Integration host factor regulates colonization factors in the bee gut symbiont *Frischella perrara*

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Abstract

Bacteria colonize specific niches in the animal gut. However, the genetic basis of these associations is often unclear. The proteobacterium *Frischella perrara* is a widely distributed gut symbiont of honey bees. It colonizes a specific niche in the hindgut and causes a characteristic melanization response. Genetic determinants required for the establishment of this association, or its relevance for the host, are unknown. Here, we independently isolated three point mutations in genes encoding the DNA-binding protein integration host factor (IHF) in *F. perrara*. These mutants abolished the production of an aryl polyene metabolite causing the yellow colony morphotype of *F. perrara*. Inoculation of microbiota-free bees with one of the mutants drastically decreased gut colonization of *F. perrara*. Using RNAseq we found that IHF affects the expression of potential colonization factors, including genes for adhesion (Type 4 pili), interbacterial competition (Type 6 secretion systems), and secondary metabolite production (colibactin and aryl polyene biosynthesis). Gene deletions of these components revealed different colonization defects depending on the presence of other bee gut bacteria. Interestingly, one of the T6SS mutants did not induce the scab phenotype anymore, despite colonizing at high levels, suggesting an unexpected role in bacteria-host interaction. IHF is conserved across many bacteria and may also regulate host colonization in other animal symbionts.

Introduction

The digestive tract of many animals is colonized by specialized gut symbionts that occupy distinct physical niches and utilize diverse nutrients. Owing to the availability of genetic tools, gnotobiotic animal models and multi-omics approaches, we can now study the genetic features that allow gut symbionts to colonize various animal hosts including mammals, fishes, and insects (1-10).

The Western honey bee, *Apis mellifera,* is a particularly interesting model to characterize colonization factors of bacterial gut symbionts, due to its agricultural importance and the tractability of its gut microbiota. Honey bees harbor relatively simple yet highly specialized gut microbiota composed of 8-10 bacterial genera (11, 12). The wide distribution of these communities across social bees suggests long evolutionary associations with the host (13). Moreover, different members of the bee microbiota colonize distinct physical niches along the gut. Lactobacilli and Bifidobacteria predominate in the posterior hindgut (rectum), while Gammaproteobacteria (*Frischella perrara* and *Gilliamella* species) and a Betaproteobacterium (*Snodgrassella alvi*) preferentially colonize the anterior hindgut (ileum and adjacent pylorus, i.e., the transition zone between midgut and ileum) (11, 14-16). The partitioning of these bacteria into distinct gut compartments suggests the existence of specific bacterial and/or host mechanisms that facilitate colonization.

Most bacteria of the bee gut microbiota can be cultured and experiments with gnotobiotic bees have been established (17-21). Moreover, genomic analyses have provided important insights about the functional potential of bee gut symbionts and their adaptation to the gut environment (21-29). Yet, little is known about which genes are directly involved in establishing colonization in the bee gut and how these genes are regulated. The only symbiont that has been extensively studied in this respect is *S. alvi.* Using transposon sequencing and transcriptome analysis, Powell et al. determined genome-wide host colonization factors in *S. alvi* (7). Most genes with strong fitness effects were found to belong to three major categories: extracellular interactions, metabolism, and stress response. In particular, genes for attachment and biofilm formation were

highly beneficial for colonization, which is in agreement with the observation that this gut symbiont

adheres to the host epithelium of the ileum and forms a multispecies biofilm with *Gilliamella*.

The honey bee gut symbiont *Frischella perrara* belongs to the recently described family Orbaceae

within the Gammaproteobacteria (30). It is taxonomically close to the bee gut symbiont *Gilliamella*

and has a similar metabolism (31). However, compared to the other members of the bee gut

microbiota*, F. perrara* shows a rather distinctive colonization phenotype*.* While *S. alvi* and

Gilliamella have been reported to colonize the host epithelium of the entire ileum (32, 33), *F.*

perrara preferentially colonizes the transition zone between the midgut and the ileum, i.e., the

pylorus. Moreover, colonization with *F. perrara* leads to the appearance of a brown to black

material on the luminal side of the epithelial surface between the cuticle layer of the host tissue

and the adherent *F. perrara* cells (34). This so–called scab phenotype forms after 5-7 days post-

colonization and has so far not been reported to be triggered by any other gut symbiont than *F.*

perrara. Transcriptome analysis of the host showed that *F. perrara* elicits a specific immune

response which includes the upregulation of the host melanization pathway likely responsible for

the formation of the scab phenotype (17). *F. perrara* is highly prevalent across worker bees and

colonies of *A. mellifera* (34, 35), and related bacteria have also been found in *Apis cerana* (36)*.*

Moreover, between 25%-80% of all worker bees of a colony harbor a visible scab phenotype in

the pylorus region of the gut, which has been shown to strongly correlate with a high abundance

of *F. perrara* (34). However, the impact of these phenotype on the host has remained elusive.

Genome sequencing of the type strain of *F. perrara* and comparison with other genomes of the

Orbaceae family revealed the presence of several genomic islands that may be involved in the

specific interaction of *F. perrara* with the host (37). These include a biosynthetic gene cluster for

the production of the genotoxic metabolite colibactin (Clb), two distinct Type VI secretion systems

(T6SSs) and associated effector proteins, Type I secretion systems, and fimbrial low-molecular-

weight protein (Flp) pili genes. However, currently no genetic tools are available for *F. perrara*

precluding studies about the role of these genetic factors in gut colonization or the induction of

the scab phenotype*.*

Here, we report the isolation of a spontaneous mutant of *F. perrara* that possesses a strong

colonization defect *in vivo*. Resequencing of the mutant revealed a single nonsynonymous point

mutation in the gene encoding the alpha subunit of the DNA-binding protein integration host factor

(IHF). Using a combination of gnotobiotic bee experiments, transcriptomics, and metabolite

analyses, we characterized the genes regulated by IHF. We then established a gene deletion

strategy for *F. perrara,* which allowed us to knockout some of the IHF-regulated genes and show

that they impact gut colonization and scab development to different extent in the presence and

absence of a complex community.

Results

Isolation of spontaneous IHF mutants affecting growth and colony morphology of *F. perrara*

Culturing *F. perrara* type strain PEB0191 (38) on modified tryptone yeast glucose (mTYG) agar resulted in the formation of yellow colonies. However, we occasionally observed the appearance of larger white colonies among the yellow ones (**Figure 1A**). Restreaking white colonies on fresh mTYG agar usually resulted in yellow colonies again. However, three white colonies that we identified in independent experiments did not change their appearance anymore, suggesting that we had isolated stable 'white' variants of *F. perrara* PEB0191 (**Figure 1B, Figure 1 - figure supplement 1**). Genome sequencing of the white variants revealed the presence of three different non-synonymous point mutations in the genes encoding the integration host factor (IHF). IHF is a widely distributed DNA-binding protein consisting of the IhfA/B heterocomplex (39-41). Strikingly, two point mutations were identical to each other, but occurred in the different subunits of IHF (*ihfA* and *ihfB*) resulting in a proline to lysine change at amino acid position 82 and 83, respectively (**Figure 1C**). The third point mutation resulted in a lysine to serine change at position 38 of IhfA (**Figure 1C**). Homology modelling showed that these amino acids are located in the region interacting with DNA, suggesting that the three mutations impact the DNA-binding properties of IHF (**Figure 1D**, (42)). As two of the isolated mutants occurred when generating gene deletions of *F. perrara,* they harbored additional genetic modifications (see Methods). Therefore, we focused further characterization of IHF on the mutation Pro83Lys (hereafter *ihfA**) that occurred in the wild type (wt) background of *F. perrara* PEB0191. While the *ihfA** strain consistently formed larger colonies than the wt strain on mTYG agar (**Figure 1A and 1B)**, there was no significant difference in growth in liquid culture (Permutation test, $p = 0.097$; **Figure 1 – figure supplement 2A**). However, light microscopy showed that cells of the mutant strain were on average slightly longer than cells of the wt (Kolgomorov-Smirnov test $p<0.0001$, **Figure 1 – figure Supplement 2B and C**).

F. perrara produces an aryl polyene secondary metabolite that is responsible for the yellow colony morphotype

F. perrara PEB0191 encodes a genomic island that is homologous to aryl polyene (APE) biosynthetic gene clusters present in other Gammaproteobacteria (**Figure 2A**) (43). APEs are polyunsaturated carboxylic acids conferring a yellow pigmentation to bacterial cells (44, 45). To assess if *F. perrara* wt, but not the *ihfA** mutant, produces an APE, we analyzed cell extracts of both strains by liquid chromatography coupled to heated electrospray ionization high-resolution mass spectrometry (HPLC-HES-HRMS). The data revealed a strongly UV-Vis-absorbent ion peak at *m/z* 323.1647 [M+H]$^+$, which had a suggested molecular formula of $C_{21}H_{23}O_3$ (**Figure 2B** and **2C**). In the *ihfA** mutant, this ion was only present at trace amounts (**Figure 2C**). To characterize the metabolite in greater detail a larger pellet of *F. perrara* wt cultures was extracted and purified by several HPLC runs. Mass spectrometry- (MS) and UV-Vis-guided fractionation yielded an enriched extract that was analyzed by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. The characteristic ions detected in MS-MS fragmentation experiments (**Figure 2 – figure supplement 1**), the UV-Vis spectrum with an absorption maximum at 415 nm (**Figure 2 – figure supplement 2**) in conjunction with NMR data (**Figure 2 – figure supplement 3-9, Supplementary Table 1**) suggest an aryl polyene structure identical to that reported in (43, 46) (**Figure 2D**). Unfortunately, it was not possible to connect the NMR substructures, because the central methines could not be assigned to chemical shifts (**Figure 2D**, **Supplementary Table 1**). Comparison of the organic extracts of *F. perrara* wt and *E. coli* CFT073 provided further evidence that both produce the same compound (**Figure 2 – figure supplement 10**). Combined, these results suggest that the APE pathway is responsible for the yellow color of the wt colonies of *F. perrara* and is suppressed in the *ihfA** mutant.

The *ihfA** mutant of *F. perrara* has a colonization defect and does not cause the scab phenotype

As APEs have been shown to increase protection from oxidative stress and contribute to biofilm formation (43, 46), we sought to test if the *ihfA** mutation impacts bee gut colonization. We mono-associated microbiota-free bees with either *F. perrara* wt or *ihfA**. Colonization with the wt strain resulted in a visible scab in 50% and 80% of all bees after five and ten days of colonization, respectively (n=18 and n=36 for both treatments for day 5 and day 10, respectively, **Figure 3A and 3B**). In contrast, none of the bees colonized with the *ihfA** mutant developed a visible scab phenotype. To determine whether this difference was due to a general colonization defect of *ihfA**, we quantified the colonization levels of *F. perrara* at day 5 and day 10 post colonization using colony forming units (CFUs). While there was a trend towards lower colonization levels (fewer CFUs and more bees without detectable colonization) for the *ihfA** mutant at day 5 post colonization, the difference was not statistically significant (**Figure 3C**, Wilcoxon rank-sum test p-value=0.076). However, at day 10 post-colonization, bees colonized with the wt strain showed significantly higher CFUs than the *ihfA** mutant (**Figure 3C**, Wilcoxon rank-sum test p-value<0.0001). In fact, in 50% of all bees (n = 36) the colonization levels of *ihfA** were below the detection limit of 500 CFUs (colony forming units) (**Figure 3C**).

As the quantification of *F. perrara* was based on CFUs obtained for whole-gut tissue, we carried out a second experiment, in which we specifically assessed the colonization levels in the pylorus and the ileum region of the honey bee gut, using both CFUs and quantitative PCR (**Figure 3 - figure supplement** 1). The results were comparable to those obtained for the whole gut: at day 10 post colonization, there was a significant difference in the colonization levels of the wt and *ihfA** in both the pylorus and the ileum (Wilcoxon rank-sum test p-value<0.05).

To obtain a better understanding of the colonization dynamics of *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant, we conducted a third gnotobiotic bee experiment in which we inoculated microbiota-free bees with one of the two strains and followed the colonization levels over 12 timepoints from day

0 (i.e. 4 h post inoculation) until day 22 post inoculation (**Figure 3D**). From the first time point at

4 h post inoculation until day 4 post inoculation, the bacterial levels were below the detection limit

(i.e., below 500 CFUs) in both conditions. Between day 4 and day 8 post inoculation, the

abundance of the wt increased rapidly to about 10^6 CFUs per gut and then steadily further to 10^7

CFUs per gut until the last time point. In contrast, the levels of the *ihfA** mutant remained low until

day 10 post colonization and reached on average no more than 10^5 CFUs per gut until the last

time point at day 22 post colonization. Notably, while we had used the same optical density of the

two strains for colonizing microbiota-free bees, dilution plating revealed that there were fewer

CFUs in the inocula for the wt compared to the *ihf** mutant. Despite these differences the wt

colonized much better than *ihfA**. In summary, these results show that *ihfA** has a strong

colonization defect. It has a delayed colonization dynamics as compared to the wt, does not reach

the same bacterial loads, and does not cause the scab phenotype, even though the bees were

inoculated with more viable cells of *ihfA** than the wt.

Genes involved in symbiotic interactions are upregulated in *F. perrara* wt relative to the

***ihfA** mutant**

IHF may not have a direct effect on gut colonization, but rather regulate the gene expression of

host colonization factors. To test this, we assessed the transcriptional differences by RNA

sequencing (RNA-seq) between the wt and *ihfA** mutant when grown *in vitro*. We found that 358

out of 2,337 genes encoded in the genome of *F. perrara* were differentially expressed with a log2-

fold change >|2| between the two strains (Fisher's exact test with p<0.05 and FDR<5%). Of those,

237 and 121 genes were up- and down-regulated in *F. perrara* wt versus *ihfA**, respectively

(**Figure 4A and 4B**, **Supplementary Dataset 1**). Among the genes upregulated in the wt,

'Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular transport' (COG U), 'Extracellular structure' (COG

W), 'Lipid transport and metabolism' (COG I), 'Mobilome: prophages and transposases' (COG X),

and 'Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism' (COG Q) were significantly

enriched (Fisher's exact test, BH-adjusted p-value < 0.01; see **Supplementary Dataset 2**).

Genes belonging to these three categories include different subunits and effectors of the two

T6SSs of *F. perrara*, the Clb biosynthesis gene cluster, various components of the Flp pili, and a

RTX (repeats in toxin) toxin belonging to the Type I secretion system family (**Supplementary**

Dataset 1). Also, the genes of the APE biosynthesis gene cluster were among the upregulated

genes, which is in line with the production of the corresponding metabolites in the wt but not in

the mutant strain (**Figure 2**). Interestingly, a relatively large proportion of the upregulated genes

encoded hypothetical or poorly characterized proteins. In fact, genes without COG annotation

were also enriched relative to the entire genome of *F. perrara* (Fisher's exact test, BH-adjusted

p-value < 0.01; see Supplementary **Dataset 2**). Many of the upregulated genes were organized

in genomic islands, with the largest one including the biosynthesis gene cluster of Clb and many

hypothetical protein-encoding genes (**Figure 4C**). T6SS and Clb biosynthesis genes were among

the genes with the highest fold changes relative to *ihfA** mutant (**Figure 4B**, 28 of 32 genes with

log2-fold change >6). Moreover, 64% of the upregulated genes (152/237) belonged to the *F.*

perrara-specific gene content as based on our previously published genome comparison of *F.*

perrara PEB0191 with four other strains of the family Orbaceae (three of the genus *Gilliamella*

and one of the genus *Orbus*, **Supplementary Dataset 1)** (37).

Among the 121 down-regulated genes, only COG category O ('Posttranslational modification,

protein turnover, chaperones') was statistically enriched (Fisher's exact test, BH-adjusted p-value

< 0.01, see **Supplementary Dataset 2**). Moreover, only a small fraction (12%) belonged to the

"*F. perrara*-specific genes", and fewer genes were organized into genomic islands. A more

detailed inspection of the annotation revealed that a large number of the down-regulated genes

were involved in transport and metabolism (40 genes), transcriptional regulation (10 genes), and

protein folding (8 genes), highlighting clear differences in the functional roles of the up- and down-

regulated genes. The two genes with the highest fold change (log2-fold change <-5) both encoded

transcriptional regulators. One of them, *dksA* (Fpe_01158), is located upstream of the *mrsA/mrsB*

antioxidant system (Fpe_01159 to Fpe_01162), which was also among the down-regulated

genes. The other one is part of the two-component regulator system *basS/basR* (Fpe_02097 and

Fpe_02098), which has been reported to act as an iron- and zinc-sensing transcriptional repressor

and activator in *E. coli* (47, 48). Taken together, these results show that many accessory genes

known to be involved in symbiotic interactions (colibactin, Flp pili, T6SS) are upregulated in *F.*

perrara wt as opposed to *ihfA**, providing a list of candidate genes responsible for the colonization

defect of the *ihfA** mutant.

T6SS, pili, APE biosynthesis and Clb biosynthesis genes are expressed during bee gut

colonization

To test if the genes upregulated *in vitro* in the wt relative to *ihfA** were expressed *in vivo*, we

determined the transcriptome of *F. perrara* wt at day 5 and day 10 post colonization. A total of

260 (149 up and 111 down) and 298 (162 up and 136 down) genes were differentially expressed

at day 5 and day 10 post colonization relative to growth *in vitro* (log2-fold change >|2|, quasi-

likelihood F-test with p<0.05 and FDR<5%, **Supplementary Dataset 3**). There was a

considerable overlap of the differentially regulated genes between the two time points (115 and

80 shared up- and down-regulated genes, respectively). At both time points, the COG category

'Carbohydrate transport and metabolism' (COG G) was significantly enriched among the genes

upregulated *in vivo* relative to the entire genome (**Supplementary Dataset 4**). In addition, at time

point day 10, also the COG category (P) 'Inorganic ion transport and metabolism' was enriched

(P adj < 0.01, Fisher's exact test, **Supplementary Dataset 4**). Genes belonging to these two

categories encoded transporters for different sugars (Phosphotransferase systems), iron, and

transferrin (**Figure 5 – figure supplement 1, Supplementary Dataset 3**). In addition, a catalase

gene and several genes for the biosynthesis of the amino acid tryptophan were upregulated at

both time points. However, only 14 and 19 genes of those upregulated *in vitro* in the wt relative to

the *ihfA** mutant (see **Figure 5**), were also upregulated *in vivo* at day 5 and day 10 post-

colonization, respectively (**Supplementary Dataset 3**). This was expected, because the *in vitro*

RNAseq analysis had shown that these genes are already expressed in the wt when grown on

mTYG agar, which we used as a reference condition for the *in vivo* analysis. Indeed, when

comparing count-normalized gene expression (as measured by Transcripts per million (TPM))

across the different conditions, we found that most of the T6SS machinery, APE biosynthesis,

pilus, and iron uptake genes were expressed at both time points *in vivo*, and to similar levels as

in vitro (**Figure 5, Figure 5 – figure supplement 2**). Only the Clb genomic island and some of

the VgrG-like T6SS effector genes had clearly lower TPM values *in vivo* than *in vitro*, yet higher

than in *ihfA* in vitro* (**Figure 5C and 5F**). These results suggest that most of the genes upregulated

in vitro in the wt relative to *ihfA** are also expressed at high level by the wt *in vivo*.

Gene deletion of IhfA-regulated genes result in impaired gut colonization and/or abolish

scab development

To test the direct impact of IhfA-regulated genes on host colonization and/or scab development

we established a gene deletion strategy for *F. perrara* based on a two-step homologous

recombination procedure (see methods and **Figure 6 – figure supplement 1**). This allowed us

to create six different non-polar in-frame gene deletion mutants of potential colonization factors

regulated by IHF (Supplementary Table S2). We deleted an essential gene of the colibactin

biosynthesis pathway (Δ*clbB*), both *hcp* genes of the two T6SSs, either separately or as double

mutant (Δ*hcp1,* Δ*hcp2,* and Δ*hcp1*/Δ*hcp2*), the gene encoding the major Flp pili subunit (Δ*pilE*),

and the entire APE biosynthesis gene cluster (Δ*apeA-R*). Deletion mutants were confirmed by

genome re-sequencing. The Δ*apeA-R* mutant was the only strain not forming yellow colonies

anymore (**Figure 1 – figure supplement 1**), which is consistent with the idea that the aryl polyene

pathway is responsible for the yellow color. We measured the growth of the gene deletion mutants

in vitro, which was similar to the wt and *ihfA** strains **(Figure 6 – figure supplement 2)**.

Additionally, no significant differences were observed in cell length **(Figure 6 – figure**

supplement 3). Moreover, we corresponded OD_{600} to CFU counts and found that both the

Δ*hcp1*/Δ*hcp2* and Δ*pilE* strains had lower counts than the wt strain **(Figure 6 – figure supplement**

4). To compare the six gene deletion strains to *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant in terms of gut

colonization and induction of the scab phenotype, each strain was inoculated into microbiota-free bees and CFUs assessed in the pylorus/ileum region ten days post inoculation. As expected, the wt successfully colonized the pylorus/ileum region of all analyzed gnotobiotic bees (median = $9.56*10^6 \pm 5.06*10^6$ CFUs per gut; n=18 bees, two independent experiments) and induced the scab phenotype in 16 of 18 bees (**Figure 6A and Figure 6 – figure supplement 5**). In contrast, the *ihfA** colonized poorly compared to the wt (median=$1.46*10^4 \pm 3.19*10^5$ CFUs per gut, n= 20 bees, Wilcoxon rank-sum test P<0.001), and not a single bee developed the scab phenotype. Of the six tested gene deletion mutants, only the mutant of T6SS-1 ($\Delta hcp1$) reached wt colonization levels and also induced the scab phenotype in most of the bees (15 out of 20). The other five mutants all exhibited lower colonization levels than the wt strain. However, the severity of the colonization defect varied between the mutants, and while some of the mutants still caused the scab phenotype, others did not. For example, the Clb biosynthesis gene cluster mutant $\Delta clbB$ induced the scab phenotype in all but one bee, despite the fact that the colonization levels were about two-fold lower than for the wt (median=$4.24*10^6 \pm 2.87*10^6$ CFUs per gut). The gene deletion mutant of the T6SS-2 ($\Delta hcp2$) and the double mutant of both T6SSs ($\Delta hcp1/\Delta hcp2$) reached similar colonization levels as the $\Delta clbB$ mutant. Yet, none of the bees colonized with these two mutants developed the scab phenotype, not even those that had very high bacterial counts (**Figure 6A**). The deletion mutant of the APE biosynthesis pathway ($\Delta apeA$-R) showed again a different colonization phenotype: for some bees no colonization was detected, while others showed similar colonization levels as the wt of *F. perrara*. However, in contrast to the $\Delta hcp2$ and the $\Delta hcp1/\Delta hcp2$ mutants, the $\Delta apeA$-R mutant still induced the scab phenotype, but only in the bees that had high bacterial loads. Finally, the $\Delta pilE$ mutant had the strongest impact on colonization. Only five out of 20 bees had detectable levels of *F. perrara* in the gut (limit of detection: 75 CFUs per gut) and none of the bees developed the scab phenotype. Electron microscopy imaging revealed this strain did not have pili, confirming the $\Delta pilE$ mutation affects the formation of these structures **(Figure 6 – figure supplement 3C).**

The ∆clbB, ∆hcp2 and ∆hcp1/∆hcp2 mutants all reached similar colonization levels, yet only

colonization with ∆clbB led to the development of the scab phenotype. These differences in scab

formation could be due to an altered colonization pattern of the ∆hcp2 and ∆hcp1/∆hcp2 mutants.

To address this hypothesis, we visualized how the gene-deletion mutants are distributed in the

pylorus (**Figure 6B, Figure 6 – figure supplements 6 and 7**). We obtained cross-sections of the

pylorus of bees associated with these mutants, stained them with DAPI and a *F. perrara*-specific

FISH probe and imaged these sections using confocal microscopy. As previously reported (34),

F. perrara wt was found to colonize the pylorus region, forming a dense biofilm in close proximity

to the host and occupying the crypts. A similar colonization pattern was observed for ∆hcp1,

∆hcp2, ∆hcp1/∆hcp2, ∆clbB and ∆apeA-R. In contrast, for the *ihfA** and ∆pilE mutants, we did not

identify any bacteria in the analyzed gut sections which is in agreement with the low colonization

levels of these mutants detected by CFU plating. Dark spots corresponding to scab material were

found along the cuticular lining colonized by bacteria for the ∆clbB, ∆hcp1 and ∆apeA-R, but not

for the ∆hcp2 and ∆hcp1/∆hcp2 mutants, which matches the visual inspections of the dissected

guts for the presence/absence of the scab phenotype across the different strains (**Figure 6B**).

Based on these results, we conclude that the inability of the ∆hcp2 and ∆hcp1/∆hcp2 mutants to

trigger the scab phenotype cannot be explained by an altered localization in the gut. Overall, these

results confirm that IHF regulates various host colonization factors that when deleted cause

distinctive colonization defects.

***F. perrara* T6SS-2 and the APE biosynthesis pathway regulate gut colonization in complex**

bacterial communities

In natural conditions, *F. perrara* shares its niche with other symbionts of the bee gut. As several

factors regulated by IHF are known for their role in microbial interactions (49, 50), we also wanted

to test the impact of the six gene-deletion mutants on the ability of *F. perrara* to colonize the bee

gut in the presence of other community members. We compared gut colonization levels of the

gene deletion mutants, *ihfA**, and the wt in the presence and absence of a synthetic community

(BeeComm_002) composed of 13 strains representing major core microbiota members of the honey bee gut microbiota (detailed information in **Supplementary Table 4**). For five of the eight tested strains we did not detect a significant effect of the BeeComm_002 on the colonization levels (**Figure 7, Figure 7 – figure supplement 1**). This included *F. perrara* wt, which successfully colonized the gut independently of the presence of the BeeComm_002 (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.899, two independent experiments), the *ihfA** (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.638) and the pili mutant Δ*pilE* (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.217), which both already exhibited a strong colonization defect in mono-colonization, and the colibactin gene cluster mutant Δ*clbB* (Δ*clbB:* Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.127) and the T6SS-1 mutant Δ*hcp1* (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.068), which both colonized at equal levels in both conditions (**Figure 7**). For the other three mutants we observed a significant reduction in colonization levels in the presence of the BeeComm_002. The colonization levels of T6SS-2 mutant Δ*hcp2* decreased seven-fold (median mono-association: $3.86*10^7 \pm 4.16*10^7$, median BeeComm_002: $5.10*10^6 \pm 1.77*10^7$, Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.002) whereas both the T6SS double mutant Δ*hcp1/hcp2* (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.029) and the APE biosynthesis mutant Δ*apeA-R* (Wilcoxon rank-sum test P=0.004) failed to colonize most bees tested (**Figure 7 and Figure 7 -figure supplement 1B**). These results demonstrate that the T6SS-2 and the APE biosynthesis pathway play a role in regulating *F.perrara* colonization in the presence of other symbionts, possibly regulating the interaction with these bacterial partners.

Discussion

In this study, we identified genetic factors that allow the gut symbiont *F. perrara* to colonize its

specific niche in the pylorus of the honey bee gut and to induce the scab phenotype. Our results

advance the understanding of the genetic factors that facilitate symbionts to colonize niches in

the animal gut. Specifically, we find that the DNA-binding protein IhfA plays an important role in

gut colonization. IhfA is a histone-like, nucleoid-associated protein (NAP) that forms a heterodimer

together with IhfB. IHF binds to and bends DNA in a sequence specific manner (40-42, 51),

thereby facilitating the recombination of mobile DNA elements (40, 41) and influencing gene

expression. We identified three different mutations in IHF, all located in the region of the protein

interacting with the DNA. All three IHF mutants formed larger colonies than the wt strain on mTYG

agar. Together, this suggests that the identified mutations change the DNA-binding properties of

IHF resulting in broad transcriptional changes in *F. perrara* that provide a growth advantage *in*

vitro relative to the wt strain.

F. perrara colonizes the epithelial surface of the pylorus, where it adheres to the cuticular lining

and forms a thick biofilm-like layer (34). IHF has been shown to bind to extracellular DNA, which

in the case of the human pathogen *Haemophilus influenzae* increases biofilm stability (52).

Therefore, it is possible that IHF has a direct impact on gut colonization of *F. perrara* by stabilizing

the biofilm formed on the host epithelium. However, based on our gene expression data and the

results of the gene deletion experiments, it seems more likely that IHF influences gut colonization

by regulating downstream genes involved in host interaction. Several of the genes regulated by

IHF are known to play important roles in the adhesion to surfaces or the formation of biofilms. For

example, pili are key factors for adhesion across many bacteria (53-56) and have already been

shown in the case of the bee gut symbiont *S. alvi* to be beneficial for gut colonization and biofilm

formation (7). In agreement with these previous results, several of the deletion mutants of IHF-

regulated genes showed colonization defects in our gnotobiotic bee experiments corroborating

that IHF impacts gut colonization through its effect on gene expression rather than through a direct

role in biofilm formation.

The pili mutant (ΔpilE) had the strongest colonization defect of the tested gene deletion strains,

likely because pili mediate the adhesion to the host epithelium, and therefore allow *F. perrara* to

persist and replicate in the pylorus/ileum region of the honey bee gut. The deletion mutant of the

APE biosynthesis pathway (ΔapeA-R) also showed a clear colonization defect. However, while

some of the bees inoculated with this mutant had no detectable levels of *F. perrara* in the gut,

others reached similar levels as bees colonized with the wt strain and also developed the scab

phenotype. Aryl polyenes can protect bacteria from reactive oxygen species (46, 57) which are

produced by insects as part of the host immune response in the midgut (58, 59). Our time course

experiment revealed that in the first few days of colonization the bacterial numbers of *F. perrara*

in the gut are much lower than in the initial inoculum (**Figure 2**) suggesting that the bacteria

experience a significant population bottleneck at the beginning of the colonization process. It is

possible that the ΔapeA-R mutant is impaired in its ability to resist reactive oxygen species (or

other physicochemical stressors) when passing through the anterior sections of the honey bee

gut and therefore reaches its niche in the pylorus in only a fraction of the inoculated bees. These

stressors may be even more active in the presence of a complex community, which could explain

the even lower colonization success of ΔapeA-R in the presence of the BeeComm_002. However,

APEs have also been implicated in other functions such as biofilm formation (57). Therefore,

future studies will be needed to elucidate how the APE biosynthetic pathway of *F. perrara* impacts

honey bee gut colonization. Given the widespread occurrence of these biosynthetic genes

throughout different bacteria, this might help to understand their role in host colonization in a much

wider context (43).

A somewhat unexpected result of our mutant analysis was that the deletion of one of the genes

encoding an essential NRPS/PKS enzyme (ClbB) of the Clb biosynthetic gene cluster did not

affect scab development and had only a weak impact on gut colonization (2-fold lower levels than

wt). Studies on *E. coli* have shown that the Clb biosynthesis pathway induces DNA damage in

eukaryotic cells (60) and contributes to tumorigenesis in the mammalian gut (61, 62). We have

previously shown that *F. perrara* also induces DNA damage in eukaryotic cells and that this is

dependent on a functional Clb biosynthesis pathway (37). Therefore, we had speculated that the

genotoxic activity of colibactin may trigger the local melanization response and the development

of the scab phenotype upon colonization with *F. perrara* (17, 34). However, the results presented

here show that colibactin is not causing the scab phenotype. Therefore, other characteristics of

F. perrara must explain why this bacterium causes the scab phenotype.

Usually, bees that have $<10^6$ bacteria in the gut do not develop visible scab at day 10 post

colonization (**Figure 3 and Figure 7**), which suggests that a certain number of bacteria is needed

to elicit this characteristic host response. On the contrary, not all bees with high levels of

colonization developed a scab phenotype indicating that high loads are necessary but not

sufficient to trigger the development of a visible scab phenotype. Specifically, the *Δhcp2* mutant

of T6SS-2 and the *Δhcp1*/*Δhcp2* double mutant of T6SS-1 and T6SS-2 both reached relatively

high colonization levels, yet not a single bee developed the scab phenotype. T6SS are usually

involved in interbacterial warfare by injecting toxins into neighboring bacterial cells (63-65).

However, there is an increasing number of studies showing that certain T6SS effectors can also

target eukaryotic cells and modify diverse eukaryotic processes, including adhesion modification,

stimulating internalization, cytoskeletal rearrangements and evasion of host innate immune

responses (66). While *F. perrara* is not the only bee gut symbiont harboring T6SS, the effector

protein repertoires differ tremendously between different species and even strains of the same

species (67). Thus, it is possible that some of the effector proteins of *F. perrara* may target the

host rather than other bacteria eliciting the melanization response and scab phenotype in the bee

gut. Additionally, both the *Δhcp2* and the *Δhcp* double mutant had increased colonization defects

in the presence of the BeeComm_002. This raises the hypothesis that the T6SS-2 may be

important for *F.perrara* to interact with other gut symbionts, namely bacteria of the genera

Snodgrassella and *Gilliamella* that also colonize the pylorus. It is important to mention that our

experimental design favored *F. perrara* over the individual members of the BeeComm_002 as, in

the inoculum fed to the bees, *F. perrara* was 13 times more abundant than any member of the

defined community. It is likely that a stronger colonization defect would be observed if the

proportions of *F. perrara* to other community members were more even. In any case, the presence

of the BeeComm_002 led to a reduction of the number of bees colonized by most *F. perrara*

strains, but not for the wt **(Figure 7 – figure supplement 1B)**. This is particularly interesting in

the case of the *Δhcp1* and *ΔclbB* mutants, suggesting a possible role for these genes in the

presence of other symbionts.

We did not carry out a genome-wide screen for host colonization factors, and only generated

deletion mutants of a few of the IHF-regulated genes. Thus, there are probably many other factors

that also contribute to gut colonization. For example, our *in vivo* RNA-seq experiment indicated

that metabolic genes involved in tryptophan biosynthesis, sugar transport, and iron uptake are

upregulated during gut colonization. This is in line with the TnSeq screen performed in *S. alvi,*

which revealed that genes of essential amino acid biosynthesis pathways and iron uptake are

important colonization factors of the honey bee gut (68)*.* It is however remarkable that *F. perrara*

only upregulates the tryptophan biosynthesis pathway, which suggest a specific demand for the

production of this specific amino acid during gut colonization.

While our study revealed that IHF is important for regulating host colonization factors in the honey

bee gut, it remains to be elucidated whether IHF is a direct regulator of the identified genes. In

Vibrio fluvialis, IHF binding sites were identified upstream of several T6SS gene clusters,

indicating that direct transcriptional regulation of similar genes by IHF exists in other bacteria (69).

Alternatively, IHF may act upstream of another regulator that controls the expression of the

identified genes. In the plant pathogen *Dickeya zeae,* IHF was suggested to positively regulate

different virulence factors through binding to the promoter region of a diguanylate cyclase gene,

increasing the production of the secondary messenger c-di-GMP (70). In *F. perrara,* we found that

the transcriptional regulators BasR and DksA were substantially downregulated in the wt versus

the *ihfA** mutant. Hence, it is possible that at least some of the differentially regulated genes may

not be under the direct control of IHF but regulated via BasR or DskA.

In conclusion, we identified important gut colonization factors of the bee gut symbiont *F. perrara*

and show that they are regulated by IHF. The wide occurrence of these genes in host-associated

bacteria suggests similar roles in other environments and calls for a more detailed functional

characterization. Our approach to create clean gene deletion mutants expands the available

genetic toolbox for bee symbionts (33) and will help to dissect the molecular mechanisms of the

identified gut colonization factors in this animal model.

Material and methods

Bacterial cultivation

F. perrara strains were cultivated on modified tryptone yeast extract glucose (mTYG) medium (0.2% Bacto tryptone, 0.1% Bacto yeast extract, 2.2 mM D-glucose, 3.2 mM L-cysteine, 2.9 mM cellobiose, 5.8 mM vitamin K, 1.4 µM $FeSO_4$, 72.1 µM $CaCl_2$, 0.08 mM $MgSO4$, 4.8 mM $NaHCO3$, 1.36 mM NaCl, 1.8 µM Hematine in 0.2 mM Histidine, 1.25% Agar adjusted to pH 7.2 with potassium phosphate buffer), Columbia Blood Agar (CBA) containing 5% defibrinated sheep blood (Oxoid)) or Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI) and incubated in anaerobic conditions at 34-35 °C (8% H_2, 20% N_2, 78% CO_2 in a Vinyl Anaerobic Chamber, Coy Lab). Fresh bacterial cultures were used for each experiment. To this end, pre-cultures streaked out from glycerol stocks were grown for 48 hours and re-inoculated onto fresh plates for 16-24 hours of growth. For liquid cultures, pre-cultures streaked out from glycerol stocks were grown on TYG or BHIA plates for 48 hours and then inoculated into fresh liquid TYG or BHI. Cultures were incubated at 34-35 °C in a ThermoMixer C (Eppendorf) at 800 rpm for 16-24 hours of growth. Strains of *F. perrara* used in this study are listed in **Supplementary Table S2**.

Rearing and experimental colonization of honey bees

Microbiota-depleted bees were generated as described by (18). For experimental mono-colonization, bees were starved for 1-3 hours by removal of the sugar water solution. Then, bees were cooled down to 4 °C in a refrigerator or on ice to transfer them (head side first) into 1.5 ml microfuge tubes with a hole at the bottom. Tubes with bees were kept at room temperature. For inoculation, each bee was fed 5 µl of *F. perrara* resuspended in sugar water:PBS (1:1 v/v) through the hole at the bottom of the microcentrifuge tube. The bacterial inocula were adjusted to an OD_{600} of 0.01 or 0.1 depending on the experiment. Colonized bees were kept at 30 °C with 70% humidity while having access to sugar water and sterilized bee pollen *ad libitum* until sampling.

Tissue dissection and bacterial quantification from colonized honey bees

Bees were anesthetized by exposure to CO_2. The whole gut or desired gut tissue, e.g., pylorus or ileum was dissected using a scalpel. Malpighian tubules were removed from the gut tissue and the presence of a scab was documented using a dissection stereomicroscope (Leica) as described in (14, 17). The tissues were placed into 2 ml screw-cap tubes containing glass beads (0.75-1 mm diameter, Roth) and 500-1000 µl PBS depending on the experiment. Homogenization of the sample was done by bead beating (FastPrep-24 5g MP Biomedicals) for 40 seconds at a speed of 7.5 m/s. Serial dilutions (1:10) were performed for each homogenate and plated onto mTYG or BHI agar. Single colonies were counted to determine the total number of bacteria per gut tissue by multiplying with the dilution factor.

RNA sequencing of bacterial *in vitro* cultures

Fresh *F. perrara* cultures were prepared on mTYG plates, harvested, and directly transferred into a tube containing TRI reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, Merck) and silica beads (0.1 mm diameter, Roth). Samples were immediately snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction. RNA was extracted using a modified TRI reagent protocol. Samples were homogenized by bead beating with a FastPrep instrument with CoolPrep adapter (FastPrep-24 5G, cooled with dry ice) for two cycles of 45 seconds at speed of 6 m/s, including a 30 seconds break between each cycle. Samples were kept at room temperature for 5 min, subsequently extracted using chloroform and RNA was precipitated using isopropanol overnight at -20 °C. Precipitated RNA was dissolved in RNase-free water (Gibco) and incubated with DNase (NEB) to degrade remaining DNA. RNA samples were cleaned up using NucleoSpin RNA clean up kit (Machery-Nagel) according to manufacturer's protocol, eluted in RNAse-free water and stored at -80 °C until further use. RNA quality was assessed using Nanodrop, Qubit RNA HS kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) and Bioanalyzer instrument (Agilent). High quality RNA samples were sent to Lausanne Genomic Technology Facility (GTF, University of Lausanne) for RNA sequencing. Samples were depleted of 16S rRNA using RiboZero reagent (Illumina) and Truseq

stranded-RNA Zero libraries were generated (Illumina) before sequencing on an Illumina
HiSeq2500 generating single-end 100 bp reads.

RNA sequencing of bacteria during honey bee gut colonization

Microbiota-depleted bees were colonized with freshly grown *F. perrara*. A fraction of the inoculum
was directly transferred into 2 ml tube containing TRI reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, Merck) and silica
beads (0.1 mm diameter, Roth). These samples were immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen
and stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction, which was carried out in the same way as described in
the previous section. For the *in vivo* RNA samples, bees were colonized with *F. perrara* as
described above and sampled at day 5 and day 10 post inoculation. Guts were removed from
anesthetized bees, the pylorus and first part of the ileum was dissected, and the presence of the
scab was recorded. For each sample, 10 pylorus and ileum sections from bees coming from the
same cage were pooled in a 2 ml screw cap tube containing 750 µl of TRI reagent (Sigma-Aldrich,
Merck), glass beads (0.75-1 mm diameter, Roth), and silica beads (0.1 mm diameter, Roth).
Immediately after collection, samples were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until
RNA extraction. RNA was extracted as described in the previous section. At each time point, four
biological replicate samples were used for RNA sequencing, i.e., bees for one sample came from
independent cages of gnotobiotic bees. The GTF at the University of Lausanne generated the
libraries for the sequencing of the *in vivo* RNA samples. Poly-A depletion was performed in order
to enrich for bacterial mRNA and Ribo-zero rRNA depletion was performed in order to remove
prokaryotic and eukaryotic rRNAs. Then TruSeq stranded mRNA libraries (Illumina) were
generated. The eight libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 to obtain single-end
125 bp reads. Libraries of the *in vitro* RNA samples were generated as described before. The four
libraries corresponding to the *F. perrara* inocula used for colonizing the bees of the four replicates
were sequenced on an Illumina MiniSeq at the Department of Fundamental Microbiology (125 bp
single-end reads). Two *in vivo* samples (sample identifier D10_3M and D5_1M) sequenced on

the HiSeq 2500 at the GTF were included in the MiniSeq run which confirmed that the two runs

gave comparable results.

Differential gene expression and gene enrichment analysis

Raw FASTQ files provided by the GTF containing all reads and corresponding tags indicating

whether they were accepted or filtered out according to the CASAVA 1.82 pipeline (Illumina). Only

reads   tagged   as   accepted   were   kept   for   further   analysis.   FASTQC

(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) was used to control the quality of the

data, followed by Trimmomatic (Trimmomatic-0.35) to trim adapters. Filtered and trimmed reads

were mapped onto the *F. perrara* genome using Bowtie (bowtie2-2.3.2*)*. Mapped reads were

quantified using HTseq (Version 0.7.2). Differential gene expression analysis was done with the

Bioconductor package EdgeR (71) using R scripts. For the in vitro RNAseq analysis, negative

binomial models were fitted to the data and quantile-adjusted conditional maximum likelihood

(qCML) common and tagwise dispersion were estimated. The conditional distribution for the sum

of counts in a group was used to calculate the significantly differentially expressed genes using

an Exact test with a false discovery rate <5%. Only genes detected in all samples with at least 1

count per million were used for the analysis. For the in vivo RNAseq analysis, we followed the

recommendations specified in the EdgeR user guide for generalized linear models. In short, read

counts were normalized by trimmed mean of M-values (72) producing scaling factors used by

EdgeR to determine effective library sizes. Then, negative binomial generalized linear models

were fitted for each condition and quasi-likelihood F-tests for each defined contrast (i.e., pairwise

comparison between conditions) was used to assess the significance of differentially expressed

genes. As for the in vitro RNAseq analysis, only genes with mapped reads with at least 1 count

per million in all replicates and conditions were used for the analysis. Genes were considered as

differentially expressed upon fulfilling the following criteria: (i) log2 fold change ≥ 2 (ii) a p-value

of <0.05 and (iii) a false discovery rate <5%. Transcripts per million (TPM) were calculated as

follows (73):

$$TPM \ of \ a \ gene = \frac{number \ of \ mapped \ reads * read \ length * 10^6}{total \ number \ of \ transcripts \ sampled * gene \ length \ in \ bp}$$

Coverage plots in **Figure 2A** and **Figure 4C** were generated with bam2wig.pl contained in the

Bio-ToolBox-1.68 (https://github.com/tjparnell/biotoolbox) and visualized with the Integrated

Genome Browser (74). Scripts for analyzing the RNAseq data can be found under the following

Switchdrive link: https://drive.switch.ch/index.php/s/kCNTp4g7n60ffMi.

DNA extraction of dissected gut tissue homogenates

DNA/RNA extraction was performed using an adapted hot phenol protocol from (18) consisting of

sample thawing on ice, homogenization by bead beating at 7.5 m/s for 40 seconds (FastPrep-24

5g MP Biomedicals), two phenol extractions, and an ethanol precipitation overnight at -80 °C.

DNA/RNA mixture was pelleted and eluted in RNase free water (Gibco). Samples were treated

with RNaseA and DNA was purified using a Gel and PCR purification kit (Machery-Nagel). For

those samples displayed in Figure 7 and Figure 7 – figure supplement 1, samples were

homogenized with 165µL of a solution containing GI lysis buffer, Quiagen^{TM}, and lysozyme (10:1

concentration) zirconia beads (0.1 mm dia. Zirconia/Silica beads; Carl Roth) and glass beads in

a Fast- Prep24 5G homogenizer (MP Biomedicals) at 6 m/s for 45 s. After homogenization,

samples were incubated at 37°C for thirty minutes. Then, 30µL of Proteinase K were added and

samples were incubated at 56°C for one hour. The purification of nucleic acids was performed

using CleanNGS magnetic beads (CNGS-0005) and the Opentron OT-2 pipetting robot. Purified

DNA extracts were stored at -20°C until further use.

Bacterial quantification by qPCR

Bacterial absolute abundances were determined using quantitative PCR (qPCR) assays targeting

the 16S rRNA gene of *F. perrara*. Normalization was based on the number of host actin gene

copies as described in (18, 75). Primer sequences and other primer characteristics are given in

Supplementary Table S3. qPCR was conducted on a StepOne Plus instrument (Applied

Biosystems) with the following run method: a holding stage consisting of 2 min at 50 °C followed

by 2 min at 95 °C, 40 cycles of 15 sec at 95 °C, and 1 min at 65 °C. A melting curve was generated

after each run (15 sec at 95 °C, 20 sec at 60 °C and increments of 0.3 °C until reaching 95 °C for

15 sec) and used to assess specificity of PCR products. qPCR reactions were performed in 10

µL reactions in triplicates in 96-well plates, and each reaction consisted of 1 µL of DNA, 0.2 µM

of forward and reverse primer and 1x SYBR green "Select" master mix (Applied Biosystems). The

qPCR reactions for the data corresponding to Figure 7 and Figure 7 – figure supplement 1 were

carried out in 384-well plates on a QuantStudio™ 5 (Applied Biosystems). The thermal cycling

conditions were as follows: denaturation stage at 50°C for 2 min followed by 95°C 2 min, 40

amplification cycles at 95°C for 15 s, and 60°C for 1 min. Each reaction was performed in triplicate

in a total volume of 10 µL (0.4 µM of each forward and reverse primer; 5 µM 1x SYBR® Select

Master Mix, Applied Biosystems; 1 µL DNA). Each DNA sample was screened with two different

sets of primers targeting either the actin gene of *A. mellifera*, or the universal 16S rRNA region.

For each target, standard curves were generated for absolute quantification using serial dilutions

(from 10^7 to 10 copies) of the target amplicon cloned into the plasmid vector. Absolute abundance

of bacteria was calculated by using the standard curve and were normalized by the median actin

copy number per condition (to account for differences in gut size) and by the amount of 16s rRNA

copies per genome. For the calculation we used the following formula:

$Absolute\ bacterial\ abundance = 10^{\left(\frac{Ct_{target} - Intercept}{Slope}\right)} * dilution\ factor \div number\ of\ 16S\ rRNA\ copies \div$

$(median\ of\ actin\ copies\ per\ condition)$

Here, Ct_{target} is the cycle threshold of the target bacterium and intercept and slope correspond to

the values calculated for the standard curve of the target bacterium.

Single cell microscopy

F. perrara was freshly grown from stock on plate. Subsequently, liquid overnight cultures starting at an OD_{600} 0.1 were inoculated in TYG for the experiment of the Figure 1 – figure supplement 2, and in BHI for the experiment of the Figure 6 – figure supplement 3. Liquid cultures were grown overnight 16-24 hours with shaking at 34-35 °C in a ThermoMixer C (Eppendorf) in anaerobic atmosphere. For Figure 1 – figure supplement 2, OD_{600} was measured and adjusted to 0.1 – 0.01 and cells were distributed onto small agar patches on a microscopy slide (Milan S.A., Menzel-Gläser). Cells were observed under 1000 times magnification using a ZEISS imager M1 microscope with phase contrast (PH3) condenser. Pictures were acquired randomly on the slides with VisiView software, 8-bit images were corrected with ImageJ and the contrast was set at min-value of 0 and max-value of 4000. A 10 µM scale bar was added with ImageJ (76). For the experiment displayed in Figure 6 – figure supplement 3, OD_{600} was adjusted to 0.1 and 10µl of bacterial solution were distributed onto small patches containing BHI and 1.5% UltraPure^{TM} Agarose from Invitrogen^{TM}. Images were obtained using a Nikon ECLIPSE Ti Series inverted microscope coupled with a Hamamatsu C11440 22CU camera and a Nikon CFI Plan Apo Lambda 100X Oil objective (1000x final magnification). A 20 µM scale bar was added with ImageJ. For both experiments, the MicrobeJ plugin for ImageJ was used to measure cell size and area using the acquired pictures (77).

Isolation and identification of aryl polyene compounds

F. perrara was streaked from the -80 °C glycerol stock onto mTYG plates. Plates were placed in an anaerobic tank with a pack of AnaeroGel 3.5 L (AN0035A Thermo Scientific) at 37 °C and incubated. Under aerobic sterile conditions, colonies were picked and 5 mL of mTYG medium were inoculated in a Hungate tube. After purging the liquid for 1 h with gas (83% N_2, 10% CO_2, 7% H_2 v/v) bacteria were grown at 37 °C. After one day of growth, *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant were individually cultivated in Hungate tubes containing 30 mL mTYG for three days. Pellets were harvested, extracted with dichloromethane and methanol, then extracts were analyzed by HPLC-HESI-HRMS. The data revealed a strongly UV-Vis absorbent ion peak at *m/z*

323.1647 [M+H]⁺. To enrich this compound, 400 mL of mTYG were inoculated with 1 mL of pre-

culture in a Hungate tube and purged as described above. After 5-10 days all but a few mL of

medium were harvested and 400 mL of fresh mTYG was added under sterile aerobic conditions,

purged with anaerobic gas and incubated at 37 °C. A total of 3 L of mTYG were used to obtain

6.53 g of cells, which were stored at -80 °C. Light exposure was minimized during all following

steps of the aryl polyene enrichment procedure. A mixture of 340 mL dichloromethane and 170

mL of methanol was added to *F. perrara* cell pellets. After 2 h stirring at room temperature (RT),

the suspension was filtered and 250 mL KOH (0.5 M) were added. After an additional 1 h of stirring

at RT the pH was set to 6 using H_2SO_4 (1 M). The organic layer was washed twice with 500 mL

water, once with 250 mL brine, dried over Na_2SO_4 and concentrated. The extract was separated

by reverse-phase high performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC , Phenomenex Luna 5 µm

C18, φ 21.2 x 250 mm, 15.0 mL/min, λ=420 nm) with water +0.1% formic acid (solvent A) and

MeCN +0.1% formic acid (solvent B). Solvent compositions of 5% B for 4 min, a gradient to 95%

B for 18 min, 95% B for 9 min and 5% B for 4 min were used. Fractions around 24 min exhibited

strong UV absorption at 420 nm and were further purified by RP-HPLC (Phenomenex Luna 5µ

Phenyl-Hexyl, φ 10 x 250 mm, 2.0 mL/min, λ=420 nm) with 80% B for 5 min and a gradient of

80% B to 100% B for 30 min. Peaks around 17 min were combined, concentrated and analyzed

by NMR spectroscopy. HPLC-HESI-HRMS was performed on a Thermo Scientific Q Exactive

mass spectrometer coupled to a Dionex Ultimate 3000 UPLC system. NMR spectra were

recorded on a Bruker Avance III spectrometer equipped with a cold probe at 500 MHz and

600 MHz for ¹H NMR and 125 MHz and 150 MHz for ¹³C NMR at 298 K. Chemical shifts were

referenced to the solvent peaks of DMSO-d_6 at δ_H 2.50 ppm and δ_C 39.51 ppm.

Structural characterization of the aryl polyene

¹H NMR in conjunction with HSQC data suggested approximately 15 methines and aromatic

protons, one methoxy group and one methyl group (**Figure 2 - figure supplement 3 - 7**). From

the COSY spectrum, four methines of the conjugated double bond system, and two of the aromatic

protons could be connected (**Figure 2 - figure supplement 7 and 8**). HMBC correlations from the methyl group to an aromatic carbon at δ_C 156 ppm placed it in *ortho*-position of a hydroxy group and next to a singlet aromatic proton. The singlet of the methoxy-group was connected to a carbonyl group by HMBC correlations (**Figure 2 - figure supplement 9**).

Construction of gene deletion mutants

Targeted in-frame gene deletions of *F. perrara* were constructed using a two-step homologous recombination procedure (see **Figure 6 – figure supplement 1**). In a first step, suicide plasmids were constructed harboring two adjacent 700-800 bp-long homology regions matching the up- and downstream region of the gene or gene cluster to be deleted. To this end, the two homology regions were amplified using 2 Phanta Max Master Mix (Vazyme) and cloned into pKS2 using Golden Gate assembly. pKS2 is a derivative of pSEVA312 (78) which contains a sfGFP expression cassette flanked by two BsaI restriction sites in the multiple cloning site. All clonings were done in *E. coli* DH5a/λpir. To validate successful cloning of the two homology regions, PCR and Sanger sequencing was performed. The plasmids derived from pKS2 containing the homology regions were shuttled into the diaminopimelic acid (DAP)-auxotroph *E. coli* JKE201 and delivered to *F. perrara* wt via conjugation using bi-parental mating. To this end, *E. coli* JKE201 carrying the plasmid of interest was cultivated for 16-20 hours at 37 °C in LB with 500µM DAP (Sigma, LB-DAP) and 30 µg/ml Chloramphenicol. Sub-cultures were made by diluting the culture at a ratio of 1:20 into fresh medium and incubated until exponential growth was reached. A fresh culture of *F. perrara* was prepared by growing it for 36 h on mTYG agar. *F. perrara* and *E. coli* were harvested in PBS and the OD_{600} adjusted to 10. Equal quantities of both bacteria were mixed and spotted onto a cellulose acetate membrane filter (0.2 µm, 25 mm, Huberlab, Sartorius) placed on BHI agar with 500 µM DAP, followed by incubation at 35 °C for 6 hours under microaerophilic condition. Filters with bacterial mixtures were removed from the plates with a forceps, placed into a tube with PBS. Bacteria were removed from the filter by pipetting, vortexing and agitation for 10 min at 1500 rpm (Thermomixer C, Eppendorf). The bacterial suspension was centrifuged at 8000x

g for 10 minutes, the supernatant discarded to remove dead bacteria and the bacterial pellet was

washed once with 1000 µl PBS before resuspending in a reduced volume, i.e. 100 µl PBS. The

bacterial mixture was plated onto CBA and mTYG with selection antibiotic and incubated at 35 °C

for 5 days under anaerobic condition. Colonies were picked after 4-5 days of incubation and

expanded to fresh plates. DNA was isolated and five different PCRs performed to check for

successful integration of the plasmid into the chromosomal region of *F. perrara* targeted for

deletion. Positive clones (loop-in strains) were stocked in liquid mTYG containing 20% (v/v)

glycerol at -80 °C until further usage. To select for bacteria that have lost the integrated plasmid,

F. perrara loop-in strains were grown on mTYG agar and subsequently transformed with plasmid

pYE1. pYE1 is a derivative of pBZ485 (79) containing the restriction enzyme *I-SceI* under the

control of the IPTG-inducible *lac* promoter. The activity of the restriction enzyme *I-SceI* will

negatively select bacteria containing pKS2-derivatives as two *I-SceI* sites are flanking the multiple

cloning sites on pKS2. To generate electrocompetent *F. perrara* cells, the bacteria were cultivated

from glycerol stocks on mTYG agar and incubated at 35 °C for 2 days under anaerobic condition.

Bacteria from plate were inoculated in BHI broth with a starting OD_{600} of 0.1 and grown

anaerobically at 40 °C for 12-16 hours. Subsequently, growth was stopped by placing cultures

onto ice for 15 minutes. Cells were made electrocompetent by washing twice with ice-cold MOPS

solution supplemented with 20% glycerol, with decreasing volumes per wash. Electrocompetent

cells were mixed with >500 ng plasmid DNA and incubated for 15 minutes on ice before

transferring into an electroporation cuvette. Electroporation was performed applying a voltage of

2.5 kV with resistance of 200 Ω and capacitance of 25 µF. Bacteria were immediately

resuspended in BHI and incubated anaerobically for 6 hours at 35 °C to allow phenotypic

expression. Bacteria were plated on CBA, mTYG and/or BHIA plates with 25 µg/ml Kanamycin

and 100 µM IPTG to select for pYE1 and induce the restriction enzyme *I-SceI*. Plates were

incubated in anaerobic atmosphere at 35 °C. After 3 to 5 days of incubation, bacterial colonies

were replica plated onto fresh plates containing 15 µg/ml chloramphenicol (selection marker of

pKS2-derivatives) or 25 µg/ml kanamycin (selection marker of pYE1) to identify clones that cannot

grow on chloramphenicol anymore as a consequence of the loss of the integrated pKS2-

derivative. DNA was extracted and a PCR screen performed with primers amplifying the gene targeted for deletion as well as the overspanning region of the deletion. All clones possessing the gene deletion were subsequently expanded on mTYG agar and stocked in glycerol as described above

Correspondence between OD and CFU

For the wt, *ihfA** and the six gene-deletion mutants, bacteria were grown in BHIA plates for 3 days at 35ºC in anaerobic conditions. On the day of the experiment, bacteria were harvested and a bacterial solution at OD_{600} =0.1 was prepared per each genotype. Serial dilutions were performed in a 96-well plate by transferring 10µl of OD_{600} =0.1 into 90µl of BHI medium followed by several 1:10 dilutions in BHI. For each genotype, 5 µl of all dilutions were plated on BHIA plates, incubated for 3 days at 35ºC in anaerobic conditions and quantified to calculate the number of CFUs present in 5 µl of the initial OD_{600} =0.1 solution. The CFU values present in 5 µl of bacterial solution at OD_{600} =0.1 is of relevance as it corresponds to the volume fed to bees in the colonization experiments. Three experimental replicates were performed.

Growth curves in liquid cultures

F. perrara was freshly grown from stock on BHIA plates. Subsequently, liquid overnight cultures starting at an OD_{600} =0.1 were inoculated in BHI and grown for 16-24 hours anaerobically with shaking at 35 °C and 600 rpm in a ThermoMixer C (Eppendorf) in anaerobic atmosphere. To obtain the growth curves, one 96-well plate was inoculated with different *F. perrara* strains. Each well contained 200µl of a bacterial solution at OD_{600} =0.05. Per strain, four wells were inoculated. Absorbance values were measured at 600nm every 20 minutes for 72 hours, using a BioTek™ Epoch2 microplate reader. The plate was incubated in anaerobic conditions at 34ºC and continuous orbital shaking for the duration of the experiment.

FISH microscopy

Tissue sections and FISH experiments were performed as previously described (34). Briefly, the pylorus and ileum of gnotobiotic bees were dissected and fixed for five days in Carnoy's solution (ethanol-chloroform-acetic acid, 6:3:1 [vol/vol]). Fixed tissue samples were washed three times for 1 hour in absolute ethanol, then incubated three times for 20 min in xylene, and finally infiltrated with paraffin three times for 1 hour at 60°C. Samples were placed into molds containing melted paraffin and then hardened by placing them into an ice slurry. Paraffin-embedded tissues were cut into serial 5-μm sections with a microtome (Leica), placed on coated microscopy slides, and cleared from paraffin with xylene. Sections were then hybridized overnight with fluorochrome-labeled oligonucleotide probes targeting the 16S rRNA of *F. perrara* and DAPI. Samples were imaged using the Zeiss LSM900 confocal microscope. Per bacterial genotype, one gut was processed and imaged. The *F. perrara* probe used is named PE1_TYE563_G2, has the sequence CCGCTCCAGCTCGCACCTTCGCT and a Cy3 flurophore.

Electron Microscopy

The wt, *ihfa** and *ΔpilE* strains were grown in BHIA plates for 3 days at 34°C in anaerobic conditions. The day before image acquisition, bacteria were harvested from the plates, transferred to liquid BHI at an initial OD_{600} =0.1 and were grown for 16 hours in anaerobic conditions with shaking. On the day images were acquired, bacteria were diluted 50 times. Each bacteria suspension was adsorbed on a glow-discharged copper 400 mesh grid coated with carbon (EMS, Hatfield, PA, US) during one minute at room temperature. Posteriorly, the meshes were washed with three drops of distilled water and stained for one minute with uranyl acetate (Sigma, St Louis, MO, US) at a concentration of 1%. The excess of uranyl acetate was drained on blotting paper and the grid was dried during ten minutes before image acquisition. Micrographs were taken with a transmission electron microscope Philips CM100 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hillsboro, USA) at an acceleration voltage of 80kV with a TVIPS TemCam-F416 digital camera (TVIPS GmbH, Gauting, Germany).

Generation of the BeeComm_002 bacterial community

Thirteen bacterial isolates that represent the most abundant species found in the bee gut were grown individually and assembled together to generate a bacterial community named **BeeComm_002** (**Supplementary Table 4**). Each individual member was grown in agar plates of its respective preferential medium and culture conditions for 3 days, bacteria were harvested from the plates, diluted to OD_{600} =1 in PBS, mixed together in the same proportions and placed in a glycerol stock (20% final concentration) at -80ºC. *Gilliamella* strains were grown in BHIA plates and incubated in anaerobic conditions at 35ºC. *Bifidobacterium*, *Lactobacillus* and *Commensalibacter* strains grew anaerobically and at 35ºC in Man, Rogosa and Sharpe agar plates supplemented with fructose and L-cysteine. *Snodgrassella alvi* was grown in Trypticase Soy agar plates, *Bartonella apis* grown in Columbia Broth agar plates supplemented with 5% sheep blood and both isolates were placed in micro-aerophilic conditions with 5% CO2 and at 34ºC.

Co-colonization of bees with *F. perrara* and BeeComm_002

Each gene-deletion mutant, the wt and the *ihfA** mutant of *F. perrara* were grown as previously mentioned and diluted to OD_{600} =1 on the day the colonization experiment was performed. 100 µl of a given *F. perrara* genotype at OD_{600} =1*,* 100 µl of BeeComm_002 at OD_{600} =1 and 800 µl of a PBS and sugar water solution (1:1) were mixed together. As BeeComm_002 is composed of 13 isolates and was mixed in a 1 to 1 ratio with *F. perrara*, *F. perrara* was 13 times more abundant than any individual member of this synthetic community. For the control treatments where BeeComm_002 was not added (mono-associations), 100 µl of a given *F. perrara* genotype at OD_{600} =1 were diluted in 900 µl of a PBS and sugar water solution (1:1). Gnotobiotic bees were generated, manipulated and inoculated with bacteria as previously mentioned. Ileum/pylorus regions were dissected at day 10 after inoculation and scab formation was assessed before snap-freezing the samples in liquid nitrogen. Samples were placed at -80ºC until DNA was extracted

817 using previously mentioned methods. Bacterial abundance was quantified using the approach

818 described in the Methods section "Bacterial quantification by qPCR". Primers used in this

819 experiment are found in **Supplementary Table S3.**

Genome re-sequencing

822 All gene deletion strains and the three white variants of *F. perrara* PEB091 were subjected to

823 Illumina genome re-sequencing at Novogene (2x150bp). Mutations in the re-sequenced genomes

824 relative to the genome of the wt strain of *F. perrara* were analyzed with *breseq* (80). The detailed

825 results of this analysis can be found: https://drive.switch.ch/index.php/s/kCNTp4g7n60ffMi.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism v6.01 or R. Results of all statistical tests

can be found in **Supplementary Dataset 5**. Normality was analyzed using D'Agostino-Pearson

and/or Shapiro-Wilk test. For comparison with two conditions, t-test was used for parametric data

and Wilcoxon sum-rank test or Kolgomorov-Smirnov test for non-parametric data. For comparison

of the growth curves of *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA**, we used a permutation test

'compareGrowthCruves' included in the statmod package of R (81). For the analysis of the CFU

counts, a linear model with binomial distribution was calculated with CFUs as the dependent

variable and Genotype and Experimental Replicate as independent variables. Post-hoc

comparisons between genotypes were performed using the emmeans R package (https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/emmeans/index.html). For the comparison of the cell lengths, Wilcoxon

sum-rank test was performed.

Data availability

841 RNA sequence datasets are available under NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus ID GSE189728.

842 Code, scripts and numeric data files of experimental data have been deposited on Switchdrive:

843 https://drive.switch.ch/index.php/s/kCNTp4g7n60ffMi.

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Innovation Program (grant agreement No. 742739).

Figure 1. **Isolation of a spontaneous *ihfA** mutant of *F. perrara* displaying an altered colony morphotype. (A)** Colonies of *F. perrara* PEB0191 (wt) after 48 hours of growth on mTYG agar. Arrowhead points at a larger white colony in between many yellow colonies. The area in the white square is magnified. (**B**) Colony morphology of *F. perrara* wt and the isolated white *ihfA** mutant after growth on mTYG for 48 hours. (**C**) Protein sequence comparison of IhfA and IhfB of *F. perrara* wt and *E. coli* wt. The outlined positions refer to the residues mutated in the three spontaneous *ihfA* mutants: (i) lysine (Lys) to serine (Ser) at position 38 of *F. perrara* IhfA, (ii) proline (Pro) to lysine (Lys) at position 83 of *F. perrara* IhfA, (iii) proline (Pro) to lysine (Lys) at position 82 of *F. perrara* IhfB. Note that the numbers given on top of the alignment refer to alignment positions and not to positions in the individual sequences. Secondary structures are depicted above as ribbons (α-helix) and arrows (β-sheet) and are numbered according to their appearance in the protein and the structure shown in D. (**D**) Three-dimensional structure of *E. coli* IhfA/B heterocomplex with DNA (source protein databank NDB: PDT040). DNA is depicted in blue and IhfB in dark grey. IhfA is colored according to secondary structure: α-helix orange, β-sheet light blue and the rest in light grey. α-helices and β-sheets are numbered. The mutated Pro83 and Lys38 residues of *F. perrara* IhfA and the Pro82 residue of IhfB are marked with an orange and

green   circle,   respectively.

Figure 2. Metabolite analysis of *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant. (A) Comparison of gene

synteny and sequence similarity of the genomic islands of *F. perrara* PEB0191 (top) and *E. coli*

CFT073 (bottom) encoding the aryl polyene (APE) biosynthesis genes. Grey lines indicate

homologous regions based on tblastx analysis. Plots were generated with genoplotR (82).

Transcripts per million (TPMs) are shown on top of the genomic island for one RNAseq replicate

of each *F. perrara* wt (blue) and the *ihfA** mutant grown in vitro. Coverage plots were generated

with the Integrated Genome Browser v9 (74). **(B)** Total ion chromatogram (TIC) and UV trace

(λ=420 nm) of wt and *ihfA**. A peak highly abundant in the wt was discovered at 18.85 min. Its

high UV absorbance at λ=420 nm indicated a conjugated carbon double bond system. **(C)** The

normalized mass spectrum at 18.85 min reveals the ion *m/z* = 323.1647 Da to be approximately

50-fold more abundant in the wt compared to *ihfA**. **(D)** Enrichment of the ion containing fraction

by HPLC followed by NMR experiments suggest a structure identical to that reported by (43).

Reported (red) and observed (blue) ^{1}H and ^{13}C chemical shifts are shown. Central methines could

not be assigned.

Figure 3. *F. perrara ihfA** mutant displays a colonization defect. (A) Light microscopy pictures

of pylorus region of bees colonized with *F. perrara* PEB0191wt or *ihfA** 10 days post colonization.

(B) Quantification of scab phenotype of bees 5 and 10 days post colonization with n=18 and n=36

per treatment, respectively. **(C)** Quantification of colonization levels are measured by colony

forming units (CFUs) at day 5 (n=18) and day 10 (n=36) post colonization. Wilcoxon rank-sum

test was used to assess significant differences. **(D)** Time course experiment of bees colonized

with *F. perrara* wt or *ihfA**. Colonization levels were measured by CFUs every second day until

day 10 and then at day 14 and day 21. n=12 bees per time point per treatment. Wilcoxon rank-

sum test was used to assess significant differences per time point. Error bars represent median

and interquartile range. Data from three independent experiments. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Figure 4. Differential gene expression between *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA* mutant during *in vitro* growth. (**A**) Chromosomal localization of all genes significantly differentially expressed (2-log fold change = |2|, Fisher's exact test p value <0.05, FDR <0.05) between *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant. Starting from outside, the first circle shows the scale of the genome representation of *F. perrara* in gray and white steps of 100 kb. The second and third circles (gray) depict the genes on the plus and minus strands of *F. perrara*. The fourth (beige) and fifth (light blue) circle depicts genes upregulated and downregulated in wt compared to *ihfA**. Genomic islands are highlighted by coloration. (**B**) Bar plot of the genes differentially expressed between *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA** with a log2-fold change >2 (Fisher's exact test p value <0.05, FDR <0.05). (**C**) Comparison of the transcriptional profile of the genomic location encoding the colibactin biosynthetic gene cluster between *F. perrara* wt and the *ihfA** mutant. Transcripts per million were visualized using the Integrative Genome Browser (74). The colibactin operon is schematically depicted below (green arrows).

Figure 5. Gene expression of lhf-regulated genes of *F. perrara* ten days post-inoculation of

gnotobiotic honey bees. Transcripts per million were calculated for all replicates of the *in vitro*

and the *in vivo* RNAseq experiments. For the in vitro experiment (Exp. 1), all three replicates of

the wt and the *ihfA** mutant are shown. For the *in vivo* experiment (Exp. 2), the four replicates of

the day 10 time-point and the in vitro reference condition are shown. Data for day 5 time-point in

comparison to day 10 time-point is shown in **Figure 5 – figure supplement 2**.

Figure 6. Gut colonization phenotypes of different gene deletion mutants of *F. perrara*. (A)

Colonization levels were assessed 10 days after inoculation by counting colony forming units

(CFUs) in dilutions of homogenized bee guts plated on BHI agar. Only the pylorus and ileum

section of the gut were analyzed. Limit of detection (LOD) corresponds to the lowest colonization

level detectable in our assay, i.e. points below the LOD correspond to bees for which no CFUs

were detected. Statistically significant differences of the colonization levels of each mutant relative

to the wt of *F. perrara* were determined using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test with BH correction.

Bees were inoculated with an OD_{600} of 0.1. Data come from two independent experiments.

Supplementary Figure 15 shows the data points by experiments.   * p<0.05, **p<0.01,

***p<0.001. Filled circle colors indicate whether a scab was detected during dissection (green =

scab; yellow = no scab). **(B)** Location within the pylorus was assessed using FISH microscopy.

Bees were inoculated with different *F. perrara* genotypes at OD_{600} =0.1, guts were dissected at

day 10 after inoculation and sectioned using a microtome. Hybridizations were done with probes

specific for *F. perrara* (magenta). DAPI counterstaining of host nuclei and bacteria is shown in

blue. Images were generated by merging brightfield, *F. perrara* and DAPI images that were

obtained for the same section of the gut. The composite images here shown were obtained by

944   merging the images of each channel presented in **Figure 6 – figure supplements 6 and 7**. These

945   were obtained using the 5x and 40x objectives of the Zeiss LSM900. Scale bar for images

946   obtained with 5x: 100 μm, for 40x: 20 μm.

Figure 7. Gut colonization of the gene deletion mutants in the presence of bacterial

competition. Bees were inoculated with *F. perrara* alone (mono) or in the presence of a defined

bacterial community representing core members of the bee gut microbiota (BeeCom_002).

Colonization levels were assessed 10 days after inoculation by qPCR. Only the pylorus and ileum

section of the gut were analyzed. The dashed grey line refers to the limit of detection (LOD) and

corresponds to the lowest colonization level detectable in our assay, i.e. points below the LOD

correspond to bees for which no *F. perrara* was detected. Statistically significant differences

between the colonization levels of each mutant in mono association compared to in the presence

of the defined microbial community were determined using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test with BH

correction. Data comes from two independent experiments. **Figure 7 – figure supplement 1A**

shows the data points colored by experiments. * p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. Filled circle colors

indicate whether a scab was detected during dissection (black = scab; yellow = no scab).

Figure Supplements

Figure 1 – figure supplement 1. Colony morphology of different *F. perrara* strains on mTYG

agar plates. (A) Dilution streaks of five different strains including the wt, the three separate point

mutation strains of IHF (two in *ihfA* and one in *ihfB*), and the *ΔapeA-R* mutant after 2 days of

growth under anaerobic conditions. **(B)** Bacterial cell pellets of the same strains as in **(A)**

harvested from the agar plates, resuspended in 1x PBS, and centrifuged for 5 min at 5000 rpm.

Figure 1 – figure supplement 2. *In vitro* **characterization of** *F. perrara ihfA**. **(A)** Growth curve

of *F. perrara* PEB0191 wt and *ihfA** in liquid TYG. The optical density (OD600) was measured

every hour for 14 hours (Permutation test, p = 0.097). **(B)** Quantification of single cell length of *F.*

perrara wt PEB0191 and *ihfA** from the single cell microscopy experiment shown in C.

Significance was tested using Kolgomorov-Smirnov test, stars depict significance: *** p<0.0001.

(C) Single cell light microscopy of *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA**. The scale bar (5µm) is depicted in the

right lower corner.

Figure 2 – figure supplement 1. Ms-Ms fragmentation spectrum of _m/z_ = 323.1647 in extracts of _F. perrara_ wt. Many of the prominent ions were reported from aryl polyenes by **(46)**: _m/z_= 121.00, 131.00, 145.00, 147.08, 171.08, 183.00, 197.08, 209.08, 223.08. The spectrum was recorded at 30 kV collision energy.

Figure 2 – figure supplement 2. **UV-spectrum of the extracts indicates isomerization of the aryl polyene.** UV spectrum of the extracts indicates isomerization of the aryl polyene. (**A**) Total ion chromatogram of extracts of *F. perrara* wt. (**B**) Extracted ion chromatogram of *m/z* = 323.1640 Da (+/- 5ppm). Storage led to the formation of an additional peak at 19.28 min, possibly by isomerization. **C** The UV-spectrum at 18.94 min has the maximum around 415 nm, similar to that reported by (43). **D** The UV-spectrum at 19.25 min shows an additional maximum at 315 nm, characteristic for a *trans-cis* conversion of a double bond.

996 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 3**. ^{1}H NMR spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ_6 at 298

999 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 4**. ^{1}H NMR spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ_6 at

1000 298 K. Enhanced view of the aromatic region and integrals of assigned peaks.

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1002 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 5.** HSQC spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ_6 at 298 K.

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1006 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 6**. HSQC spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ_6 at 298

1007 K. Enhanced view of the aromatic region.

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Figure 2 – figure supplement 7. COSY spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ_6 at 298
K.

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Figure 2 – figure supplement 8. COSY spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ6 at 298

K. Enhanced view of the aromatic region.

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1016 **Figure 2 – figure supplement 9.** HMBC spectrum of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ6 at 298

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Figure 2 – figure supplement 10. HPLC-HRESIMS analysis of *F. perrara* and *E. coli* CFT073.
At 18.85 min both extracts show strong absorbance at λ= 420 nm. The MS-MS fragmentation
pattern of the ion *m/z* 323.1642 at that retention time shows a similar pattern in extracts from both
strains.

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1025 **Figure 3 – figure supplement 1. Quantification of *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA** in pylorus and**

1026 **ileum.** Mono-colonization of bees with *F. perrara* wt and *ihfA**. Colonization levels are measured

1027 by colony forming units (CFU) and quantitative PCR (qPCR) 10 days post colonization in the

1028 specified gut regions: pylorus and ileum. Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to assess the

1029 statistical significance of differences. n=6.

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Figure 5 – figure supplement 1. RNAseq comparison of *F. perrara* during *in vivo* colonization compared to growth *in vitro*. Significantly differentially expressed genes with a |log2-fold change| >|2| of *F. perrara* PEB0191 wt at day 5 (**A**) and day 10 (**B**) post colonization in comparison to growth *in vitro*. Genes are colored according to their category. The experiment was performed in quadruplicates, all genes displayed were significantly differentially expressed with p<0.05 and a FDR <0.05 (Exact test).

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Figure 5 – figure supplement 2. **Gene expression of Ihf-regulated genes of *F. perrara* five days post-inoculation of gnotobiotic honey bees**. Same as Figure 5, but only time point Day 5 and Day 10 are depicted in comparison to *F. perrara ihfA* in vitro*.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 1. **Scheme of the gene deletion strategy based on a two-step homologous recombination procedure.** (**A**) A non-replicative plasmid pKS2 integrates via homologous recombination of one of the two cloned 'homology regions' (HRs) upstream or downstream of the gene that is targeted for deletion. (**B**) In a second step, a replicative plasmid harboring the restriction enzyme I-SceI is transformed. I-SceI targets corresponding recognition sites located on pKS2 resulting in the selection of either revertant (wt genotypes) or mutant genotypes that underwent a second homologous recombination event in the region targeted for deletion. PCR screening and replica plating on different selective allows to identify to correct clones.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 2. Growth Curves for the different *Frischella* strains. (A) The

six gene deletion mutants, *ihfa** and wt strains were diluted to OD_{600}=0.05 and grown in BHI under

anaerobic conditions at 35°C with continuous agitation. Absorbance was measured every 20

minutes for 48 hours. Per strain, four technical replicates were performed. **(B)** Max growth curve

was calculated using the R package 'growthcurver'. For the *hcp2* mutant, only three technical

replicates were considered due to a contamination in one of the technical replicates.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 3. Single Cell imaging of *F. perrara* strains. **(A)** The six gene

deletion mutants, *ihfa**, and wt *F. perrara* strains were grown in liquid BHI, diluted to OD_{600}= 0.1,

plated in agar patches and imaged using a Nikon Ti inverted light microscope. Images were taken

with a 100x objective. Scale bar indicates 20µm. **(B)** Cell length was quantified using the MicrobeJ

plugin of ImageJ. **(C)** Electron Microscopy images were obtained for the wt, *ihfA**, and *ΔpilE*

strains. Scale bar indicates 200nm

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 4. Correspondence between OD and CFU for *F. perrara*

genotypes. For each *F. perrara* strain, a bacterial solution at OD_{600}=0.1 was prepared, serially

diluted and plated in BHIA medium. The number of CFUs present in 5µl of solution at OD_{600}=0.1

was calculated based on the counts obtained from the serial dilutions. Statistics were calculated

using a linear model with negative binomial distribution: *** $p < 0.0001$, ** $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 5. Same graph as shown in **Figure 6** but data points are labelled

by experiment.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 6. *F. perrara* **colonization of the pylorus.** Composite images are the same as in **Figure 6**. These were obtained by merging the brightfield, DAPI, and *F.perrara* probe individual images. Images were obtained with the 5x objective of the Zeiss LSM900. Hybridizations were done with probes specific for *F. perrara* (magenta). DAPI counterstaining of host nuclei and bacteria is shown in blue.

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 7. *F. perrara* **colonization of the pylorus.** Composite images

are the same as in **Figure 6**. These were obtained by merging the brightfield, DAPI and

F.perrara probe images. Images were obtained with the 40x objective of the Zeiss LSM900.

Hybridizations were done with probes specific for *F. perrara* (magenta). DAPI counterstaining of

host nuclei and bacteria is shown in blue.

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1099 **Figure 7 – figure supplement 1**. **Colonization of wt, *ihfA** and gene-deletion mutants of *F.**

1100 ***perrara*. (A)** Same graph as shown in **Figure 7** but data points are labelled by experiment. **(B)**

1101 Percentage of bees that had colonization levels above the limit of detection. **(C)** Percentage of

1102 guts that had a scab.

 Supplementary Tables

 Supplementary Table 1. Chemical shifts of enriched aryl polyene in DMSO–δ6 at 298 K. Key

 COSY and HMBC correlation of the enriched polyene.

No	δ_C [ppm]	δ_H[ppm], mult.	coupling constant	integral
1	166.7			
2	119.3	5.97, d	J=15.1 Hz	0.5
3	144.6	7.33, dd	J=11.6 Hz J=15.1 Hz	1.2
4	129.5	6.47, dd overlap	J=11.6 Hz J=14.4 Hz	1.0
5	141.5	6.82, dd overlap	J= 11.4 Hz J= 14.5 Hz	0.9
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12				
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14				
15	128.7	7.22, d	J=1.7 Hz	1.0
16	124.4			
17	155.9			
18	114.6	6.73, d	J=8.3 Hz	1.2
19	125.2	7.13, dd	J=1.9 Hz J=8.3 Hz	1.1
20	15.6	2.11, s		2.8
21	50.9	3.66, s overlap		3.5

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1108   **Supplementary Table 2.** Strains used in this study.

Species	Strain	Genotype*	Mutated gene	Reference	Parent strain
F. perrara	PEB0191/ ESL0157	wild type (wt)	None	(31)	Primary isolate
F. perrara	ESL0158	P83L (CCA→CTA) in *ihfA*	Fpe_00769	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0910	P82L (CCA→CTA) in *ihfB*; Δ*apeO*	Fpe_00769; Fpe_01928	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0922	L38S (TTA→TCA) in *ihfA*; Δ*pilE**	Fpe_00769; Fpe_00791*; Fpe_01328	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0854	Δ*hcp1**	Fpe_01742	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0855	Δ*hcp2*	Fpe_01947	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0856	Δ*hcp1*, Δ*hcp2*	Fpe_01742, Fpe_01947	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0888	Δ*clbB**	Fpe_00576	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0921	Δ*pilE**	Fpe_01328	This study	PEB0191
F. perrara	ESL0957	Δ*apeA-R**	Fpe_01915- Fpe_01932	This study	PEB0191

1109   *re-sequencing of the genomes revealed that some of the strains (indicated with an asterisk)

1110   carried an additional point mutation. However, these mutations were located in random genes

1111   and included synonymous as well as non-synonymous base substitutions unlikely to have an

1112   effect on the observed phenotypes. The genomic analysis of the re-sequenced strains can be

1113   found on the Switchdrive: https://drive.switch.ch/index.php/s/kCNTp4g7n60ffMi.

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1116 **Supplementary Table 3.** Primers used for qPCR quantification

Primer name	Target	Sequence 5' to 3'	Tm (°C)[a]	Amplicon size (bp)	# Gene loci per genome	Standard curve			Reference
						Primer Efficiency, R^2	Slope, Intercept	LOD Cq[b] (#copies)	
prPEN0013	Actin AB023025 *A. mellifera*	TGCCAACACTGTCCTTTCTG	58.4	156	-	1.896 = 89.6 %, 1.0	-3.6, 37.57	33.7 (10)	(83)
prPEN0014		AGAATTGACCCACCAATCCA	56.4						
prLK-Frisch-042-F	*F. perrara* 16S rRNA gene	GGAAGTTATGTGTGGGATAAGC	60.1	185	4	1.946 = 94.6 %, 0.995	-3.45, 38.04	31.7 (100)	(18)
prLK-Frisch-043-R		CTATTCTCAGGTTGAGCCCG	60.5						

1117   a - Melting temperatures were calculated with the online tool described in (Kibbe 2007)

1118   b - LOD refers to the limit of detection of primer sets, expressed here as the lowest number of

1119   plasmid copies reliably detected by qPCR when standard curves were performed

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Supplementary Table 4. Bacterial strains included in the defined community.

Bacterial species	Strain number
Snodgrassella alvi	ESL0145
Gilliamella apicola	ESL0309
Gilliamella apis	ESL0178
Gilliamella sp.	ESL0177
Bartonella apis	ESL0024
Bifidobacterium asteroides	ESL0197
Bifidobacterium asteroides	ESL0198
Lactobacillus Firm-5	ESL0185
Lactobacillus Firm-5	ESL0183
Lactobacillus Firm-5	ESL0184
Lactobacillus Firm-5	ESL0186
Lactobacillus Firm-4	ESL0294
Commensalibacter	ESL0284

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