Genome editing of phylogenetically distinct bacteria using portable retron-mediated recombineering

Alejandro González-Delgado[1], Laura Bonillo-Lopez[2,3,4], Milo S Johnson[5,10], Nastassia Knödlseder[6], Ching-Chung Ko[7], Yassir Lekbach[8], Jee-Hwan Oh[9], Hemaa Selvakumar[10], Michael C Wold[11,12], Zihan Yu[8], Virginia Aragón[2,3,4], Jeffrey A Gralnick[11,12], Marc Güell[6,13], Graham F Hatfull[7], Benjamin K Keitz[8], Britt Koskella[5], Vivek K Mutalik[10,14], Jan-Peter van Pijkeren[9], Seth L Shipman[1,15,16,] *

[1] Gladstone Institute of Data Science and Biotechnology, San Francisco, CA, USA
[2] Unitat Mixta d'Investigació IRTA-UAB en Sanitat Animal, Centre de Recerca en Sanitat Animal (CReSA). Campus de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), 08193, Bellaterra, Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain.
[3] IRTA, Programa de Sanitat Animal. Centre de Recerca en Sanitat Animal (CReSA), Campus de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra, 08193, Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain.
[4] WOAH Collaborating Centre for the Research and Control of Emerging and Re-Emerging Swine Diseases in Europe (IRTA-CReSA), Bellaterra, 08193, Barcelona, Spain.
[5] Department of Integrative Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
[6] Department of Medicine and Life Sciences, Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona, Spain
[7] Department of Biological Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, 15260, USA
[8] McKetta Department of Chemical Engineering, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX, 78712, USA
[9] Department of Food Science, 1605 Linden Dr, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI 53706, USA
[10] Environmental Genomics and Systems Biology Division, E.O. Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA
[11] BioTechnology Institute, University of Minnesota—Twin Cities, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA
[12] Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Minnesota—Twin Cities, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA
[13] ICREA, Institució Catalana de Recerca i Estudis Avançats, Barcelona, Spain
[14] Biological systems and Engineering Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA
[15] Department of Bioengineering and Therapeutic Sciences, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA
[16] Chan Zuckerberg Biohub, San Francisco, CA
* Corresponding author. Email: seth.shipman@gladstone.ucsf.edu

ABSTRACT

Advanced genome editing technologies have enabled rapid and flexible rewriting of the *Escherichia coli* genome, benefiting fundamental biology and biomanufacturing. Unfortunately, some of the most useful technologies to advance genome editing in *E. coli* have not yet been ported into other bacterial species. For instance, the addition of bacterial retrons to the genome editing toolbox has increased the efficiency of recombineering in *E. coli* by enabling sustained, abundant production of ssDNA recombineering donors by reverse transcription that install flexible, precise edits in the prokaryotic chromosome. To extend the utility of this technology beyond *E. coli*, we surveyed the portability and versatility of retron-mediated recombineering across three different bacterial phyla (*Proteobacteria, Bacillota* and *Actinomycetota*) and a total of 15 different species. We found that retron recombineering is functional in all species tested, reaching editing efficiencies above 20% in six of them, above 40% in three of them, and above 90% in two of them. We also tested the extension of the recombitron architecture optimizations and strain backgrounds in a subset of hosts to additionally increase editing rates. The broad recombitron survey carried out in this study forms the basis for widespread use of retron-derived technologies through the whole Bacteria domain.

1 INTRODUCTION

Bacterial communities play a central role in nearly every ecosystem on Earth. Genome editing
technologies that modify bacteria can, therefore, help us understand and intervene in these
communities to promote sustainable agriculture (Gordon et al., 2021), increase food security
(Pixley et al., 2022), and improve human health (Li et al., 2020). In the last decades, multiple
approaches have been developed to edit bacterial genomes including traditional homologous
recombination and more recently CRISPR-Cas based tools (Arroyo-Olarte et al., 2021). Yet,
despite substantial progress, precise, scarless edits of one to hundreds of base pairs in length remain
difficult to achieve efficiently in many species, underscoring the necessity for alternative genome
editing techniques specially in non-model bacteria (Vento et al., 2019).

11
One of the most powerful approaches to edit bacterial genomes is known as recombineering
(Wannier et al., 2021). Recombineering was developed in *Escherichia coli* 25 years ago to allow
precise gene knockouts and point mutations (Datsenko et al., 2000; Yu et al., 2000; Ellis et al.,
2001). It relies on the activity of a single-stranded annealing protein (SSAP) together with a single-
stranded binding protein (SSB) to integrate foreign ssDNA into the lagging strand of the host
chromosome during replication (Ellis et al., 2001; Mosberg et al., 2010; Wannier et al., 2020;
Filsinger et al., 2021). In addition to individual mutations, a high-throughput version of
recombineering called MAGE (Multiplexed Automated Genome Editing) achieves directed
mutagenesis of defined genomic loci by electroporation of libraries of synthetic recombineering
oligonucleotides (Wang et al., 2009; Ronda et al., 2016).

22
23 Unfortunately, recombineering is not without limitations. Recombineering requires delivery of
24 exogenous DNA, typically synthesized oligonucleotides, which constrains the efficiency and
25 broader applicability of this technology beyond *E. coli* (Corts et al., 2022). In addition, the
26 delivered DNA is rapidly degraded by host nucleases so multiple cycles of electroporation are
27 required to reach useful genome editing efficiencies (Wannier et al., 2021; Isaacs et al., 2011).

28
In the last years, the addition of bacterial retrons to the recombineering machinery has increased
efficiency and extended the overall approach. Retrons are bacterial tripartite immune systems
composed of a reverse transcriptase (RT), a non-coding RNA (ncRNA) with two regions known
as msr and msd, and an additional protein or RT-fused domain that acts as an effector for the
defense response (Millman et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2020; Mestre et al., 2020). The retron RT
specifically recognizes its ncRNA and reverse transcribes the msd component into ssDNA (Inouye
et al., 1989; Lim and Maas, 1989). For bacterial defense, retrons work as toxin/antitoxin systems
(Millman et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2020; Bobonis et al., 2022; Palka et al., 2022). In the absence of
the viral attack the ssDNA can repress the action of the effector protein, but upon phage infection
this repression is relieved and the active effector is able to kill or inhibit the growth of the infected
bacteria, shielding the cell population from the invading agent (Bobonis et al., 2022; Carabias et
al., 2024).

41
In the context of recombineering, the retron effector is omitted and the retron ncRNA is modified
so that the msd encodes an editing donor. When supplied on a plasmid along with the
recombineering SSAP and SSB, this leads to sustained production of multiple copies of a specific
ssDNA donor *in vivo* which is used in place of an oligonucleotide donor by the rest of the
recombineering machinery (**Fig 1a**; Farzadfard et al., 2014; Schubert et al., 2021; Lopez et al.,

2021). The combination of the prior recombineering components (SSAP/SSB) with the retron
components has been called a recombitron. Recombitrons have led to increased efficiency of
recombineering in *E. coli* due to the sustained, abundant donor ssDNA. Additionally, they have
enabled new applications that were not possible with standard recombineering including (i)
molecular recording, in which the production of an editing donor is driven by a biological signal,
(ii) genome-wide functional genetic variants, in which the presence of a recombineering donor in
the retron ncRNA on a plasmid serves as a proxy for the edit in the strain, (iii) phage editing, in
which a phage is edited while replicating through a host expressing the recombitron components,
(iv) metabolic engineering, in which multiple edits are made to an individual genome from a
multiplexed recombitron cassette, and (v) gene-specific continuous evolution, in which multiple
variants of structural domain or small proteins could be created in combinations with error-prone
polymerases (Farzadfard et al., 2014; Schubert et al., 2021; Fishman et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023;
Gonzalez-Delgado et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024).
60
Yet, despite its potential, retron-mediated recombineering has so far been confined to *E. coli*. Here,
we explore the extension of retron recombineering across many species to identify new
opportunities and challenges. To facilitate such a broad portability search, we used a multi-site
design for this study. Recombitron parts were designed and constructed centrally, then shipped for
testing by experts in each individual species at external sites, after which material (cell pellets or
DNA) was shipped back to the central site for standardized analysis by sequencing. With this large
coordinated collaboration between nine research labs, we screened recombitrons in a total of 15
bacterial species from 3 different phyla, including some in which recombineering technologies
have never been tested. We found that recombitrons are functional in all species tested, reaching
editing efficiencies above 20% in six of them, above 40% in three of them, and above 90% in two
of them. We also tested the extension of recombitron architecture optimizations and strain
backgrounds in a subset of hosts to additionally increase editing rates. The broad recombitron
survey carried out in this study lays the groundwork for the use of retron-derived technologies
through the whole Bacteria domain.

 RESULTS

77 ***Design and construction of recombitrons for editing across the domain of Bacteria.***
To test the portability and versatility of retron-based recombineering, we selected a set of
phylogenetically diverse species including Gram-negative, Gram-positive and *Mycobacteria* to
perform editing experiments (**Fig 1b**; Supplementary Table 1). The different species were chosen
based on their relevance as model organisms (e.g., *Escherichia coli*), their use as synthetic biology
chassis (e.g., *Vibrio natriegens*, *Pseudomonas putida*), their relevance in industry (e.g.,
Citrobacter freundii, *Limosilactobacillus reuteri*, *Acinetobacter baylyi*), their potential to cause
human disease (e.g., *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Aeromonas hydrophila*
Streptococcus suis,*),* or plant pathogenicity (e.g., *Pseudomonas syringae*). An additional
consideration was genetic access and the availability of previously tested molecular parts, like
plasmids and promoters, that enable these experiments. Ultimately, a total of 15 bacterial species
were included in the retron recombineering survey in this work. To facilitate such a broad
portability search, we used a centrally coordinated, multi-site design (Supplementary Fig 1a).

Prior to editing beyond *E. coli*, we first standardized a recombitron operon architecture with the
aim of achieving a single plasmid system and an origin of replication compatible with as many
species as possible. Recent optimizations in plasmid architecture for retron editing have increased
recombineering editing rates to nearly 100% in *E. coli* (Liu et al., 2023; Ni et al., 2024), which we
leveraged for the design of our single plasmid recombitron systems. We first compared two
plasmid recombitron designs used in prior work (López et al., 2021) to single plasmid designs each
based on retron-Eco1 and the SSAP CspRecT for introducing a 10-base pair (bp) deletion in the
lacZ gene in *E. coli.* We tested multiple origins of replication (p15A, pBR322, RSF1010), as well
as inducible (T7, lac) and constitutive (RSF1010) promoters. All single plasmid designs
outperformed the two plasmids system (**Fig 1c**). In addition to higher editing, cultures expressing
the recombitron from a single plasmid reached a higher OD, indicating lower cellular burden of
the single plasmid systems. These single plasmid recombitrons yielded editing rates up to 92%—
the highest reported rate for a 10 bp deletion using retrons to date—with moderate differences in
editing and growth when using different origins and promoters. Despite slightly lower editing
rates, we chose to move forward with a single plasmid recombitron based on a broad host range
RSF1010 origin of replication to facilitate porting into other species, and an inducible Pm promoter
to avoid constitutive expression during cloning of subsequent editors.

To maximize the chance of successfully porting the system to other species, we chose to test 10
recombitron versions in each new species, based on 10 different retrons. Our research group
recently completed an experimental census of retrons in which many systems were tested for their
ability to produce DNA and support genome editing (Supplementary Fig 1B; Khan et al., 2024).
From this census, we selected 10 phylogenetically distinct retrons from our previous work that
support higher levels of editing in *E. coli* to test in new bacterial species in this work (**Fig 1d**;
Supplementary Table 2). We created a set of entry plasmids with each of the chosen 10 retron RTs
and their corresponding retron ncRNAs. As the portability of the SSAP/SSB pairs has been
analyzed in previous works (Filsinger et al., 2021), each plasmid additionally encodes an SSAP
and compatible SSB for recombineering. When making single base edits, it is typical to suppress
mismatch repair using *mutS* deletions or use of dominant negative MutL (Supplementary Fig 2).
In this work, we tested sequential multi-base edits, which are not antagonized by mismatch repair,

to remove that variable. In most species we used CspRecT as the SSAP, EcSSB as the SSB, and
RSF1010 as the origin of replication. However, the SSAP, SSB, and origin of replication does
differ for some species as discussed in the results to come.
124
125

126
Figure 1 – Design and construction of recombitrons for editing across the domain of Bacteria. a, Top: schematic of the
recombitron operon with a donor encoded within the msd region of the ncRNA. Bottom: schematic of the retron-mediated
recombineering process. Briefly, the retron RT produce multiple copies of the RT-DNA donor. SSAP and SSB proteins promote
the binding of the RT-DNA donor to the lagging strand during bacterial replication installing the desired mutation. **b**, Unrooted
phylogenetic tree of the bacterial species used in this work. The tree was constructed using a multiple sequencing alignment
(MSA)of the 16S sequences of these species. The different colors represent the different bacterial phyla (Proteobacteria, Bacillota
and Actinomycetota), class (Gammaproteobacteria), order (Pseudomonadales) or functional group (Coliforms). **c**, Left: Schematic
of the operons used for optimizing recombitron architecture. Eco1 recombitron to make a deletion in the lacZ gene was used in all
the configurations. Plasmid origin of replication and promoters are indicated in different colors. Right: quantification of precise
editing rates of the lacZ locus and correlation with OD_{600} of the cultures after overnight growth. Editing data were quantified by
Illumina sequencing. Error bars are ± standard deviation for three biological replicates. **d**, Table summarizing the relevant features
of the retrons selected to perform the retron-based recombineering experiments. Information provided in the column with an asterisk
was sourced from Mestre et al., 2020. **e**, Schematic of the workflow used to analyze the portability of recombitrons. Briefly, the set
of 10 recombitrons was cloned in a host-specific plasmid using a Gibson Assembly approach. SapI flanked donors were ligated in

the retron ncRNA of the 10 retrons in parallel employing a Golden Gate reaction. Multiple colonies were screened using Sanger
sequencing to obtain the different recombitrons with the proper donor in a specific plasmid backbone. Plasmids were naturally
introduced, electroporated, or conjugated into the final host. Single colonies are grown until saturation, diluted (with the proper
inducer if required) and grown again until saturation. Precise editing rates are measured by Illumina sequencing.
145
To facilitate the cloning of editing donors, we used a single-pot Golden Gate workflow in which
the set of entry plasmids for each species was mixed with a 70 bp dsDNA donor sequence encoding
the edit to be made flanked by SapI golden gate ends (**Fig 1e;** Supplementary Fig 2). Individual
colonies were screened to yield the 10 final plasmids for each species with the same donor but
based on different retrons. Recombitron-containing plasmids were then introduced into cells using
a range of mechanisms such as natural competence, electroporation or conjugation as appropriate
for each species **(Fig 1e)**. For recombineering experiments, replicates of individual colonies were
grown in liquid cultures, highly diluted in the presence of the inducer and grown again until
saturation. Multiplexed amplicon sequencing (Illumina) was used to determine overall
recombineering rates in the target locus **(Fig 1e)**.
156
Retron-mediated recombineering in coliforms.
We first extended retron recombineering technology to other coliforms, species closely related to
E. coli **(Fig 2a)**. We selected two additional enterobacteria species in which oligonucleotide
recombineering was previously tested and validated: *Citrobacter freundii* ATCC 8090 and
Klebsiella pneumoniae ATCC 10031 (Wannier et al., 2020), and we compared these directly to *E.*
coli bMS.346, an engineered host lacking *exo1* and *recJ* in which retrons produce the highest
recombineering rates (Lopez et al., 2022). *C. freundii* has been used extensively in the
biomanufacturing industry, but multiplexed engineering of metabolic pathways remains laborious
(Jiang et al., 2012; Metsoviti et al., 2013). Recent studies have also revealed the role of *C. freundii*
as a human pathogen that can cause gastroenteritis and urinary tract infections (Ramos-Vivas et
al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). *K. pneumoniae* was chosen because hypervirulent multidrug-resistant
isolates cause pneumonia and other infections, representing one of the most serious threats to
public health in the coming years (Tommasi et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2020).
170
To test retron-mediated recombineering in these coliform species, we designed recombitrons using
the broad host range RSF1010 origin of replication and the high-performance SSAP, CspRecT,
along with its compatible *E. coli* SSB (Wannier et al., 2020; Filsinger et al., 2021). Recombitron
donors were designed to delete 5 bp in the *lacZ* gene for these species. For these initial experiments
in coliforms, we checked for RT-DNA production from the recombitrons prior to quantifying
editing. After inducing recombitrons for 5 hours in liquid cultures and isolating RT-DNA using a
Qiagen miniprep followed by an ssDNA cleaning and concentration step, we visualized RT-DNA
bands produced by each of the 10 recombitrons on TBE (Tris-Borate EDTA)-urea gels. We found
substantial production for many retrons in all three species, evidenced by the ssDNA bands, with
retrons-Eco1 and -Hcl1 yielding the highest production in all 3 species tested (**Fig 2b-d;**
Supplementary Fig 3a-f). Interestingly, in this particular *K. pneumoniae* strain, an additional
ssDNA band is apparent across all cultures including the negative control, which expresses no
recombitron. We used DefenseFinder (Tesson et al., 2022) on the genome of this strain and found
a putative type V retron reverse transcriptase gene which may explain the presence of this extra
band.
186

We next tested recombineering in these species with induction of recombitrons for 16 to 24 hours.
For context in our pre-engineered *E. coli* bMS.346, retron-Kva1 yielded editing of 97.3 ± 1.7 %
of genomes (**Fig 2e**). This data confirms a previous result showing that the Kva1 recombitron
outperforms an Eco1 recombitron in this bacterial strain for making single point mutations in the
bacterial chromosome (Khan et al., 2024). In *C. freundii* ATCC 8090, the retron-Eco1 recombitron
showed the highest editing rates (24 ± 13.5%), while recombitrons based on retrons-Ban1, -Ebu1
and -Hcl1 yielded ~10% of genomes edited, and the rest resulted in lower editing rates (**Fig 2f**). In
Klebsiella pneumoniae ATCC 10031, several recombitrons including those based on retrons-Ban1,
-Eas1, -Tsp1 and -Ebu1 yielded editing rates around 5%, while the rest yielded lower rates (**Fig
2g**). To know whether promoter strength could increase editing rates, Pm, J23115 and lac
promoters were tested with the Eco1 recombitron in the three coliforms, but showed no significant
changes in recombineering efficiency between them (Supplementary Fig 3g-i). Taken together,
these data extend retron recombineering beyond *E. coli* for the first time and reveal species-specific
recombitron performance, highlighting the importance of screening for a set of retrons when a new
species is tested.
202

Figure 2 – Retron-mediated recombineering in coliforms. a, Schematic of the phylogenetic tree from **Fig 1b**, highlighting the
group of bacteria evaluated in this figure, the Coliforms. **b**, PAGE analysis of RT-DNA production in *E. coli* bMS.346. **c**, PAGE
analysis of RT-DNA production in *C. freundii* ATCC 8090. **d**, PAGE analysis of RT-DNA production in *K. pneumoniae* ATCC
10031. In **b-d**, each RT-DNA was prepped from cells once and their length relative to a ssDNA ladder with markers in nt for
nucleotides is indicated (uncropped gels are shown in Supplementary Fig 3). **e**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make
a 5 bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *E. coli* using the 10 recombitrons set. **f**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp
deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *C. freundii* using the 10 recombitrons set. **g**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp
deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *K. pneumoniae* using the 10 recombitrons set. **h**, Schematic illustrating the lengthening of a1-a2 regions
of retron ncRNA to boost editing rates. **i**, Quantification of precise genome editing in *C. freundii* using longer a1-a2 region in -
Ban1 and -Ebu1 recombitrons in comparison with wild type versions. **j**, Quantification of precise genome editing in *K. freundii*
using longer a1-a2 region in -Eas1 and -Ebu1 recombitrons in comparison with wild type versions. **k**, Quantification of precise
genome editing with -Eas1 recombitron in wild type and *ΔrecJ/ΔsbcB* double knock-out *K. pneumoniae* strain. In **e-k**, data were

quantified by sequencing after 24 h of editing using Illumina NextSeq, circles show each of the three biological replicates, and
errors bars are mean ± standard deviation. Additional statistical details are presented in Supplementary Table 3.

It is important to note that the retron-Eco1 recombitron we used was an improved version with
longer a1-a2 regions that increase RT-DNA production and editing rates in *E. coli* (**Fig 2h**; Lopez
et al., 2022). To test whether this structural change could increase editing efficiencies in other
retrons in other species, we tested lengthening the a1/a2 region in the best-performing
recombitrons in *C. freundii* and *K. pneumoniae*, adding 15 bp to each of the a1/a2 ncRNA regions.
In *C. freundii*, modification of the a1/a2 region in the retron-Ban1 recombitron did not affect
editing, but extension of a1/a2 in the retron-Ebu1 recombitron doubled the editing efficiency, from
12.6 ± 1.4% to 21.9 ± 1.6% (**Fig 2i**). Similarly, in *K. pneumoniae* the longer a1/a2 regions nearly
doubled retron-Eas1 and -Ebu1 recombitron editing rates, reaching numbers close to 10% in
comparison with 5% when using the wild-type a1-a2 regions (**Fig 2j**). Finally, to test whether
removal of *recJ* and *sbcB* would increase recombineering efficiencies in other species, as they do
in *E. coli*, we knocked out these two genes in *K. pneumoniae*. Using the modified retron-Eas1
recombitron with longer a1-a2 region, these two mutations nearly tripled editing rates versus the
modified recombitron in the wild-type strain, from 6.8 ± 0.2% to 22.2 ± 0.8% (**Fig. 2k**). Overall,
these findings highlight the fact that strategies for editing optimization are portable across different
retrons and different species.

Retron-mediated recombineering in environmental Gammaproteobacteria
To further extend the use of recombitrons, we next tested them in environmental
Gammaproteobacteria species where recombineering technology is rarely implemented, including
Erwinia amylovora Eat8, *Vibrio natriegens* ATCC 14048, *Aeromonas hydrophila* ATCC 7966 and
Shewanella oneidensis JG2150 (**Fig 3a**). There are several reasons to choose these species. *E.*
amylovora represents a threat to the food industry by causing fire blight, a disease affecting the
production of apples, pears as well as other species in the *Rosaceae* family (Bonn et al., 2000; van
der Zwet et al., 2012). *V. natriegens* has the fastest growth rate of any organism known, turning it
into an increasingly popular chassis for molecular and synthetic biology purposes (Weinstock et
al., 2016). *A. hydrophila*, a bacteria found in aquatic environments and well-known to be a fish
pathogen, has recently drawn attention for causing an increasing number of diseases in humans
such as wound infection, septicemia, urinary tract infections, and pneumonia (Janda and Abbott,
2010; Schwartz et al., 2024). Finally, *S. oneidensis'* versatile respiratory capacities, including
utilization of organic and inorganic compounds, together with its specialized electron-transport
pathways enable it to function as an electrochemically active bacteria (EAB) with potential
applications in a variety of biotechnological processes including microbial fuel cells and
generating CO_2-free clean energy (Hau and Gralnick, 2007; Muñoz-Cupa et al., 2021; Yang et al.,
2021).

After electroporation or conjugation of recombitron plasmids into these species, recombineering
experiments were carried as in coliforms. Beginning with *E. amylovora*, we designed a donor to
make a 5 bp deletion targeting a non-essential intergenic region. In this species, only 5 out of 10
of the retrons tested produce any detectable edits and the retron-Eas1 based recombitron achieved
the highest rate of 3.8 ± 0.5 % (**Fig 3b**). In *V. natriegens* and *A. hydrophila*, a synonymous 4 bp
replacement donor (GAGT to ATCG) targeting the *flgH* gene involved in flagella synthesis was
used for editing experiments. In *V. natriegens* we tested 9 retrons with highly divergent results:
whereas retron-Eco2 and -Csp1 recombitrons barely reached 0.01% editing, retrons-Eco1, -Kva1,

-Tsp1 and -Ebu1 reached editing rates above 10%, and the retron-Ban1 recombitron achieved 44.7
± 0.1 % of genomes edited **(Fig 3c)**. In *A. hydrophila*, the retron-Eas1 recombitron reached the
highest editing rates of 9.9 ± 0.6 % **(Fig 3d)**. As longer a1/a2 regions boosted retron-Eas1
recombineering efficiencies in *K. pneumoniae* (**Fig 2j**), we also tried this improved architecture in
A. hydrophila to show the portability of these modifications in phylogenetically distant species
reaching 25.7 ± 0.4 % editing in the *flgH* gene **(Fig 3e).**

271
Figure 3 – Retron-mediated recombineering in environmental *Gammaproteobacteria*. a, Schematic of the phylogenetic tree
from **Fig 1b**, highlighting environmental Gammaproteobacteria. **b,** Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion
targeting a non-essential intergenic region in *E. amylovora* Eat8 using a set of 5 recombitrons. **c,** Quantification of precise genome
editing to make a synonymous 4 bp replacement donor (GAGT to ATCG) targeting the *flgH* gene in *V. natriegens* ATCC 14048
using a set of 9 recombitrons. **d,** Quantification of precise genome editing to make a synonymous 4 bp replacement donor (TTCG
to CAGT) targeting the *flgH* gene in *A. hydrophila* ATCC 7966 using the 10 recombitrons set. **e,** Quantification of precise genome
editing in *A. hydrophila* using longer a1-a2 region with -Eas1 recombitron in comparison with wild type version. **f,** Quantification
of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *S. oneidensis* JG2150 using a set of 8 recombitrons. **g,**
Quantification of precise genome editing to make different edits types in the *lacZ* gene in *S. oneidensis* JG2150 using -Eco1
recombitron. A dead version of Eco1 RT was used as a negative control. **h,** Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5
bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *S. oneidensis* JG2150 using lac or J23115 promoter. **i,** Quantification of precise genome editing to
make a non-contiguous neutral replacement in *mtrC* gene and a contiguous neutral replacement in *flgH* gene in *S. oneidensis*
JG2150 with -Eco1 recombitron. In **b-i**, data were quantified by sequencing after 24 h of editing using Illumina NextSeq, circles

show each of the three biological replicates, and errors bars are mean ± standard deviation. Additional statistical details are
presented in Supplementary Table 3.
287

In *S. oneidensis,* we were able to use the same donor as we used for coliform experiments because
the strain encodes an identical *lacZ* gene integrated in a single copy on its chromosome that was
previously assayed to test oligonucleotide recombineering (Corts et al., 2019). Initial attempts at
editing reached a technical failure point, where mutations in recombitron components or in the
xylS repressor were detected by whole plasmid sequencing upon electroporation of the plasmids
in this host. We modified our plasmids to test substituting the XylS/Pm inducible system with a
constitutive J23115 promoter and used conjugation to introduce recombitron plasmids into *S.*
oneidensis. We found that these constitutive versions did not accumulate plasmid mutations.
Therefore, we ran editing experiments with these constitutively expressed versions of the ten
recombitrons in *S. oneidensis*. The experiments were carried out in the same culture parameters
and timing as for other Gammaproteobacteria, but the absence of uninduced recovery and
outgrowth phases does mean that the recombitron was active in these cultures for a longer time. In
S. oneidensis, the retron-Eco1 recombitron was the best-performer achieving 92.1 ± 4.8 % editing
rate for a 5 bp deletion **(Fig 3f)**. As these numbers represent the highest recombitron efficiencies
using a non-optimized strain, we decided to further investigate recombitron capabilities in this
species. First, we measured retron-Eco1 editing rates for a 5 bp replacement rather than deletion,
obtaining 97.9 ± 1.8 % efficiency **(Fig 3g)**. A dead RT version of Eco1 did not result in substantial
editing, demonstrating that these high recombineering rates depend on the reverse transcribed
donor **(Fig 3g)**. We also replaced the J23115 promoter with a lacI/pLac inducible system, which
yielded 82.5 ± 10.1 % editing rates, showing that high-performance yielded by the retron-Eco1
recombitron in *S. oneidensis* is not solely due to the constitutive promoter, and could be achieved
with an inducible promoter **(Fig 3h)**. Finally, to show the ability of Eco1 to edit different *loci* we
tested recombitron efficiencies against several targets, including a non-contiguous neutral
replacement in *mtrC* reaching editing rates up to 11.6 ± 6.9 %, and a contiguous neutral
replacement in *flgH* gene with an efficiency of 44.2 ± 0.4 % **(Fig 3i)**.
313
314

Retron-mediated recombineering in Pseudomonadales
Next, we tested recombitron technology in another relevant group among Gram-negative bacteria,
the *Pseudomonales* order, which encompasses *Pseudomonadaceae* and *Moraxellaceae* families
(Fig 4a). We focused on three species from the *Pseudomonas* genus (*P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *P.*
putida KT2440 and *P. syringae* B728a) in which oligo recombineering was previously tested with
variable rates (Wannier et al., 2020; Swingle et al., 2010; Aparicio et al., 2020) and in
Acinetobacter baylyi ADP1-ISx, a species with efficient homologous recombination where
recombineering systems have not been tested to date (Elliot and Neidle., 2011). *P. aeruginosa* is a
human opportunistic pathogen capable of causing a variety of infections in immunocompromised
patients and it also shows a great ability to rapidly acquire resistance to multiple antibiotics
constituting a challenge for modern medicine treatments (Angeletti et al., 2018; Sriramulu, 2019).
P. putida represents a versatile synthetic biology chassis due to its capacity for degrading toxic
compounds and suitability for metabolic engineering (Loeschcke and Thies, 2015; Martínez-
García and de Lorenzo, 2017). *P. syringae* is one of the most common plant pathogens, used as a
model organism for host-pathogen interaction and one of the main threats for global crop
production (Xin et al., 2018). Finally, *A. baylyi* exhibits a vast metabolic diversity, providing a

strong basis for converting this host into a microbial cell factory in which extending the genome
editing toolbox could lead to excel applications in synthetic biology (Santala and Santala, 2021).
333
We constructed all *Pseudomonas* recombitrons using the pORTMAGE-Pa1 backbone, a plasmid
with pBBR1 broad host range origin of replication and PapRecT as SSAP (Wannier et al., 2020).
Additionally, we added a compatible SSB (*P. aeruginosa* PaSSB) and removed mismatch repair
dominant negative PaMutLE36K as we planned to make 4-5 bp edits in all the species. In *P.*
aeruginosa, we designed a donor to make a 4 bp deletion in *phzM*, a gene involved in pyocyanin
synthesis. After performing the retron-recombineering assay, the retron-Eas1 recombitron arose as
the top performing, yielding a 0.92 ± 0.13 % editing rate **(Fig 4b)**. We also analyzed RT-DNA
bands in *P. aeruginosa* on a TBE-Urea gel, which showed retron-Eas1 as well as -Tsp1 as top
producers (Supplementary Fig 4a-b). In *P. putida*, the donor targets non-essential *ykgJ* gene to also
make a 4 bp deletion. The results showed lower efficiencies in comparison with *P. aeruginosa*
data, with retron-Eco1 recombitron as best editor, yielding 0.16 ± 0.02 % **(Fig 4c)**. Finally, in *P.*
syringae, the donor was designed to make a 5 deletion in an intergenic region with no essential
function. Here, the retron-Kva1 recombitron achieved 0.38 ± 0.02 %, the highest in this species
(Fig 4d).
348
Recombitrons tested in the three *Pseudomonas* species initially yielded much lower editing rates
than other Gram-negative species tested. Although this is not entirely unexpected given lower
editing rates were previously observed in these species using oligonucleotide recombineering
(Wannier et al., 2020; Aparicio et al., 2020; Asin-García et al., 2023), we opted to investigate
further to determine if any other retron-related factor was also limiting rates. It was recently
demonstrated that a recombineering donor encoded in the retron *msd* on a plasmid can target itself
if it is located in the lagging strand of the plasmid, competing with the target editing site and
lowering the observed editing rate (Ni et al., 2024). To avoid this competition, the retron donor
should be located in the leading strand of the plasmid. To test if plasmid competition for the donor
may partially explain low editing rates in *Pseudomonas* species, we inverted the orientation of the
pBRR1 origin of replication for the recombitron plasmids and repeated recombineering with these
modified plasmids for all three species **(Fig 4e)**. Strikingly, editing rates were improved 8x in *P.*
aeruginosa, with retron-Kva1 recombitron reaching 7.4 ± 4.7 % for the *phzM* target **(Fig 4f)**. In *P.*
syringae, the efficiencies also improved 2x times using Kva1 recombitrons, respectively **(Fig 4g)**.
Despite the success of this strategy for best editors, most retrons did not show any efficiency
improvement (Supplementary Fig 4c-d), which may indicate a functional limitation of those
retrons in *Pseudomonas* species.
366
For recombitron expression in *Acinetobacter baylyi*, we used pWBW162 (Biggs et al., 2020), a
plasmid derived from high-copy pBAV1k broad host range vector previously shown to be
propagated in *A. baylyi* (Bryksin et al., 2010). Recombineering has not previously been reported
in *A. baylyi*, so we opted to use CspRecT/EcSSB to perform these experiments. The donor was
designed to make a 5 bp deletion in a glycosyltransferase family protein gene. However, cloning
the retrons in this backbone was challenging, and most colonies contained large deletions in the
recombitron operon during the process of cloning in *E. coli*, indicating some incompatibility with
retrons or CspRecT and this plasmid. After multiple attempts, we were able to obtain and transform
a subset of four recombitrons into *A. baylyi* sFAB6437. However, editing rates were not able to
reach efficiencies above 0.1% (Supplementary Fig 4e). Trying to solve the stability issue, we

decided to clone the set of 10 retrons in the same RSF1010 origin of replication vector used in the coliforms and environmental gammaproteobacterial experiments. This alleviated issues with cloning and plasmid stability, and retron recombineering rates were slightly better than using the pBWB172 vector but still low, with recombitron-Eas1 as the top performer reaching 0.15 ± 0.08 % (**Fig 4h**; Supplementary Fig 4e).

Figure 4 – Retron-mediated recombineering in *Pseudomonadales*. a, Schematic of the phylogenetic tree from **Fig 1b**, highlighting the Pseudomonadales order. **b**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion targeting the *phzM* gene in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 using the 10 recombitrons set. **c**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion targeting the *ykgJ* gene in *P. putida* KT2440 using the 10 recombitrons set. **d**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in a non-essential intergenic region in *P. syringae* B728a using the 10 recombitrons set. **e**, Schematic of the pORTMAGE-Pa1 derivative plasmids with wild type and inverted pBBR1 origin of replication. **f**, Quantification of precise genome editing using plasmids with wild type or inverted pBBR1 origin of replication in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 using -Kva1 and -Eas1 recombitrons. **g**, Quantification of precise genome editing using plasmids with wild type or inverted pBBR1 origin of replication in *P. syringae* B728a using -Kva1 recombitron. **h**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion targeting a glycosyltransferase gene in *A. baylyi* sFAB6437 using a set of 7 recombitrons. In **b-h**, data were quantified by sequencing after 24 h of editing using Illumina NextSeq. Circles show each of the three biological replicates, and errors bars are mean ± standard deviation. Additional statistical details are presented in Supplementary Table 3.

Retron-mediated recombineering in Bacillota and Actinomycetota

Next, we moved beyond the *Proteobacteria* phyla and tested recombitrons in two completely separate lineages within the bacterial domain, the phyla *Bacillota* and *Actinomycetota* **(Fig 5a)**. We chose two bacterial species from each phylum: For *Bacillota*, we chose *Limosilactobacillus reuteri* ATCC PTA 6475 (*L. reuteri* 6475) and *Streptococcus suis* P1/7 (*Bacillota*), and for *Actinomycetota*, we chose *Mycobacterium smegmatis* mc^2 155 and *Cutibacterium acnes* KPA17202. *L. reuteri* is a well-studied probiotic bacterium that produces antimicrobial molecules, which benefit the host immune system and strengthen the intestinal barrier by reducing translocation of pathogenic bacteria into other tissues (Mu et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2023). *S. suis* is an opportunistic zoonotic pathogen causing systematic disease in piglets with potential to cause disease in humans with close contact with pigs or exposed to contaminated pig meat (Wertheim et al., 2009; Fredrisken et al., 2024). *M. smegmatis* is a nonpathogenic and fast-growing species within the genus *Mycobacterium,* with thousands of conserved genes and similar physiology, representing an ideal model for mycobacterial research (Sparks et al., 2023). Finally, *C. acnes* is the most abundant skin commensal with some phylotypes linked to a healthy skin with others

413 causing the development of acne vulgaris and other inflammatory diseases (Mayslich et al., 2021;
414 Cros et al., 2023).
415
Despite the general lack of molecular tools that work in many Gram-positive bacteria,
oligonucleotide recombineering technology has been characterized in lactic acid bacteria with
relatively high efficiency in *L. reuteri* and *Lactococcus lactis* (van Pijkeren and Britton, 2012). To
test recombitrons in *L. reuteri* 6475, we modified the pJP042, pSIP411 vector encoding the *recT1*
gene, recently renamed as LrpRecT (Wannier et al., 2021), and cloned codon optimized retron
components under the inducible P_{orfx} promoter (Risøen et al., 2000). We designed a 80 bp donor
to target the RNA polymerase gene *rpoB* and place a C to A mismatch mutation, producing an
amino acid change (H488R) and conferring rifampicin resistance in *L. reuteri* **(Fig 5b)**.
Unfortunately, we found persistent, distinct mutations in either the RT or LrpRecT genes appearing
after transformation of these plasmids when cloning parts in *E. coli*. Only the retron-Csp1
recombitron was able to be constructed with no mutations in *E. coli*. However, it became unstable
when transformed into *L. reuteri* 6475. To reduce toxicity due to the recombineering components,
we cloned the retron-Csp1 recombitron into low copy vector pNZ9530 (Pavan et al., 2000) under
P_{suc} promoter, a sucrose inducible promoter. After obtaining a transformant with no mutations, we
assayed recombineering efficiency during 5 passages in *L. reuteri* 6475, but found no increase in
the abundance of the intended edit over time (Supplementary Fig 5a). Furthermore, at the end of
the passages, we found dominant mutations in the RT and LrpRecT, indicating that the plasmid in
L. reuteri 6475 cannot stably maintain the full recombitron operon.
434
To overcome this issue, we next constructed a two-plasmid system: the retron-Csp1 recombitron
was cloned in pNZ9530 under P_{suc} promoter and pVPL3017, pJP042 erythromycin resistant
marker swapped with chloramphenicol resistant marker, was used for LrpRecT expression (Oh
and van Pijkeren, 2014) **(Fig 5b)**. Using the two-plasmid system, the abundance of the intended
edit went up with every passage in the induced condition, but not in the uninduced condition,
reaching ~ 0.1% after 6 passages **(Fig 5c)**. Rifampicin-resistant colonies were used to confirm
targeted mutations in the *rpoB* gene using mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA) PCR
(Cha et al., 1992; Supplementary Fig 5b). The low editing rates observed after 6 passages of the
experiment could be due to a lack of activity of the retron-Csp1 recombitron in this species or by
negative fitness of the mutation selecting against edited cells. Indeed, growth assays showed that
rpoB mutants were impaired relative wild-type cells (Supplementary Fig 5c). Given the positive
results with a two-plasmid system in *L. reuteri*, we cloned and tested two additional retrons in the
pNZ9530 vector, retron-Eco1 and -Ebu1. Additionally, to test whether a more adapted retron could
be more active in this host, we also cloned a retron known as Lna1, originally from *Lactobacillus*
nantensis, which had shown some editing efficiency in a previous work in *E. coli* (Khan et al.,
2024). Retron-Ebu1 and Lna1 were successfully cloned in *L. reuteri* 6475 while retron-Eco1 was
not maintained in pNZ9530. Three recombitrons (Csp1, Ebu1, and Lna1) were stably maintained
in pNZ9530 in *L. reuteri* 6475 with no mutations after single passage following induction.
Interestingly, retron-Lna1 showed about 0.1% recombineering efficiency after single passage,
while retron-Csp1 and -Ebu1 yielded less than 0.01% recombineering efficiency **(Fig 5d)**.
However, retron-Lna1 did not improve recombineering efficiency following multiple passages
(data not shown) possibly due to the instability of plasmid or potential mutations in retron-Lna1 in
L. reuteri 6475**.**
458

Although there are no prior reports of recombineering in *S. suis*, a recent study used a dsDNA
repair template plus Cas9 counterselection to precisely engineer the genome of this organism
(Gussak et al., 2023). We adapted the pSStarget vector used in that work to construct the plasmids
expressing the recombitron operon. As no *recT* gene has been experimentally reported for this host
we used CspRecT and EcSSB for the recombineering assay. We constructed 8 recombitrons to
encode a 70 bp donor to make a 5 bp deletion in *purA*, a gene involved in purine nucleotide
synthesis. The plasmids were placed in *S. suis* P1/7 using a natural competence protocol (Zaccaria
et al., 2014). However, no editing was detected with any of the constructs tested. To tackle this
challenge in *S. suis* P1/7 we focused in a single recombitron, retron-Ebu1. To enhance Ebu1
expression, we replaced P_{Cas}, the Cas9 native promoter with P_g, a strong constitutive promoter that
drives the expression of the housekeeping gene *gadpH* and has been shown to have the highest
activity in this species (Zhang et al., 2022). We repeated the experiment with the new construct
obtaining editing rates of $0.13\% \pm 0.12$ % using Ebu1 recombitron **(Fig 5e)**. This result highlights
the occasional need to optimize multiple elements involved in recombineering such as the
promoter, vector, and SSAP/SSB pairs in addition to the retron to obtain detectable editing in the
new species tested.
475
In contrast to *Streptococcus*, oligonucleotide recombineering has been previously used in
Mycobacterium (van Kessel and Hatfull, 2007; van Kessel and Hatfull, 2008). To edit *M.*
smegmatis mc^2 155, we used the pJV62 vector encoding mycobacteriophage Che9c gp61, recently
renamed as MspRecT (Wannier et al., 2021), to construct the recombitron plasmids. The 10 retron
operons were codon optimized and cloned upstream of the MspRecT with an engineered ncRNA
containing a donor to make a 5 bp deletion that knocks-out MSMEG_5894, a gene coding for
Mam4a protein which is essential for mycobacteriophage Brilliant infection (unpublished data).
Moreover, MSMEG_5894 knockout bacteria cannot grow on minimal medium (MM) plate with
cholesterol as the carbon source, giving multiple methods to quantify successfully edited colonies.
After transformation of the recombitron plasmids into *M. smegmatis,* single colonies were grown
in liquid culture until saturation followed by a 1:1000 dilution, induction with acetamide and
succinate and sample collection every 24 hours for 3 days. After 24 hours, we were able to detect
edited colonies in MM with cholesterol and colonies resistant to phage Brilliant infection
(Supplementary Fig 5d-e). In general, multiplexed sequencing results show that the highest editing
rates were achieved after 48 hours of induction and the top editor was the retron-Ebu1 recombitron
reaching 5.7 ± 1.3 % efficiency **(Fig 5f)**. Nevertheless, Ebu1 performance did not increase after
72 hours, directly correlating with a plateau in the OD_{600} of the culture, showing again that
recombitron editing is dependent on replication **(Fig 5g)**.
494

Figure 5 – Retron-mediated recombineering in *Bacillota* and *Actinomycetota*. a, Schematic of the phylogenetic tree from **Fig 1b**, highlighting the *Bacillota* and *Actinomycetota* classes. **b**, Top: Schematic of the dsDNA sequence of the targeted *rpoB* region of *L. reuteri* 6475 is shown aligned with amino acids residues specified by each codon. On the left the leading and lagging strand are indicated and below the retron RT-DNA donor with the single-point mutation that results in a rifampicin-resistant phenotype. The amino acid change (H488R) is listed on the right. Bottom: Schematic of the tow plasmid assay used for retron-mediated recombineering in *L. reuteri*. One plasmid encoded the retron RT and engineered ncRNA to edit rpoB gene in the pNZ9530 backbone and under the P_{suc} promoter. The other plasmid encoded the LrpRecT gene under the P_{orfx} promoter in the pSIP411 backbone **c**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a single-point mutation in *rpoB* (H488R) gene in *L. reuteri* in the absence or the presence of sucrose and inducing peptide with -Csp1 recombitron. The experiment was performed for 6 passage rounds. **d**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a single-point mutation in *rpoB* (H488R) gene in *L. reuteri* using a set of 3 recombitrons following single passage. In **c-d**, editing rates were calculated as % of rifampicin resistant colonies respect to total number of colonies in no- antibiotic plates **e**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in *purA* gene in *S. suis* P1/7 using -Ebu1 recombitron expressed under P_{Cas} or P_g promoters. **f**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in MSMEG_5894 gene in *M. smegmatis* MC^2 155 using the 10 recombitrons set. **g**, Quantification of precise genome in *M. smegmatis* after 24, 48 and 72 h of editing and correlation with cell growth state (OD_{600}) using -Ebu1 recombitron. **h**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion in beta-galactosidase gene in *C. acnes* KPA17202 using the 10 recombitrons set. In **d-h**, data were quantified by sequencing after 24, 48 or 72 hours of editing using Illumina NextSeq, circles show each of the three biological replicates (except in C. acnes in which only one or two biological replicates were performed), and errors bars are mean ± standard deviation.

Finally, we evaluated retron-mediated recombineering in *C. acnes* KPA171202, a bacterium in which only homologous recombination has been reported to date (Sörensen et al., 2010; Knödlseder et al., 2024). Recombitrons encoding the RT, a ncRNA with a donor to make a 4 bp deletion in a beta-galactosidase gene, and the CspRecT/EcSSB pair were cloned under the p1340 promoter in vector pBRESP36A (Jore et al., 2001). Since *C. acnes* is a slow-growing, anaerobic bacterium, the experiment experimental pipeline had to be adjusted. Selected colonies were replated and grown anaerobically for another 48h before being inoculated to a starting OD of 0.1, re-inoculating every 24h for a minimum of three passages. No editing was detected with any of the constructs after amplicon sequencing. To make recombitrons work in this host, we looked for the presence of *recT* genes in phage genomes infecting related bacteria. We found *recT* genes in *P. freudenreichii* phages Anatole and Doucette (Modlin et al., 2016a; Modlin et al., 2016b), that we named as AnaRecT and DouRecT, respectively (Supplementary Fig 5f). We constructed new plasmids for Eco1, Ban1 and Ebu1 recombitrons encoding AnaRecT or DouRecT coupled with *C. acnes* SSB (CaSSB). After the recombineering experiment was performed, the retron -Ebu1

530   recombitron combined with AnaRecT show a low recombineering efficiency around 0.01% for a
531   single replicate and **(Fig 5h)**. Thus, further efforts will be required to make recombitron technology
532   practical in *C. acnes*.
533
534
DISCUSSION
In this work we survey the portability and versatility of retron-mediated recombineering across
three different bacterial phyla and a total of 15 different species, demonstrating the capacity of this
novel technology to precisely edit prokaryotic genomes beyond the model organism *E. coli*. The
involvement of nine research labs to perform this comprehensive survey shows that coordinated
efforts can accelerate the development and spread of new genome editing tools, paving the road to
other labs to rapidly adopt a new technology worldwide, a process which normally takes many
years. Moreover, the distributed nature of the experiments across multiple sites further
demonstrates the portability of the approach not just across species, but across different
experimenters working under the slightly different experimental settings that occur across different
labs. Taking advantage of the strong background of every research lab in the species tested, we
show that recombitrons work in all of the hosts, with editing rates ranging from 0.01% to 98%
(Table 1). Furthermore, we also demonstrate that previous improvements made to recombitron
parts, such as extending the a1/a2 regions (Lopez et al., 2022), are also portable between species
leading to enhanced editing rates in some of the assessed organisms. Strikingly, recombineering
efficiencies above 40% were reached in *V. natriegens* and *S. oneidensis* with no additional
optimization, demonstrating that there are species where the technology is immediately ready for
deployment to answer biological questions.
553

Table 1 | Best retron editor in each host used in this study.

Species	SSAP	Best Retron	Retron Editing rate	Highest reported oligo AFR	oligo editing ref.
Escherichia coli	CspRecT	Kva1	97.4%	51%	Wannier et al., (2020)
Citrobacter freundii	CspRecT	Ebu1	21.9%	36%	Wannier et al., (2020)
Klebsiella pneumoniae	CspRecT	Eas1	22.2%	11%	Wannier et al., (2020)
Erwinia amylovora	CspRecT	Eas1	3.8%	ND	
Vibrio natriegens	CspRecT	Ban1	44.7%	ND	Lee et al., (2019)
Aeromonas hidrophyla	CspRecT	Eas1	25.7%	ND	
Shewanella oneidensis	CspRecT	Eco1	98.0%	5%	Corts et al., (2019)
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	PapRecT	Kva1	7.4%	15%	Wannier et al., (2020)
Pseudomonas putida	PapRecT	Eco1	0.2%	5.8	Aparicio et al., (2020)
Pseudomonas syringae	PapRecT	Kva1	0.7%	0.024%	Swingle et al., (2010)
Acinetobacter baylyi	CspRecT	Ban1	0.15%	ND	
Lactobacillus reuteri	LrpRecT (RecT1)	Lna1	0.10%	11%	van Pijkeren et al., (2012)
Streptococcus suis	CspRecT	Ebu1	0.13%	ND	
Mycobacterium smegmatis	MspRecT (gp61)	Ebu1	5.7%	0.3%	Filsinger et al., (2025)
Cutibacterium acnes	AnaRecT	ND	0.015%	ND	

554   ARF, allelic recombination frequency; ND, Not Determined
555

The results obtained in the present survey show that retron-mediated editing outperforms
oligonucleotide recombineering in five of the nine species where oligonucleotide recombineering
has previously been evaluated **(Table 1)**. We also show that recombitrons work in six new species
in which no recombineering technologies have been successfully demonstrated **(Table 1)**. In *C.*
freundii and *P. aeruginosa* recombineering rates were very similar to those reached using
oligonucleotides **(Table 1)**. However, oligo recombineering is clearly better in P. putida and L.
reuteri **(Table 1)**. We expect that additional fine-tuning of recombitron parts in these hosts would
enhance editing efficiency beyond oligonucleotides.

We observed low functional editing in one species, *C. acnes*, even with the use of phylogenetically
related SSAPs (AnaRecT and DouRecT)*,* signaling that broader efforts are needed in this species
to enable retron recombineering. In this regard, a recent study using a library screening approach
to test divergent SSAPs in 6 bacterial species has shown that the most effective SSAPs frequently
originated from phyla distinct from their bacterial hosts (Filsinger et al., 2025). Future efforts to
test a set of RecTs and retrons in parallel could facilitate the implementation of recombineering
tehcnologies in previously uncharacterized bacterial species.

Interestingly, the particular retron that led to the highest editing differed substantially across
species, highlighting the importance of testing several editors when a novel host is assayed **(Figure**
6). For instance, -Kva1 recombitron is the top performer in *E. coli*, but is not even close to the top
editor in the phylogenetically related *C. Freundii* and *K. pneumoniae* **(Fig 2d-f, Fig 6)**. In general,
retron -Kva1, -Ban1 and retrons belonging to clade 9 are the best performers in most bacteria **(Fig**
6).

580
Figure 6 – Summary of retron-mediated recombineering across the Bacteria domain. a, Heatmap depicting the absolute value
of retron-mediated recombineering efficiency in the 15 bacterial species tested. **b**, Heatmap depicting the value of retron-mediated

recombineering efficiency normalized to the best recombitron in each one of the bacterial species aasayed. In **a-b**, logarithmic scale
was used to show the compiled editing data from **fig 2-5** in a scale of greens (light green, low editing; dark green, high editing),
untested recombitrons were shown in grey color and no editing recombitrons were shown in white. On the left a tree indicates the
phylogenetic relationships of the bacterial species tested in the work. The retron clade (from Mestre et al., 2020) is shown above
of the retron names.

In *E. coli*, the first description of retron recombineering reported an editing rate of <0.1%
(Farzadfard et al., 2014), but since that time both the cell and the retron have been engineered to
achieve enhanced editing rates of >95% as reported here and in other contemporaneous studies
(Liu et al., 2023; Ni et al., 2024). These modifications include lengthening the a1-a2 regions in the
ncRNA (Lopez et al., 2022), inverting the origin of replication of the recombitron vector (Ni et al.,
2024), and pre-engineering the host to knock-out *recJ* and *sbcB* genes (Schubert et al., 2021). To
avoid host engineering which remain laborious and time-consuming, a CRISPRi strategy to
transiently knockdown *recJ* and *sbcB* genes has also been used to boost retron-mediated
recombineering in *E. coli* (Farzadfard et al., 2021). We expect that researchers working on the new
species in this work that have detectible, but low, editing rates will continue to develop the
technology to achieve such enhanced editing in their own chosen species.

It may be useful to contextualize retron recombineering in relation to other precise bacterial editing
technologies, highlighting which technology is best suited for different types of edits. For instance,
homologous recombination allows scarless and site-specific gene-size replacements, deletions or
insertions of DNA sequences (Hamilton et al., 1989). In combination with CRISPR-Cas9
counterselection, homologous recombination has enabled large modifications across a wide range
of bacterial species (Jiang et al., 2013; Mougiakos et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2020; Adalsteinsson
et al., 2021; Stukenberg et al., 2022). However, the counterselection that is necessary to make
homologous recombination efficient is often not practical to implement with smaller mutations
that often have no potential gRNAs in the region or only a very limited number, making
counterselection escape the most likely outcome. For single base substitutions, base editors—a
fusion of Cas9 nickase with an adenine or a cytidine deaminase—represent a powerful platform
with high efficiency in a variety of bacterial genomes (Tong et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2020; Volke
et al., 2020). However, the deaminase editors are limited to single base pair substitutions and
cannot make insertions and deletions, and additionally require a fortunate placement of both a
PAM motif and deamination target for precise editing, which is often not present. Retron
recombineering represents a versatile alternative to generate scarless modifications of moderate
size, from single-nucleotides to small gene-sized insertions, deletions, or replacements (Ellis et al.,
2001; Wang et al., 2009).

Retrons have been used not only for prokaryotic genome editing but also for other biotechnological
applications, including molecular recording, phage editing, transcription factor modulation, and
more. This work should also help these applications to be ported to a wider set of species. For
instance, retron-based molecular recorders (Farzadfard et al., 214; Battharai-Kline et al., 2022) in
enviromental or pathogenic bacteria could help researchers understand complex biological
processes by creating noninvasive sentinel cells in specific niches. Phage editing beyond
coliphages could accelerate the study and production of viral particles for phage therapy (Fishman
et al., 2023). Reprogrammed retron-derived DNA for allosteric transcription factor dynamic
regulation (Lee and Kim, 2023) could lead to advances in synthetic biology for modular, rapid,
and post-translational control of protein localization in different microbes. Therefore, this work
together with the previous effort to develop retron-based technologies should form a basis for the

deployment of new technologies not only for bacterial genome editing but also for broader
applications in a wide variety of bacterial species.
633

634 METHODS

635 Biological replicates were taken from distinct samples, not the same sample measured repeatedly.
636

Phylogenetic tree construction.
The organisms used in this work are listed in Supplementary Table 1. The genome sequence of these
organisms was obtained from the NCBI database, except for *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ATCC 10031 where
the genome was obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and *Erwinia amylovora* Eat8
where the genome was determined by in-house sequencing in the Koskella lab. For phylogenetic
comparison, the 16S sequences were extracted from the whole genomes and aligned using MAFFT (Katoh
and Standley, 2013) and the tree was constructed with FastTree 2 program (Price et al., 2010) with the
WAG evolutionary model, and the discrete gamma model with 20 rate categories.
645

Bacterial strains for cloning purposes
The *E. coli* strain used for cloning most plasmids used in this work was DH5α (New England Biolabs). To
avoid mutations in any of the recombitron parts, *E. coli* strain ABLE C (Agilent) was used to reduce the
copy number of p1340 vector (shuttle vector for *C. acnes*) by 4x fold. *E. coli* WM3064 strain (*thrB1004*
pro thi rpsL hsdS lacZΔM15 RP4–1360 Δ(araBAD)567 ΔdapA1341::[erm pir(wild type)]) (Saltikov and
Newman, 2003). The three strains were grown in LB medium (10 g l−1 tryptone, 5 g l−1 yeast extract and
5 g l−1 NaCl). Antibiotics were added as required (kanamycin, gentamycin, erythromycin and
chloramphenicol).
654

655 *Recombitron-tested bacterial strains*
656 All bacterial strains in which retron-mediated recombineering was evaluated are listed in Supplementary
657 Table 1. Growth conditions of the different bacterial species used in this work are described in the following
658 sections.
659

Plasmid construction
All the plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4, and a subset is available from
Addgene. Moreover, all the gBlocks (IDT) encoding the desired mutations for the retron-mediated
recombineering experiments are listed in Supplementary Table 5. All PCR amplifications step were carried
out with Q5-High Fidelity Master Mix (NEB). The plasmids used to test the optimized recombitron
architectures were based on previously published pAGD229 plasmid (Gonzalez-Delgado et al., 2024).
CspRecT was amplified from pORTMAGE-Ec1 vector (Wannier et al., 2020; Addgene #138474) and
cloned downstream of the Eco1 retron operon in pAGD230 to create pAGD383. A KLD reaction (NEB)
was used to replace T7 promoter with lac and J23115 promoters to generate pAGD439 and pAGD440
plasmids, respectively. The minimal recombitron operon (RT, retron ncRNA and CspRecT) encoded in
these plasmids was cloned into a pET21 (+) vector (Novagen) to create pAGD383 with pBR322 origin of
replication. To facilitate the description of the steps followed for the construction of plasmids to test the
portability of retron-mediated recombineering, we grouped bacterial species based on the parental plasmid
that was used to clone the set of 10 recombitrons.
674

Coliforms and environmental Gammaproteobacteria: In the seven bacterial species corresponding to
these groups all the plasmids constructed were based in pORTMAGE-Ec1 vector. In a previous work, this
vector was used to construct pAGD201 plasmid, which encodes Eco1 recombitron with dominant negative
EcMutLE32K (Gonzalez-Delgado et al., 2024). To test multi-base edits, 4-5 bp deletions or replacements,

the MutLE32K gene was replaced with EcSSB. EcSSB was amplified from the *E. coli* bMS.346 genome
and cloned into pAGD201 plasmid generating pAGD322 (Supplementary Table 4). The set of 10 retrons
used in this study (Supplementary Table 2) were individually amplified from plasmids constructed in a
previous work (Khan et al., 2024), and resulting amplicons were run in 2% E-Gel EX (Invitrogen). The 10
amplicon bands were purified together and cloned into pAGD322 backbone with the RSF1010 origin of
replication using a NEBuilder HiFi DNA assembly workflow (NEB). After transformation in the cloning
strain, multiple colonies were screened using Sanger Sequencing to find the 10 recombitrons plasmids. The
next step was using primers containing the SapI stuffer to amplify the newly constructed recombitrons.
Again, the 10 amplicons were purified together followed by a KLD reaction, whose product was used to
transform into the cloning strain. Multiple colonies were screened searching for stuffer-containing
recombitrons. For experiments in environmental Gammaproteobacteria species XylS/Pm system was
replaced with the lacI/P_{lac} system or J23115 constitutive promoter at this step using a Gibson Assembly
reaction. A one-pot Golden Gate reaction (Engler et al., 2008) was used to substitute the SapI stuffer with
the desired donor for each one of these hosts **(Fig 1e)**. An example of the method followed to clone a donor
in the SapI stuffer region of Eco1 ncRNA is detailed in Supplementary Fig 2. The Golden Gate reaction
was prepared in a volume of 20 µL as follows: 125 ng of SapI flanked donor (order as gBlock from IDT),
50 ng of a mix of the 10 recombitron plasmids from the previous step, 1.5 µL of SapI (NEB), 0.5 µL of T4
DNA ligase, 2 µL of T4 DNA ligase buffer and completed with 10 µL of H_2O. The reaction consists of 30-
60 cycles of 5 minutes at 37°C (for SapI) and 5 minutes at 16°C (for T4 DNA) ligase with a final step at
60°C for enzyme inactivation. 2-5 µL of the reaction were used to transform into cloning strain. Multiple
colonies were screened using Sanger sequencing to find donor-containing recombitrons that were ready for
performing the retron-mediated recombineering experiments.

***Pseudomonas* species:** plasmids used in the three *Pseudomonas* species tested in this work were based in
pORTMAGE-Pa1 vector (Wannier et al., 2020; Addgene #138475). Just like the preceding paragraph,
PaSSB was amplified from *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 chromosome and cloned in pORTMAGE-Pa1, replacing
PaMutLE36K to generate pAGD477 (Supplementary Table 4). The RT and SapI stuffer-containing ncRNA
generated for coliforms and environmental Gammaproteobacteria were amplified and cloned using a
Gibson Assembly approach upstream of the PapRecT gene to generated the set of recombitrons for
Pseudomonas species. After screening for the different recombitrons using Sanger Sequencing, the Golden
Gate reaction described in the preceding section was used to clone the desired donors for the experiments
in the three hosts.

***Acinetobacter baylyi*:** the full recombitron operons containing the SapI stuffer for coliforms and
environmental Gammaproteobacteria were cloned into pBW162 vector (Addgene #140632) downstream of
the trc promoter using a Gibson assembly reaction. The full set of recombitrons was verified using Sanger
or whole plasmid sequencing. The above-described Golden Gate reaction was performed to clone the donor
to edit *A. baylyi* into the retrons ncRNAs.

***Lactobacillus reuteri*:** For inducible LrpRecT expression, *L. reuteri* 6475 was transformed with
pVPL3017 (Cm^R) (Oh and van Pijkeren, 2014). The recombitrons were codon-optimized for *L. reuteri* and
synthesized (gBLOCK, IDT). Synthetic recombitrons were ligated with *L. reuteri* sucrose-inducible
promoter (P_{suc}) and inserted in pNZ9530 (Em^R) by Ligase Cycling Reaction (LCR) (de Kok et al., 2014).
The *L. reuteri* 6475 harboring pVPL3017 was directly transformed with LCR ligates (pNZ9530 containing
recombitron cassettes) to establish two plasmids retron system.

***Streptococcus suis*:** pSStarget vector (Gussak et al., 2023) was used as a backbone to clone the set of 10
recombitrons for *S. suis* experiments. The coliform-based recombitrons were cloned using Gibson
Assembly downstream of the pCas promoter replacing the Cas9 operon, the ccdAB toxin/antitoxin system
and the tetracycline resistance gene encoded in the parental vector. After sequencing verification, *S. suis*
donor was cloned in the SapI stuffer using the one-pot Golden Gate reaction previously described. Pg

promoter was order as gBlock (IDT) and cloned in the place of the Cas9 regulatory region in -Ebu1
recombitron (pLBL21) using Gibson Assembly to generate pLBL23 plasmid (Supplementary Table 4).
732
733 **Mycobacterium smegmatis:** pJV62 vector (Addgene #26910), which already encoded MspRecT, was used
734 to construct the recombitron plasmids for this host. Codon optimized gBlocks (Twist Bioscience) with the
735 set of 10 retron RTs with the ncRNA containing the donor to edit MSMEG_5894 were cloned into the
736 pJV62 vector downstream of the acetamidase inducible promoter using a Gibson Assembly reaction.
737
Cutibacterium acnes: pBRESP36A vector (Jore et al., 2001) was used as backbone to clone codon
optimized recombitrons. Codon optimized CspRecT and EcSSB were cloned downstream of the p1340
promoter using Gibson Assembly to create pAGD684 (Supplementary Table 4). Then, the 10 codon
optimized RTs with ncRNA containing a donor targeting the C. acnes beta-galactosidase gene were cloned
in pAGD684 upstream of the CspRecT/EcSSB pair. Codon optimized AnaRecT and DouRecT combined
with CaSSB were cloned into pBRESP36A vector using Gibson Assembly, generating pAGD735 and
pAGD738 plasmids, respectively. -Eco1, -Ban1 and -Ebu1 recombitrons were the recombitrons cloned
upstream of AnaRecT and DouRecT.
746
747
Electrotransformation of plasmids into bacterial species
Coliforms and **Pseudomonas putida:** The same electrotransformation protocol was used for *E. coli*
bMS.346, *C. freundii* ATCC 8090, *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 10031 and *P. putida* KT2440. 100 ml of these
four species were grown in LB medium at 37°C for coliforms and 30°C for *P. putida* until saturation. Cells
were put on ice for approximately 10 min, washed three times with cold water, and resuspended in $1/100^{th}$
culture volume of cold water. 0.1-1 µg of recombitrons plasmids were mixed with 100 µL cell aliquots for
15 minutes on ice. This mixture was transferred to a 0.2-cm gap cuvette and electroporated immediately
using a Gene Pulser (Bio-Rad) with the following settings: 2.5 kV, 200 Ω, 25 µF. Cultures were recovered
with LB or SOC media for 1 h at 37°C (30°C for *P. putida*), plated on LB-agar with the proper antibiotic
and grown overnight at the required temperature for each host.
758
759 **Pseudomonas aeruginosa:** 100 ml of *P. aeruginosa* was grown at 37°C until saturation. Cells were
760 centrifuged and washed three times at room temperature. A final washing step was made with 20% Sucrose
761 (Sigma-Aldrich) and the cells were resuspended in $1/100^{th}$ culture volume of room temperature water.
762 Mixture proportion and electroporation settings were the same used in the coliforms section. Cells were
763 recovered for 1 h at 37°C in LB media cells, plated in LB-gentamycin and grown overnight.
764
Acinetobacter baylyi: *A.baylyi* ADP1-ISx was grown overnight in 3 mL LB medium, at 30°C and 250 rpm
in a culture tube. The following day, 70 µL of this culture was added to 1 mL of fresh LB medium in a
culture tube and incubated for 3 h along with the recombitron plasmids. 250 ng of plasmid DNA added to
1 mL of culture was sufficient to obtain transformants. After the 3 h, 150 µL of the medium was plated on
25 µg/mL Kanamycin, spread with a cell spreader, and allowed to dry briefly before moving to the
incubator.
771
Lactobacillus reuteri: *L. reuteri* was grown in 10 mL MRS for 16 h at 37°C and sub-cultured (Initial
$OD_{600}=0.1$) in 40 mL pre-warmed MRS. Cell concentration at $OD_{600}=0.6$ was used for preparing electro-
competent cells by following previously established protocol (van Pijkeren and Britton, 2014). Plasmids or
LCR ligates were electroporated (2.5 kV, 25 µF, 400 Ohm, and 2 mm gap) into *L. reuteri* electro-competent
cell. Following 3 h recovery in 1 mL MRS, cells were plated on MRS-agar containing either 5 µg/mL
chloramphenicol for pVPL3017 or 5 µg/mL erythromycin for recombitron-pNZ9530 LCR ligates followed
by incubation in the hypoxic chamber (5% CO_2, 2% O_2, and N_2 balance).
779

Mycobacterium smegmatis: *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 was grown in 300 ml of 7H9 with ADC, CB (50 µg/ml),
CHX (10 µg/ml) and Tween 80 (0.05%) at 37°C until OD$_{600}$ was between 0.8 to 1. Cells were incubated on
ice overnight. Cells were then centrifuged at 2000 g and washed with ice-cold 10% glycerol with 0.05%
Tween 80 at 4°C three times. Finally, cells were resuspended in 1/125th culture volume of ice-cold 10%
glycerol with 0.01% Tween 80. 100 µl of the cells were mixed with a 0.15-0.35 µg recombitron plasmid in
an ice-cold 0.2-cm gap cuvette (Bio-Rad) followed by electroporation. Electroporation was done using an
ECM 630 Electro Cell Manipulator (BTX Harvard Apparatus) with the following settings: 2.5 kV, 1000 Ω,
25 µF. Cells were recovered in 900 µl of 7H9 with ADC and Tween 80 (0.05%) for 3 h at 250 rpm in 37°C.
Cells were then plated on 7H10 with ADC and Kanamycin (20 µg/ml) 3 d at 37°C for visible isolated
colonies.
790
Cutibacterium acnes: *C. acnes* KPA171202 was transformed as previously described (Knödlseder et al.,
2024). In short, *C. acnes* was inoculated to an OD of 0.1 and grown for 24h at 37 degrees, anaerobically,
110 rpm. After 24 hours, cells were treated with 10 ug/mL penicillinG and 0.4 M sucrose and incubated for
4 h more. Then, cells were spun down at 1,700g for 10 min at 4 ºC and washed with an equal volume of
EPB (272 mM sucrose, sterile-filtered) followed by a second spin under the same conditions. Cells were
resuspended in 1 ml of EPB and washed another five times at 9,400g for 1 min at 4 ºC. Then, the pellet was
resuspended in residual liquid. Competent cells were diluted 1:4 in EPB to a final volume of 50 ul, and
1000 ng of DNA was added to each sample. Cells were transferred to a precooled 0.1-cm electroporation
cuvette (Bio-Rad) and electroporated at 1.5 kV, 400 Ω and 25 uF. Cells were recovered in 100 ul of BHI
medium and plated on a Brucella agar plate without antibiotic selection. After 24 h of anaerobic incubation
at 37 ºC, cells were resuspended in 1 ml of BHI to remove remaining non-incorporated DNA, spun down
for 5 min at 1,700g and resuspended in 100 ul of BHI. Then, 100 ul of resuspended cells were plated on a
Brucella agar plate supplemented with 10 ug ml−1 erythromycin per plate. Transformants were obtained
following anaerobic incubation at 37 ºC for 7 days.
805
806
807 ***Conjugation of plasmids into bacterial species***
808
Erwinia amylovora and Pseudomonas syringae: Plasmids were transformed into chemically competent
cells of the conjugation donor strain WM3064 (prepared using ZymoResearch "Mix and Go!" Kit).
Conjugations were performed by washing donor cells in modified King's B supplemented with DAP twice,
then mixing approximately 1 OD of donor with 1 OD of recipient on 0.45-µm nitrocellulose filters
(Millipore) overlaid on modified King's B agar plates supplemented with DAP and incubated overnight.
Filters were collected and mixed with 1 mL modified King's B liquid, which was diluted and plated with
appropriate antibiotics.
816
Shewanella oneidensis, Vibrio natriegens **and** ***Aeromonas hydrophila***: Recombitron plasmids were first
transformed into *E. coli* WM3064 by electrotransformation. 10 ml of *E. coli* WM3064 was grown at 37°C
until saturation. Cells were centrifuged and washed three times with 10% glycerol at room temperature and
finally resuspended with 250 µl 10% glycerol. 0.1-1 µg of recombitrons plasmids were mixed with 33 µl
cell aliquots and transferred to 0.1-cm gap electroporation cuvettes and electroporated immediately at 1.8
kV for 5 ms. Cultures were recovered with 500 µl SOC media for 2 h at 37°C, plated on LB-agar with the
proper antibiotic and grown overnight at 37°C. For conjugation, 1 ml cultures of *E. coli* WM3064 harboring
different recombitron plasmids and 1 ml of *S. oneidensis* JG2150 were grown at 37°C and 30°C
respectively. 250 µl of each WM3064+recombitron culture was centrifuged and washed once with 500 µl
LB media. Cell pellets were resuspended with 150 µl JG2150 culture, and the entire volume of cells were
plated on LB-agar supplemented with 300 µM diaminopimelic acid and incubated for 8 h at 30°C. A lump
of cells were scooped and re-streaked onto LB-agar with the proper antibiotic (50 µg/ml kanamycin for *S.*
oneidensis and *A. hydrophila* and 100 µg/ml for *V. natriegens*) for single colonies and grown overnight at
30°C.

831
Introduction of plasmids into Streptococcus suis P1/7 by natural transformation

To make *S. suis* P1/7 competent, a nine amino acid peptide (GNWGTWVEE; GenScript) with ≥ 95% purity was used. The peptide was dissolved in DMSO at a final concentration of 5 mM, taking in consideration their specific purity. *S. suis* was grown overnight in THB broth (10g/l Beef Heart, Infusion, 20 g/l Peptic Digest of Animal Tissue, 2g/l Dextrose, 2g/l Sodium Chloride, 0.4 g/l Disodium Phosphate and 2.5 g/l Sodium Carbonate) at 37°C. Next day, a 1:40 dilution was made into pre-warmed medium, and grown at 37°C without shaking. When OD_{600} reached a value between 0.04-0.06, 100-µl samples were removed from the main culture, and 1-2 µg of recombitrons plasmids were added to the bacteria along with 5 µl of the peptide at a final concentration of 250 µM. After 2 hours of incubation at 37°C the samples were plated in THB or chocolate agar plates with chloramphenicol and grown for 24-48 hours.

843
Construction of Klebsiella pneumoniae ΔrecJ/ ΔsbcB strain
Oligonucleotide recombineering was used to construct the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ΔrecJ/ΔsbcB strain. 70 bp oligonucleotides with phosphorothioate bonds at both ends to protect against native exonucleases were designed to make knockouts in *recJ* and *sbcB* genes (Supplementary Table 6). *K. pneumoniae* cells containing pORTMAGE-Ec1 were grown overnight and next day cultures were diluted 1:100 and grown until $OD_{600} \sim 0.3$. At that point, SSAP expression was induced for 1 hour with 1 mM m-toluic acid. Cells were then prepared for transformation as described above and 50 µL of 10 µM of each oligo was added to electrocompetent cells. This mixture was transferred to an electroporation cuvette with a 0.2-cm gap and electroporated immediately using a Gene Pulser (Bio-Rad) with the following settings: 1.8 kV, 200 Ω, 25 µF. Cultures were recovered in LB media for 1 h and then 4 mL of LB with 1.25x fold kanamycin were added for outgrowth at 37°C for 3 hours. Dilutions of the cells were plated on LB-kanamycin and individual colonies were screened to detect the desired mutations. Briefly, 100 µL of 20-30 individual colonies were grown overnight. 25 µl of the culture was mixed with 25 µl of water and incubated at 95°C for 10 min. A volume of 1 µl of this boiled culture was used as a template in 25-µl reactions with primers flanking the edit site. Mutations in *recJ* and *sbcB* genes were verified using Sanger sequencing.

859
RT-DNA expression and gel analysis
Production and analysis of the engineered RT-DNA was performed similarly to a previous work (Khan et al., 2024). Briefly, recombitron plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* bMS346, *C. freundii* ATCC 8090, *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 10031 and *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 for expression. An individual colony was used to start a pre-inoculum that was grown overnight in 3 ml LB with the proper antibiotic. A 1:100 dilution of the saturated culture was grown in a flask with 25 ml of LB. The culture was grown for 2h at 37°C to reach OD_{600} between 0.4 and 0.6 and then induced with 1 mM m-toluic acid (Sigma-Aldrich). After 5 h, OD_{600} was measured and the culture was centrifuged at 4,000 rpm for 10 minutes, supernatant was discarded and bacterial pellet were collected for RT-DNA analysis. RT-DNA was recovered using a Qiagen Plasmid Plus Midi Kit and eluted into a volume of 150 µl. Volume of RT-DNA prep was adjusted based on bacterial OD, measured at the point of collection, to normalize the input before loading into Novex TBE–urea gels (15%; Invitrogen). The gels were run (45 min at 200 V) in a preheated (>75 °C C) TBE running buffer. Gels were stained with SYBR Gold (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and then imaged on a Gel Doc Imager (Bio-Rad). To quantify the amount of RT-DNA production relative to retron-Eco1, a retron-Eco1 expressing strain was included in every batch of culture grown, and the resulting prep was always run on the same gel as the experimental retron for quantification. The density of the band produced by each retron was quantified with ImageJ software.

877
Retron-mediated recombineering experiments

Once the distinct host cells were transformed with the specific protocol, experiments were conducted in 0.5
ml, deep 96-well plates or in either 3 ml or 10 ml in tubes with the appropriate media for each one the tested
bacterial species. For biological replicates, 3 individual colonies of every recombitron were used in this
study. Cells were grown until saturation at the required temperature for each organism. Next day, a 1:1000
dilution of the cultures was grown in the presence of the inducer (if required): 1mM of m-toluic acid (Sigma-
Aldrich) for plasmids regulated by the XylS/Pm system; 1 mM IPTG (GoldBio) for plasmids regulated by
the lacI/P_{lac} system; 50 mM sucrose (Sigma-Aldrich) and 20 ng/ml pSIP induction peptide
(MAGNSSNFIHKIKQIFTHR from Peptide 2.0 Inc) in mMRS (modified MRS without sugar) for inducing
P_{suc} and P_{orfx} in *L. reuteri*, respectively. Cultures were grown overnight for the specific time that a host
requires to reach saturation.
889
890 For genotyping and retron-mediated recombineering efficiency for *L. reuteri*, recombinant colonies grown
891 on MRS-agar containing 25 µg/ml rifampicin in the hypoxic chamber (24 h at 37°C) were screened by
892 colony-PCR using mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA)-PCR oligos (oVPL304, 305, and 306)
893 (van Pijkeren and Britton, 2012). The ratio of rifampicin-resistant colonies confirmed by MAMA-PCR per
894 total viable cells was used to calculate % recombineering efficiency.
895
For *M. smegmatis*, in a 50 ml baffled flask, 8 µl of a recombitron plasmid-carrying saturated culture was
used to inoculate 8 ml of 7H9 with succinate (0.2%), acetamide (0.2%), Kanamycin (20 µg/ml), and
Tween80 (0.05%). The inoculated medium was incubated at 37°C and 250 rpm. At 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h, a
1-1.5 ml sample was collected and OD600 measured. For the samples with low OD600, they were
concentrated by centrifugation and resuspended in much smaller volumes to increase cell density. The
subsequent steps are described in the above section starting from the part of a volume of 25 µl of culture.
902
For *C. acnes*, after 7 days of anaerobic incubation at 37 degrees, colony PCR of transformants was
performed to verify presence of plasmid DNA and re-streaked on a new Brucella agar plate supplemented
with 10 ug/mL erythromycin. After 48 h, transformants were inoculated in 10 mL BHI media in a 25 cm2
flask supplemented with erythromycin to an initial OD600 of 0,1 and grown for 24h, 37 degrees,
anaerobically, 110 rpm. A minimum of three passages was performed per colony by re-inoculating every
24h to OD600 of 0,1. Samples were taken after every passage and treated as described above.
909
Sequencing and editing rate quantification
For sequencing and editing quantification for all hosts used in this study, except *L. reuteri*, a volume of 25
µl of culture was collected just after the experiment that was mixed with 25 µl of water and incubated at
95°C for 10 min. A volume of 1 µl of this boiled culture was used as a template in 25-µl reactions with
primers flanking the edit site, which additionally contained adapters for Illumina sequencing preparation.
These amplicons were indexed using primers listed in Supplementary Table 6 and sequenced on an Illumina
NextSeq instrument and processed with custom pipeline to quantify the percentage of precisely edited
genomes.
918

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the lab of Joseph Bondy-Denomy for providing the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain
PAO1. We thank Professor Marcelo Gottschalt and Sonia Lacouture at University of Montreal for
providing the *Streptococcus suis* strain P1/7. We also thank the lab of Jerry M. Wells at
Wageningen University for supplying pSStarget vector. Work was supported by funding from the
National Science Foundation (MCB 2137692), the Gary and Eileen Morgenthaler Fund, the

Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation, and the Robert J Kleberg, Jr. and Helen C. Kleberg
Foundation. S.L.S. is a Chan Zuckerberg Biohub – San Francisco Investigator. Contributions made
by the Mutalik lab were made possible by the Biopreparedness Research Virtual Environment
(BRaVE) Phage Foundry at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory is based upon work supported
by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Biological & Environmental
Research under contract number DE-AC02-05CH11231 Contributions made by the van Pijkeren
lab were made possible by grant number R01AT011202 from the National Center for
Complementary and Integrative Health (NCCIH) at the National Institutes of Health. Its contents
are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of
NCCIH.
935

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.G.-D. and S.L.S. conceived the study, design the experimental procedure and centrally
coordinated the collaboration with the other labs. A.G.-D. cloned most plasmids used in this study,
other than plasmids used in *L. reuteri* experiments, which were cloned by J.-H.O, some plasmids
used in S. oneidensis, which were clone by Z.H., and those used in *S. suis* experiments which were
clone by L.B.L.. A.G.-D. performed all experiments with *E. coli*, *C. freundii*, *K. pneumoniae*, and
P. aeruginosa. M.S.J. performed all experiments with *E. amylovora* and *P. syringae*. M.C.W.
performed all experiments with *V. natriegens* and *A. hydrophila* and the experiment targeting *flgH*
gene in *S. oneidensis*. Z.Y. performed most experiments in *S. oneidensis* with some preliminary
results obtained by Y.L. A.G.-D. and Z.Y. performed all experiments in *P. putida*. H.S. performed
all experiments in *A. baylyi*. J.-H.O. performed all experiment in *L. reuteri*. L.B.L. performed all
the experiments in *S. suis*. C.-C.K. performed all the experiments in *M. Smegmatis*. N.K.
performed all experiments in *C. acnes*. V.A., J.A.G., M.G., G.F.H., B.K.K., B.K., V.K.M., J.P.P.,
and S.L.S. supervised the experiments in the distinct bacterial species. A.G.D. prepped samples
for NGS and ran the sequencing libraries. A.G.-D. analyzed the data. A.G.-D. and S.L.S. wrote the
manuscript with input from all authors.
952

COMPETING INTERESTS

954 The authors declare no competing interests.
955

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

957 Sequencing data associated with this study are available in the NCBI SRA (Bioproject
958 PRJNA1269658) http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/1269658

960
961

a

b

962
963 **Supplementary Figure 1 – Geographic distribution of the research lab involved in the recombitron portability project and**
964 **previous performance of the retrons used in this survey. a,** Map showing the Academic Institutions involved in this project and
965 the species assayed in each one of the research labs. **b,** Precise editing rate across retrons for bacterial genome recombineering.
966 Points show mean ± standard error of the mean for three biological replicates. The name of the 10 selected retrons is indicated.
967 Adapted from Khan et al., 2024.
968

Donor Design: considering the direction of replication is critical

Donor on plasmid should match the sequence of the genome going from 5'->3' in the direction of replication

* if replication direction is unknown either (i) use GC skew or (ii) test donors in both directions

Donors should be 70-90 bp, we recommend a 70 bp donor

Edits can be replacements, insertions, or deletions of 5-10 bp. Longer edits can work, but with lower efficiency

Recombitron for single base edits	Recombitron for small edits (≥3bp)

Cloning new donor into recombitron plasmid

Method 1: Change donor using a KLD (NEB) reaction

1.- Amplify using Q5 Hi Fidelity DNA polymerase and primers containing the new donor sequence (N) and desired mutation (X) in a 25ul reaction:

Primer F (5'->3'): XNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNGAATTCAGGAAACCCGTTTTTTCTG

Primer R (5'->3'): NNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNGAATTCAGGAAAACAGACAGTAACTC

* these primers are 60bp to enable quick, cheap synthesis from IDT

2.- Gel purify amplicon and use in a 5ul KLD reaction: 2.5ul KLD buffer, 0.5ul KLD reaction mix, 0.5ul purified amplicon

3.- Screen colonies for correct donor sequence using Sanger
Verify integrity of RT, RecT, mulL by whole-plasmid sequencing or additional Sanger

Inverted oligonucleotides
+
Q5 DNA polymerase

KLD

Method 2: Change donor using a gBlock and a Golden Gate (NEB) reaction

1.- Cloning the stuffer into the retron ncRNA following steps in Method 1:
Amplify using Q5 Hi Fidelity DNA polymerase and primers containing the stuffer sequence

SapI site
Primer F (5'->3'): CAACCTGTCCCTTACGAATAGCTCTTCACCCGAATTCAGGAAACCCGTTTTTTCTG
Primer R (5'->3'): AAGCTACAACGGCTCACACTCGCTCTTCACTTGAATTCAGGAAAACAGACAGTAACTC
SapI site

2.- Screen for the correct Stuffer sequence

3.- Order gBlock containing donor sequence (IDT):
GATTACATCATTCGACGCATACAGCTCTTCANNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNN
NNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNTGAAGAGCTGAGACCTAT

4.- Golden Gate Reaction: 5μL resuspended gBLock (125 ng); 1μL plasmid (50 ng); 2μL Buffer T4 DNA ligase (NEB); 1μL SapI (NEB); 0.5μL T4 DNA ligase (NEB); 10μL H2O

5.- Screen colonies for correct donor sequence using Sanger
Verify integrity of RT, RecT, mulL by whole-plasmid sequencing or additional Sanger

SapI SapI

SapI   Sap1

Golden Gate

Recombineering experiment

1. After transforming host with recombitron, outgrow from a colony for 6-16h at 37°C, shaking.
2. Dilute 1:1,000 into LB + antibiotic + inducer and grow overnight (16h) at 37°C, shaking.
   This step can be repeated multiple times to increase the editing rate.
3. Plate on LB without antibiotic and grow at 37°C. Screen colonies for the desired mutation
   Take care to place primers (at least one) outside the donor region to avoid amplifying the donor itself.

We typically culture cells for all steps in 500ul LB + antibiotic in deep 96-well plates, but any culture volume works.

969
970
971
972

Supplementary Figure 2 – Protocol to design, construct and assay a recombitron for genome editing.

Supplementary Figure 3 – Retron-mediated recombineering in coliforms. a, Uncropped gel from **Fig 2b**, showing RT-DNA
production from the set of 10 recombitrons in *E. coli*. **b**, Uncropped gel from **Fig 2c**, showing RT-DNA production from the set of
10 recombitrons in *C. freundii*. **c**, Uncropped gel from **Fig 2d**, showing RT-DNA production from the set of 10 recombitrons in *K.*
pneumoniae. **d**, Quantification of RT-DNA production by density, relative to retron-Eco1 in *E. coli*. **e**, Quantification of RT-DNA
production by density, relative to retron-Eco1 in *C. freundii*. **f**, Quantification of RT-DNA production by density, relative to retron-
Eco1 in *K. pneumoniae*. In **d-f**, Density of the band produced by each retron was quantified with ImageJ software. **g**, Quantification
of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *E. coli* using Pm, lac or J23115 promoter. **h**, Quantification
of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *C. freundii* using Pm, lac or J23115 promoter. **i**, Quantification
of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in the *lacZ* gene in *K. pneumoniae* using Pm, lac or J23115 promoter. In **g-i**, data
were quantified by sequencing after 24 h of editing using Illumina NextSeq, circles show each of the three biological replicates,
and errors bars are mean ± standard deviation.
986
987
988

Supplementary Figure 4 – Retron-mediated recombineering in *Pseudomonadales*. a, PAGE analysis of RT-DNA production in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. **b**, Quantification of RT-DNA production by density, relative to retron-Eco1 in *P. aeruginosa.* Density of the band produced by each retron was quantified with ImageJ software. **c**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion targeting the *phzM* gene in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 using the 10 recombitrons set with pBBR1 inverted origin of replication. **d**, Quantification of precise genome editing to make a 5 bp deletion in a non-essential intergenic region in *P. syringae* B728a using the 10 recombitrons set with pBBR1 inverted origin of replication. **e**, Comparison of precise genome editing to make a 4 bp deletion targeting a glycosyltransferase gene in *A. baylyi* sFAB6437 using recombitrons expressed from pWBW162 or RSF1010 backbone. In **c-e**, data were quantified by sequencing after 24 hours of editing using Illumina NextSeq, circles show each of the three biological replicates, and errors bars are mean ± standard deviation. Additional statistical details are presented in Supplementary Table 3.

for the PCR. Top: screen of 10 colonies with no recombitron induction. Bottom: screen of colonies with recombitron induction.
Wild type (WT) and mutant (H488R) bands are indicated with an arrow. **c**, Time course of the OD_{600} of wild type versus mutated
rpoB gene (H488R) cells. **d**, Minimal Media (MM) plates with glucose or cholesterol with 8 individual colonies of each one of the
10 recombitrons and a negative control (pJV62). No growth of colony 3 on MM with cholesterol indicates that cell was edited by
-Tsp1 recombitron. **e**, Quantification of genome editing by infecting with Mycobacteriophage Brilliant. Edited cells are resistant to
phage infection. The number of total colonies in the presence of buffer or the phage is indicated. The editing is represented by the
percentage of survivor colonies in the phage-seeded plates respect to total colonies in the buffer-seeded plates. **f**, MAFFT Sequence
alignment of 6 phylogenetically distinct RecT proteins, including AnaRecT and DouRecT used in *C. acnes* experiments. Sequence
shading shows residue conservation and similarity: white text on black background, 80% conserved; grey background, 60%
conserved. The alignment was performed using Geneious Prime software.
1018
1019
1020

REFERENCES

1. Gordon DR, Jaffe G, Doane M, Glaser A, Gremillion TM, Ho MD. Responsible governance of gene editing in agriculture and the environment. Nat Biotechnol. 2021 Sep;39(9):1055-1057. doi: 10.1038/s41587-021-01023-1.
2. Pixley KV, Falck-Zepeda JB, Paarlberg RL, Phillips PWB, Slamet-Loedin IH, Dhugga KS, Campos H, Gutterson N. Genome-edited crops for improved food security of smallholder farmers. Nat Genet. 2022 Apr;54(4):364-367. doi: 10.1038/s41588-022-01046-7
3. Li H, Yang Y, Hong W, Huang M, Wu M, Zhao X. Applications of genome editing technology in the targeted therapy of human diseases: mechanisms, advances and prospects. Signal Transduct Target Ther. 2020 Jan 3;5(1):1. doi: 10.1038/s41392-019-0089-y
4. Arroyo-Olarte RD, Bravo Rodríguez R, Morales-Ríos E. Genome Editing in Bacteria: CRISPR-Cas and Beyond. Microorganisms. 2021 Apr 15;9(4):844. doi: 10.3390/microorganisms9040844
5. Vento JM, Crook N, Beisel CL. Barriers to genome editing with CRISPR in bacteria. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol. 2019 Oct;46(9-10):1327-1341. doi: 10.1007/s10295-019-02195-1
6. Wannier TM, Ciaccia PN, Ellington AD, Filsinger GT, Isaacs FJ, Javanmardi K, Jones MA, Kunjapur AM, Nyerges A, Pal C, Schubert MG, Church GM. Recombineering and MAGE. Nat Rev Methods Primers. 2021;1:7. doi: 10.1038/s43586-020-00006-x
7. Datsenko KA, Wanner BL. One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in *Escherichia coli* K-12 using PCR products. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000 Jun 6;97(12):6640-5. doi: 10.1073/pnas.120163297.
8. Yu D, Ellis HM, Lee EC, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG, Court DL. An efficient recombination system for chromosome engineering in *Escherichia coli*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000 May 23;97(11):5978-83. doi: 10.1073/pnas.100127597
9. Ellis HM, Yu D, DiTizio T, Court DL. High efficiency mutagenesis, repair, and engineering of chromosomal DNA using single-stranded oligonucleotides. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2001 Jun 5;98(12):6742-6. doi: 10.1073/pnas.121164898
10. Mosberg JA, Lajoie MJ, Church GM. Lambda red recombineering in *Escherichia coli* occurs through a fully single-stranded intermediate. Genetics. 2010 Nov;186(3):791-9. doi: 10.1534/genetics.110.120782
11. Wannier TM, Nyerges A, Kuchwara HM, Czikkely M, Balogh D, Filsinger GT, Borders NC, Gregg CJ, Lajoie MJ, Rios X, Pál C, Church GM. Improved bacterial recombineering by parallelized protein discovery. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2020 Jun 16;117(24):13689-13698. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2001588117
12. Filsinger GT, Wannier TM, Pedersen FB, Lutz ID, Zhang J, Stork DA, Debnath A, Gozzi K, Kuchwara H, Volf V, Wang S, Rios X, Gregg CJ, Lajoie MJ, Shipman SL, Aach J, Laub MT, Church GM. Characterizing the portability of phage-encoded homologous recombination proteins. Nat Chem Biol. 2021 Apr;17(4):394-402. doi: 10.1038/s41589-020-00710-5
13. Wang HH, Isaacs FJ, Carr PA, Sun ZZ, Xu G, Forest CR, Church GM. Programming cells by multiplex genome engineering and accelerated evolution. Nature. 2009 Aug 13;460(7257):894-898. doi: 10.1038/nature08187

14. Ronda C, Pedersen LE, Sommer MO, Nielsen AT. CRMAGE: CRISPR Optimized MAGE Recombineering. Sci Rep. 2016 Jan 22;6:19452. doi: 10.1038/srep19452

15. Isaacs FJ, Carr PA, Wang HH, Lajoie MJ, Sterling B, Kraal L, Tolonen AC, Gianoulis TA, Goodman DB, Reppas NB, Emig CJ, Bang D, Hwang SJ, Jewett MC, Jacobson JM, Church GM. Precise manipulation of chromosomes in vivo enables genome-wide codon replacement. Science. 2011 Jul 15;333(6040):348-53. doi: 10.1126/science.1205822

16. Corts A, Thomason LC, Costantino N, Court DL. Recombineering in Non-Model Bacteria. Curr Protoc. 2022 Dec;2(12):e605. doi: 10.1002/cpz1.605

17. Millman A, Bernheim A, Stokar-Avihail A, Fedorenko T, Voichek M, Leavitt A, Oppenheimer-Shaanan Y, Sorek R. Bacterial Retrons Function In Anti-Phage Defense. Cell. 2020 Dec 10;183(6):1551-1561.e12. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2020.09.065

18. Gao L, Altae-Tran H, Böhning F, Makarova KS, Segel M, Schmid-Burgk JL, Koob J, Wolf YI, Koonin EV, Zhang F. Diverse enzymatic activities mediate antiviral immunity in prokaryotes. Science. 2020 Aug 28;369(6507):1077-1084. doi: 10.1126/science.aba0372

19. Mestre MR, González-Delgado A, Gutiérrez-Rus LI, Martínez-Abarca F, Toro N. Systematic prediction of genes functionally associated with bacterial retrons and classification of the encoded tripartite systems. Nucleic Acids Res. 2020 Dec 16;48(22):12632-12647. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkaa1149

20. Inouye S, Hsu MY, Eagle S, Inouye M. Reverse transcriptase associated with the biosynthesis of the branched RNA-linked msDNA in *Myxococcus xanthus*. Cell. 1989 Feb 24;56(4):709-17. doi: 10.1016/0092-8674(89)90593-x

21. Lim D, Maas WK. Reverse transcriptase-dependent synthesis of a covalently linked, branched DNA-RNA compound in E. coli B. Cell. 1989 Mar 10;56(5):891-904. doi: 10.1016/0092-8674(89)90693-4

22. Bobonis J, Mitosch K, Mateus A, Karcher N, Kritikos G, Selkrig J, Zietek M, Monzon V, Pfalz B, Garcia-Santamarina S, Galardini M, Sueki A, Kobayashi C, Stein F, Bateman A, Zeller G, Savitski MM, Elfenbein JR, Andrews-Polymenis HL, Typas A. Bacterial retrons encode phage-defending tripartite toxin-antitoxin systems. Nature. 2022 Sep;609(7925):144-150. doi: 10.1038/s41586-022-05091-4

23. Palka C, Fishman CB, Bhattarai-Kline S, Myers SA, Shipman SL. Retron reverse transcriptase termination and phage defense are dependent on host RNase H1. Nucleic Acids Res. 2022 Apr 8;50(6):3490-3504. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkac177

24. Carabias A, Camara-Wilpert S, Mestre MR, Lopéz-Méndez B, Hendriks IA, Zhao R, Pape T, Fuglsang A, Luk SH, Nielsen ML, Pinilla-Redondo R, Montoya G. Retron-Eco1 assembles NAD+-hydrolyzing filaments that provide immunity against bacteriophages. Mol Cell. 2024 Jun 6;84(11):2185-2202.e12. doi: 10.1016/j.molcel.2024.05.001.

25. Farzadfard F, Lu TK. Synthetic biology. Genomically encoded analog memory with precise in vivo DNA writing in living cell populations. Science. 2014 Nov 14;346(6211):1256272. doi: 10.1126/science

26. Schubert MG, Goodman DB, Wannier TM, Kaur D, Farzadfard F, Lu TK, Shipman SL, Church GM. High-throughput functional variant screens via in vivo production of single-stranded DNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2021 May 4;118(18):e2018181118. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2018181118.

27. Lopez SC, Crawford KD, Lear SK, Bhattarai-Kline S, Shipman SL. Precise genome editing across kingdoms of life using retron-derived DNA. Nat Chem Biol. 2022 Feb;18(2):199-206. doi: 10.1038/s41589-021-00927-y

28. Fishman CB, Crawford KD, Bhattarai-Kline S, Poola D, Zhang K, González-Delgado A, Rojas-Montero M, Shipman SL. Continuous multiplexed phage genome editing using recombitrons. Nat Biotechnol. 2024 Sep 5:10.1038/s41587-024-02370-5. doi: 10.1038/s41587-024-02370-5

29. Liu W, Zuo S, Shao Y, Bi K, Zhao J, Huang L, Xu Z, Lian J. Retron-mediated multiplex genome editing and continuous evolution in Escherichia coli. Nucleic Acids Res. 2023 Aug 25;51(15):8293-8307. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkad607

30. González-Delgado A, Lopez SC, Rojas-Montero M, Fishman CB, Shipman SL. Simultaneous multi-site editing of individual genomes using retron arrays. Nat Chem Biol. 2024 Nov;20(11):1482-1492. doi: 10.1038/s41589-024-01665-7

31. Liu W, Pan Y, Zhang Y, Dong C, Huang L, Lian J. Intracellularly synthesized ssDNA for continuous genome engineering. Trends Biotechnol. 2024 Nov 12:S0167-7799(24)00293-2. doi: 10.1016/j.tibtech.2024.10.011

32. Khan AG, Rojas-Montero M, González-Delgado A, Lopez SC, Fang RF, Crawford KD, Shipman SL. An experimental census of retrons for DNA production and genome editing. Nat Biotechnol. 2024 Sep 17:10.1038/s41587-024-02384-z. doi: 10.1038/s41587-024-02384-z

33. Ni Y, Wang Y, Shi X, Yu F, Ruan Q, Tian N, He J, Wang X. Reducing competition between msd and genomic DNA improves retron editing efficiency. EMBO Rep. 2024 Dec;25(12):5316-5330. doi: 10.1038/s44319-024-00311-6

34. Jiang PX, Wang HS, Xiao S, Fang MY, Zhang RP, He SY, Lou K, Xing XH. Pathway redesign for deoxyviolacein biosynthesis in *Citrobacter freundii* and characterization of this pigment. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2012 Jun;94(6):1521-32. doi: 10.1007/s00253-012-3960-0

35. Metsoviti M, Zeng AP, Koutinas AA, Papanikolaou S. Enhanced 1,3-propanediol production by a newly isolated *Citrobacter freundii* strain cultivated on biodiesel-derived waste glycerol through sterile and non-sterile bioprocesses. J Biotechnol. 2013 Feb 20;163(4):408-18. doi: 10.1016/j.jbiotec.2012.11.018

36. Ramos-Vivas J, Chapartegui-González I, Fernández-Martínez M, González-Rico C, Barrett J, Fortún J, Escudero R, Marco F, Linares L, Nieto J, Aranzamendi M, Muñoz P, Valerio M, Aguado JM, Chaves F, Gracia-Ahufinger I, Paez-Vega A, Martínez-Martínez L, Fariñas MC. Adherence to Human Colon Cells by Multidrug Resistant Enterobacterales Strains Isolated From Solid Organ Transplant Recipients With a Focus on *Citrobacter freundii*. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2020 Sep 16;10:447. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2020.00447

37. Chen XB, Zhou YX, Feng Y. *Citrobacter freundii* induces sepsis with new-onset status seizure in an adult: A case report and literature review. Medicine (Baltimore). 2023 Jan 6;102(1):e32549. doi: 10.1097/MD.0000000000032549

38. Tommasi R, Brown DG, Walkup GK, Manchester JI, Miller AA. ESKAPEing the labyrinth of antibacterial discovery. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2015 Aug;14(8):529-42. doi: 10.1038/nrd4572

39. Tang M, Kong X, Hao J, Liu J. Epidemiological Characteristics and Formation Mechanisms of Multidrug-Resistant Hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Front Microbiol. 2020 Nov 20;11:581543. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2020.581543

40. Tesson F, Hervé A, Mordret E, Touchon M, d'Humières C, Cury J, Bernheim A. Systematic and quantitative view of the antiviral arsenal of prokaryotes. Nat Commun. 2022 May 10;13(1):2561. doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-30269-9

41. Bonn, W.G.; van der Zwet, T. Distribution and economic importance of fire blight. In Fire Blight: The Disease and Its Causative Agent, *Erwinia amylovora*; Vanneste, J.L., Ed.; *CAB International: Wallingford*, CT, USA, 2000; pp. 37–53

42. Van der Zwet, T.; Orolaza-Halbrendt, N.; Zeller, W. Fire Blight: History, Biology, and Management; *APS Press: St. Paul*, MN, USA, 2012

43. Weinstock MT, Hesek ED, Wilson CM, Gibson DG. *Vibrio natriegens* as a fast-growing host for molecular biology. Nat Methods. 2016 Oct;13(10):849-51. doi: 10.1038/nmeth.3970

44. Janda, J. M., and Abbott, S. L. (2010). The genus *Aeromonas*: taxonomy, pathogenicity, and infection. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 23, 35–73. doi: 10.1128/CMR.00039-09

45. Schwartz K, Borowiak M, Strauch E, Deneke C, Richter MH; German *Aeromonas* Study Group. Emerging *Aeromonas* spp. infections in Europe: characterization of human clinical isolates from German patients. *Front Microbiol.* 2024 Dec 18;15:1498180. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2024.1498180

46. Hau H.H. and Gralnick J.A. (2007) Ecology and biotechnology of the genus *Shewanella*. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 61, 237–258 10.1146/annurev.micro.61.080706.093257

47. Muñoz-Cupa C., Hu Y., Xu C. and Bassi A. (2021) An overview of microbial fuel cell usage in wastewater treatment, resource recovery and energy production. *Sci. Total Environ.* 754, 142429 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.142429

48. Yang E., Omar Mohamed H., Park S.G., Obaid M., Al-Qaradawi S.Y., Castao P.et al. (2021) A review on self-sustainable microbial electrolysis cells for electro-biohydrogen production via coupling with carbon-neutral renewable energy technologies. *Biores. Technol.* 320, 124363 10.1016/j.biortech.2020.124363

49. Corts, A. D., Thomason, L. C., Gill, R. T. & Gralnick, J. A. Efficient and Precise Genome Editing in Shewanella with Recombineering and CRISPR/Cas9-Mediated Counter-Selection. ACS Synth. Biol. 8, 1877–1889 (2019).

50. Swingle B, Bao Z, Markel E, Chambers A, Cartinhour S. Recombineering using RecTE from *Pseudomonas syringae*. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2010 Aug;76(15):4960-8. doi: 10.1128/AEM.00911-10

51. Aparicio T, Nyerges A, Martínez-García E, de Lorenzo V. High-Efficiency Multi-site Genomic Editing of *Pseudomonas putida* through Thermoinducible ssDNA Recombineering. iScience. 2020 Mar 27;23(3):100946. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2020.100946

52. Asin-Garcia E, Garcia-Morales L, Bartholet T, Liang Z, Isaacs FJ, Martins Dos Santos VAP. Metagenomics harvested genus-specific single-stranded DNA-annealing proteins improve and expand recombineering in *Pseudomonas* species. Nucleic Acids Res. 2023 Dec 11;51(22):12522-12536. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkad1024

53. Elliott KT, Neidle EL. *Acinetobacter baylyi* ADP1: transforming the choice of model organism. IUBMB Life. 2011 Dec;63(12):1075-80. doi: 10.1002/iub.530

54. Angeletti S, Cella E, Prosperi M, Spoto S, Fogolari M, De Florio L, Antonelli F, Dedej E, De Flora C, Ferraro E, Incalzi RA, Coppola R, Dicuonzo G, Francescato F, Pascarella S, Ciccozzi M. Multi-drug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* nosocomial strains: Molecular epidemiology and evolution. Microb Pathog. 2018 Oct;123:233-241. doi: 10.1016/j.micpath.2018.07.020

55. Sriramulu D. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: An Armory Within BoD – Books on Demand. 2019

56. Loeschcke A, Thies S. *Pseudomonas putida*-a versatile host for the production of natural products. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2015 Aug;99(15):6197-214. doi: 10.1007/s00253-015-6745-4

57. Martínez-García E, de Lorenzo V. Molecular tools and emerging strategies for deep genetic/genomic refactoring of *Pseudomonas*. Curr Opin Biotechnol. 2017 Oct;47:120-132. doi: 10.1016/j.copbio.2017.06.013

58. Xin XF, Kvitko B, He SY. *Pseudomonas syringae*: what it takes to be a pathogen. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2018 May;16(5):316-328. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro.2018.17

59. Santala S, Santala V. *Acinetobacter baylyi* ADP1-naturally competent for synthetic biology. Essays Biochem. 2021 Jul 26;65(2):309-318. doi: 10.1042/EBC20200136

60. Biggs BW, Bedore SR, Arvay E, Huang S, Subramanian H, McIntyre EA, Duscent-Maitland CV, Neidle EL, Tyo KEJ. Development of a genetic toolset for the highly engineerable and metabolically versatile *Acinetobacter baylyi* ADP1. Nucleic Acids Res. 2020 May 21;48(9):5169-5182. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkaa167

61. Bryksin AV, Matsumura I. Rational design of a plasmid origin that replicates efficiently in both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. PLoS One. 2010 Oct 8;5(10):e13244. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0013244

62. Mu Q, Tavella VJ, Luo XM. Role of *Lactobacillus reuteri* in Human Health and Diseases. Front Microbiol. 2018 Apr 19;9:757. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2018.00757

63. Yu Z, Chen J, Liu Y, Meng Q, Liu H, Yao Q, Song W, Ren X, Chen X. The role of potential probiotic strains *Lactobacillus reuteri* in various intestinal diseases: New roles for an old player. Front Microbiol. 2023 Feb 2;14:1095555. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2023

64. Wertheim HF, Nghia HD, Taylor W, Schultsz C. *Streptococcus suis*: an emerging human pathogen. Clin Infect Dis. 2009 Mar 1;48(5):617-25. doi: 10.1086/596763. PMID: 19191650

65. Fredriksen S, Neila-Ibáñez C, Hennig-Pauka I, Guan X, Dunkelberger J, de Oliveira IF, Ferrando ML, Correa-Fiz F, Aragon V, Boekhorst J, van Baarlen P, Wells JM. *Streptococcus suis* infection on European farms is associated with an altered tonsil microbiome and resistome. Microb Genom. 2024 Dec;10(12):001334. doi: 10.1099/mgen.0.001334

66. Sparks IL, Derbyshire KM, Jacobs WR Jr, Morita YS. *Mycobacterium smegmatis*: The Vanguard of Mycobacterial Research. J Bacteriol. 2023 Jan 26;205(1):e0033722. doi: 10.1128/jb.00337-22

67. Mayslich C, Grange PA, Dupin N. *Cutibacterium acnes* as an Opportunistic Pathogen: An Update of Its Virulence-Associated Factors. Microorganisms. 2021 Feb 2;9(2):303. doi: 10.3390/microorganisms9020303

68. Cros MP, Mir-Pedrol J, Toloza L, Knödlseder N, Maruotti J, Zouboulis CC, Güell M, Fábrega MJ. New insights into the role of *Cutibacterium acnes*-derived extracellular vesicles in inflammatory skin disorders. Sci Rep. 2023 Sep 25;13(1):16058. doi: 10.1038/s41598-023-43354-w. Erratum in: Sci Rep. 2023 Nov 8;13(1):19411. doi: 10.1038/s41598-023-45727-7. Erratum in: Sci Rep. 2024 Feb 6;14(1):3027. doi: 10.1038/s41598-024-53555-6

69. van Pijkeren JP, Britton RA. High efficiency recombineering in lactic acid bacteria. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012 May;40(10):e76. doi: 10.1093/nar/gks147

70. Risøen PA, Brurberg MB, Eijsink VG, Nes IF. Functional analysis of promoters involved in quorum sensing-based regulation of bacteriocin production in *Lactobacillus*. Mol Microbiol. 2000 Aug;37(3):619-28. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2958.2000.02029.x

71. Pavan S, Hols P, Delcour J, Geoffroy MC, Grangette C, Kleerebezem M, Mercenier A. Adaptation of the nisin-controlled expression system in *Lactobacillus plantarum*: a tool to study in vivo biological effects. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2000 Oct;66(10):4427-32. doi: 10.1128/AEM.66.10.4427-4432.2000

72. Oh JH, van Pijkeren JP. CRISPR-Cas9-assisted recombineering in *Lactobacillus reuteri*. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42(17):e131. doi: 10.1093/nar/gku623.

73. Cha RS, Zarbl H, Keohavong P, Thilly WG. Mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA): application to the c-H-ras gene. PCR Methods Appl. 1992 Aug;2(1):14-20. doi: 10.1101/gr.2.1.14

74. Gussak A, Ferrando ML, Schrama M, van Baarlen P, Wells JM. Precision Genome Engineering in *Streptococcus suis* Based on a Broad-Host-Range Vector and CRISPR-Cas9 Technology. ACS Synth Biol. 2023 Sep 15;12(9):2546-2560. doi: 10.1021/acssynbio.3c00110

75. Zaccaria E, van Baarlen P, de Greeff A, Morrison DA, Smith H, Wells JM. Control of competence for DNA transformation in *Streptococcus suis* by genetically transferable pherotypes. PLoS One. 2014 Jun 26;9(6):e99394. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0099394

76. Zhang L, Zou W, Ni M, Hu Q, Zhao L, Liao X, Huang Q, Zhou R. Development and Application of Two Inducible Expression Systems for *Streptococcus suis*. Microbiol Spectr. 2022 Aug 31;10(4):e0036322. doi: 10.1128/spectrum.00363-22.

77. van Kessel JC, Hatfull GF. Recombineering in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Nat Methods. 2007 Feb;4(2):147-52. doi: 10.1038/nmeth996

78. van Kessel JC, Hatfull GF. Efficient point mutagenesis in mycobacteria using single-stranded DNA recombineering: characterization of antimycobacterial drug targets. Mol Microbiol. 2008 Mar;67(5):1094-107. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2008.06109.x

79. Sörensen M, Mak TN, Hurwitz R, Ogilvie LA, Mollenkopf HJ, Meyer TF, Brüggemann H. Mutagenesis of Propionibacterium acnes and analysis of two CAMP factor knock-out mutants. J Microbiol Methods. 2010 Nov;83(2):211-6. doi: 10.1016/j.mimet.2010.09.008

80. Knödlseder N, Fábrega MJ, Santos-Moreno J, Manils J, Toloza L, Marín Vilar M, Fernández C, Broadbent K, Maruotti J, Lemenager H, Carolis C, Zouboulis CC, Soler C, Lood R, Brüggemann H, Güell M. Delivery of a sebum modulator by an engineered skin microbe in mice. Nat Biotechnol. 2024 Nov;42(11):1661-1666. doi: 10.1038/s41587-023-02072-4

81. Jore, J. P., van Luijk, N., Luiten, R. G., van der Werf, M. J. & Pouwels, P. H. Efficient transformation system for *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* based on a novel vector. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 67, 499–503 (2001).

82. Modlin RL, Cheng LS, Marinelli LJ, Grosset N, Gautier M, Fitz-Gibbon S, Pellegrini M, Bowman CA, Russell DA, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull GF. Propionibacterium phage Doucette, complete genome - Nucleotide - NCBI. 2016. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/1072745899.

83. Modlin RL, Cheng LS, Marinelli LJ, Grosset N, Gautier M, Fitz-Gibbon S, Pellegrini M, Bowman CA, Russell DA, Jacobs-Sera D, Hatfull G. Propionibacterium phage Anatole, complete genome - Nucleotide - NCBI. 2016. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/1072745723.

84. Farzadfard F, Gharaei N, Citorik RJ, Lu TK. Efficient retroelement-mediated DNA writing in bacteria. Cell Syst. 2021 Sep 22;12(9):860-872.e5. doi: 10.1016/j.cels.2021.07.001

85. Hamilton CM, Aldea M, Washburn BK, Babitzke P, Kushner SR. New method for generating deletions and gene replacements in Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol. 1989 Sep;171(9):4617-22. doi: 10.1128/jb.171.9.4617-4622.1989

86. Jiang W, Bikard D, Cox D, Zhang F, Marraffini LA. RNA-guided editing of bacterial genomes using CRISPR-Cas systems. Nat Biotechnol. 2013 Mar;31(3):233-9. doi: 10.1038/nbt.2508

87. Walker JE, Lanahan AA, Zheng T, Toruno C, Lynd LR, Cameron JC, Olson DG, Eckert CA. Development of both type I-B and type II CRISPR/Cas genome editing systems in the cellulolytic bacterium *Clostridium thermocellum*. Metab Eng Commun. 2019 Nov 28;10:e00116. doi: 10.1016/j.mec.2019.e00116

88. Mougiakos I, Mohanraju P, Bosma EF, Vrouwe V, Finger Bou M, Naduthodi MIS, Gussak A, Brinkman RBL, van Kranenburg R, van der Oost J. Characterizing a thermostable Cas9 for bacterial genome editing and silencing. Nat Commun. 2017 Nov 21;8(1):1647. doi: 10.1038/s41467-017-01591-4

89. Adalsteinsson BT, Kristjansdottir T, Merre W, Helleux A, Dusaucy J, Tourigny M, Fridjonsson O, Hreggvidsson GO. Efficient genome editing of an extreme thermophile, Thermus thermophilus, using a thermostable Cas9 variant. Sci Rep. 2021 May 5;11(1):9586. doi: 10.1038/s41598-021-89029-2

90. Stukenberg D, Hoff J, Faber A, Becker A. NT-CRISPR, combining natural transformation and CRISPR-Cas9 counterselection for markerless and scarless genome editing in *Vibrio natriegens*. Commun Biol. 2022 Mar 25;5(1):265. doi: 10.1038/s42003-022-03150-0

91. Tong Y, Whitford CM, Robertsen HL, Blin K, Jørgensen TS, Klitgaard AK, Gren T, Jiang X, Weber T, Lee SY. Highly efficient DSB-free base editing for streptomycetes with CRISPR-BEST. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2019 Oct 8;116(41):20366-20375. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1913493116

92. Xia PF, Casini I, Schulz S, Klask CM, Angenent LT, Molitor B. Reprogramming Acetogenic Bacteria with CRISPR-Targeted Base Editing via Deamination. ACS Synth Biol. 2020 Aug 21;9(8):2162-2171. doi: 10.1021/acssynbio.0c00226

93. Volke DC, Martino RA, Kozaeva E, Smania AM, Nikel PI. Modular (de)construction of complex bacterial phenotypes by CRISPR/nCas9-assisted, multiplex cytidine base-editing. Nat Commun. 2022 May 31;13(1):3026. doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-30780-z.

94. Bhattarai-Kline S, Lear SK, Fishman CB, Lopez SC, Lockshin ER, Schubert MG, Nivala J, Church GM, Shipman SL. Recording gene expression order in DNA by CRISPR addition of retron barcodes. Nature. 2022 Aug;608(7921):217-225. doi: 10.1038/s41586-022-04994-6

95. Lee, G. & Kim, J. Engineered retrons generate genome independent protein-binding DNA for cellular control. Preprint at bioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.09.27.556556 (2023).

96. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. Mol Biol Evol. 2013 Apr;30(4):772-80. doi: 10.1093/molbev/mst010

97. Price MN, Dehal PS, Arkin AP. FastTree 2--approximately maximum-likelihood trees for large alignments. PLoS One. 2010 Mar 10;5(3):e9490. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0009490

98. Engler C, Kandzia R, Marillonnet S. A one pot, one step, precision cloning method with high throughput capability. PLoS One. 2008;3(11):e3647. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0003647.

99. de Kok S, Stanton LH, Slaby T, Durot M, Holmes VF, Patel KG, Platt D, Shapland EB, Serber Z, Dean J, Newman JD, Chandran SS. Rapid and reliable DNA assembly via ligase cycling reaction. ACS Synth Biol. 2014 Feb 21;3(2):97-106. doi: 10.1021/sb4001992

100.　　Saltikov CW, Newman DK. 2003. Genetic identification of a respiratory arsenate reductase. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100:10983–10988. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1834303100.