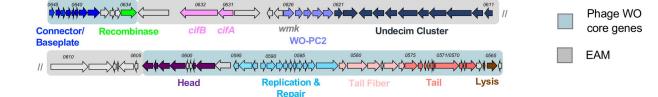
- 1270 87. Lang AS, Beatty JT. Genetic analysis of a bacterial genetic exchange element: the gene
- transfer agent of *Rhodobacter capsulatus*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97(2):859-64. doi:
- 1272 10.1073/pnas.97.2.859 pmid: 10639170
- 1273 88. Westbye AB, Beatty JT, Lang AS. Guaranteeing a captive audience: coordinated
- regulation of gene transfer agent (GTA) production and recipient capability by cellular
- regulators. Curr Opin Microbiol. 2017;38:122-9. doi: 10.1016/j.mib.2017.05.003. pmid:
- 1276 28599143
- 1277 89. Lang AS, Beatty JT. Importance of widespread gene transfer agent genes in alpha-
- 1278 proteobacteria. Trends Microbiol. 2007;15(2):54-62. doi: 10.1016/j.tim.2006.12.001. pmid:
- 1279 17184993
- 1280 90. Dohra H, Tanaka K, Suzuki T, Fujishima M, Suzuki H. Draft genome sequences of three
- 1281 Holospora species (Holospora obtusa, Holospora undulata, and Holospora elegans),
- 1282 endonuclear symbiotic bacteria of the ciliate *Paramecium caudatum*. FEMS Microbiol Lett.
- 1283 2014;359(1):16-8. doi: 10.1111/1574-6968.12577. pmid: 25115770
- 1284 91. Kantor RS, Miller SE, Nelson KL. The Water Microbiome Through a Pilot Scale Advanced
- 1285 Treatment Facility for Direct Potable Reuse. Front Microbiol. 2019;10:993. doi:
- 1286 10.3389/fmicb.2019.00993. pmid: 31139160
- 1287 92. Tully BJ, Graham ED, Heidelberg JF. The reconstruction of 2,631 draft metagenome-
- assembled genomes from the global oceans. Sci Data. 2018;5:170203. doi:
- 1289 10.1038/sdata.2017.203. pmid: 29337314
- 1290 93. Egan S, Gardiner M. Microbial Dysbiosis: Rethinking Disease in Marine Ecosystems. Front
- 1291 Microbiol. 2016;7:991. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.00991. pmid: 27446031
- 1292 94. Takano SI, Gotoh Y, Hayashi T. "Candidatus Mesenet longicola": Novel Endosymbionts of
- 1293 Brontispa longissima that Induce Cytoplasmic Incompatibility. Microb Ecol. 2021. doi:
- 1294 10.1007/s00248-021-01686-y. pmid: 33454808
- 1295 95. Rocchi I, Ericson CF, Malter KE, Zargar S, Eisenstein F, Pilhofer M, et al. A Bacterial Phage
- 1296 Tail-like Structure Kills Eukaryotic Cells by Injecting a Nuclease Effector. Cell Rep.
- 2019;28(2):295-301 e4. doi: 10.1016/j.celrep.2019.06.019. pmid: 31291567
- 1298 96. Gillespie JJ, Driscoll TP, Verhoeve VI, Rahman MS, Macaluso KR, Azad AF. A Tangled
- 1299 Web: Origins of Reproductive Parasitism. Genome Biol Evol. 2018;10(9):2292-309. doi:
- 1300 10.1093/gbe/evy159. pmid: 30060072
- 1301 97. Garushyants SK, Beliavskaia AY, Malko DB, Logacheva MD, Rautian MS, Gelfand MS.
- 1302 Comparative Genomic Analysis of *Holospora* spp., Intranuclear Symbionts of Paramecia. Front
- 1303 Microbiol. 2018;9:738. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2018.00738. pmid: 29713316
- 1304 98. Zdobnov EM, Apweiler R. InterProScan--an integration platform for the signature-
- recognition methods in InterPro. Bioinformatics. 2001;17(9):847-8. doi:
- 1306 10.1093/bioinformatics/17.9.847. pmid: 11590104
- 1307 99. Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ. Basic local alignment search tool. J
- 1308 Mol Biol. 1990;215(3):403-10. doi: 10.1016/S0022-2836(05)80360-2. pmid: 2231712
- 1309 100. Finn RD, Bateman A, Clements J, Coggill P, Eberhardt RY, Eddy SR, et al. Pfam: the
- protein families database. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42(Database issue):D222-30. doi:
- 1311 10.1093/nar/gkt1223. pmid: 24288371

- 1312 101. Soding J, Biegert A, Lupas AN. The HHpred interactive server for protein homology
- detection and structure prediction. Nucleic Acids Res. 2005;33(Web Server issue):W244-8. doi:
- 1314 10.1093/nar/gki408. pmid: 15980461
- 1315 102. Siguier P, Perochon J, Lestrade L, Mahillon J, Chandler M. ISfinder: the reference centre
- for bacterial insertion sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 2006;34(Database issue):D32-6. doi:
- 1317 10.1093/nar/gkj014. pmid: 16381877
- 1318 103. Schultz J, Copley RR, Doerks T, Ponting CP, Bork P. SMART: a web-based tool for the
- 1319 study of genetically mobile domains. Nucleic Acids Res. 2000;28(1):231-4. doi:
- 1320 10.1093/nar/28.1.231. pmid: 10592234
- 1321 104. Darling AC, Mau B, Blattner FR, Perna NT. Mauve: multiple alignment of conserved
- genomic sequence with rearrangements. Genome Res. 2004;14(7):1394-403. doi:
- 1323 10.1101/gr.2289704. pmid: 15231754
- 1324 105. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
- throughput. Nucleic Acids Res. 2004;32(5):1792-7. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkh340. pmid: 15034147
- 1326 106. Darriba D, Taboada GL, Doallo R, Posada D. ProtTest 3: fast selection of best-fit models
- of protein evolution. Bioinformatics. 2011;27(8):1164-5. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btr088.
- 1328 pmid: 21335321

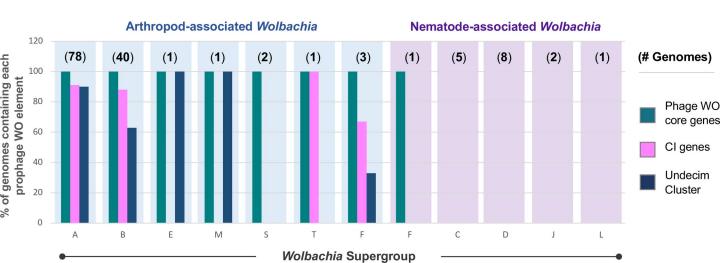
- 1329 107. Guindon S, Gascuel O. A simple, fast, and accurate algorithm to estimate large
- phylogenies by maximum likelihood. Syst Biol. 2003;52(5):696-704. doi:
- 1331 10.1080/10635150390235520. pmid: 14530136
- 1332 108. Ronquist F, Teslenko M, van der Mark P, Ayres DL, Darling A, Hohna S, et al. MrBayes
- 1333 3.2: efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space.
- 1334 Syst Biol. 2012;61(3):539-42. doi: 10.1093/sysbio/sys029. pmid: 22357727
- 1335 109. Turner D, Kropinski AM, Adriaenssens EM. A Roadmap for Genome-Based Phage
- 1336 Taxonomy. Viruses. 2021;13(3):506. doi: 10.3390/v13030506 pmid: doi:10.3390/v13030506
- 1337 110. Klasson L, Walker T, Sebaihia M, Sanders MJ, Quail MA, Lord A, et al. Genome evolution
- of Wolbachia strain wPip from the Culex pipiens group. Mol Biol Evol. 2008;25(9):1877-87. doi:
- 1339 10.1093/molbev/msn133. pmid: 18550617

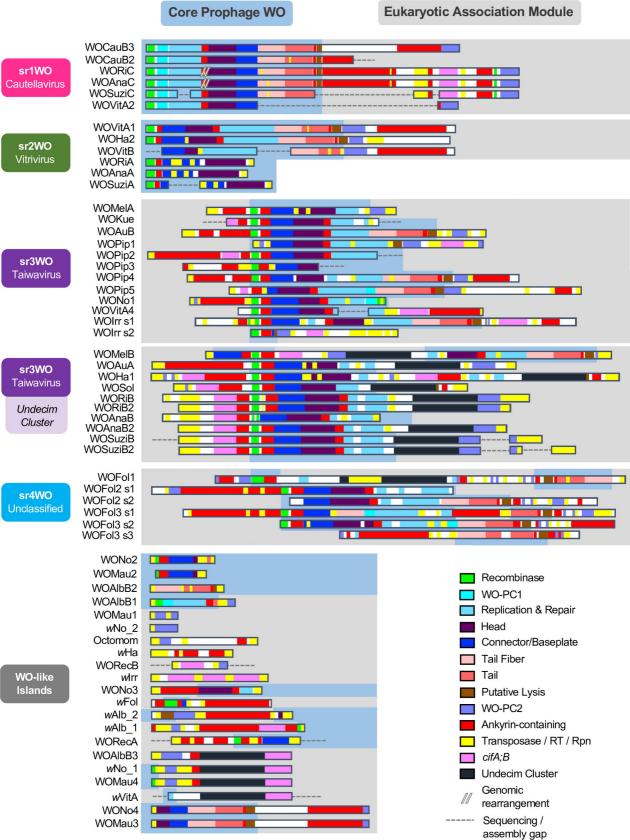
Genomic map of prophage WOMelB

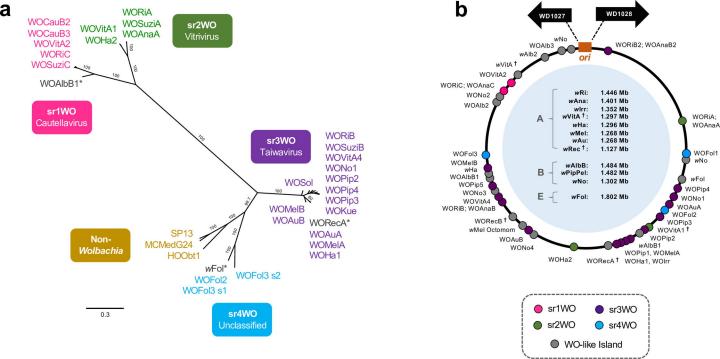
a

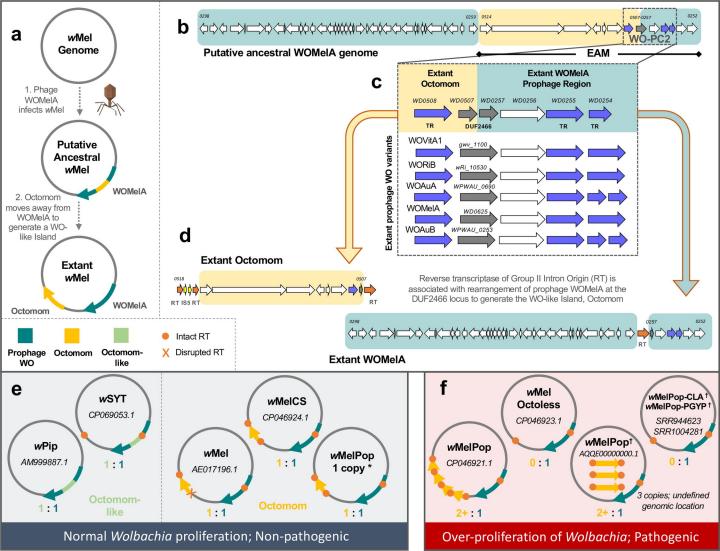


b Prophage WO elements across *Wolbachia* supergroups

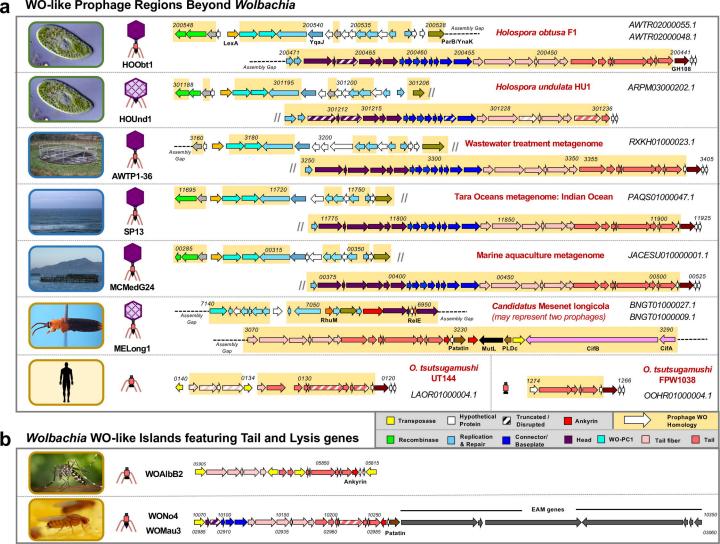


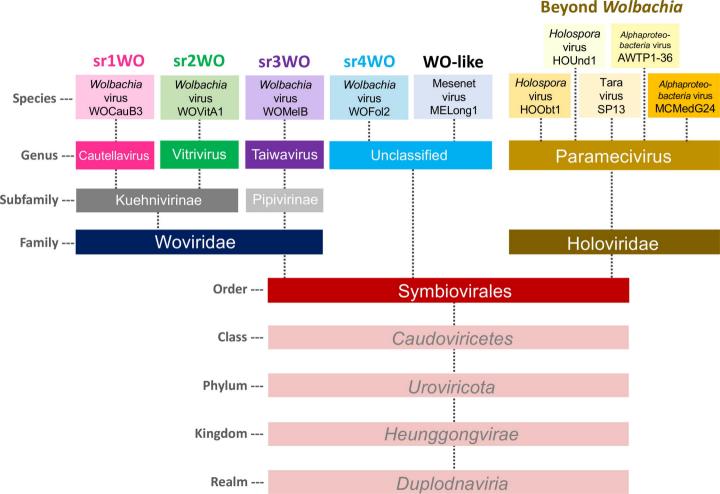






Undecim Cluster 3 6 8 10 11 5 Nucleotide **WOMelB** Identity (WD0611) (67%)(WD0621) Cardinium hertigii cHgTN10 Phycorickettsia trachydisci (68%)Chromosome -Rickettsia sp. (p: 74%) (c: 67%) Methionine + GlcN1P UC3 SAH Highly SAM Reactive C-[GlmU] Radical SAM GlcNAc1P **UC11** N-[GlmU] Substrate Substrate -UC1 CH₃ SAH SAM UDP -MurA MurE Cytotoxic **GIcNAc** MurB MurF compounds; MurC MraY antibiotics UC3 MurD UC₂ 2-hydroxy-Phytanoyl- UC5 phytanoly-CoA Substrate -UDP - Glc Lipid I CoA NAc ATP Oxidative reactions, including: UDP -**UC10** lipid/fatty acid synthesis (eukaryotes) UC₆ Glycosylation; GlcNAc **ADP** antibiotic synthesis (prokaryotes) exopolysaccharide phage infection (cyanophages) synthesis UDP -MurG Glucuronate **Phosphate** Polysaccharide/ capsule biosynthesis, Sugar: Lipid II Glycine + virulence Threonine **◄** G3P / H6P Acetaldehyde Cell division **Production/Export of Antiobitics** Metabolite Transport Glycosylation / Exopolysaccharide Methylation and Cytotoxic Compounds Biosynthesis / Virulence and Biosynthesis





| a | Distinguishing Order Traits | | Symbiovirales | | | |
|---|--|---|---------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|--|
| | Host: symbiotic bacteria | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | |
| | Core phage modules: recombinase, replication, head, connector/baseplate, tail fiber, contractile tail, lysis | √ | ✓ | ✓ | √ | |
| | Large serine recombinase (typing gene) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | |
| | PAAR gene in connector/baseplate module | \checkmark | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | |
| | | | | | | |
| b | Distinguishing Family Traits | Woviridae Holoviridae | | | | |
| D | EAM | \checkmark | | | Absent | |
| | Ankyrin-repeat containing proteins | \checkmark | | | Absent | |
| | HTH_XRE transcriptional regulators | \checkmark | | | Absent | |
| | Putative lysis gene | Patatin | | | GH108 | |
| | | | | | | |
| С | Distinguishing Subfamily Traits | Kuehnivirinae | | Pipivirinae | | |
| | Integrate into distinct att sites | ✓ | | | | |
| | Location of EAM in prophage genome | 3'-prophage genome | | Flanking one or both sides | | |
| d | Distinguishing Genus Traits | Cautellavirus | Vitrivirus | Taiwavirus | Paramecivirus | |
| ď | Chromosomal integration | Magnesium chelatase gene or Sua5-intergenic region | VNTR-105 | Flanked by EAM, mobile elements | Unknown | |
| | Structural module synteny: baseplate -> head -> replication & repair -> tail | ✓ | | | √ | |
| | Structural module synteny: replication & repair -> head -> baseplate -> tail | | ✓ | ✓ | | |
| | Direction of ankyrin adjacent to late control gene (relative to tail/patatin) | Opposite | Same | Same | N/A | |
| | WO-PC1 | \checkmark | Absent | Some | ✓ | |
| | ParB | Absent | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | |
| | Transcriptional regulators (HTH_XRE) | 1-domain | 2-domain | 2-domain | Absent | |
| | Undecim Cluster | Absent | Absent | Some | Absent | |
| | CifA;B | Some | Absent | Some | Absent | |
| | MutL | Absent | \checkmark | Some | Absent | |